1	FROM SERPENTINIZATION TO CARBONATION: NEW INSIGHTS FROM A CO_2
2	INJECTION EXPERIMENT
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12	Abstract
13	We injected a CO_2 -rich hydrous fluid of seawater chlorinity into an ongoing,
14	mildly reducing (H _{2(aq)} \approx 3 mmol/kg) serpentinization experiment at 230 °C and 35
15	MPa to examine the changes in fluid chemistry and mineralogy during mineral
16	carbonation. The chemistry of 11 fluid samples was measured, speciated, and
17	compared with MgO-SiO ₂ -H ₂ O-CO ₂ (MSHC) phase equilibria to approximate the
18	reaction pathway from serpentinization to carbonation. Although the overall system
19	was in apparent disequilibrium, the speciated activities of dissolved silica ($aSiO_{2(aq)}$)
20	and carbon dioxide ($aCO_{2(aq)}$) evolved roughly along MSHC equilibrium phase
21	boundaries, indicative of 4 distinct mineral assemblages over time: 1) serpentine-
22	brucite (± magnesite) before the injection, to 2) serpentine-talc-magnesite 2 hours
23	after the injection, to 3) quartz-magnesite (48h after injection), and 4) metastable

24 olivine – magnesite (623h after injection) until the experiment was terminated. 25 Inspection of the solid reaction products revealed the presence of serpentine, 26 magnesite, minor talc, and magnetite, in addition to relict olivine. Although quartz 27 was saturated over a short segment of the experiment, it was not found in the solid 28 reaction products. A marked and rapid change in fluid chemistry suggests that 29 serpentinization ceased and precipitation of magnesite initiated immediately after 30 the injection. A sharp decrease in pH after the injection promoted the dissolution of 31 brucite and olivine, which liberated $SiO_{2(aq)}$ and dissolved Mg. Dissolved Mg was 32 efficiently removed from the solution via magnesite precipitation, whereas the 33 formation of talc was relatively sluggish. This process accounts for an increase in 34 $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ to quartz saturation shortly after the injection of the CO₂-rich fluid. 35 Molecular dihydrogen ($H_{2(aq)}$) was generated during serpentinization of olivine by 36 oxidation of ferrous iron before the injection; however, no additional $H_{2(aq)}$ was 37 generated after the injection. Speciation calculations suggest a strong affinity for the 38 formation of methane (CH_{4(aa)}) at the expense of $CO_{2(aa)}$ and $H_{2(aa)}$ after the 39 injection, but increased $CH_{4(aa)}$ formation was not observed. These findings suggest 40 that kinetically fast mineral carbonation dominates over sluggish $CH_{4(aa)}$ formation 41 in mildly reducing serpentinization systems affected by injection of CO₂-rich fluids.

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43 **Keywords:** serpentinization; methane formation; mineral carbonation; carbon

44 sequestration; hydrothermal injection experiment

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46 1. INTRODUCTION

47 Mantle rocks have been exposed in a variety of geotectonic settings at the 48 Earth's surface, including ophiolites, alpine orogens, mid-ocean ridges, continental 49 rifted margins, and in fore-arc settings of subduction zones (Cannat et al., 2010; 50 Chidester and Cady, 1972; Coleman, 1977; Dick et al., 2003; Fryer et al., 2006; 51 Whitmarsh et al., 2001). Likewise, hydrous fluids enriched in CO₂ via magmatic 52 degassing, leaching of carbon-bearing rocks, metamorphic decarbonation of marine 53 sediments, or decomposition of organic material occur in many geotectonic settings 54 worldwide (Irwin and Barnes, 1980; Von Damm, 1995). Where mantle rocks and 55 CO₂-rich fluids interact carbonate deposits can form (e.g., Chidester and Cady, 1972; 56 Griffis, 1972; Hansen et al., 2005; Kelemen and Matter, 2008). This process, referred 57 to as mineral carbonation, has received considerable attention as a potential 58 pathway to mitigate emissions of anthropogenic CO_2 (Andreani et al., 2009; Bearat 59 et al., 2006; Boschi et al., 2009; Cipolli et al., 2004; Dufaud et al., 2009; Giammar et 60 al., 2005; Hövelmann et al., 2011; IPCC, 2005; Kelemen et al., 2011; Kelemen and Matter, 2008; Wolf et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2010). However, the formation of 61 62 carbonate minerals competes with the reduction of CO₂ under reducing conditions, 63 which develop when ultramafic rocks undergo serpentinization. Experimental 64 studies have demonstrated that dissolved CO₂ present in hydrothermal fluids can be 65 reduced to methane and other hydrocarbons (Foustoukos and Seyfried, 2004; Horita and Berndt, 1999; McCollom and Seewald, 2001), but reaction rates are 66 sluggish unless the reduction is facilitated by effective surface catalysts such as 67 68 awaruite (Ni₃Fe), a trace mineral common in serpentinite. Indeed, methane 69 emanations have been reported from a number of serpentinization systems on land

70 and at the seafloor (Abrajano et al., 1988; Charlou et al., 2002; Proskurowski et al., 71 2008). The mechanisms that drive mineral carbonation of ultramafic rocks have 72 been a subject of study by petrologists for at least the past 8 decades (Frost, 1985; 73 Greenwood, 1967; Hansen et al., 2005; Hess, 1933; Koons, 1981; Korzhinskii, 1959; 74 Schandl and Naldrett, 1992; Trommsdorff and Evans, 1977). Supported by 75 thermodynamic reaction path models (Klein and Garrido, 2011), field evidence 76 suggests that serpentinization of ultramafic rocks pre-dates carbonation and 77 changes in secondary mineralogy imply that the chemistry of interacting fluids must 78 change substantially during the alteration process (Frost, 1985; Griffis, 1972; Hess, 79 1933; Weir and Kerrick, 1987). The mineralogical changes during serpentinization 80 of ultramafic rocks and carbonation of serpentinite are reasonably well understood, 81 but comprehension of the specific changes in fluid chemistry, which seem to be 82 controlled by thermodynamic as well as kinetic effects, remains haphazard.

