

Reduced gas seepages in ophiolitic complexes: Evidences for multiple origins of the H 2 -CH 4 -N 2 gas mixtures

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32

33 This paper proposes a comparative study of reduced gas seepages occurring in ultrabasic to 34 basic rocks outcropping in ophiolitic complexes based on the study of seepages from Oman, 35 the Philippines, Turkey and New Caledonia. This study is based on analyses of the gas 36 chemical composition, noble gases contents, stable isotopes of carbon, hydrogen and nitrogen. 37 These seepages are mostly made of mixtures of three main components which are H_2 , CH₄ 38 and N_2 in various proportions. The relative contents of the three main gas components show 4 39 distinct types of gas mixtures (H₂-rich, N₂-rich, N₂-H₂-CH₄ and H₂-CH₄). These types are 40 interpreted as reflecting different zones of gas generation within or below the ophiolitic 41 complexes. In the H₂-rich type associated noble gases display signatures close to the value of 42 air. In addition to the atmospheric component, mantle and crustal contributions are present in 43 the N₂-rich, N₂-H₂-CH₄ and H₂-CH₄ types. H₂-bearing gases are either associated with ultra-44 basic (pH 10-12) spring waters or they seep directly in fracture systems from the ophiolitic 45 rocks. In ophiolitic contexts, ultrabasic rocks provide an adequate environment with available 46 Fe²⁺ and alkaline conditions that favor H_2 production. CH₄ is produced either directly by 47 reaction of dissolved $CO₂$ with basic-ultrabasic rocks during the serpentinization process or in 48 a second step by H_2 -CO₂ interaction. H_2 is present in the gas when no more carbon is 49 available in the system to generate CH₄. The N₂-rich type is notably associated with relatively 50 high contents of crustal ⁴He and in this gas type N_2 is interpreted as issued mainly from 51 sediments located below the ophiolitic units.

Introduction

56 Serpentinization generates natural emission of H_2 on Earth. The process is inherent to exposure of reduced mantle rocks to hydration conditions in a wide range of thermal conditions, at least up to the critical temperature of water (374°C). This occurs commonly at mid-oceanic ridges where hydrothermal fluid circulation at high temperature provides 60 conditions for ferromagnesian mineral alteration. Indeed, at mid-oceanic ridges H_2 -rich fluids 61 are associated with N_2 and CH₄ contents and on black smokers with CO_2 (Welhan and Craig, 1979; Kelley and Früh-Green, 1999; Charlou et al., 2002; Kelley et al., 2001, 2005; Gallant 63 and Von Damm, 2006; Kumagai et al., 2008; and others). Natural H_2 seepages are also 64 reported onshore, in former oceanic rocks present in ophiolite complexes. Notably, H_2 seepages associated with these ultrabasic rocks have been reported in the Sultanate of Oman (Neal and Stanger, 1983; Sano et al., 1993; Vacquand, 2011; Boulart et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2016), the Philippines (Abrajano et al. 1988, 1990) and Turkey (De Boer et al., 2007; Hosgörmez et al., 2008; Etiope et al., 2011). These gas seepages are often associated with ultra-basic springs (pH 10-12) that are present in many basic-ultrabasic rock exposures. Such ultra-basic waters have been interpreted as evidences of active serpentinization (Barnes et al., 1967, 1978; Neal and Stanger, 1983; Abrajano et al., 1988, 1990; Sano et al., 1993; Bruni et al., 2002; Cipolli et al., 2004; Deville et al., 2011; Szponar et al., 2013; Etiope et al., 2013; Chavagnac et al., 2013; Cardace et al., 2015; Meyer-Dombard et al., 2015; Woycheese et al., 74 2015; Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016). In these cases, H_2 -rich gas is either dissolved or present 75 as free gas bubbling in the ultra-basic water. In other cases, H_2 -rich gas seepages occur in rock fractures and can locally burn spontaneously. This is notably the case of the famous Chimaera near Antalya, place of the first Olympic flame, which are known to be burning since antiquity (De Boer et al., 2007; Hosgörmez et al., 2007, 2008) and the site of "Los Fuegos Eternos" in the Philippines known since the Spanish colonization (Abrajano et al., 80 1988, 1990). H₂-bearing gases discovered in ophiolitic rocks onshore show lower contents in helium than those discovered in terrestrial context in non-ophiolitic rocks (Coveney et al, 1987; Ikorsky et al., 1999; Sherwood-Lollar et al., 2007; Larin et al., 2015; Zgonnik et al., 2015; Guélard et al., 2017).

84 $\,$ H₂ is generally considered as produced by water reduction that occurs simultaneously to the hydration of ultrabasic or basic rocks, *i.e.,* according to serpentinization reactions. In the case of ophiolitic settings, it is generally supposed to happen at low temperature (Moody, 1976;

