Biogenic and Abiotic Carbonates in Altered Oceanic Crust (AOC) and Implications to Subduction Zone Carbon Cycle

by

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Abstract

Altered oceanic crust (AOC) is an important carbon reservoir for subduction-zone carbon recycling. However, the character of the carbon reservoir (e.g., total budget and isotopic signatures) in AOC has not been well constrained. Here, based on analyses of contents and isotope compositions of 73 DSDP/ODP/IODP samples (22 pillow basalts, 7 sheeted dikes, 22 gabbros and 22 peridotites) and 7 gabbro samples from the Oman Ophiolite, we show that carbonates in gabbros and peridotites were all precipitated at near surface low temperature conditions instead of being precipitated at their corresponding depths in the deeper oceanic crust, and thus cannot represent the true values of the lower oceanic crust sections. Our modeling yielded a new value for carbon input flux in AOC of 1.3×10^{12} moles C/year, which is only 30-60% of previous estimates. We also observed that carbonate in some oceanic crust segments, such as the Cocos plate (ODP/IODP Site 1256D) and the Southwest Indian Ridge (ODP Site 735B), is predominately biogenic in origin with weighted average δ^{13} C values of -20.4‰ to -6.3‰. If such AOC is subducted and provides a carbon source for diamond formation, the diamond can inherit the "organic"-like δ^{13} C values but maintain normal mantle $\delta^{15}N$ values. This may provide an alternative explanation for the decoupled $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ signatures in some eclogitic diamonds.

Preface

Oman gabbro samples in this study were provided by Dr. Graham Pearson at the University of Alberta. Other altered oceanic crust samples were provided by IODP Kochi Core Center (KCC) in Japan, IODP Bremen Core Repository (BCR) in Germany, and IODP Gulf Coast Repository (GCR) in Texas. The author was responsible for sample preparation (e.g., sawing, crushing and weighing) and data collection (carbonate quantification and isotopic measurements), and modeling.

Carbon and oxygen isotope analysis of altered basalt, sheeted dike, gabbro and peridotite samples were conducted in Dr. Long Li's Stable Isotope Laboratory at the University of Alberta in 2016-2017.

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1. General Introduction

Carbon (C) uptake by alteration of oceanic crust in form of carbonate minerals makes altered oceanic crust (AOC) an important carbon reservoir, with quantity at the same order of marine sediments (Alt and Teagle, 2003; Staudigel et al., 1989), in the geological carbon cycle (Brady and Gíslason, 1997; Francois and Walker, 1992). As hydrothermal fluid comes into contact with oceanic crust, basaltic glass, olivine, and sometimes plagioclase tend to be altered, releasing cations, such as Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Fe^{2+} (Gudbrandsson et al., 2011; Wolff-Boenisch et al., 2006). A significant portion of the cations leached from oceanic basement rocks either enter fluid phase as free ions or are incorporated into secondary minerals that replace groundmass phases and fill pore space (fractures, vesicles, vugs), such as smectite, chlorite and albite (Humphris and Thompson, 1978; Seyfried Jr, 1987; Staudigel et al., 1981). Carbonate minerals are precipitated via cations $(Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, etc.)$ bound with carbonate anions in circulating seawater (Fig. 1). Whether these carbonate minerals precipitate continuously as the oceanic crust rafts away from mid-ocean ridge (Alt and Teagle, 1999) or most of them (\sim 90%) form within \sim 20Ma after crustal accretion (Coogan et al., 2016) is still controversial. However, either continuous or rapid precipitation of carbonate undoubtedly leads to the carbonation of oceanic crust, which is eventually transported into subduction zones. Within subduction zones, the ultimate fate of carbonate minerals in altered oceanic crust is controlled by decarbonation, dissolution, redox transition or melting processes (Galvez et al., 2013; Gorman et al., 2006; Kelemen and Manning, 2015; Kerrick and Connolly, 2001b; Pan et al., 2013; Rohrbach and Schmidt, 2011; Thomson et al., 2016). Theoretical modelling by Kerrick and Connolly (2001b) and Molina and Poli (2000)

indicates that the degree of decarbonation is limited in cold and intermediate-geotherm subducting slabs, implying deep subduction of carbon. These carbonate minerals may mainly exist as Mg-rich carbonate minerals as a slab descends, such as dolomite and magnesite (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Merlini et al., 2012; Poli et al., 2009). However, Pan et al. (2013) and Facq et al. (2014) show that carbonate can be soluble in subduction zone aqueous fluids. Theoretical calculation by Kelemen and Manning (2015) suggests that almost all of the subducted carbonate is transferred to lithospheric mantle and crust by carbonate dissolution. Besides carbonate dissolution, some carbon stabilizing processes can also occur in subduction zones. For example, reduction of carbonate minerals into graphite during redox transition (e.g., at the contact of mafic-ultramafic rocks) may provide a mechanism to facilitate the transportation of surficial carbon into deeper mantle (Galvez et al., 2013). Moreover, theoretical modeling by Rohrbach and Schmidt (2011) indicates that carbonates may be reduced into elemental carbon or carbides by iron metal at depths greater than 250 km, where (Fe, Ni)-metal phase may be stable (Rohrbach et al., 2007). In addition to redox control on the behavior of subducted carbonate, carbonate retained in oceanic crust may also enter melt phase as carbonatitic melt within the transition zone, and its return to the shallow depth due to low density may in turn hinder the subduction of carbonates to the lower mantle (Li et al., 2017). Studies on the refractory mantle mineral diamond show that its carbon isotopic ratio (δ^{13} C) can be deviated from the main mantle range. Some diamonds are enriched in ¹³C (δ ¹³C > 0‰), compared with the main mantle range (-5±3‰) (Cartigny et al., 2014), which is taken as a direct evidence for deep recycling of sedimentary carbonate minerals ($\delta^{13}C \sim 0\%$) (Palot et al., 2012; Palot et al., 2014; Stachel et al., 2002). Some diamonds are depleted in ¹³C with δ^{13} C as low as -40‰, which has been attributed to the recycling of sedimentary organic carbon (Tappert et al., 2005; Walter et al., 2011). Both

marine carbonate-like and organic carbon-like δ^{13} C values in diamonds indicate deep subduction of surficial carbon during the geological history, which is consistent with previous and recent modeling work that subduction of surficial carbon plays a critical role in influencing the deep carbon cycle (Duncan and Dasgupta, 2017; Kerrick and Connolly, 2001a, b). However, carbon isotopic signatures of diamonds distinct from the mantle range have also been attributed to mantle heterogeneity and/or high temperature isotope fractionation (Cartigny, 2005). The conflicting results from experimental investigations, theoretical calculations and field studies exemplify the current strong debate on whether or not crustal carbon can be transported to the deep mantle. However, the majority of the previous studies consider sediment as the major crustal carbon reservoir. The carbon content and carbon isotopic characteristics of altered oceanic crust have not been well constrained due to our limited knowledge on it.

So far, most of our understanding on the mechanisms of C uptake by AOC is built on analysis of basaltic samples (mostly recovered by DSDP/ODP/IODP drillings) (Alt and Teagle, 1999; Gillis and Coogan, 2011; Staudigel et al., 1989), which are most available compared with other lithologies of oceanic crust (i.e., gabbro, sheeted dike, and peridotite). A number of previous oxygen isotope studies on carbonate veins in altered basalts indicate that C uptake by AOC is mainly at low temperatures (T) of 0-60 ºC (Fig. 2A), despite a small number of carbonate veins in serpentinized peridotites showing much lower $\delta^{18}O$ values corresponding to alteration T as high as 235 ºC (Alt and Shanks, 2003; Bach et al., 2011) (Fig. 2B). The relative contribution of high-T alteration and low-T weathering to the overall C budget in AOC is still poorly constrained. This is mainly attributed to (1) limited availability of high-T AOC samples and (2) unpaired analyses of C concentrations and isotopic compositions for most of the studied AOC samples. The lack of this key understanding severely prevents the modeling of the carbon

budget of the entire oceanic crust at a global scale. So far, samples from deeper sections of oceanic crust (i.e., gabbro, sheeted dike, and peridotite) are relatively rare and not well studied. The constraints on C budgets in these lower sections (Kelemen and Manning, 2015), where seawater alteration occurs mainly at relatively high T (>100°C) (Staudigel, 2003), relied on a few ODP/IODP drill core samples taken from lower oceanic crust sections tectonically uplifted to near surface (Cannat et al., 1992; Cannat et al., 1995). Thinner oceanic crust induced by poor magma supply and amagmatic extension of large-scale long-lived detachment faults facilitates the exposure of these lower crust/uppermost mantle rocks (Bonatti, 1976; Cannat, 1996; Francheteau et al., 1990; Tucholke and Lin, 1994; Tucholke et al., 1998). For example, exposure of gabbroic rocks from Site 735B at the ultraslow spreading Southwest Indian Ridge is a result of poor magmatic supply and development of a detachment fault (Ildefonse et al., 2007). Lack of melt at the propagator tip of the Cocos-Nazca plate leads to the uplift of peridotite rocks at Site 895 (Francheteau et al., 1990). Hart et al. (1994) and Blusztain and Hart (1996) showed that most carbonate veins in these rocks gave high $\delta^{18}O$ values up to ~35‰, indicating very low-T C uptake (\leq 14 °C), likely occurring at near surface localities after their emplacement rather than at their initial depths. However, whether the bulk carbonate (the data used for modeling the carbon budget) in these rocks is mostly low T in origin is still not known. Therefore, whether the measured C concentrations in gabbro and serpentinite samples recovered by DSDP/ODP/IODP drillings from the topmost oceanic crust are representative of those of the lower sections of oceanic crust for C budget estimate requires further test.