83 We designed this study to examine concomitant changes in fluid chemistry 84 and secondary mineralogy from serpentinization to carbonation and to highlight the role of two processes competing for dissolved carbon: magnesite precipitation and 85 86 methane formation. We analyzed the fluid chemistry of 11 sub-samples taken over the course of the experiment and used thermodynamic relations to trace 87 88 mineralogical changes over time. After the experiment was terminated we characterized the hydrothermal precipitates and compared the mineralogical and 89 90 fluid chemical results with thermodynamic predictions. It will be shown that the 91 injection of a CO_2 -rich fluid into an active serpentinization system can cause a

92 cascade of mineral replacement reactions, which are accompanied by rapid changes93 in fluid chemistry.

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95 2. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND ANALYTICAL METHODS

96 We used a flexible-cell hydrothermal apparatus consisting of a gold bag 97 enclosed in a stainless steel pressure-containment vessel filled with water, which 98 acts as the pressure medium (Seyfried et al., 1987). One advantage of this apparatus 99 over a rigid steel reaction cell is that the gold bag itself is flexible allowing the 100 experiment to be conducted with no vapor headspace present. The reaction cell 101 connects to a thin titanium tube and a valve permitting periodic fluid sampling as 102 well as the injection of fluids during the experiment. The experiment itself can be 103 divided into two parts: initial serpentinization of olivine and, subsequently, 104 carbonation of the partly serpentinized olivine following the injection of the CO₂-105 rich fluid. About 50 g of olivine (Fo90) was rinsed with de-ionized water, 106 handpicked under a microscope, ground with a mortar and pestle, and thoroughly 107 wet-sieved to retain the fraction between 53 and 212 µm in size. The starting 108 solution was in equilibrium with the atmosphere and no attempt was made to 109 remove dissolved CO_2 or O_2 prior to the experiment. Initial serpentinization 110 involved 18.0 g olivine and 40.1 g of a 0.5 M NaCl solution, which was heated for 51 111 days at 300 °C and 35 MPa. A temperature of 300 °C was chosen because reaction 112 rates for serpentinization of olivine are fastest between ca. 270 °C and 300 °C (Martin and Fyfe, 1970). However, reaction rates for mineral carbonation of olivine 113 114 are fastest at a temperature of ~185 °C (O'Connor et al., 2004). To take advantage of 115 increased carbonation rates the temperature was lowered to 230 °C and held at that 116 temperature for 7 days before a CO_2 -rich fluid of seawater chlorinity was injected. 117 The injection fluid was prepared by pressurizing a steel tube of a known volume 118 filled with the NaCl solution with compressed $CO_{2(g)}$ to 35 MPa. The fluid was then 119 injected into the reaction cell using a high-pressure pump. Carbonation went on for 120 33 days until most of the dissolved CO_2 was sequestered and the experiment was 121 terminated. Fluid samples (0.3 – 0.6 g each) were taken in 5 ml gas tight glass 122 syringes (Hamilton 1005 LT). Quantitative analyses of dissolved H₂, CO₂, and CH₄ 123 were performed by extraction of the gases by adding ~ 1 ml pure He or N₂ to the 124 syringe and then injecting the headspace onto a gas chromatograph (cf. McCollom 125 and Seewald, 2003). Aliquots analyzed for CO₂ were acidified with phosphoric acid. 126 In addition to the acidified fluids, un-acidified aliquots of samples # CO-10-8 – CO-127 10-11 were analyzed to approximate the $\sum CO_2/CO_{2(aq)}$. The concentrations of CO_2 128 were corrected to account for its partitioning between the headspace and fluid 129 phases within each individual syringe (Weiss, 1974). Fluid samples were analyzed 130 for dissolved components by inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-131 MS). The pH and dissolved SiO_2 were directly measured after a sample was taken. 132 The pH was measured using a micro combination electrode at 25 °C with an 133 uncertainty of approximately ±0.1 units of the reported value. Concentrations of 134 dissolved SiO₂ were determined spectrophotometrically using the heteropoly-blue 135 method with a Hach 2700 spectrophotometer at a wavelength of 815 nm.

After the experiment was terminated the mineral powder was filtered anddried at room temperature before subsamples were taken for further analyses.