 Neal and Stanger, 1983; Abrajano et al., 1988; Etiope et al., 2011). The process driving this 88 reduction is the change of valence of transition metals, notably ferrous iron Fe^{II} into ferric 89 iron Fe^{III} , iron being the most abundant transition metal in ultrabasic and basic rocks. Fe^{II} is a major component in ultrabasic rocks in the ophiolitic units within minerals such as olivine and 91 pyroxene. It contributes to the formation of Fe^{III} -bearing minerals, such as magnetite. These mineral assemblages are observed in the field, where peridotites are largely serpentinized, 93 mostly along fracture systems. The question of $H₂$ provenance in oceanic hydrothermal context has been largely approached by petrographic studies and experimental simulations (Allen and Seyfried, 2003; Yoshizaki et al., 2009; Klein et al., 2009; Marcaillou et al. 2011; Neubeck et al. 2011; Shibuya et al., 2015) and numerical modelling (McCollom and Bach, 2009; Klein et al., 2009; Marcaillou et al., 2011). Fe^{II} is initially provided by different minerals (such olivine and pyroxene) in the first stages of hydration, but also by serpentine or 99 ferrous iron hydroxide, which are produced by the alteration processes, thus allowing the H_2 production to go on after olivine and pyroxene have all been transformed (Marcaillou et al., 2011). These studies have shown that depending on thermodynamic conditions, temperature, water chemistry (notably carbonate content, sulphate content and alkalinity), water/rock ratios, different mineral assemblages and sequences are obtained as by-products together with different rates and amounts of H2. According to the numerical model proposed by McCollom 105 and Bach (2009), the highest rates of H_2 production are obtained at high temperature (about 315°C) while serpentine and magnetite are the main mineral assemblage of the by-products. 107 Onshore H₂-bearing gas seepages yield not only H₂ but also methane and nitrogen, resulting in a three-component gas mixture with proportions varying in a very large range. The origin 109 and the processes of generation of CH_4 and N_2 associated to H_2 are still a matter of discussion in terrestrial ophiolitic units. In the present paper, the geochemical properties of reduced gas seepages from four ophiolite massifs: 1) the Semail ophiolite in the Sultanate of Oman, 2) the Zambales ophiolite in the Philippines, 3) the Antalya ophiolite in southern Turkey and 4) the New Caledonia ophiolite are compared in the light of local geological features to better understand the conditions for di-hydrogen, methane and di-nitrogen production in the geological context of these ophiolite complexes (Fig. 1, 2, 3).

Geological settings

 The ophiolitic units in which this study was conducted correspond to wide ophiolitic massifs (Fig. 1) containing rocks which have not been subjected to high pressure-low temperature

 (HP-LT) conditions. Peridotites rocks are little serpentinized in wide areas (much less than ophiolites involved in HP-LT conditions). These ophiolites units have been obducted on sediments (Fig. 2) belonging to different paleogeographic domains, either oceanic or continental, which contain, in all cases, clastics and carbonates. The fractures in the peridotite host serpentine and carbonate veins, mainly Mg-bearing carbonates (magnesite, hydromagnesite and dolomite). In the ophiolite-hosted fractured aquifers, groundwater circulations is controlled by fracture hydraulic conductivity. Ultra-basic surface seepages have been found in these ophiolitic massifs and they generally discharge close to the contact between the mantle rocks and overlying former oceanic crust rocks (Moho), and along the basal thrust plane of the ophiolite sequence. This is probably related to favorable drainage conditions in the fractured rocks at the base of the ophiolitic units and to drainage control by the more massive gabbroic units compared to the more fractured peridotites below. They release high pH fluids (commonly higher than 10) which are rich in Ca^{2+} , OH, H_2 and CH₄.

 More specifically, the Oman ophiolite has been extensively studied, as it is the best large exposed massif of this type in the world (see Hopson *et al.*, 1981; Ceuleneer, 1991; Nicolas *et al.,* 1996, 2000; Python and Ceuleneer, 2003; Arai *et al.,* 2006 and many others). This ophiolite corresponds to parts of the oceanic lithosphere of the Arabian Sea which have been 138 obducted on the Arabian plate during late Cretaceous times. H_2 -rich gas seepages associated 139 with Ca^{2+} -OH--rich groundwater in the Semail ophiolite of Oman were first studied by Neal 140 and Stanger (1983). They proposed that H_2 is the by-product of a low temperature (20-50°C) 141 serpentinization that depends on Fe^{II} hydroxide availability and oxidation by meteoric water 142 that occurs in 2 stages: 1) oxidation by atmospheric O_2 dissolved in meteoric water; 2) oxidation by water. Sano et al. (1993) provided a new insight by analyzing noble gases. Their 144 results confirmed that H_2 -rich gas samples are inherited from interaction of meteoric water 145 with Fe^{II} although they propose a high temperature for the reaction (300 $^{\circ}$ C).

 In the Philippines, gases were sampled in the Zambales massif, which is located in the north- western part of the Luzon Island (Nicolas and Violette, 1982; Hawkins and Evans, 1983; Abrajano et al., 1988; Yumul et al., 1998; Encarnacion et al., 1999). The gas seepages occur either as bubbling in alkaline springs or seeping out from fractured rocks, locally spontaneously burning as, for instance, in Los Fuegos Eternos and Nagsasa. Gas seepages in the Zambales massif were first studied by Abrajano et al. (1988; 1990). In their paper, they concluded that both mantle origin and serpentinization are consistent with their analytical results and they proposed a temperature of 110-125°C for serpentinization.

 The ophiolite of the Antalya region, in southern Turkey, has been extensively studied (Juteau et al., 1977; Robertson and Woodcock, 1980; Glover and Robertson, 1998a, b). Also, the associated sedimentary sequences have been investigated (Bozcu and Yagmurlu, 2001), while oil seepages have also been observed less than 20 km away from the Chimaera site (Hosgörmez *et al.,* 2008). The site of the Chimaera gas seepage has the most spectacular gas outlet since the flames are more intense than those in Zambales, Philippines, and are also 160 more colorful because of a greater content in methane, relatively to the H_2 . H_2 seepages associated with the site of the first Olympic fire was first reported by Hosgörmez et al. (2008). From their chemical and isotopic study, they concluded that gas seepages originate from both thermogenic maturation of organic matter and serpentinization. In a later publication, Etiope et al. (2011) confirmed previous conclusions and proposed a temperature lower than 100°C for serpentinization.

 The ophiolite of New Caledonia is among the largest onshore massifs of ultrabasic rocks preserved on Earth. The peridotites nappe was emplaced during Eocene times over (1) a basement of arc-derived formations of Pre-Cretaceous age which are overlain by basalts and formations of the Central Range that include sandstones, siltstones, graywackes, claystones with coal of Cretaceous age and Tertiary carbonate turbidites and volcaniclastic deposits, and (2) a tectonic unit of oceanic basalts of Upper Cretaceous to Eocene age, with back-arc or 172 fore-arc affinities which underlies the peridotites nappe (Paris, 1981). H_2 -bearing gas seepages associated to alkaline to hyper-alkaline waters were found in the southern part of the Massif du Sud (bay of Prony) within the peridotite nappe (Deville et al., 2010; Monnin et al., 175 2014; Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016), while N_2 -rich seepages were found below the ophiolitic units in the area of La Crouen (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016).