In this thesis, I present a detailed examination on concentrations as well as C and O isotopic compositions of bulk-rock carbonate in representative oceanic crust samples, including altered basalt, gabbro and peridotite. The result indicates that C uptake by AOC mainly occurs during low temperature weathering processes. Based on these data, I propose a new model to estimate the C budget of oceanic crust.

2. Sample Description and Analytical Methods

2-1 Sample Description

In this study, I examined 73 shallow (0.7-1,501 meters below seafloor) AOC samples (22 pillow basalts, 7 sheeted dikes, 22 gabbros and 22 peridotites) recovered by DSDP/ODP/IODP drill cores from the Pacific, Atlantic and Indian oceans (Fig. 3), as well as 7 relatively fresh gabbro samples from the Oman Ophiolite.

Basalt samples are from ODP/IODP Hole 1256D and DSDP 543A. ODP/IODP Hole 1256D is in the crust of East Pacific Rise that was formed in \sim 15 Myr ago, with a superfast spreading rate of 200-220 mm/year (Fig. 3). The hole penetrated 1507 m below seafloor (mbsf), including lavas (276-1004 mbsf), transition zone (1004-1061 mbsf), the underlying sheeted dike complex (1061-1407 mbsf), and gabbroic rocks (1407-1507 mbsf) (Wilson et al., 2006). Site 1256 recovered nearly the entire section of sediment, including a clay rich layer (0-40.6 mbsf) and a carbonate layer (40.6-250.7 mbsf). δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values of these carbonate samples range from -1.4‰ to 2.8‰ and from 28‰ to 32‰, respectively (Jiang et al., 2007). The alteration temperature is relatively low (50-125°C) in the upper lavas, and increases to 185°C at the base of the lava (Alt et al., 2010). An oxygen isotope study of vein minerals suggests a stepwise temperature increase from lava top to transition zone, which is associated with mixing between downwelling low-T seawater and upwelling high-T hydrothermal fluid (Alt et al., 2010). The secondary minerals formed by alteration of lava are dominated by saponite + pyrite, plus minor amounts of late carbonate and zeolites. The lack of oxyhydroxide alteration halos indicates a reducing alteration condition which may be related to the restriction of downwelling flow by capping of massive ponded lava (Alt et al., 2010). The transition zone and sheeted dikes are characterized by greenschist and sub-greenschist minerals in rocks and veins, with temperature greater than 200 °C. Chlorite is a major alteration phase above \sim 1300 mbsf, but amphibole becomes dominant below this depth. The plutonic gabbroic rocks are variably altered, with clinopyroxene in the plutonic rocks extensively being replaced by amphibole and granular magnetite. Plagioclase is generally only slightly altered to albite-oligoclase. Olivine is variably altered to smectite, chlorite, talc, magnetite (Alt et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2006).

Hole 543A is located on the Atlantic abyssal plain (Fig. 3**)**, at 3.5km seaward of the deformation front of the Barbados Ridge complex, which was formed by the westward subduction of the Atlantic plate beneath the Caribbean plate at a subduction rate of 20 mm/year. The Campanian $(\sim 87$ Ma) basaltic substratum was reached at 411 m sub-bottom and drilled down to 455 m in Hole 543A (Shipboard Scientific Party., 1984). Sediment of Hole 543A mainly composes of ashy mud, ashy nannofossil mud and claystone (Shipboard Scientific Party., 1984). Some planktonic foraminifer recovered from Site 543 show $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values from 0‰ to 3‰ and from 29‰ to 31‰, respectively (Oberhansli and Hemleben, 1984). The recovered 35.9 m basalts appear to be exclusively constituted by pillows. The alteration of the pillow lava can be divided into three stages. The first stage is dominated by the formation of celadonite, ironhydroxide and some clay minerals, indicating an oxidative alteration. The second stage is dominated by non-oxidative pyrite precipitation and the latest stage is represented by the formation of calcite filling in the fractures and inter pillow space (Natland et al., 1984).

Gabbro samples are from Hole 735B and the Semail Ophiolite in Oman. Hole 735B, covered by thin sediment, is located at the top of a shallow uplifted Atlantis Bank, along a transverse ridge at the Atlantis II Transform Fault in the ultraslow-spreading Southwest Indian Ridge (Fig. 3**)**. The hole extends to 1508 m into the 11.5-my-old gabbroic oceanic crust, which is exposed to seafloor by long-lived detachment faulting at the northern ridge-transform intersection (Dick et al., 1991). Hole 735B is mainly made up by \sim 76% of olivine gabbro suite, including olivine gabbro, troctolitic gabbro, and troctolite, and \sim 24% of differentiated gabbros, oxide gabbros, and felsic veins (Natland and Dick, 2002). The alteration and deformation degrees decrease with increasing depth in Hole 735B. High-T axial alteration mainly concentrates in the uppermost 300 m to 500 m of Hole 735B and off-axis low-T alteration is more intense in the lower 1000 m (Alt and Bach, 2001). Late stage carbonate veins, associated with phyllosilicates and iron oxyhydroxide, are most concentrated in the 500-600 mbsf interval, indicating low T oxidative alteration by seawater (Alt and Bach, 2001). $\delta^{18}O$ values of carbonate veins from 735B are consistent with the mineralogy, indicating a low T signature (Hart et al., 1994).

The Semail Ophiolite, which has an emplacement age of 96 – 94 Ma (Searle and Cox, 1999; Tilton et al., 1981), is considered to be formed at either the Tethyan Mid-Ocean Ridge via Cretaceous spreading in the Hawasina ocean basin (Gregory and Taylor, 1981; Tilton et al., 1981), or at a spreading center above a subduction zone associated with subduction of the Arabian oceanic crust (Dilek and Furnes, 2014; Goodenough et al., 2014; Searle and Cox, 1999). The stratigraphic section of the \sim 15 km Semail Ophiolite includes pillow lava (\lt 700m thick), 1 to 2 km diabase dike complex, 1 km non-cumulate gabbro (upper gabbro), 3-5 km cumulate gabbro (lower layered gabbro), followed by the underlying mantle peridotite (Gregory and Taylor, 1981; Kelemen et al., 1997). The metamorphic facies of the Semail Ophiolite vary from zeolite facies in the upper basaltic rocks to amphibolite facies in the upper gabbro. The alteration

minerals in the lower gabbro layer are very fine and only visible under a microscope, suggesting that the alteration degree is not intense (Gregory and Taylor, 1981). However, the ^{18}O -depletion of these rocks indicates they are highly altered by fluid (Gregory and Taylor, 1981). Overall, the well preserved igneous textures in the ophiolite sequence denote that hydrothermal metamorphism is static (Gregory and Taylor, 1981).

Peridotite samples are from Holes 920D, 1271A/B, and 1274A. Hole 920D is located in the 2 km wide western median valley wall of the Mid Atlantic Ridge (MAR) and nearly 30 km south of the Kane Transform (MARK) (Shipboard Scientific Party., 1995) (Fig. 3**)**. Gabbroic rocks and peridotite (<1-Ma-old**)** are exposed near seafloor localities by lithospheric extension along a detachment fault (Karson and Lawrence, 1997). The 95.08 m recovered rocks from Hole 920D are dominantly serpentinized peridotite (95%), among which 87% is harzburgite and the remainder is dunite and lherzolite. The remaining 5% of the recovered rocks are mainly metamorphosed and deformed gabbroic rocks (Shipboard Scientific Party., 1995). The recovered rocks from Site 920 display 75%-100% alteration and are characterized by extensive development of mesh-textured serpentine and minor amounts of talc, amphibole and chlorite, with carbonate minerals formed during the latest generation of veining (Dilek et al., 1997). Serpentinization temperature of \sim 350 $^{\circ}$ C was estimated by oxygen isotope fractionation between serpentine and magnetite (Agrinier and Cannat, 1997). However, carbonate vein $\delta^{18}O$ values from 920D show large variation from 1 to 235°C (Alt and Shanks, 2003).