138 Mineralogical analysis of primary and secondary phases was carried out using a 139 confocal Raman microscope (Horiba Labram-HR), equipped with a 532nm laser and 140 a peltier-cooled CCD detector. A Zeiss Supra 40 field emission scanning electron 141 microscope (FE-SEM) and a Hitachi TM3000 SEM, along with a transmitted and 142 reflected light microscope were used for petrographic characterization of mineral 143 powders and polished mounts. Mineral compositions were analyzed using a 144 IEOL IXA-8530F Field-Emission Electron Probe Microanalyzer (FE-EPMA), operated 145 at 15kV acceleration voltage and 20nA beam current. The beam was fully focused 146 for olivine and 5 to 15 µm for all other phases to avoid beam damage. Raw data were 147 corrected using the CITZAF method (Armstrong, 1995). Equilibrium constants used 148 to construct activity diagrams (Figs. 1 & 4) were calculated with the computer code 149 SUPRCT92 (Johnson et al., 1992). The speciation calculations were carried out using 150 the software code EQ3/6 (Wolery, 1992) with a customized database assembled for 151 35 MPa appropriate for experimental conditions using SUPRCT92. Activity 152 coefficients of dissolved inorganic species were computed using the B-dot equation 153 with hard-core diameters, and B-dot and Debye-Hückel parameters from Wolery 154 and Jove-Colon (2004). Activity coefficients of neutral species are assumed to be 155 unity, except for non-polar gaseous species, for which the activity coefficients of CO_2 156 were adopted (Drummond, 1981). For a more detailed description of the databases 157 used in the present communication the interested reader is referred to McCollom 158 and Bach (2009) and Klein et al. (2009).

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160 3. Results and Discussion

161 3.1. Fluid Chemistry During Serpentinization

162 Fluid compositions of 11 sub-samples are summarized in Table 1. The speciated activities of aqueous silica ($aSiO_{2(aq)}$), aMg^{2+} and aH^{+} (i.e. the pH) can be 163 164 used to trace serpentinization reactions in hydrothermal experiments (e.g., 165 Ogasawara et al., in press). The log $aMg^{++}/aH^{+2} - \log aSiO_{2(aq)}$ diagram (Fig. 1) 166 shows a decrease of log aSiO_{2(aa)} from an initial value of -3.26 (sample # 1) 3 hours 167 after the experiment was initiated to -4.40 (sample # 2) after one week. The log 168 $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ of samples 2, 3, and 5 closely matched the predicted equilibrium value for 169 the metastable reaction: 170 R1) $Mg_2SiO_4 + 2 H_2O = 2 Mg(OH)_2 + SiO_{2(aq)}$ 171 olivine brucite 172 while $\log aMg^{++}/aH^{+2}$ and $\log aSiO_{2(aq)}$ of sample # 4 is indicative of serpentine – brucite equilibrium at 300 °C and 35 MPa: 173 174 $3Mg(OH)_2 + 2SiO_{2(aq)} = Mg_3Si_2O_5(OH)_4 + H_2O$ 175 R2) 176 brucite serpentine 177 178 The speciated fluid data of samples # 1 – 5 displayed in Fig. 1 indicate that $aSiO_{2(aa)}$, 179 Mg²⁺, and pH are controlled by reactions 1 and 2 during serpentinization of olivine. Concentrations of $H_{2(aq)}$ increased to 3.26 mM as the serpentinization proceeded, 180 181 suggesting that ferrous iron in olivine was oxidized to ferric iron in secondary 182 minerals. Indeed, Fe-bearing serpentine and minor amounts of magnetite were

183 detected among the solid reaction products (see section 3.3.). Trace amounts of

184 dissolved carbon ($\sum CO_2 < 1 \text{ mM}$) and $CH_{4(aq)}$ (< 40µM) were detected; however, 185 isotopic labeling experiments reveal that background levels of C are inevitable in 186 nominally C-free serpentinization experiments (McCollom and Seewald, 2001). The 187 pH (measured at room temperature) increased from ~8 to ~9 during 188 serpentinization, which is consistent with theoretical predictions (Klein et al., 2009) 189 and previously reported serpentinization experiments using olivine separates at 190 similar conditions (e.g., Anders, 2012). The corresponding in situ pH ranged 191 between 6.0 and 6.2. As expected, concentrations of dissolved Mg and Ca remained 192 low (< 1 mM). Mg liberated by dissolution of olivine was consumed by the formation 193 of serpentine and brucite, whereas concentrations of dissolved Ca were low, 194 because olivine we used as the starting material contains only trace amounts (0.05 195 wt.%) of CaO (see Table 2). After 51 days we lowered the temperature to 230°C and 196 let the system react for 7 days before we injected the CO₂-bearing fluid. The drop in 197 temperature caused minor readjustments in the fluid composition (Table 1). Sample 198 # 6, taken just before the injection, reveals a higher $aMg^{++}/aH^{+^2}a$ ratio than samples 199 taken at 300°C at a comparably low $aSiO_{2(aa)}$, which may suggest that the fluid was 200 re-equilibrating, but did not quite reach the brucite-serpentine equilibrium at 230 201 °C (see Fig. 1).