Materials and methods

 Gases were sampled in stainless steel tubes with helium-proof valves for chemical composition and noble gas analyses and in glass tubes for stable isotopic composition 182 analyses. Gas sampling devices were evacuated $(10^{-3}$ Pa vacuum) before sampling. When possible, stainless steel tubes were swept twice by the sampled gas. When gas was collected in water springs, streams or in the sea (Oman, some places in the Philippines and New-Caledonia), pH, Eh and temperature were measured directly in the field (Table 1).

 The chemical compositions of gases were determined by gas chromatography (GC) with a Varian GC3800. Measurement uncertainties are below 0.01% mol for hydrocarbons (FID) and 188 for other gases (TCD). The measurements of the isotopic ratios ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ (CH₄ and CO₂) and 189 D/H in $(CH_4$ and H_2) were performed on a MAT 253 (Thermo Fischer) mass spectrometer 190 coupled with a gas chromatograph (GCC-IR-MS). The results are reported in δ units relative to Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB) for carbon and Standard Mean Ocean Water (SMOW) for hydrogen, respective analytical uncertainties being of 0.5‰ and 5‰. Nitrogen isotopic 193 compositions were measured relative to air with a MAT 253 mass spectrometer. N₂ has been 194 purified in a vacuum line. CH₄ and H₂ were oxidized in a Cu-oxide oven to CO_2 and water 195 vapor, respectively. These produced gases were cryogenically trapped for separation from N_2 . 196 Analytical uncertainty for the measurement of $\delta^{15}N$ is lower than 0.1‰.

 The noble gases elementary compositions were determined by quadrupole mass spectrometry 198 (Table 2). The QUADRAR line allows determining the contents of ⁴He, ²⁰Ne, ³⁶Ar and Kr. The mass spectrometer is a Prisma quadripole QMA/QME200 (Pfeiffer Vacuum) with an open ion source. The analyzer allows measurements of compounds with a mass over charge ratio from 0 to 100. Global relative uncertainties for quantification of noble gases with this 202 method are within the following range: He: $\pm 15\%$; Ne: $\pm 20\%$; Ar: $\pm 10\%$; Kr: $\pm 12\%$.

 Helium isotopic ratios and contents were determined with a high-resolution magnetic sector mass spectrometer Micromass GV 5400 equipped with a modified Nier type electron impact source (Bright). The global relative uncertainty (1σ) on the quantification of ⁴He is \pm 4%. The 206 uncertainty on the quantification of the 3 He/ 4 He ratio is \pm 2%.

Results

 The sites studied in Oman are scattered over Northern Oman and comprise 14 spots of gas bubbling in water (Fig. 1A). Most of the gas samples were taken in ultra-basic springs of the Semail ophiolite and three samples were taken in non-alkaline thermal springs (Rustaq, Nakhal and Al Ali) seeping from formations structurally located below the ophiolite nappe (Table 1). In the Philippines, 3 spots were sampled in the Zambales ophiolite. One site (Mangatarem) corresponds to an ultra-basic thermal spring with abundant bubbling gas, whereas the two others correspond to gas directly seeping from fractures of the peridotites (Table 1). One site corresponds to the Los Fuegos Eternos burning gas close to the Coto Chromite mine (Abrajano et al., 1988, 1990), the other one is located above the Nagsasa bay (Abrajano et al., 2006; Fig. 1B). The gas vents sampled in Turkey were seeping out of the fracture system of the ophiolite unit in the area of Chimaera, south of Antalya (Fig. 1C). In 221 New Caledonia, all gas samples were bubbling in water (some in alkaline springs of the area 222 of the bay of Prony, others in the non-alkaline thermal springs of the area of La Crouen; 223 Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016; Fig. 1D).

224

225 *Chemical and isotopic composition of the gas*

226

227 The gas chemical compositions are listed in Table 1. Gas mixtures contain H_2 , N_2 and CH₄ as 228 major components. Figure 4 displays H_2 , N₂ and CH₄ molecular contents of all samples in a 229 triangular diagram. Four distinct types of gas mixtures can be identified according to their 230 respective contents in H_2 , CH₄ and N_2 . Three of these types are associated with water seeps: 231 H₂-rich type; N₂-H₂-CH₄ type and N₂-rich type. The water properties associated to these gas 232 seepages are listed in Table 1 and illustrated on a Pourbaix diagram on figure 5. The last type 233 (H_2-CH_4) corresponds to gas seepages in fractures without associated water flow.

234 Carbon and hydrogen isotopic composition (δ^{13} C and δ D) of H₂, CH₄, CO₂ and nitrogen 235 isotopic composition ($\delta^{15}N$) of N₂ are reported in Table 2. δD of H₂ values are very negative 236 and comprised in a narrow range from -756 to -699‰, except for the sample from Nagsasa 237 (Philippines) with δ D of H₂ = -664‰ (Fig. 6, 7). The highest values of δ D of CH₄ correspond 238 to the highest contents of methane (Fig. 8A). Relative carbon and hydrogen isotopic 239 compositions of methane are presented in Figure 8B. High values of $\delta^{13}C$ of CH₄ were 240 obtained, up to $+7.9\%$, while δ D of CH₄ are ranging from -428 to -130‰.

241 Hydrogen isotopic fractionation between H_2 and CH₄ depends on seepage types. The highest 242 isotopic fractionations between species are observed on dry seepages where δD values of 243 methane are the highest recorded in this study (Table 2). The nitrogen isotopic compositions 244 were also measured for 4 samples. $\delta^{15}N$ values range from -0.3 to +0.5‰ (Table 2).