Sites 1271 and 1274 were drilled on the western wall of the axial valley north (Site 1274) and south (Site 1271) of the 15°20'N Fracture Zone at the MAR during ODP Leg 209 (Fig. 3**)**. Uppermost mantle peridotites and lower crustal gabbros are exposed by crustal thinning along long-lived low-angle detachment fault (Alt et al., 2007). Holes 1271A and 1271B recovered a mixture of ultramafic and mafic lithologies. Hole 1271A was drilled on a slope covered by thin sediment and penetrated 44.8 m into basement rocks. Approximately 5 m serpentinized peridotite was recovered, with altered dunite as the predominant lithology. Dunite is extensively replaced by serpentine and magnetite, and noticeable amounts of brucite are present in some cores. Some intervals exhibit effects of low-temperature seafloor alteration and oxidation (Fe-oxyhydroxides). Hole 1271B was drilled 74 meters southwest of Hole 1271A, and penetrated 103.6 m into a complex association of altered peridotite and gabbroic rocks. Dunite accounts for 56% in the 16 m recovered rocks, with the remaining consisting of 9% harzburgite and 35% gabbroic rocks. Black serpentine + magnetite veins are the dominant vein type in Hole 1271B, forming anastomosing networks. Other vein minerals comprise of talc, carbonate, amphibole, and minor chlorite, epidote, iron oxide, and clay. Below \sim 50 mbsf, mafic rocks intruded and infiltrated the ultramafic rocks, and experienced syn-deformational hydrothermal alteration to amphibolite (Shipboard Scientific Party., 2004).Hole 1274A penetrated 156 m into basement rocks and recovered 34 m rocks comprised of 77% serpentinized harzburgite, 20% dunite, and 3% gabbro. The uppermost 90 m are affected by oxidative seawater alteration, forming centimeter-wide halos (Fe-oxyhydroxide) along carbonate veins. Systematic downhole increase of alteration degree to nearly 100% serpentinization is probably associated with large faults in the lower hole section (Shipboard Scientific Party., 2004). The lower half of the hole is completely altered (>95 vol% secondary minerals) to brucite + serpentine + magnetite (Shipboard Scientific Party., 2004). Studies on Li-Sr isotope of 1271A/B and 1274A samples suggest the temperature of fluid-rock interaction is 350-400°C. However, late stage low-T aragonite precipitation indicates that carbonate minerals were mainly precipitated from ambient seawater at near seafloor localities (Bach et al., 2011).

2-2 Analytical Methods

The carbonates in AOC samples were quantified and measured for C and O isotopes by a Gasbench II system coupled with a Thermo Fisher MAT 253 isotope-ratio spectrometer (IRMS) at the University of Alberta.

Prior to sample analysis, I carefully evaluated potential oxidation of organic matter (if there is any) in the samples by H_3PO_4 acids. Several sets of testing experiments were carried out by (1) reacting varying amounts of H_3PO_4 acids with fixed amounts of samples, (2) reacting fixed amounts of H3PO⁴ acid with varying amounts of samples, (3) reacting fixed amounts of H3PO⁴ acids with fixed amounts of samples for varying reacting times. The results show no variations in either carbonate concentrations or isotopic compositions, indicating no significant CO² from oxidation of organic matter during carbonate extraction.

For most of the AOC samples, $50 - 1500$ mg whole rock powders (depending on the in organic carbon concentration) were loaded into a glass vial. A highly pure helium stream was then introduced into the vial to remove the air. After flushing, $0.1 - 1.0$ ml 100% phosphoric acid was injected into the tube to react with the powder at 72 °C for 3 hours. Samples with mass greater than 200 mg in the vials were shaken gently after acid injection in order to ensure complete reaction between acid and powders. The produced $CO₂$ was then sent by a helium stream to the IRMS to measure C and O isotope compositions. During a running sequence, two NBS-18 international standards and two lab standards (LSC-1) were measured at the beginning, middle and end of the sequence to monitor data quality and long term performance of instrument. The C and O isotopic compositions are reported as δ notation relative to VPDB and VSMOW,

respectively. Carbonate in the sample was quantified using the CO₂ peak area. Analytical uncertainties are 0.2‰ for both $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$, and 2% for C concentrations.

3. Results and Discussion

3-1 Positive Correlation Between Carbon and Oxygen Isotopes

 δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values of carbonate in altered basalt, sheeted dike, gabbro and peridotite are listed in Table 1 and plotted in Fig. 4.

For altered basalts (Fig. 4A), our new data from sites 504A and 1256D generally overlap with previously published data (Alt, 2003; Furnes et al., 2001; Furnes and Staudigel, 1999; Torsvik et al., 1998). Overall, the basalts show large isotopic variations from -19.7‰ to 4.6‰ for δ^{13} Ccarbonate and from 8.3‰ to 36.5‰ for δ^{18} Ocarbonate with a positive linear trend between δ^{13} C carbonate and δ^{18} O carbonate values. This positive trend can be explained by two models. The first model assumes that carbonate and seawater reached O isotope equilibrium. Consequently, the large $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ variation points to carbonate deposition at a variety of T conditions from 0~220 °C, and the correlated $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ variation (as low as -19.7%) can be explained as a result of enhanced hydrothermal degradation of organic matter (OM) at elevated T. However, OM decomposition generally requires relatively high temperatures (>150°C) together with efficient mineral catalysis (Mango and Elrod, 1999; Mango and Hightower, 1997). Such high-T hydrothermal systems generally occur in or near mid-ocean ridges, where carbonate is less likely to precipitate in an acidic environment due to the OM oxidation (Froelich et al., 1979). Furthermore, very few high-T carbonate veins have been observed in AOC so far and the few veins interpreted to originate at high-T show δ^{13} C values above ~0‰ instead of organic-like signature (Alt and Shanks, 2003; Bach et al., 2011). Organic matter is depleted in high-T on axis hydrothermal system relative to off-axis low-T hydrothermal systems (Lang et al., 2006). Thus, progressive hydrothermal degradation of OM at elevated T is an unlikely mechanism to explain the correlated decrease in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$.

Instead, the obvious decoupling of $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values between bulk rock and carbonate vein (Fig. 5) indicates the occurrence of strongly ¹³C- and ¹⁸O-depleted amorphous carbonate in the sample. The linear trend in Fig. 4A can be better explained by a mixing model between two end-members. The upper end-member, characterized by $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ values similar to marine sedimentary carbonate, has been widely observed in previous studies and explained to be formed by seawater inorganic C precipitation during low-T alteration of basalts (Coggon et al., 2004). This end-member is referred to as "normal carbonate" hereafter. The other end-member, which is represented by some basaltic samples from sites 396B, 896A, and 1256D and characterized by strong depletions in ¹³Ccarbonate and ¹⁸Ocarbonate, could be possibly explained by biological effect. Furnes et al. (2001) proposed that the extremely low- $\delta^{13}C$ carbonate in basaltic samples was a product of bio-alteration of basalts, in which organic matter oxidation results in the 13 C-depleted carbonate. This mechanism can easily explain the extremely low δ^{13} Ccarbonate values but has difficulties in explaining the low δ^{18} Ocarbonate values. In order to reconcile the low $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ data, those authors (Furnes et al., 2001; Torsvik et al., 1998) have to invoke complicated conditions combining hydrothermal fluids that had $\delta^{18}O$ values shifted from seawater and a high-T condition for bio-alteration.

This difficulty has now been solved by recent laboratory experiments (Thaler et al., 2017), which show that δ^{18} O values of biogenic carbonates can display 18 O depletion by 16-25‰ relative to normal carbonate in equilibrium with ambient water (Kim and O'Neil, 1997). Assuming that the carbonate veins with seawater carbonate-like $\delta^{13}C$ (~0‰) and $\delta^{18}O$ (~32‰)

values are precipitated at isotope equilibrium with seawater with $\delta^{18}O = 0\%$ (Fig. 5), the oxygen isotope difference between bulk rock carbonate and carbonate veins at each site varies from 0‰ to 27‰. The largest isotope difference between bulk rock carbonate and carbonate veins of each sites ranges from 14‰ to 27‰, consistent with a range from 16.0‰ to 24.7‰ observed in the experiments by Thaler et al. (2017). Experimental work by Mortimer and Coleman (1997) also suggests that biogenic siderites produced by Fe(III) reducing microorganisms show obvious ^{18}O depletion of up to 10‰, and natural siderites in banded iron formation (BIF) show $18O$ depletion of up to 9‰ (Heimann et al., 2010). Mortimer and Coleman (1997) did not give a specific explanation for oxygen isotope disequilibrium in the experiment, but Heimann et al. (2010) attributed the low $\delta^{18}O_{\text{siderite}}$ values to the contribution of ^{18}O -depleted oxygen from ironhydroxide during dissimilatory iron reduction (DIR) processes. As noted by Thaler et al. (2017), the oxygen isotope disequilibrium between DIC and water in their experiments may be inherited from the kinetic isotope effect associated with $CO₂$ hydration/hydroxylation (hydration: $CO₂$ + $H_2O = HCO_3$ ⁻ + H⁺; hydroxylation: $CO_2 + OH = HCO_3$ ⁻), which have long been regarded as important factors for oxygen isotope disequilibrium in some biological carbonates (McConnaughey, 1989a, b; McConnaughey, 2003; Rollion-Bard et al., 2003). For example, Rollion-Bard et al. (2003) attributed the micrometer scale $\delta^{18}O$ depletion in corals up to 10‰ to CO₂ hydration/hydroxylation. Isotopic mass balance calculation implies that $\delta^{18}O$ values of HCO₃ produced by CO₂ hydration and hydroxylation at 19°C are 27.5‰ and 13.8‰, respectively. The significant ¹⁸O depletion of HCO₃ relative to the equilibrium δ^{18} O values (34.3‰ at 19 °C) indicates kinetic effects associated with $CO₂$ hydration/hydroxylation may indeed be a critical step leading to ^{18}O -depletion in either biological carbonates or microbially induced carbonates. In addition, Thaler et al. (2017) also proposed that the microbially induced

carbonation process, which leads to remarkable oxygen isotopic disequilibrium, may be more common in the natural system.