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203 3.2. Fluid Chemistry During Carbonation

On day 58 21.8 g of fluid having 0.5 M of NaCl and 0.39 M $CO_{2(aq)}$ was injected into the reaction cell. Just before the injection the reaction cell contained 18.8 g of aqueous fluid with 0.8 mM $CO_{2(aq)}$. The resulting concentration of $CO_{2(aq)}$ in the

207 reaction cell following injection was approximately 209 mM. As shown in Figs. 1, 2, 208 and 4 (compare with. table 1), the injection of the CO_2 -bearing fluid caused a 209 substantial and rapid change of the fluid chemistry. The pH (measured at 25 °C) 210 decreased from 9 just before the injection to about 6 after the injection. The 211 corresponding calculated in situ pH at 230 °C and 35 MPa was \sim 6 before the 212 injection and ~ 5.4 after the injection. Subsequently, the pH (at 25 °C) dropped 213 slightly below 6, but increased again to 6.8 before it decreased to 6.3 at the 214 termination of the experiment. Both acidified (with H₃PO₄) and non-acidified fluid 215 samples were analyzed for $CO_{2(aq)}$ during this stage of the experiment. Consistent 216 with the slightly acidic pH measured at room temperature, the dominant carbon 217 species analyzed was $CO_{2(aq)}$ (ca. 82 – 100 % of ΣCO_2). The activity of $SiO_{2(aq)}$ increased more than 2 orders of magnitude from $\log a SiO_{2(aq)} = -4.7$ (sample # 6) 218 219 prior to the injection to a maximum of -2.24 (sample # 8) after the injection, before 220 it eventually decreased again to about log $aSiO_{2(aq)} = -3$. Since, the SiO_{2(aq)} 221 concentration of the injected fluid was at the detection limit of the method (0.01 222 ppm), dilution during injection would have caused a decrease in $aSiO_{2(aa)}$. However, 223 the increase in $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ following injection indicates dissolution of Mg-silicates and liberation of silica. The $aH_{2(aq)}$ decreased from log $aH_{2(aq)} = -2.49$ before the 224 225 injection to -3.07 at the termination of the experiment. This decrease is consistent 226 with a dilution of the reacting fluid during injection. Remarkably, however, 227 continued generation of $H_{2(aq)}$ was not observed after the injection, which suggests 228 that serpentinization and accompanying oxidation of Fe ceased.

229 Previous serpentinization experiments using ¹³C-labeled fluid reactants have 230 shown that background sources liberate methane at micro-molar levels (McCollom 231 and Seewald, 2001). These experiments revealed that only a small fraction of the 232 methane generated was present as ${}^{13}CH_{4(aq)}$, which means the main source of $CH_{4(aq)}$ 233 is reduced carbon already present in the starting materials (cf. Jones et al., 2010). 234 We did not use ¹³C-labeled reactants in the present study, since trace amounts of 235 carbon present before the injection would not significantly affect mineral 236 carbonation or methane formation. As expected, the concentrations of $CH_{4(aq)}$ 237 measured during serpentinization ranged at micro-molar levels (Jones et al., 2010; 238 McCollom and Seewald, 2001). Measured concentrations of $CH_{4(aq)}$ decreased from 239 $\sim 37 \,\mu\text{M}$ before the injection to $\sim 18 \,\mu\text{M}$ immediately after the injection, which can 240 be explained by dilution with the methane-free injection fluid. Although the 241 calculated affinity A of methane formation at the expense of $CO_{2(aq)}$ and $H_{2(aq)}$ is 242 large (e.g., sample # 8 A = 4108 J/mol, assuming activity coefficients of H_{2(aq)} and 243 $CH_{4(aq)} = 1.14$) after the injection, concentrations remained low and virtually 244 constant at $\sim 20 \ \mu mol/kg$ until the experiment was terminated. Because the 245 reduction of CO_2 to $CH_{4(aq)}$ appears to be sluggish under the experimental 246 conditions, we decoupled the redox reactions involving the reduction of $CO_{2(aq)}$ to 247 hydrocarbons in the speciation calculations. Concentrations of dissolved Mg were 248 low during serpentinization (< 1 mmol/kg), increased noticeably during initial 249 carbonation to about 3 mmol/kg, and then decreased to < 2 mmol/kg towards the 250 end of the experiment. Slightly lower concentrations of Mg have been measured in a 251 flow-through carbonation experiment using sintered, but un-serpentinized dunite as the feedstock at 160 °C and 12 MPa (Andreani et al., 2009). Concentrations of
dissolved Ca were slightly higher during serpentinization (< 0.65 mmol/kg) than
during carbonation (< 0.27 mmol/kg), reflecting the incorporation of Ca in
precipitating carbonate.

- 256
- 257 *3.3. Solid Reaction Products*

258 Minerals identified using FE-EMPA and Raman spectroscopy include 259 magnesite, serpentine, magnetite, minor talc, and relict olivine (Fig. 3). 260 Representative compositions of these minerals are presented in Table 2. No other 261 minerals were detected using XRD analysis. Although speciation calculations of fluid 262 sample # 8 suggest quartz saturation (Figs. 1 & 4) for a short period of time, no 263 quartz was observed in the final reaction products. The dominant serpentine 264 polymorph found is chrysotile (Fig. 3). In addition, minor lizardite was detected 265 using Raman analysis. Individual chrysotile fibers appear to have remained 266 unaltered during carbonation, have a diameter of ca. 10 - 100 nm, and are several 267 μm in length (Fig. 3). Although chrysotile apparently formed chiefly during the 268 initial serpentinization stage of the experiment, it is conceivable that some 269 additional chrysotile may have grown during carbonation via silication of brucite 270 (R2). The anhydrous sum of oxides of the chrysotile analysis approximates 80 wt.%, 271 whereas the ideal for chrysotile and lizardite is about 87-88 wt.%, depending on Fe 272 and Al contents. Evans et al. (2012) point out that low anhydrous totals of 273 serpentine are not uncommon. The low totals of the chrysotile analyses (table 2) are 274 most likely related to a combination of imperfect sample preparation, the minute