245 Noble gases contents and their isotopic ratios, when measured, are given in Table 2. The 246 samples of the H₂-rich type are very close to the air end-member with a slight crustal 247 contribution. Those of the N₂-H₂-CH₄ type show higher N₂ and CH₄ contents and present 248 either a crustal (Oman), or mantle (Kaoris, New Caledonia) or crust plus mantle contribution 249 (Oman). The samples of the H_2 -CH₄ type present both crustal and mantle contributions, with a 250 very marked mantle contribution for the Nagsasa sample (Zambales, Philippines). N₂-rich 251 samples are made of a mixing between air and crust end-members.

252

²⁵³ *Gas types*

255 According to the gas compositions, four types can be defined (Fig. 4):

256 1) *The H₂-rich type* shows dominant H₂ contents (61.0 to 87.3% mol) associated with some N₂ 257 (less than 35% mol) and some CH4 (less than 20 mol%; Fig. 4 and 8A). This type is 258 encountered in Oman (Neal and Stanger, 1983; Sano et al., 1993; Deville et al., 2010, 2011; 259 Vacquand, 2011; Boulard et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2016) and this type of gas exclusively 260 seeps as bubbles from ultra-basic springs (pH between 11 and 12; Fig. 5) associated to 261 negative to very negative Eh (from -45 to -780 mV; Fig. 5; table 1). In addition to the high 262 OH ion concentration responsible for the high pH, the waters are calcium-rich (Neal and 263 Stanger, 1985). Consequently, in the alkaline springs, spectacular precipitations of calcium 264 carbonate (calcite and aragonite) are observed due to the reaction of Ca^{2+} and OH ions with 265 the $CO₂$ of the atmosphere (see supplementary material). These waters show high electrical 266 conductivities in accordance with their relatively high salinity, essentially related to the 267 presence of Cl⁻ and Na⁺ ions (Cl⁻ between 120 and 380 mg/l; Na⁺ between 150 and 420 mg/l; 268 Neal and Stanger, 1985; Kelemen et al., 2011). The temperatures of these sources are almost 269 ambient to slightly warm (between 22.5 and 35 °C). The δ^{13} C values of methane are very high 270 (among the highest values known on Earth, between -13 and +8‰; Table 2; Fig. 8B). The gas composition shows N₂ *vs* fossil noble gas ³⁶ Ar ratios (Table 2; Fig. 9) comprised between the 272 air and water in equilibrium with air (classically mentioned as ASW for Air Saturated Water). 273

- 274 2) *The N₂*-H₂-CH₄ *type* is characterized, by higher N₂ values (from 45 to 65 mol%) compared 275 to the previous gas type. Therefore N_2 becomes the main gas. H_2 contents range from 25 to 36 276 mol%. CH₄ concentrations are similar to those of the H₂-rich type (below 20 mol%; Fig. 4). 277 This second gas type is mainly found in New Caledonia (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016) but 278 also in some springs of Oman and of the Philippines. This type of gas mixture seeps also in 279 ultra-basic springs. These springs are generally warmer than those of the H_2 -rich type, up to 280 40.1^oC in New Caledonia and pH values are slightly lower, ranging from 10.5 to 11.3. They 281 are, as well, associated with precipitations of calcium carbonate (see supplementary material). 282 The N₂³⁶Ar ratios of this gas type are different from the previous type and higher than those 283 recorded for ASW and air (Table 2; Fig. 9). These ratios are also correlated with H_2^{36} Ar and 284 $\mathrm{^{4}He/^{36}Ar}$ ratios (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016). $\delta^{13}C$ of methane recorded for this gas type 285 ranges between -38.5 and -32.4‰ (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016).
- 286

287 3) *In the N₂-rich type*, the dominant gas compound is N_2 (over 91 mol%). Gas mixture is H_2 -288 free with low CH₄ contents (up to 2.7 mol% in New Caledonia), plus substantial amounts of 289 helium (values above 0.1 mol%). This type of springs was found in Oman (Sano et al., 1993; 290 Vacquand, 2011) and New Caledonia (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016) where they occur in the 291 same structural position, *i.e.,* at the base of ophiolitic nappes (either in the sole of the nappes 292 or in the sediments immediately below the nappes). δ^{13} C values of CH₄ in this type are 293 between -39.2 and -12.1‰. These gases come out in the form of bubbling springs with less 294 alkaline water than previously recorded (pH from 7.5 to 10) and variable Eh (from -230 to 295 +146 mV). The N₂³⁶Ar ratios are very high (Table 2; Fig. 9). R/Ra ratios of the gases are 296 consistently low (between 0.06 and 0.08, except for the sample collected in Al Ali where it 297 was not possible to avoid air contamination because of access difficulties when sampling the 298 gas and high temperature of the spring, above 66°C; Tables 1 and 2; Fig. 10). The dissolved 299 species in the associated waters are very different from those of the waters containing H_2 300 gases. They show lower concentrations of Na^+ and K^+ ions and contain HCO_3^- ions, which is 301 not the case of the ultra-basic springs with H_2 seepages (Neal and Stanger, 1985). In all cases 302 these springs are warm to hot (from 37.9 to above 66°C; Table 1).