Two conditions favor biogenic carbonate production. The first is a confined space to facilitate the preservation of disequilibrium isotope signature (Thaler et al., 2017). A confined space may be more developed in oceanic crust with low porosity, where hydrothermal circulation is restricted (Stein and Stein, 1994). Therefore, biogenic affected DIC with ¹⁸O-depletion is less likely to be diluted by seawater, and this in turn favors the precipitation of carbonate depleted in ¹⁸O. The widespread low- $\delta^{18}O$ biogenic carbonates at Sites 1256D and 735B, where average porosities are remarkably low (2% to 4%), further suggest that altered oceanic crust may be an optimal place to preserve biogenic carbonate.

The second is a relatively high local pH to facilitate rapid precipitation of carbonate before oxygen isotope reaches equilibrium with ambient water (Thaler et al., 2017). The pH of water can influence (i) carbonate speciation: hydroxylation is favourable at higher pH, and thus leads to stronger ¹⁸O-depletion relative to hydration as a result of the low $\delta^{18}O$ values of OH, which can be 38.5‰ lower than that of H_2O at 25°C (Thornton, 1962). (ii) the rate of isotope equilibrium between DIC and water: oxygen isotopic equilibrium between DIC and water at high pH needs time orders magnitude longer than that of intermediate to low pH. For example, it requires 12h at $pH = 9$ and 1h at $pH = 7$ at 25°C to reach O isotopic equilibrium between DIC and water (Rollion-Bard et al., 2003; Watkins et al., 2013). Relatively higher local pH can in turn lead to the short residence time of DIC. Therefore, ¹⁸O-depleted carbonate is favourable when local pH is relatively high. During hydrothermal alteration of oceanic crust, pH is mainly controlled by water-rock interaction (Seyfried Jr, 1987). In the water-dominated system with high water/rock ratio of >50 , the period of $H⁺$ production is prolonged due to incorporation of

seawater Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Na^{+} into secondary minerals and leaving H⁺ in fluid, leading to a steady acidic conditions with pH around 6 (Seyfried Jr, 1987). Under rock dominated conditions, hydrolysis of silicate minerals results in the consumption of H^+ , generating a relatively high pH environment facilitating precipitation of ¹⁸O-depleted carbonates. Most importantly, similar to coral cells in which pH can be regulated by the activity of Ca-ATPase, which controls the exchange between Ca^{2+} and H⁺ and thus leads to higher pH in the calcifying fluid within cells (McConnaughey, 2003; Rollion-Bard et al., 2003), bacteria may also adjust their calcifying fluid pH and thus provide a more favourable condition for the precipitation of ^{18}O -depleted carbonates (Sumner, 2001; Visscher et al., 1998).

Besides a confined space and a relatively high local pH, biological activity in altered oceanic crust is also expected to play an essential role in the formation of biogenic carbonate. The common bio-alteration texture in altered basaltic samples indicates a deep biosphere including both autotrophic and heterotrophic bacteria (Furnes et al., 2008; Furnes and Staudigel, 1999). Autotrophic bacteria in the altered oceanic crust can supply substantial OM feeding these heterotrophic bacteria (Bach and Edwards, 2003), and the latter may utilize oxygen, sulfate or nitrate to oxidize organic matter and produce carbonate minerals (Castanier et al., 1999). Experimental studies show that carbonate minerals can precipitate during the metabolic process of sulfate-reducing bacteria (Van Lith et al., 2003). Moreover, previous studies have shown that the sulfate reduction process is able to contribute up to 50% to the OM mineralization in marine sediments (Jorgensen et al., 1992). In addition, carbonates accumulated within micritic laminae of stromatolites have long been regarded as a result of microbial process, especially sulfatereducing process (Visscher et al., 2000; Visscher et al., 1998). So far, microbial sulfate reducing processes have been observed in low-T weathering of altered basaltic rocks and peridotite (<150

ºC) (Alford et al., 2011; Alt and Shanks, 2003, 2011), supporting an environment favoring biogenic carbonate production.

Taking into account all these factors discussed above, the strong ^{18}O depletion coupled with extremely low $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ values observed in altered basalts, such as those from Site 1256D, can be best explained by an biogenic origin from heterotrophic bacteria.

Sheeted dike and gabbro samples also show large variations in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ values (Fig. 4B) overlapping those of basalts (Fig. 4A). Sheeted dikes from 1256D and 504B have a $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ range from -24.1‰ to 4.7‰ and a $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ range from 11.4‰ to 34.0‰ (Table 1). Gabbro samples from 1256D and 735B have a $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ range of -22.6‰ to 1.7‰ and a $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ range from 12.5‰ to 32.3‰. A positive linear trend between $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ values that resembles that of altered basalts is also observed from these gabbro samples. Consistent with altered basalts, this linear trend is explained by mixing between normal marine carbonate and biogenic carbonate.

In the altered peridotites, three samples from 1271A/B show very high $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ values from 6.3‰ to 10.9‰ with relatively low $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ values from 12.8‰ to 22.8‰ (Fig. 4C). The high $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ values can be attributed to methane formation via either high-T abiotic carbon reduction (Alt and Shanks, 2003) or low-T microbial methanogenesis (Furnes et al., 2001; Kenward et al., 2009). Both processes preferentially utilize ${}^{12}C$ and induce ${}^{13}C$ enrichment in the remaining DIC, which can be further inherited by carbonate minerals precipitated from the DIC reservoir. All the other altered peridotite samples show smaller variations in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ (-10.8% to 1.9‰) and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ (17.4‰ to 31.2‰) values (Fig. 4C) than those of basalts, sheeted dikes and gabbros. Yet, the $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carbonate}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{carbonate}}$ data of peridotite samples show an apparent

positive trend resembling the upper half of the data ranges of basalt, sheeted dike and gabbro. The lack of peridotite data extending close to the biogenic end-member likely reflects more efficient carbonate precipitation from seawater DIC, which results in much higher carbonate concentrations in serpentinized peridotite samples and consequently dilutes the biogenic carbonate signal.

In summary, carbonates detected in altered basalts, sheeted dikes and gabbros, and peridotite mainly originate from two common sources: normal seawater DIC and microbial affected DIC. For the normal marine carbonate, if we assume that oxygen isotopic equilibrium with seawater DIC is reached during precipitation, their $\delta^{18}O$ values (ranging from 35‰ to 25‰ in our samples; Table 1) correspond to a precipitation T of 0°C to 40°C, which is consistent with $0~\sim~60^{\circ}$ C inferred from carbonate veins (Fig. 2). The precipitation T of biogenic carbonate is difficult to constrain due to the kinetic oxygen isotopic effect. In general, the optimum T for hyperthermophiles is less than 100°C, although some microbes can survive higher T up to 120 ºC (Kashefi and Lovley, 2003). I cannot completely rule out carbonate formation at high-T (>120ºC). However, based on the well-defined general mixing trend between normal marine carbonate and biogenic carbonate observed here, I conclude that carbonate in AOC mainly formed at low temperatures (<100°C), suggesting that the carbonates observed in gabbros and peridotite samples, existing as either normal marine carbonate or biogenic carbonate, precipitated only after these rocks were tectonically uplifted to near seafloor localities. The carbonate precipitated at high- T (>120 °C), if there is any, should contribute little to the overall C budget in AOC. Therefore, previous studies applying the carbonate concentration of these exposed lower crustal rocks to their original depth in deeper oceanic crust, which is presumably dominated by high-T alteration, may overestimate the AOC carbon budget.

3-2 Revised AOC Carbon Input Flux

As discussed above, temperature is an important control on C uptake by AOC with most carbon precipitation in AOC at less than 60 $^{\circ}$ C and little carbon precipitation at >100 $^{\circ}$ C. Therefore, it is important to identify the cut-off depth of the 100 °C isotherm, which is strongly dependent on the geothermal gradient of oceanic crust and the temperature of the sedimentbasement interface, which are modeled in detail below.

(1) Oceanic Crust Thermal Gradient Estimation based on the GDH1 Plate Cooling Model

Geothermal gradient of oceanic crust as a function of crust age is strongly dependent on the heat flow of oceanic crust at different ages.

$$
Q(t) = C_B \cdot \Delta T_B \tag{1}
$$

in which Q (t) is the heat flow (W/m²), C_B is the thermal conductivity (W/m/° K) of oceanic crust, and ΔT_B is geothermal gradient ($\rm{°C/m}$) of oceanic crust.