275 crystal size, porosity, and the CITZAF correction procedure. To facilitate comparison 276 of our serpentine analysis with those from the literature we recalculated the 277 chemical composition of serpentine to 87 wt.% (table 2). Serpentine is Fe-bearing 278 (table 2) having an X_{Mg} of ca. 0.93. Minor talc is finely intergrown with serpentine on 279 a submicron scale (Fig. 3), making it difficult to obtain accurate chemical analysis. 280 With the exception of one analysis, most electron microprobe measurements were 281 mixtures of serpentine and talc, having (Mg+Fe)/SiO₂ molar ratios ranging between 282 1.4 and 1.04. Talc is Fe-bearing and exhibits an X_{Mg} of 0.92 (table 2). The lack of 283 $H_{2(aq)}$ generation during carbonation suggests that the iron incorporated into talc 284 during the second half of the experiment is chiefly ferrous. Magnetite forms 285 euhedral octahedra up to a few tens of microns in size (Fig. 3). Although the absence 286 of increasing $H_{2(aq)}$ levels during the carbonation stage suggest that the magnetite 287 precipitated exclusively during serpentinization, the crystals do not show any signs 288 of resorption or signs of replacement by hematite, as it is found in many carbonate-289 altered serpentinites (Frost, 1985). Magnesite forms colorless to white sub- to 290 euhedral crystals that measure $< 1\mu m$ to several hundred micrometers in diameter (Fig. 3). Magnesite is Fe-bearing and has an X_{Mg} of ~ 0.92 (table 2). Some crystals, 291 292 however, reveal a distinct zoning in X_{Mg} within a range of 0.91 – 0.94. Due to the low 293 CaO contents of the overall system, the concentrations of CaO in magnesite are 294 below 0.1 wt.%.

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297 3.4. Reaction Pathway and Magnesite Precipitation Over Time

298 The changes in fluid chemistry over time can be linked with the observed 299 secondary mineralogy using speciation calculations and thermodynamic phase 300 equilibria. Figure 4 displays the MgO-SiO₂-H₂O-CO₂ (MSHC) phase equilibria at 301 230 °C and 35 MPa in a log $aCO_{2(aq)}$ – log $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ plane (cf. Greenwood, 1967; Klein 302 and Garrido, 2011). Also plotted are the speciated $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ and $aCO_{2(aq)}$ of fluids sampled during the experiment. The activities of $CO_{2(aq)}$ and $SiO_{2(aq)}$ of fluid sample 303 304 # 06 (representing the serpentinization = pre-carbonation stage) plot within the 305 stability field of chrysotile in vicinity of the serpentine-brucite-magnesite quasi-306 invariant (assuming that $aH_20 \approx 1$) point and the metastable olivine-magnesite 307 univariant phase boundary (the term phase boundary is used synonymously with 308 line of equal activities). Previous serpentinization experiments conducted at similar 309 conditions yielded mainly serpentine, brucite, minor magnetite, and traces of 310 carbonate in addition to relict olivine (e.g., McCollom and Seewald, 2001). The 311 $aCO_{2(aq)}$ and $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ of sample # 6 in Figure 4 are consistent with this dis-312 equilibrium assemblage, which we assume represents the solid starting material 313 prior to the injection of the CO₂-rich fluid. Already two hours after the injection, 314 $aCO_{2(aa)}$ and $aSiO_{2(aa)}$ of sample # 07 fall in close vicinity of the metastable branch of 315 the phase boundary of serpentine and talc within the stability field of magnesite 316 (Figs. 1 & 4). Brucite is unstable at such high $aCO_{2(aq)}$ and $aSiO_{2(aq)}$, and will undergo 317 carbonation to magnesite:

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319 (R3)
$$Mg(OH)_2 + CO_{2(aq)} = MgCO_3 + H_2O.$$

Hydrothermal experiments conducted by Hövelmann et al. (2012) and Zhao et al. (1997) have demonstrated that the dissolution of brucite and simultaneous precipitation of Mg-carbonate can proceed on the scale of minutes to hours. Thus, it seems likely that brucite underwent complete carbonation to magnesite shortly after the injection.

The rapid drop in pH after the injection of the CO₂-rich fluid was most likely due tothe reaction

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329 (R4) $CO_{2(aq)} + H_2O \rightarrow HCO_3^- + H^+$.

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331 A lower pH, in turn, can cause enhanced dissolution of Mg-silicates. However, 332 chrysotile fibers remained virtually unaltered in the present experiment, whereas 333 olivine shows abundant dissolution pits (Fig. 3). This finding is consistent with the 334 notion that carbonation rates of serpentine (including dissolution of serpentine and 335 precipitation of magnesite) are more than 10 times slower than carbonation rates of 336 olivine at elevated temperatures and pressures (Kelemen & Matter, 2008, Kelemen 337 et al., 2011; Gerdemann et al., 2007; O'Connor et al., 2004; Hövelmann et al., 2012) 338 (Daval et al., 2013). Likewise, it is conceivable that carbonation rates of talc are 339 similar to those of serpentine on laboratory timescales. On the basis of our 340 petrographic results and previous experiments it seems likely that a lowered pH 341 (due to R4) can cause enhanced olivine dissolution,