303

304 4) *The H₂-CH₄ type* shows mostly H₂ and CH₄ in variable proportions. This type of gas vent is 305 characterized by focused and relatively high gas flows $(> 1 \text{ l/s})$, coming directly out of the rock fractures in the absence of water. This gas type was found in the Philippines and in Turkey where it was mentioned respectively by Abrajano et al. (1988; 2006) and Hosgörmez et al. (2008). It has not been found in New Caledonia but Neal and Stanger (1983) mentioned locally focused high gas flows seeping out directly from fractures of ultrabasic rocks in Oman $(> 10 \text{ l/s})$. The CH₄/H₂ ratio is commonly higher compared to the types associated to alkaline springs, except for the case of Nagsasa in the Philippines. The gas is able locally to spontaneously ignite as it is the case in Turkey (Chimaera) and the Philippines (Los Fuegos 313 Eternos and Nagsasa) forming visible flames when the $CH₄/H₂$ ratio is high. Nitrogen is nearly absent of these dry gas seepages (less than 2 mol%; Fig. 4) whereas since the gas is seeping out from fractures of rocks located above the water table, we would have expected that the gas would be much more easily naturally contaminated by air than in the previous 317 cases which are bubbling in water. Indeed, these H_2 -CH₄ gases do not display predominantly 318 atmospheric features and 20 Ne and 84 Kr concentrations are quite low compared to other types 319 of gas mixtures (Table 2). δ^{13} C values of CH₄ are high and fairly constant (between -12 and -

- 320 5‰; Fig. 8), as well as δD of CH₄ which range from -175 to -130‰. The δD values of CH₄
- 321 are higher when compared to the H₂-rich and N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas types (Table 1), while the δ D
- 322 values of H_2 vary between -756 and -664‰, generally in the same order of magnitude as those
- 323 recorded in the H₂-rich and N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas types (Table 1; Fig. 6). The differences of δ D
- 324 values of CH4 suggest different processes for CH4 genesis and probably different sources for
- 325 hydrogen and carbon (see discussion below).
- 326

327 **Discussion**

328

329 *Main characteristics of the different gas types*

330

331 Comparing the different gas types, several characteristic features can be noticed. Gases 332 bubbling in prings always contain N_2 that is not related to air contamination (see below), 333 while gas seepages in fractures without associated water flows are N_2 -poor. The gas bubbling 334 in springs show CH₄ contents that never exceed 20 mol%. The specificity of the H₂-CH₄ gas 335 type seeping in fractures without associated water flow is that their CH₄ contents locally reach 336 high levels and that δ D of CH₄ is significantly higher compared to the δ D of CH₄ in the other 337 gas types (Fig. 8). The water temperature tends to increase in the different types of springs 338 from the H₂-rich, to the N₂-H₂-CH₄ and to the N₂-rich gas types (Table 1). Gas bubbling in 339 springs is associated to ultra-basic conditions only when H_2 is present, whereas water is less 340 or not basic in the springs of the N₂-rich gas type. We propose that the chemical 341 characteristics that define gas types reflect differences in origin and transport pathways of gas 342 mixtures.

343

344 *Hydrogen origin*

345

346 As mentioned in introduction, H_2 sources of gas seepages in ophiolitic contexts are classically credited to modern hydration processes at low temperature during the weathering of ultrabasic and basic rocks (mostly peridotite and gabbro). At depth, within ophiolitic rocks, biological 349 production of H_2 by fermentation processes is probably a sluggish process due to the paucity of potential organic substrates. High-temperature serpentinization (above 300°C) is a well- known process but at temperatures below 300°C serpentinization can occur as well (Moody 1976). Indeed, experimental studies simulating land-based peridotite systems have shown that 353 H₂ can be generated during serpentinization at temperatures below 100° C (Mayhew et al., 2013; Okland et al., 2014; Neubeck et al., 2011). On hydrogen-bearing gas seepages associated with high pH waters in ophiolitic context (Neal and Stanger 1983; Sano *et al.* 1993; Cipolli *et al.* 2004; Hosgörmez *et al.* 2008; Abrajano *et al.,* 2006; Vacquand, 2011), H2 would result from the interaction between ultrabasic rocks and water flows at depth in the 358 fracture system, in anoxic conditions, by reduction of water and oxidation of metals $[Fe^{II}]$, 359 Mn^{II}, Ni^{II}...), Fe^{II} being by far the most abundant electron donor in ultrabasic-basic rocks. 360 During the serpentinization process, Fe^{II} -rich minerals, such as olivine $[(Mg^{II},Fe^{II})_2SiO_4]$ are 361 oxided and form Fe^{III} -bearing minerals, such as magnetite $[Fe_2^{III}Fe^{II}O_4]$ or Fe^{III} -bearing 362 serpentine (Evans et al., 2008), with coeval reduction of water generating H_2 . Olivine is a magnesium-iron nesosilicate forming a solid solution series between a Mg-endmember and a 364 Fe- endmember. During olivine dissolution, the olivine Fe-endmember (fayalite, Fe_2SiO_4) tends to react as,

$$
3 Fe_2SiO_4 + 2 H_2O \rightarrow 2 Fe_3O_4 + 3 SiO_2 + 2H_2
$$

\n
$$
3 68
$$

$$
Fayalite + water \rightarrow Magnetic + silica + dihydrogen
$$
 (1)

 At temperature below 150°C, dissolution of the olivine Fe-endmember is even thermodynamically more favorable when Fe-chrysotile is formed (Oze and Sharma, 2005) according to the following reaction,

$$
374 \t 6 Fe2SiO4 + 7 H2O \rightarrow 3 Fe3Si2O5(OH)4 + Fe3O4 + H2
$$
\n
$$
6 Fe2SiO4 + 7 H2O \rightarrow 3 Fe3Si2O5(OH)4 + Fe3O4 + H2
$$
\n
$$
(2)
$$

377 The Mg-endmember of olivine (Forsterite, Mg_2SiO_4) reacts as,

$$
379 \quad 2 \text{ Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4 + 3 \text{ H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4 + \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{OH}
$$
\n
$$
380 \quad \text{Forsterite + water} \rightarrow \text{Chrysotile + magnesium ions +hydroxyl ions}
$$
\n
$$
(3)
$$