We use a simple plate cooling model (Stein and Stein, 1992) to estimate the heat flow of oceanic crust at different ages (Fig.6**)**. The simplified equation (Stein and Stein, 1992) for the approximation of heat flow with crust aging is as follow:

For
$$
t \le 55
$$
Ma: $Q(t) = 519 t^{-1/2}$ (2)

For
$$
t > 55
$$
Ma Q(t) = 48 + 96 exp(-0.0278 t) (3)

in which t is the crustal age. The instrumental data of the classic sites for C budget studies (e.g., DSDP/ODP/IODP sites 504B, 896A, 1256D, 396B, 801C, 417A, 417D, 843B, and 543A) all fit well with the modeling results within 10% uncertainty (Fig.6), except for Site 396B (10Ma), which has extremely low heat flow due to the efficient hydrothermal advection. Heat flow modeled by the evolved plate cooling model (Hasterok, 2013) is also within the 10% uncertainty of heat flow data modeled by Stein and Stein (1992). The dependence of thermal conductivity with age can be determined by the variation of porosity as crust ages (see the equation by Johnson and Pruis (2003)). The results gave a thermal conductivity of 2.00 W/m/ $\rm{^o K}$ for oceanic crust younger than 4Ma and 2.18 W/m/ºK for oceanic crust older than 4Ma (Johnson and Pruis, 2003)..

(2) Sediment – Basement Interface Temperature

The sediment – basement interface temperature is determined by Equation 4 below:

$$
Q(t) = C_S \cdot \Delta T_S = C_S \cdot 9T/9Z \tag{4}
$$

in which Q (t) is the modeled heat flow by GDH1 plate model, C_S is the thermal conductivity of sediment (W/m/ \textdegree K), Δ T_s is the sediment geothermal gradient in \textdegree C/m, Z is the vertical dimension of sediment thickness in meters, T is the temperature in ºK. The temperature at the seawater-sediment interface is labeled by the minimum carbonate vein precipitation temperature of $\sim 0^{\circ}$ C (Gillis and Coogan, 2011). Sediment thermal conductivity is determined by Equation 5 (Johnson and Pruis, 2003) below:

$$
C_S = (8.4312 \times 10^{-4} \times Z)/2 + 1.0525
$$
 (5)

This equation was obtained by a linear fitting on the data of global ODP sites (Johnson and Pruis, 2003). Sediment thickness (Z) is calculated by the average accumulation rate of 5.0 m /m· y of global marine sediments (Johnson and Pruis, 2003). Therefore, the 100 °C isotherm (D) in the basement can be determined by:

$$
D = [100 - (Q(t) \times Z)/C_{S}]/(Q(t)/C_{B})
$$
(6)

The modeled result is shown in Fig.7. The 100 °C isotherm varies significantly with crust age. For example, it is located at 383-35 meters below the sediment-basement interface for a young oceanic crust of 1 Ma and 3222-293 meters below the sediment-basement interface for an old oceanic crust of 145 Ma. The error in this estimate is mainly contributed by the 10% uncertainty of heat flow.

(3) Carbon Input Flux Estimation

In previous studies estimating the carbon budget in oceanic crust (Kelemen and Manning, 2015), the modeling employed a standard stratigraphy including several different lithologic strata (i.e., from top to bottom, 300 meters of upper volcanics, 300 meters of lower volcanics, 200 meters of transition zone, 1,200 meters of sheeted dikes, and 5,000 meters of gabbro). The C concentrations of these lithologies in the modeling were averaged results of previously published C concentration data measured on bulk samples, most of which were not measured for isotopic compositions. In our new modeling, we inherit the stratigraphic model, but consider carbon uptake only in the section less than 100 ºC. Another factor we incorporate in our model is that carbon uptake is different between young and old oceanic crust (Alt and Teagle, 1999; Coogan and Gillis, 2013; Gillis and Coogan, 2011). Because of the limited C concentration data available for global AOC samples, in order to calculate the average C concentrations of oceanic crust for further modeling of carbon input flux, we roughly divided the global oceanic crust into two age groups, younger and older than 65 Ma. 65 Ma is chosen as the division age because the

hydrothermal activity in oceanic crust decreases dramatically after 65 Ma (Mottl and Wheat, 1994; Stein and Stein, 1994).

For young AOC with age less than 65Ma, oceanic crust sections above the 100 °C isotherm mainly include upper volcanics, lower volcanics, transition, and sheeted dyke. Carbon concentration data for each section from young AOC (e.g., Sites 504B, 1256D, 896A, 597C, 411, 410, 396B, 407, 562, 556, 332A/B) were collected from literature and listed in Table 2. Weighted average carbon concentrations for young AOC upper volcanics, lower volcanics, transition zone, sheeted dike sections are further calculated by considering the drilled thickness, average dry density and average porosity of different drilling sites (Table 3).

For old AOC greater than 65Ma, the main oceanic crust sections spatially above the 100 ºC isotherm are upper volcanics, lower volcanics, transition zone, sheeted dike and upper gabbro. Table 3 lists C concentration data and calculated weighted average data for each section from old AOC (e.g., 145Ma Site 801C, 87Ma Site 543A, 106Ma Site 417A, 417D and 418A, 110Ma Site 843B, 140Ma Site 595B). I notice a dramatic C concentration increase for volcanics from young AOC to old AOC. This may be attributed to two factors. The first is a temperature effect: relatively warm bottom seawater during Cretaceous relative to the Cenozoic enhanced the waterrock interaction, which in turn lead to an increase in seawater alkalinity and thus precipitation of carbonate minerals (Coogan and Gillis, 2013; Gillis and Coogan, 2011); The second is an accumulation effect: continuous carbon uptake during low-T weathering as oceanic crust moves away from mid-ocean ridges can result in more carbonate accumulation in old altered oceanic crust (Alt and Teagle, 1999). Our limited data cannot distinguish whether the precipitation of carbonate minerals occurs over the entire life of crustal alteration or a much more focused period within ~20 Ma after the crust formed.

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Applying these average C concentrations, together with the subduction rate and trench length (Jarrard, 2003), I estimate the carbon input flux from AOC for individual major subduction zones as listed in Table 4. The total global C input flux from AOC is added up as $1.3-0.1 \times 10^{12}$ mol C/year, which is about 50 - 60% of the recent estimate by Kelemen and Manning (2015) and ~30% of the estimates by Alt and Teagle (1999) and Staudigel et al. (1989), yet still at the same order of magnitude as the seafloor sedimentary carbon from from 9×10^{11} moles/year to 5×10^{12} moles/year (Clift, 2017; Plank and Langmuir, 1998)

4. Implications

4-1 Widespread Biogenic Carbonate in AOC

According to our data, oceanic crust sections recovered by ODP/IODP 1256D and ODP 735B show obvious biogenic carbonate signals, with weighted average $\delta^{13}C$ values as low as -20.4‰ at Site 1256 (Table 5). The 10Ma DSDP Site 396B at the MAR also shows significant biogenic carbonate signals (Furnes et al., 2001), with weighted average $\delta^{13}C$ values around -6.3‰ (Table 5). The common characteristics of these altered oceanic crusts are that they are relatively young in age (<20 Ma) (Fig. 8) and relatively low in C concentrations ($|C|$ < 1000 ppm). In contrast, the 87Ma DSDP Site 543A with higher [C] of normal marine carbonate shows no obvious biogenic carbonate signatures (Fig. 9)

If proposed above, the positive correlation between carbon and oxygen isotopes is a consequence of mixing between normal carbonate and biogenic carbonate, $\delta^{13}C$ and [C] should also show a mixing trend.

The mixing equation is derived based on the $[C]$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values of normal marine carbonate and biogenic carbonate reservoirs. δ^{13} C value of normal marine carbonate is set as 2‰. Considering the heterogeneity of normal marine carbonate carbon concentration, [C] of this reservoir is set as a range varying from 10,000 ppm to 10 ppm (Fig. 9). $\delta^{13}C$ and [C] values of biogenic carbonate are represented by the weighted average δ^{13} C and [C] values of 1256D gabbroic rock (-20‰ and 17 ppm). These gabbroic rocks show the strongest depletions in ${}^{13}C$ and ¹⁸O and are close to the biogenic carbonate end-member (Fig. 9). Based on our mixing model, when [C] of normal marine carbonate is 10,000 ppm, bulk rock δ^{13} C values range from 2% to 0‰ as the contribution of biogenic carbon dominated rock increases from 0% to 90% (Fig. 9). However, when [C] of normal marine carbonate is 10 ppm, bulk rock δ^{13} C values vary from 2% to -19‰ as the contribution of biogenic carbon dominated rock increases from 0% to 90% (Fig. 9) (see the mixing equation below). The upper 44m volcanic rocks of ODP 543A and some upper basaltic rocks in MAR samples are examples for abundant normal marine carbonate. Therefore, a biogenic carbonate signature is not shown in these altered samples even if biogenic carbonate exists. However, most of the data from ODP/IODP 1256D, ODP 735B, and 396B basalt are in accordance with mixing between normal carbonate with relatively low [C] and biogenic carbonate.