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343 (R5)
$$Mg_{1.8}Fe_{0.2}SiO_4 + 4H^+ = 1.8Mg^{2+} + 0.2Fe^{2+} + SiO_{2(aq)} + 2H_2O_{2(aq)}$$

olivine

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which then liberates Mg²⁺, Fe²⁺, and SiO_{2(aq)} to the solution. Dissolved Mg²⁺ and Fe²⁺ 346 347 will react with $CO_{2(aq)}$ to form Fe-bearing magnesite. Efficient olivine dissolution 348 and relatively sluggish talc precipitation (cf. Hänchen et al., 2006; Saccocia et al., 349 2009) lead to the concomitant sharp increase in $aSiO_{2(aq)}$, which culminated in 350 quartz saturation (sample # 8, Figs. 1 & 4). However, quartz was not found among 351 the solid reaction products. The lack of quartz can be explained by low levels of 352 super-saturation, sluggish precipitation kinetics, and/or by its dissolution before the 353 experiment was terminated. The decrease in $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ and $aCO_{2(aq)}$ of all subsequent 354 samples suggests that talc precipitated together with magnesite, which was 355 confirmed by spectroscopic evidence. Note that sample # 10 has a higher log 356 $aMg^{++}/aH^{+^{2}}$ than samples # 9 and 11. This behavior is possibly an artifact. Since the 357 measured Mg concentration of sample 10 appears to be reasonable, falling between 358 samples 9 and 11, it seems the pH is too high. An increased pH could be explained, 359 e.g., by removal of headspace CO₂, driving reaction 4 to the left.

The magnesite precipitation rate can be approximated with the decrease of aCO_{2(aq)} over time, because chemical analysis of the fluid revealed no hydrocarbon formation after the injection, so that carbonate precipitation was the only significant sink for CO_{2(aq)} in the experiment. It was found that the consumption of CO_{2(aq)} and precipitation of magnesite can be well described with a simple nucleation and growth law of the form $X = 1 - e^{(Kt^n)}$, where X is the fraction of CO_{2(aq)} consumed or fraction of magnesite precipitated, K contains terms related to the shape of the 367 product, the number of growth dimensions, and nucleation rate, t represents time, 368 and the exponent n is a function of the number and type of time dependent 369 processes participating in the reaction (Avrami, 1939; Avrami, 1940). When -ln (ln 370 (1-x) is plotted against ln t, the rate constant K can be determined from the 371 intercept of the line on the ordinate (Fig. 5). Linearization of the Avrami equation 372 yields a rate constant K = $2.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ and a growth order of n = 0.78 (Fig. 5). 373 Avrami-type precipitation reactions are interpreted to proceed in 3 distinct stages 374 1) a slow initial nucleation stage, which is followed by 2) an accelerating growth 375 stage until 3) one of the reactants is exhausted or the reaction approaches 376 equilibrium and precipitation slows down. All 3 stages are apparent in the data as 377 shown in Figure 6 (green line); however, stage 1 lasted only a few minutes before 378 magnesite precipitation accelerated in stage two. In other words magnesite began to 379 precipitate almost instantaneously after the injection of the CO₂-rich fluid while 380 serpentinization ceased. Stage 2 is the main carbonation phase and lasted about 6 days in the present experiment before most of the $CO_{2(aq)}$ was consumed and 381 382 magnesite precipitation slowed down. Shown for comparison is a fit calculated by 383 Kelemen et al (2011) to the data of O'Connor et al. (2004) on the extent of olivine 384 carbonation as a function of time (blue line in Fig. 6). Experiments of O'Connor et al 385 (2004) were conducted at 185°C and 15 MPa P_{C02} , in aqueous solutions with 1M 386 NaCl and 0.64M NaHCO₃. Consistent with previous assessments of olivine 387 carbonation (Kelemen et al., 2011; Kelemen and Matter, 2008), reaction rates slow 388 down at temperatures higher than 185 °C; however, a direct comparison of both 389 datasets remains difficult due to differences in the experimental setups (in our 390 experiment $aCO_{2(aq)}$ decreases over time while $aCO_{2(aq)}$ in O'Connor et al.'s 391 experiment remains constant).

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4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

395 The present study was designed to trace the changes in fluid chemistry and 396 concomitant changes in mineralogy from serpentinization to carbonation as a 397 function of time. Serpentinization of olivine resulted in the formation of serpentine 398 (mainly chrysotile), brucite, and magnetite (± magnesite), along with significant, but 399 relatively low concentrations of $H_{2(aq)}$. The injection of a CO₂-rich fluid caused a 400 rapid change in fluid chemistry and a cessation of serpentinization, as suggested by 401 the virtually stagnant levels of $aH_{2(aq)}$ and $CH_{4(aq)}$ during carbonation. The injected 402 fluid was in sharp disequilibrium with brucite, which resulted in its replacement by 403 Fe-bearing magnesite (cf. Hövelmann et al., 2012; Zhao et al, 1997). Dissociation of 404 carbonic acid caused a decrease in pH, which led in turn to an enhanced dissolution 405 of olivine, while serpentine remained apparently unaltered. Dissolution of olivine 406 liberated Mg²⁺, Fe²⁺, and SiO_{2(aa)} to the CO₂-rich fluid, which promoted Fe-bearing 407 magnesite and talc precipitation. However, the small amount of talc present among 408 the reaction products suggests that its precipitation proceeded rather sluggishly. In 409 combination, efficient olivine dissolution and sluggish talc precipitation caused a 410 rapid increase in $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ to temporary quartz saturation.