382 In presence of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in subsurface, Mg^{2+} ions are consumed to produce magnesium-bearing carbonates (which are widespread in fractures systems of all the 384 ophiolitic massifs studied here; see below), and (if available) remaining Mg^{2+} ions are prone 385 to react with OH to form brucite, $Mg(OH)_2$ (which is commonly found in the ultra-basic springs studied here, notably in Oman; Neal and Stanger, 1984) leaving finally OH available

 in solution. In the case of New Caledonia, where alkaline seepages interact with sea water, 388 this results in massive production of brucite due to the reaction between OH and Mg^{2+} present in sea water as it is the case of the seepages studied in New-Caledonia (Launay and Fontes, 1985). More generally, as proposed by different authors, the coupled hydration of Mg-olivine 391 and Ca-bearing pyroxene of peridotite rocks makes the water enriched in Ca^{2+} and OH⁻ (Barnes et al., 1967; Neal and Stanger, 1984; Bruni et al., 2002; Kelemen et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2016),

394

$$
4 Mg_2SiO_4 + CaMgSi_2O_6 + 7H_2O \rightarrow 3 Mg_3Si_2O_5(OH)_4 + Ca^{2+} + 2OH
$$
\n
$$
Forsterite + Clinopy roxene + water \rightarrow Serpentine + calcium ions + hydroxyl ions
$$
\n(4)

397

398 As such, the interaction between peridotite and water during serpentinization is a potential 399 source of H_2 caused by ferrous iron oxidation and water reduction associated with a rise of pH 400 due to OH⁻ production and associated with the presence of Ca^{2+} in the ultra-basic water. The 401 richer in iron is the olivine, the more H_2 and the less OH are produced.

402 It has been experimentally demonstrated that highly fractured/altered peridotite is more prone 403 to generate H_2 than a massive unaltered peridotite suggesting a role of the reacting surfaces 404 and possibly that Fe^{II} -bearing secondary formed minerals, such as Fe^{II} -bearing brucite and 405 serpentine, and the presence of N-species may also contribute to form H_2 (experiments at 406 25°C; Okland et al., 2014, see also Klein et al., 2015).

407 The conditions of generation of H_2 can be estimated notably using hydrogen isotopic data. In 408 the studied ophiolitic massifs, whatever are the characteristics of the H_2 -bearing gas types, δD 409 values of H_2 are all very low in the analyzed gas samples (between -756 and –664‰). 410 Abrajano (1988) mentioned , δD values of H₂ at -581 and -599‰ in the Los Fuegos Eternos 411 of the Philippines. The lowest values are among the lowest recorded on Earth and they are 412 significantly lower compared to δ D of H₂ of hydrothermal sites on mid-oceanic ridges for 413 which the values are more dispersed and generally higher (between -700 and -300‰; Fig. 6). 414 δ D values of H₂ observed in oceanic settings decrease with temperature and appear as a 415 thermometer for H_2 production at isotopic equilibrium with seawater (Proskurowski et al., 416 2006). Low δ D values of H₂ in ophiolitic massifs are classically considered as revealing 417 relatively low temperatures of the generation of H_2 (Neal & Stanger 1983). Indeed, using 418 either (1) the Horibe and Craig (1995) H_2O-H_2 and CH_4-H_2 geothermometers which consider 419 isotope fractionations between liquid H_2O or CH₄ and H₂, or (2) Bottinga's 1969 water vapor– 420 hydrogen method, this strongly suggests that the generation of H_2 occurred at lower

421 temperature conditions than at most of the hydrothermal vents of mid-oceanic ridges. H_2O-H_2 422 is seen as the preferred geothermometer but it implies that chemical equilibrium between H_2 423 and H_2O has been reached (see discussion below). It is possible that chemical and isotopic 424 equilibrium have been achieved between H_2 and CH₄ (see the following paragraph). Whatever 425 the geothermometer used, either the Horibe and Craig (1995; Fig. 7) H_2O-H_2 and CH₄-H₂ 426 geothermometers, or the Bottinga (1969) geothermometer, we obtained relatively narrow 427 windows of temperature conditions in the ranges 17 to 42 $^{\circ}$ C for H₂ of the H₂-rich type and 428 24-50°C for H₂ of the N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas type, whereas the temperature conditions seem much 429 more heterogeneous and reach much higher temperatures in the H_2 -CH₄ gas type, notably for 430 the samples of the Philippines (up to 136 \degree C, taking into account the δD_{H2} values from 431 Abrajano et al., 1988).

432 To decipher the conditions of generation of H_2 , it is possible to compare H_2 contents with 433 those of other compounds such as noble gases tracers (Ballentine et al., 2002a and b; Zhou et 434 al., 2005; Burnard et al., 2013; Prinzhofer, 2013; Prinzhofer and Deville, 2013). Notably, the 435 H₂-rich gas type displays N_2^{36} Ar ratios between ASW and air (Table 2; Fig. 9). These 436 features are consistent with a genesis process involving surface water charged with dissolved 437 atmospheric components (ASW) as the main fluid reacting with the rock for H_2 production. In 438 this case, H2O inherited from meteoric water, initially in equilibrium with atmospheric 439 components, is probably consumed at depth in the fracture system of the ophiolites by 440 water/mineral interactions. Following this interpretation, as a consequence of water 441 consumption and H_2 production, initial gas/water equilibrium with atmosphere is disrupted 442 and atmospheric nitrogen and noble gases are mixed with neo-formed gases $(H_2 \text{ and } CH_4)$ and 443 migrate upwards with no further addition of another gas component. The preservation of 444 atmospheric relative proportions of fossil noble gases $(^{20}Ne, ^{36}Ar, ^{84}Kr)$ suggests that these 445 groundwaters reacted at a relatively shallow depth. For deeper depths of gas/water phases 446 interaction, the difference of noble gas solubility from the surface conditions' ones (as P and 447 T are much higher) would fractionate the relative proportions of these compounds. The 4 He 448 contents (< 20 ppm), are in good agreement with Neal and Stanger's (1985) interpretation 449 which asserts that $Ca^{2+}-OH^-$ water originates from meteoric water recharging at high 450 elevations. The presence of 4 He in subsurface gas is classically interpreted as the result of a 451 lengthy residence time at depth allowing 4 He to accumulate significantly due to natural 452 radioactive decay of 235 U, 238 U and 232 Th present in crustal rocks (Ballentine and Burnard, 2002). 453 Paukert et al. (2012) considered, from their modelling of $CO₂$ consumption, that such 454 meteoric waters reached its high pH values after 6500 years. This geological short time frame

455 is consistent with the low 4 He contents of these gases, which are roughly displaying 456 atmospheric signatures.