Despite the modeled mixing trend shown in Fig. 9, some data from ODP 504B, and DSDP 396B obviously sit above modeled the mixing trend, and these data have higher [C] relative to the data with similar $\delta^{13}C$ values. These outliers may mainly result from the concentration and/or isotopic heterogeneities of biogenic carbonate and/or normal carbonate reservoirs in altered oceanic crust.

Regarding the $\delta^{13}C$ and [C] distribution pattern in altered peridotite, the lack of data toward the biogenic end-member (Fig. 10) in 1271A/B, 1274A and 920D peridotite samples may be attributed to the fact that [C] of normal marine carbonate in peridotite (61ppm to 3679 ppm, with an average of 1388 ppm) is much higher than that of basalts and gabbros (11 ppm to 490 ppm, with an average of 280 ppm), thus diluting the biogenic signature.

Based on all discussion, and considering the evidence that bio-alteration and biomass production is more obvious in young AOC and shows no increasing trend in old AOC of >50Ma (Bach and Edwards, 2003; Furnes and Staudigel, 1999), we speculate that biogenic carbonate may be widespread in AOC, especially within the young ones.

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4-2 A solution for the Decoupled ¹³C and ¹⁵N Problem in Diamonds

Diamond δ^{13} C values that deviate from the mantle range (-5±3‰) (Cartigny et al., 2014), either toward more negative (δ^{13} C< -20‰) or more positive (δ^{13} C>0‰) values, have been taken as direct evidence for the recycling of sedimentary organic carbon, or carbonate into at least the lithospheric mantle, or even as deep as ~700km (Palot et al., 2012; Palot et al., 2014; Tappert et al., 2005; Walter et al., 2011). Following the sedimentary recycling model, diamond formed from organic carbon should also inherit organic-like positive $\delta^{15}N$ due to the high N/C ratio of organic matter relative to mantle. However, $>60\%$ of the obviously ¹³C-depleted diamonds do not show coupled organic-like $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values but surprisingly show mantle-like $\delta^{15}N$ values (\sim -5 \pm 3‰) instead, making the sedimentary carbon recycling model unsatisfactory to explain these decoupled data (Cartigny, 2005),

Previous considerations on recycled crustal carbon and nitrogen have focused on seafloor sediments. Altered oceanic crust, although a major part of subducting slabs, has not been taken into account. Our modeling shows that AOC can provide a C input flux similar to sediments. Moreover, AOC is better suited to retain its carbon during subduction through stabilizing mechanisms such as carbonate reduction (Galvez et al., 2013) and dissolution-re-carbonation (Piccoli et al., 2016). This suggests that in the deep carbon cycle AOC may act as a more important carbon reservoir than sediment. Most importantly, strong variability of $\delta^{13}C$ values in our new data makes the AOC a potential carrier of ¹³C-depleted carbonate to diamond forming fluid. For example, weighted average δ^{13} C values of basalt, sheeted dike and gabbro at Site 1256D range from -20.4‰ to -13.0‰. ODP Site 735B, 396B, 504B have weighted average $\delta^{13}C$ values ranging from -12.0‰ to -6.3‰. Therefore, the subduction of biogenic carbonate dominated AOC, together with the secondary clay minerals, in which organic matter-like $\delta^{15}N$

ammonium is incorporated, can contribute organic-like $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ signatures to diamond forming fluids. However, carbon and nitrogen in AOC are controlled by different minerals and are thus independent from each other in both accumulation during alteration and retention during metamorphism. Therefore, AOC subducted into the deep mantle can contribute carbon and nitrogen that are decoupled with variable $(N/C)_{mantle}/(N/C)_{AOC}$ ratios and isotopic compositions. The mixing between slab-derived and mantle-derived fluids can contribute isotopically decoupled carbon and nitrogen to diamond forming fluids, and thus resolves the diamond puzzle that eclogitic diamond can have organic-like $\delta^{13}C$ values and mantle like $\delta^{15}N$ values (Fig. 11).

5. Conclusion

An investigation on combined concentration and C and O isotope measurements of carbonate in altered basalt, sheeted dike, gabbro and peridotite demonstrates that carbonates mainly consist of normal marine carbonates and biogenic carbonates, which are induced by abiotic and biological processes, respectively. More importantly, carbon uptake in the form of carbonate minerals by altered oceanic crust mainly occurs at low-T (<100 °C) alteration process at shallow depths. This discovery has two implications to our understanding of subduction-zone carbon recycling: First, the carbon budget in AOC is less than previously thought – our new estimate $(1.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ moles C per year})$ is only 30-60% of previous estimates. Second, biogenic carbonate with surprisingly low $\delta^{13}C$ values may be the dominant carbonate form in some oceanic crust sections, especially in young oceanic crust. Subduction of biogenic carbonatedominated AOC, together with the ammonium in clay minerals, can explain the decoupled carbon and nitrogen isotopic pattern observed in some eclogitic diamonds.
6. Future Work

The current study has been focused on the carbonate in AOC. However, another carbon component, organic carbon, could be present in AOC but has not been studied. Organic carbon in AOC is also very important to understand the deep carbon cycle and should be a focus for future study. The understanding of organic carbon in AOC can help to address emerging scientific questions associated with several recent findings. For example, recent studies by Sverjensky et al. (2014) and Huang et al. (2017) indicate that organic carbon may play an important role in migrating carbon either in aqueous fluid or as immiscible hydrocarbon fluids under subduction zone temperature-pressure conditions. In another recent study, Plümper et al. (2017) suggests that the organic matter in serpentinite of forearc mantle may sustain a source of attractive molecules for the deep microbial communities 10,000 m below the seafloor. However, the relative organic contribution between sediment and AOC and how organic carbon behaves in sedimentary conditions vs AOC conditions in subduction zones is not fully addressed. In addition, numerous previous studies estimating the C budget in AOC relied on bulk rock data (Alt and Teagle, 1999; Kelemen and Manning, 2015; Staudigel et al., 1989), but then used it as the carbonate budget of AOC with the assumption that the organic carbon content is small in AOC. However, a comparison of our data with the bulk-carbon data by Shilobreeva et al. (2011) and Zhang et al. (2017) suggests that the organic carbon content could be higher than the carbonate carbon content at ODP/IOSP Site 1256D. This organic carbon may be absorbed by the rocks during the circulation of hydrothermal fluid, in which organic carbon comes from seawater or sediments (Loh et al., 2004), or produced in situ by abiotic or biological processes (McCarthy et al., 2011; McDermott et al., 2015). The possible high organic carbon contents in Site 1256D

imply that organic carbon may be abundant in some AOC samples, especially within the young oceanic crust, where substantial biomass may be produced (Bach and Edwards, 2003). Therefore, the role of organic carbon budget in altered oceanic crust may be underestimated by previous studies.

The constraint on the organic carbon budget in AOC can be realized by analyzing the organic carbon components in the same set of samples used in this study. We have started with DSDP 543A samples in a project collaborating with Dr. Karlis Muehlenbachs. The benefit to have a complete dataset on both carbonate and organic carbon and their isotopic compositions from the same set of AOC samples can greatly enhance our understanding of controls on carbon uptake by AOC and their impact on deep biosphere and deep carbon cycle.

Figures

Fig.1 Hydrothermal Fluid Circulation Within Altered Oceanic Crust and Carbonate Precipitation (modified from Coggon and Teagle (2011)**).**

Fig.2 Histograms of precipitation temperatures of carbonate veins in basalt. Temperature was calculated using the commonly used oxygen isotope thermometry (Kim et al., 2007; O'Neil et al., 1969). (A) Carbonate veins in basalt; (B) Carbonate veins in peridotite. Data sources: (1) basalts: Alt and Teagle (2003), Böhlke et al. (1984), Gillis and Coogan (2011), Lawrence (1980), Javoy and Fouillac (1978), Muehlenbachs (1980), Hart and Staudigel (1980), Staudigel et al. (1995), Teagle et al. (1996), Coggon et al. (2006), Staudigel et al. (1986), Paul et al. (2006), Alt (1993), Coggon et al. (2010), Lawrence (1991), von Breymann and Berner (1991), Burns et al. (1990); (2) peridotite: Data sources: Schwarzenbach et al. (2013), Früh-Green et al. (2003), Agrinier et al. (1996), Bonatti et al. (1980), Bach et al. (2011), Agrinier et al. (1988), Alt and Shanks (2003), Blusztain and Hart (1996).

Fig.3 Sample Locations of Analyzed Samples. The crustal age map is generated by GeoMapApp (Ryan et al., 2009) [\(http://www.geomapapp.org\)](http://www.geomapapp.org/) and the original oceanic crustal age grid data are from Müller et al. (2008). The DSDP/ODP/IODP samples studied here spread from the East Pacific Ocean (1256D), the Atlantic Ocean (920D, 543A, 1271/1274) and the Southwest Indian Ocean ODP Site 735B. Some other sites involved in the carbon budget estimate are also marked as white open circles for reference.