411 Carbon dioxide is present in hydrothermal fluids at sub-seafloor pressures
412 and temperatures, and numerous laboratory studies have confirmed that CO_{2(aq)} can

413 be reduced to methane and other hydrocarbons under reducing conditions (Horita 414 and Berndt, 1999; McCollom and Seewald, 2001; McCollom and Seewald, 2003; 415 McCollom and Seewald, 2006; Seewald et al., 2006). These experiments reveal that 416 the conversion of $CO_{2(aq)}$ to $CH_{4(aq)}$, unless catalyzed by Ni-Fe alloys, is rather 417 sluggish and proceeds through a series of incremental reactions, with formic acid, 418 carbon monoxide, formaldehyde, and methanol forming as intermediate carbon 419 compounds (Seewald et al., 2006). Ni-Fe alloys, sulfur-poor sulfides, Cr-spinel, and 420 Fe-oxides, all of which are considered potential surface catalysts for Sabatier or 421 Fischer-Tropsch type reactions are indeed present in serpentinite (Alt and Shanks, 422 1998; Beard and Hopkinson, 2000; Dick and Gillete, 1976; Frost, 1985; Klein and 423 Bach, 2009; Ramdohr, 1950), but usually do not exceed 0.1 vol. %. However, their 424 minute, sub-micron grain size and virtually ubiquitous dispersion in abyssal 425 serpentinite (Klein and Bach, 2009) can provide substantial surface area for 426 potential catalysis. Although McCollom and Seewald (2001) reported the 427 precipitation of carbonate during their study on the reduction of CO₂ during serpentinization, experimental studies designed to examine mineral carbonation of 428 429 olivine, serpentine, or other Mg-silicates under hydrothermal conditions have not 430 reported on the formation of methane or other hydrocarbons during the 431 experiments (Alexander et al., 2007; Andreani et al., 2009; Bearat et al., 2006; 432 Bearat et al., 2002; Dufaud et al., 2009; Gerdemann et al., 2007; Hövelmann et al., 433 2011; Hövelmann et al., 2012; O'Connor et al., 2004; Park and Fan, 2004; Wolf et al., 434 2003; Zhao et al., 2010). As a consequence, there are few experimental constraints 435 on the relationships between carbonate mineral formation and competing carbon

436 reduction reactions in serpentinizing systems. The present experiment highlights 437 that magnesite precipitation is markedly faster than the reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ 438 (even in the presence of potential surface catalysts such as magnetite), if a CO₂-rich 439 fluid is introduced into mildly reducing serpentinization systems. Methane 440 formation might be more significant in more reducing serpentinization systems in 441 the presence of more effective surface catalysts such as Ni-Fe alloy (cf. Horita and 442 Berndt, 1999); however, it seems unlikely that this process dominates over 443 magnesite precipitation even at more reducing conditions.

444 Because CH_4 has a much higher global warming potential than CO_2 (e.g., 72) 445 times higher over a period of 20 years, Forster et al., 2007), an uncontrolled release 446 of large quantities of CH₄ during engineered in situ mineral carbonation of 447 ultramafic rocks is unwanted. In this respect the results of our experiment 448 tentatively suggest that CH₄ formation will likely be limited by the more efficient 449 precipitation of magnesite at conditions similar to those of our experiment. 450 However, silicification reactions due to increased $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ (c.f. Klein and Garrido, 451 2011) as well as acidification of interacting fluids must be taken into account, when 452 in situ carbonation of peridotite is considered.

453

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465 FIGURE CAPTIONS

466 Figure 1) Activity-activity diagram for fluid-mineral equilibria in the MgO-SiO₂-H₂O 467 system calculated using the software package SUPCRT92 (Johnson et al., 1902) for a 468 pressure of 35 MPa. Gray lines denote equilibria at 300 °C, black lines denote 469 equilibria at 230 °C. Mineral names are abbreviated as follows: Brc = brucite, Ctl = chrysotile, Fo =forsterite, Qtz = quartz, Tlc = talc. The quartz-SiO_{2(aq)} equilibrium is 470 471 illustrated only for 230 °C. Also shown are the speciated compositions of fluid 472 samples # 1 – 11 computed with the software code EQ3/6 (Wolery, 1992). Gray 473 diamonds denote fluids speciated for a temperature of 300°C (samples 1-5), orange 474 squares denote samples speciated for a temperature of 230 °C (samples 6-11). 475 Dashed lines illustrate metastable reactions at the experimental conditions. Note the marked change in $aSiO_{2(aq)}$ and aMg^{2+}/aH^{+2} before (samples 1-6) and after 476 477 (samples 8-11) the injection of a CO_2 -rich fluid. See text for discussion.

478

Figure 2) Measured (unspeciated) fluid composition as a function of time. Changes
in fluid composition were observed when the temperature was lowered from 300 to
230 °C as well as after the injection of the CO₂-rich fluid.

482

Figure 3) Back-scattered electron images of feedstock olivine and solid reaction products. a) Sheets of chrysotile (Ctl) fibers (gray) and magnetite (Mag) octahedra (white), powder sample. b) Olivine (Ol) exhibits dissolution features and Ctl overgrowth, powder sample. c) Euhedral magnesite (Mgs) covering Ctl / talc (Tlc) intergrowths, powder sample. d) Ol, Mgs, and Ctl in cross-section, polished grain

488 mount. e) Cross-section of Ctl-fiber aggregate, polished grain mount. f) Intergrowths489 of Tlc and Ctl, white crystal is Mag, polished grain mount.