457 Considering the N₂-H₂-CH₄ and H₂-CH₄ gas types, the interpretation that H₂ generation is 458 simply a result of interaction between meteoric water and ophiolitic rocks is not sustainable 459 anymore because, notably, N_2^{36} Ar ratios are not comprised between ASW and air and noble 460 gas contents are different from Air or ASW. This is consistent with a H_2 generation process 461 which occurred deeper than in the H₂-rich gas type, in higher temperature conditions as 462 already suggested by δ D values of H₂.

463

464 *Methane origin*

465

 Methane generation associated with fluid-rock interaction in ophiolitic contexts remains unclear. In terrestrial ultrabasic-basic contexts at moderate temperatures (below 150°C), methane is interpreted to result from carbon hydrogenation involving mainly sources of inorganic carbon. Methane so formed is termed abiotic (or abiogenic), and is thought to be produced by chemical reactions that do not directly involve organic matter (see discussion in Etiope and Sherwood Lollar, 2013; with references therein). Eventually, according to the geological conditions, methane produced by fluid-rock interaction can be mixed with biotic methane produced either by microbial processes or by thermogenic degradation of organic matter in sedimentary rocks.

475 In the case of hydrogenation processes of carbon, considering potential hydrogen sources 476 (H₂O or H₂), hydrogen in CH₄ can be considered as primary (*i.e.*, issued from H₂O reacting 477 with carbon and preceding H_2 production; Abrajano et al., 1988; Oze and Sharma, 2005; Suda 478 et al. 2014; Okland et al., 2014), or secondary (i.e., issued from an H_2 intermediate by 479 reactions between carbon and H₂; Berndt et al., 1996; Foustoukos and Seyfried, 2004: Horita 480 and Berndt, 1999; McCollom and Seewald, 2001; McCollom, 2016; Neubeck et al., 2011). 481 The experiments of Okland et al. (2014) suggest indeed a possible primary production of CH4 482 during hydration of ultrabasic rocks without an H_2 intermediate, notably with moderately 483 altered peridotites. In both cases, hydrogen is issued from H₂O, either primarily or 484 secondarily. Suda et al. (2014), based on a study of hydrogen isotopic data of CH_4 , H_2 and 485 H2O (Fig. 7), defined different domains corresponding to different processes allowing to 486 distinguish CH₄ generation by hydrogenation from water (primary) or from H₂ (secondary). 487 Primary CH₄ production is regarded as a direct interaction between Fe^H -rich minerals and 488 dissolved CO_2 . CH₄ production tied to ferrous mineral reactions with CO_2 has not yet been fully explored (Neubeck et al., 2016) but there is some indication from experimental reactions of olivine that passivating layers of silica may coat reactive surfaces and slow related CH4 491 generation (Garcia et al., 2010). However, early production of CH_4 (before H_2 production) has 492 been documented by experimentation on natural peridotite rocks, at low temperature $(25^{\circ}C)$, especially on fractured and altered peridotite, and these experiments showed a coeval 494 production of H_2 and CH₄ (Okland et al., 2014), in the same proportions as those measured in 495 this study for the H₂-rich gas type. The presence of $CO₂$ is a favorable factor for olivine 496 dissolution (Oze and Sharma, 2005), which releases aqueous Fe^{II}. Primary production of CH₄ 497 from H₂O and CO₂ (DIC in water) is achieved in a similar way as the H₂ production through the oxidation of iron (see above). The reaction of the Fe-endmember of olivine in presence of 499 dissolved $CO₂$ can be summarized by the following reaction,

501 6 Fe₂SiO₄ + 2 H₂O + CO₂
$$
\rightarrow
$$
 4 Fe₃O₄ + 6 SiO₂ + CH₄ (5)
502 *Fayalite + water + carbon dioxide* \rightarrow *Magnetic + silica + methane*
503
504 while a coeval reaction occurs considering the Mg-endmember,

506
$$
2 \text{ Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4 + 2 \text{ H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4 + \text{MgCO}_3
$$
 (6)
507 *Forsterite + water + carbon dioxide \rightarrow Serpentine + magnesium*

 Over geologic time, in natural environments that include fractured and weathered ultrabasic rocks experiencing diverse aqueous geochemical conditions, passivating silica layers may not be widespread allowing the folling reaction,.

513
$$
3 \text{ Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4 + 4 \text{ H}_2\text{O} + \text{SiO}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{ Mg}_3\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4
$$
 (7)
514 *Forsterite + water + silica \rightarrow Serpentine*

516 Also, Fe^{II}-bearing brucite-type minerals (for example amakinite) and Fe^{II}-bearing serpentines 517 are also good candidates to react with dissolved $CO₂$, as suggested by experiments (Okland et al., 2014).