Fig.4 Bulk-rock $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of carbonate in altered basalt, sheeted dike, gabbro, and **peridotite.** Data sources: R1.(Furnes et al., 2001); R2. (Torsvik et al., 1998); R3.(Furnes et al., 1999); R4.(Alt, 2003; Alt et al., 1992); R5. (Schwarzenbach et al., 2013).

Fig.5 ¹³Ccarbonate and ¹⁸Ocarbonate Comparison Between Bulk Rock Carbonate and Carbonate Vein (bulk rock and carbonate vein data from same sites are represented by same symbol) A. Bulk rock $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ data of Basalt. B. $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ data of carbonate vein in basalt. C. Bulk rock $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ data of Peridotite. D. $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ data of carbonate vein in peridotite). Data Sources: R1. (Furnes et al., 2001) ; R2. (Torsvik et al., 1998); R3. (Coggon et al., 2006); R4. (Teagle et al., 1996); R5. (Böhlke et al., 1984); R6. (Gillis and Coogan, 2011); R7. (Bach et al., 2011). Note that the obvious decoupling of $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values between bulk rock and carbonate vein indicates an endmember depleted in ¹³C and ¹⁸O exists in the bulk rock samples.

Fig.6 Comparison of heat flow from modeling results (solid curve) and instrumental data from drilling (triangles). Only the instrumental data of the classic sites for carbon budget studies are used in comparison. The instrumental data of all the sites except 396B are consistent with the modeled curve within 10% uncertainty (gray band).

Fig.7 Along-age variations of the 100 °C isotherm in oceanic crust. See Methods for detailed explanation of modeling. A standard oceanic crust stratigraphy including overlying sediment and mafic-ultramafic oceanic crust is shown. The thickness of sediment is calculated assuming a sedimentation rate of 5 meter per million years (Johnson and Pruis, 2003). The mafic-ultramafic oceanic crust consists of 300 meters of upper volcanics, 300 meters of lower volcanics, 200 meters of transition zone, 1,200 meters of sheeted dike, and 5,000 meters of gabbro. The solid curve represents the 100°C isotherm and the dotted lines represent the uncertainty introduced mainly by the 10% error on the heat flow estimate. Two examples of oceanic crust with ages of 20 Ma and 100 Ma are shown.

Fig.8 Along age variations of weighted average $\delta^{13}C$ (‰) in altered basalt, sheeted dike, **gabbro and peridotite.** Weighted average δ^{13} C values are calculated based on the density, porosity, thickness of different oceanic crust sections and are listed in Table 4. Note that biogenic carbonate signatures are only seen in young oceanic crust (< 20 Ma).

Fig.9 Carbonate Carbon Concentration ([C]) vs. ¹³C of Basalt, Sheeted Dike and Gabbro. Two boundary conditions are shown in the diagram. The upper boundary is the mixing line between normal marine carbonate **(**2‰, 10,000) and biogenic carbonate (-20‰, 17). The lower boundary is the mixing line between normal marine carbonate (2‰, 10) and biogenic carbonate (-20‰, 17). Black mixing line is derived from the equation below (see the mixing equation below in pp. 43). Filled dot along the black line is the contribution of each endmember with 10% increment. The mixing trend of upper boundary shows that bulk rock $\delta^{13}C$ varies from 2% to 0% when the contribution of biogenic carbon dominated rock increases from 0% to 90%. However, biogenic carbon contribution only increases from 0% to 1.5% due to the low [C] of biogenic carbon dominated rock. The mixing trend of lower boundary indicates that bulk rock $\delta^{13}C$ ranges from 2‰ to -19‰ when the contribution of biogenic carbon dominated rock increases from 0% to 90%. At this condition, biogenic carbon contribution increases from 0% to 94% as [C] of biogenic carbon- and normal carbon- dominated rock is comparable. Note that some data in the yellow area obviously fall outside of the mixing trend, and these data have relatively higher carbon concentration relative to the data with similar δ^{13} C values. These outlier data may mainly result from the heterogeneities of biogenic carbonate and normal marine carbonate.

Fig.10 Relationship between ¹³C and Carbon Concentration ([C]) of altered Peridotite. Comparison with basalt- or gabbro host hydrothermal system (Fig. 9), overall carbon concentration is obviously higher in peridotite-host hydrothermal systems.

Fig. 11. Carbon versus nitrogen isotopic composition of diamonds – tracers of deep mantle carbon – along with mixing models that reflect processes leading to isotopic diversity during subduction of altered oceanic crust (AOC). Mixing models involve the mantle (M) and metamorphic equivalents of three isotopically distinct carbon and nitrogen reservoirs in AOC (C1, C2, C3). C1 = normal carbonate + low-temperature clay; C2 = biogenic carbonate $(\pm OM)$ + low-temperature clay; $C3$ = high-temperature clay (formed by high-temperature abiotic nitrogen reduction) without crustal carbon (and thus a mantle δ^{13} C value is assigned). The shaded areas along solid curves represent mixing arrays with $\pm 3\%$ variations in $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ for each reservoir. $(N/C)_{\text{Mantle}}/(N/C)_{\text{AOC}}$ ratios for modeling are indicated along each mixing array. Note that most of the eclogitic and websteritic diamond data fall into the mixing area defined by $(N/C)_{\text{Mantle}}/N/C)_{\text{AOC}}$ ratios from 50:1 to 1:50. Eclogitic and websteritic diamond data are from (Bulanova et al., 2014; Cartigny et al., 2009; Cartigny et al., 1999; Cartigny et al., 1998; Cartigny et al., 2004b; Laiginhas, 2008; Leost et al., 2003; Mikhail et al., 2014; Palot et al., 2012; Palot et al., 2009; Stachel et al., 2009; Thomassot et al., 2009; Van Heerden et al., 1995). Metamorphic diamonds data are from (Cartigny et al., 2004a; Cartigny et al., 2001).

Two-end Member Mixing Equations

Two end-members:

A ($\delta^{13}C_A$, $\delta^{18}O_A$), C_A (carbon concentration of A), f₁ (contribution of biogenic carbon dominated rock);

B ($\delta^{13}C_B$, $\delta^{18}O_B$), C_B (carbon concentration of B), (1-f₁) (contribution of normal carbonate dominated rock);

M: mixture of A and B: M ($\delta^{13}C_M$, $\delta^{18}O_M$), C_M (carbon concentration of M).

Note that f_1 is the contribution of biogenic carbon dominated rock and f_1 is different from the biogenic carbon contribution (F). The relationship between F and f_1 is:

 $F = (f_1 \times C_A)/[(f_1 \times C_A) + (1 - f_1) \times C_B]$ (1)

For the two-end member mixing:

$$
(^{13}C^{12}C)_{A} = (\delta^{13}C_{A}/1000 + 1) \times R_{S} (R_{S}: ^{13}C^{12}C \text{ of international standard})
$$
 (2)

$$
(^{13}C/^{12}C) \, \text{B} = (\delta^{13}C_B/1000 + 1) \times R_S \quad (3)
$$

$$
{}^{13}C_M = (\delta^{13}C_A/1000 + 1) \times R_S \times C_A \times f_1 + (\delta^{13}C_B/1000 + 1) \times R_S \times C_B \times (1 - f_1)
$$
 (4)

$$
{}^{12}C_M = C_A \times f_1 + C_B \times (1 - f_1) \quad (5)
$$

$$
\delta^{13}C_M = [f_1 \times (\delta^{13}C_A \times C_A - \delta^{13}C_B \times C_B) + \delta^{13}C_B \times C_B] / [f_1 \times (C_A - C_B) + C_B] \quad (6)
$$

$$
\delta^{18}O_M = [f_1 \times (\delta^{18}O_A \times C_A - \delta^{18}O_B \times C_B) + \delta^{18}O_B \times C_B] / [f_1 \times (C_A - C_B) + C_B]
$$
 (7)

 $C_M = f_1 \times (C_A - C_B) + C_B$ (8)

For instance, A (2‰, 32‰), B (-25‰, 18‰), C_A = 10000ppm, C_B = 24ppm, then,

$$
\delta^{13}C_M = (20600 \times f_1 - 600) / (9976 \times f_1 + 24) \quad (9)
$$

$$
\delta^{18}O_M = (319568 \times f_1 + 432) / (9976 \times f_1 + 24) \quad (10)
$$

$$
C_M = 9976 \times f_1 + 24 \quad (11)
$$

Therefore, a straight mixing line between $\delta^{13}C_M$ and $\delta^{18}O_M$ can be plotted with f₁ varying from 0 to 1 based on equation (9) and (10), and a mixing curve between $\delta^{13}C_M$ and C_M can also be plotted with f_1 varying from 0 to 1 based on equation (9) and (11). These equations were derived based on Zheng and Hoefs (1993).

Tables

Table 1. Carbon and Oxygen Isotopic Composition Data of Altered Basalt, Sheeted Dike, Gabbro and Peridotite.