490

491 Figure 4) Log activity-activity diagram depicting the stability fields and lines of 492 equal activity of phases in the system MgO-SiO₂-H₂O-CO₂ calculated for 230 °C and 493 35 MPa using the software code SUPCRT92 (Johnson et al., 1992). The black dashed 494 line shows the metastable branch of the serpentine-talc equilibrium (reaction R6). 495 The blue dashed line denotes the metastable olivine-magnesite equilibrium. The 496 solubility of quartz (red line) was calculated using the thermodynamic data of 497 Rimstidt (1997). Also shown are the speciated $SiO_{2(aq)}$ and $aCO_{2(aq)}$ activities of fluid 498 samples. Sample # 6 represents the serpentinization (pre-injection) stage, samples # 7-11 represent the carbonation (i.e. post-injection) stage. $SiO_{2(aq)}$ and $CO_{2(aq)}$ 499 500 activities change markedly and follow roughly the (metastable) lines of equal 501 activity of brucite, chrysotile, talc, magnesite, olivine, and quartz.

502

Figure 5) A plot of ln(ln-1-x) against ln t (time in seconds), where x is the fraction of CO₂ consumed (equal to the amount of magnesite precipitated). If reaction rates conform the Avrami rate law ln(ln-1-x) against ln t is linear (Putnis, 1992). The slope equals the constant n, and the intercept at the ordinate gives the rate constant k.

508

Figure 6) Data (yellow circles) and best fit (green line) for the fraction X of $CO_{2(aq)}$ 510 consumed (\approx fraction of magnesite precipitated) as a function of time. The rate

511 constant K = $2.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and the growth order n = 0.78. Magnesite precipitation can

512 be represented by 3 distinct stages, a relatively slow initial nucleation stage (stage

513 I), which is followed by an accelerating growth stage (stage II) until most of the

514 $CO_{2(aa)}$ is consumed and the precipitation slows down (stage III). Shown for

- 515 comparison is a fit calculated by Kelemen et al (2011) to the data of O'Connor et al.
- 516 (2004) on the extent of olivine carbonation as a function of time (gray curve).
- 517 Experiments of O'Connor et al (2004) were conducted at 185°C and 150 bars P_{C02},
- 518 in aqueous solutions with 1M NaCl and 0.64M NaHCO₃.
- 519
- 520

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Sample #	T (°C)	Time (hours)	$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{CO}_{2(aq)} \\ (\mathrm{mM}) \end{array}$	$H_{2(aq)}$ (mM)	$CH_{4(aq)}$ (μ M)	SiO _{2(aq)} (mM)	Mg (mM)	Ca (mM)	рН	
CO-10-1	300	3.00	0.65	0.03	5.40	0.65	0.30	0.10	8.03	
CO-10-2	300	169.75	n.a.	1.04	n.a.	0.04	0.13	0.34	8.76	
CO-10-3	301	507.83	n.a.	1.72	n.a.	0.03	0.13	0.47	8.83	
CO-10-4	298	771.17	0.93	2.13	29.71	0.02	0.16	0.41	8.79	
CO-10-5	299	1227.92	1.02	3.26	39.22	0.04	0.30	0.60	8.63	
CO-10-6	231	1393.25	0.90	2.81	37.14	0.02	0.77	0.65	8.96	
injection of CO ₂ -rich fluid at 1396.67 hours										
CO-10-7	231	1398.87	192.87	1.38	18.68	0.73	2.37	0.25	6.25	
CO-10-8	231	1444.83	102.02	1.20	21.08	6.56	3.12	0.11	5.77	
CO-10-9	231	1538.00	37.13	1.22	21.11	3.53	2.90	0.10	6.11	
CO-10-10	231	2019.83	6.20	1.12	22.04	0.64	2.25	0.12	6.80	
CO-10-11	231	2187.20	5.15	1.12	17.60	1.19	1.87	0.12	6.35	

 Table 1: Measured changes in fluid chemistry over time (at 25 °C)
 °C)

Mineral	Olivine	Serpentine	Serpentine	Talc	Magnesite			
	(3 analyses)	(3 analyses)	normalized to 87 wt.%	(1 analysis)	(9 analyses)			
Wt.%								
SiO_2	40.89	37.74	40.78	60.05	0.41			
TiO ₂	0.03	0.09	0.09	0	na			
Al_2O_3	0.14	0.87	0.94	0.82	na			
Cr_2O_3	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	na			
FeO	9.04	4.84	5.23	3.89	6.78			
MnO	0.15	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.15			
MgO	49.79	36.12	39.03	25.85	44.83			
NiO	0.38	0.32	0.35	0.14	na			
CoO	0.04	0.02	0.02	0	na			
CaO	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.80	0.09			
Cl	na	0.39	0.42	0.06	0.01			
S	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.02	na			
CO_2^*	-	-	-	-	47.73			
Total	100.51	80.51	87.00	91.69	100.00			
X_{Mg}	0.907	0.930	0.930	0.922	0.921			
* calculated by difference, $X_{Mg} = molar MgO/(MgO+FeO)$, na = not analyzed								

Table 2: Electron microprobe analysis of olivine and secondary minerals



Figure 1











Figure 6