Location	Leg-Site	Sample Number	Depth (mbsf)	Lithology	Age (Ma)	$\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$ $(\%0)$	$\delta^{18}O_{VSMOW}$ $(\%0)$	Carbonate carbon (ppm)	Reference
Atlantic	78-543A	10-01W 57-58	408	Basalt	87	2.0	30.6	9175	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	10-02W 103-105	409	Basalt	87	1.2	29.0	2351	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	10-03W 28-30	410	Basalt	87	-0.8	27.5	5464	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	11-01W 30-33	412	Basalt	87	2.2	28.7	449	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	11-02W 59-60	415	Basalt	87	3.3	29.3	1362	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	12-02W 72-75	419	Basalt	87	3.5	30.6	8382	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	12-04W 128-133	422	Basalt	87	-3.5	25.3	104	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	13-01W 18-21	425	Basalt	87	2.7	30.2	2262	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	13-05W 85-86	430	Basalt	87	1.6	18.7	1328	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	14-01W 37-39	433	Basalt	87	-3.4	17.0	19	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	15-01W 49-51	440	Basalt	87	-0.5	25.9	411	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	15-03W 99-100	442	Basalt	87	-1.5	26.6	461	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	16-01W 88-90	443	Basalt	87	2.8	30.1	3800	This study
Atlantic	78-543A	16-03W 116-118	449	Basalt	87	2.6	31.0	3263	This study
Pacific	206-1256D	2R-186-87	276	Basalt	15	-19.6	19.3	15	This study
Pacific	206-1256D	6R-5 99-100	300	Basalt	15	-15.1	17.2	8	This study
Pacific	206-1256D	15R-1 63-64	364	Basalt	15	-8.2	20.3	20	This study
Pacific	206-1256D	32R-28--9	470	Basalt	15	-9.0	24.5	6	This study
Pacific	206-1256D	65R-3 22-23	705	Basalt	15	-19.2	17.3	163	This study
Pacific	309-1256D	75R-1 112-113	752	Basalt	15	-7.0	21.0	1444	This study

Data sources:

1.Furnes et al. (2001); 2. Torsvik et al. (1998); 3.Furnes et al. (1999); 4.Alt (2003); 5. Alt (1993); 6.Schwarzenbach et al. (2013).

Table 2. Carbon Concentrations of Young AOC

Table 2 Continued

† Bulk carbon concentration is not available for AOC. The carbonate is isotopically characterized by a "normal carbonate" signature and the carbonate concentrations are very high. Organic carbon is generally minor compared to carbonate in such reservoirs. Thus, the carbonate carbon concentrations are used to represent the bulk carbon concentration.

* Weighted average carbon concentration (a) for young AOC is calculated based on a 7,000-meter thick oceanic crust but with carbon only in the topmost strata spatially above the 100 ºC isotherm (i.e., for oceanic crust with age of 6 Ma, 300 meters of upper volcanics, 300 meters of lower volcanics, 200 meters of transition zone, and 185 meters of upper sheeted dikes are included) and their corresponding weighted average carbon concentrations, average densities, average porosities of each strata. Applying the weighted average carbon concentration of young AOC, together with trench length and subduction rate, carbon input fluxes of individual subduction zones with young AOC subducting can be calculated and listed in Table 4.

Data Sources: 7.Alt and Teagle (1999); 8.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1993a); 9.Shilobreeva et al. (2011); 10.Shipboard Scientific Party. (2003a); 11.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1993b); 12.Gillis and Coogan (2011); 13.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1986); 14.Jörg Erzinger. (1986); 15.Furnes et al. (2001); 16.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1979b); 17.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1979a); 18. Drummond Matthews. (1979); 19.Chroston et al. (1979); 20.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1985b); 21.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1985a); 22.Shipboard Scientific Party. (2003b); 23.Shipboard scientific Party. (1977); 24.Expedition 309/312 Scientists. (2006).

Sites Age (Ma)		Bulk carbon concentration (ppm)	Drilled depth (m)	Average dry density (g/cm^3)	Average porosity $(\%)$	References
Upper Volcanics						
801C	145	5435	300	2.83	9	7,25
417A	106	10655	209	2.8	3.4	26, 27
417D	106	11318	365	2.73	3.7	26, 27
418A	106	10909	300	2.75	3.5	12, 27
843B	110	6545	69	2.7	6	7,28
543A	87	5727	44	2.88	6.4	29
595B	140	5182	54	2.8	$\overline{4}$	12
Weighted average		9157				
Lower Volcanics						
418A	120	2304	244	2.9	3	26, 27
801C	165	2359	159	2.86	7.9	7,13
Weighted average		2325				
Transition		1334*				7,9
Sheeted dike		$229*$				7,9
Gabbro		$391^{\frac{1}{2}}$				9
Weighted average of old AOC		b^{\star}				

Table 3. Carbon Concentrations of old AOC

* Carbon concentration data of old AOC transition, sheeted dike and gabbro section are not available. The weighted average carbon concentrations of transition zone and sheeted dike sections of young AOC (Table 2) are used here.

‡ Carbon concentration of gabbro section of old AOC is represented by the average carbon concentration of gabbro at site 1256D (Shilobreeva et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2017).

★ Weighted average carbon concentration (b) for old AOC is calculated based on a 7,000-meter oceanic crust but with carbon only in the topmost strata spatially above the 100 ºC isotherm (i.e., for oceanic crust with age of 145 Ma, 300 meters of upper volcanics, 300 meters of lower volcanics, 200 meters of transition zone, 1,200 meters of sheeted dikes, and 1222 meters of gabbros are included) and their corresponding weighted average carbon concentrations, average densities, average porosities of each strata. Applying the weighted average carbon concentration of old AOC, together with trench length and subduction rate, carbon input fluxes of individual subduction zones with old AOC subducting can be calculated and listed in Table 4.

Data Sources: 7.Alt and Teagle (1999); 25.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1990); 26.Staudigel et al. (1989); 27.Christensen et al. (1980); 28.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1992); 29.Shipboard Scientific Party. (1984); 12.Gillis and Coogan (2011); 13.Shipboard Scientific Party. (2000); 9.Shilobreeva et al. (2011).

Trench	Age (Ma)	Length (km)	Subduction rate (meters/year)	Carbon input flux (moles/year)
Young AOC				
Alaska	49	1490	0.056	$2.4E+10$
Aleutian, E	56	1246	0.059	$2.3E+10$
C. America	16	1506	0.072	$2.5E+10$
Cascadia	5	990	0.036	$6.9E + 09$
Chile, C	23	1306	0.074	$2.4E+10$
Chile, N	41	1579	0.074	$3.3E + 10$
Chile, S	16	1218	0.016	$4.5E + 09$
Colombia	21	1355	0.065	$2.1E+10$
Cotabato	42	500	0.02	$2.9E + 09$
Manlia	30	1050	0.01	$2.7E + 09$
Mexico	9	1383	0.049	$1.4E + 10$
Nankai	23	824	0.038	$7.6E + 09$
Negros	16	400	0.02	$1.8E + 09$
New Britain	50	600	0.11	$2.0E+10$
Peru	37	1599	0.065	$2.9E+10$
Philippine	43	1509	0.064	$2.8E+10$
Ryukyu	46	1153	0.057	$1.8E + 10$
San Cristobal	50	1050	0.049	$1.6E+10$
Scotia	57	1005	0.044	$1.4E+10$
Sulawesi, N.	42	600	0.03	5.2E+09
Sulu	16	500	0.02	$2.3E + 09$
Sumatra	61	2462	0.05	$4.0E+10$
Trobriand	50	590	0.02	$3.6E + 09$
Vanuatu	40	1189	0.111	$3.7E + 10$
Yep-Palau	32	550	0.003	$4.3E + 08$
Total				$4.0E + 11$

Table 4. Carbon input fluxes of world's major subduction zones.

Table 4. Continued

Site	Lithology	δ^{13} C (Weighted Average)	$\delta^{18}O$ (Weighted Average)	Reference
1256D	Basalt	-13.0	19.7	this study
543A	Basalt	1.8	28.7	this study
396B	Basalt	-6.3	23.8	$\mathbf{1}$
407	Basalt	-0.6	27.1	
409	Basalt	2.6	35.2	
410A	Basalt	1.4	31.0	
411	Basalt	-4.3	21.9	
834B	Basalt	-2.3	22.8	
504B	Basalt	-12.0	25.5	3
504B	Sheeted Dike	-2.5	28.6	3
1256D	Sheeted Dike	-18.0	14.4	this study
735B	Gabbro	-6.0	19.5	this study
1256D	Gabbro	-20.4	13.2	this study
1271A	Peridotite	-0.5	24.3	this study
1274A	Peridotite	-6.1	26.1	this study
1271B	Peridotite	2.1	23.1	this study
897C	Peridotite	0.9	30.7	6
897D	Peridotite	0.9	30.5	6
899B	Peridotite	-1.2	28.9	6
1070A	Peridotite	-1.9	29.2	6

Table 5. Weighted average ¹³C, ¹⁸O and carbon concentration of DSDP, ODP, IODP oceanic sections.

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