 Applying the reasoning of Suda et al. (2014) mentioned above to our samples, would suggest 520 that gases from the H_2 -CH₄ type (dry seepages in fractures) contain methane which is considered as primary while, in water-related seepages, the analytical results are more

- 522 compatible with a secondary CH_4 generated from an H_2 intermediate (gas samples collected in 523 ultra-basic springs showing δ D values of CH₄ between -400 et -200‰; Fig. 7).
- 524 As suggested by Suda et al. (2014) and according to the reactions shown above, a 525 simultaneous production of methane and magnesite can occur. Mg-bearing carbonates 526 (magnesite and dolomite) are indeed abundant in fractures in the peridotites of Oman and they 527 are supposed to have been formed at temperatures in the range 30 to 60 °C (Kelemen et al., 2011). Methane and magnesite, have both high and similar δ^{13} C values (δ^{13} C_{CH4} between -13 529 and +8‰, $\delta^{13}C_{\text{magnesite}}$ between +2 and +8‰; see supplementary material). This is compatible 530 with a non-atmospheric carbon origin of $CH₄$ that could derive from mantellic or metamorphic 531 $CO₂$ or from carbonate destabilization. These values are different from the carbonates 532 signatures found at the surface in the ultra-basic springs where carbon is interpreted as issued 533 from atmospheric CO_2 which after fractionation during carbonate precipitation give $\delta^{13}C$ 534 values between -28 and -5‰ (Kelemen et al., 2011; see also supplementary material).
- 535 Considering secondary production of methane, via an H_2 intermediate, several pathways of 536 CH4 generation involving different sources of carbon can be considered, either (1) organic 537 carbon (or reduced carbon including elementary C) found in sediments below the ophiolites 538 notably, or else (2) carbon issued from deep sources from the mantle or from the crust (for 539 example Dissolved Inorganic Carbon issued mantle gas or from carbonates within the 540 sediments). Indeed, H_2 produced by serpentinization is susceptible to be subsequently 541 consumed in a CH₄ producing reaction, involving a source of carbon which can be C° , CO or 542 $CO₂$, according to the general reaction (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016),
- 543

$$
544 \quad (2 + X) H2 + COX \rightarrow CH4 + X H2O
$$
\n(8)

546 In the case $x = 0$, the source of carbon can correspond to reduced carbon in sediments 547 (graphite or overmature organic matter). In the case $x = 1$, the source of carbon corresponds to 548 CO. CO has indeed, been mentioned as traces in the gas of the ophiolites of Oman (Sano et 549 al., 1993). It might correspond to an intermediate compound preceding methane generation. In 550 the case $x = 2$, this corresponds to the classical Sabatier reaction. Considering generation of 551 high δ^{13} C methane associated with ultrabasic contexts, it is frequently considered that it 552 corresponds to Fisher-Tropsch Type (FTT) reaction, meaning the abiotic path of the Sabatier 553 reaction (Szatmari, 1989; Horita and Berndt, 1999; Sherwood-Lollar et al., 1988, 1993a&b, 554 2006, 2007; Kelley et al., 2001; Charlou et al., 2002; Foustoukos and Seyfried, 2004;

 McCollom and Seewald, 2006; Taran et al., 2007; Proskurowski et al., 2008; and others, see 556 references in Etiope and Sherwood-Lollar, 2013). In the Sabatier reaction, CO_2 is reduced to 557 CH₄ through the oxidation of H₂ (so the reaction is controlled by H₂ activity).

 The kinetics of FTT reactions are slow at the temperatures considered here (below 150°C) but Fisher-Tropsch reactions are well-known to be favored by catalytic processes. Heterogeneous catalysis, promoted by minerals present in the ophiolitic rocks, such as chromite, magnetite, sulfides or awaruite can possibly trigger these reactions (Mayhew, 2013; Etiope and Ionescu, 2015 and references therein). For instance, close to Los Fuegos Eternos (in the Philippines), chromite (well-developed in the Coto mines) may promote the catalytic production of CH4. Also, the area of Chimaera in Turkey shows chromite mines (in which an explosion caused the death of tens of underground workers). The area of Prony (New Caledonia) shows also chromite outcrops as well as at many places in the ophiolite of Oman.

 Catalytic processes might also be associated with biological activity, which is well-known to reduce the activation energy necessary for chemical reactions. The Sabatier chemical reaction 569 is actually equivalent to one of the classical routes to generate microbial methane (by $CO₂$) reduction) via hydrogenotroph-methanogen microorganisms. In the case of sedimentary environment with widely available sources of light C provided by organic compounds, it 572 produces methane with δ^{13} C generally lower than -50‰, far below the values obtained in the gas seepages of the ultra-basic springs (between -12.8 and +7.9‰; Fig. 8), even if locally in 574 ultra-basic springs δ^{13} C of methane are lower than -50‰ (Morrill et al., 2013). However, in some conditions (notably in the case of hyperthermophilic archaea), $δ¹³C$ values of methane can be high (Takai et al., 2004, 2008). The presence of hydrogenotrophic microorganisms has been mentioned in oceanic hydrothermal fields (Bradley and Summons, 2010) and in ultra- basic springs of ophiolitic units (Brazelton et al., 2013), and the occurrence of methanogens in ultrabasic contexts (Takai et al., 2004; Brazelton et al., 2006) raise the question, notably in 580 Oman, of the microbial production of methane with elevated δ^{13} C in ultra-basic groundwaters (Miller et al., 2016). This interpretation is still challenged (see discussion between Etiope, 2017 and Miller et al., 2017) but, if it is confirmed, this would suppose that biological activity 583 might contribute to elevated δ^{13} C methane from inorganic sources of carbon under extreme carbon limitation. However, methanogens collected in ultra-basic springs at the surface are not necessary representative of the conditions of generation of methane at depth because there is no carbon available in the ultra-basic water flowing from depth (Neal and Stanger, 1985, see also below). Methane generation via methanogen microorganisms observed at the surface might be a surficial process resulting from a a reaction between hydrogen issued from depth 589 and a source of carbon provided by atmospheric $CO₂$. If the source of deep carbon is important, as in sedimentary environments with fossil organic matter, the use of isotopically light carbon in the widely available organic matter is favored by microbial activity. However, this is not possible in the case of strong restriction of the available carbon as in ophiolitic rocks, especially when the initial sources of carbon are heavy (like carbonates or mantle). 594 Biological processes generating CH₄ from H₂ and CO₂ with progressively increasing δ^{13} C_{CH4} have been documented in large scale geological gas storages of town gas (Buzek et al., 1994). In addition, the presence of methanotrophs in the ultra-basic springs also contribute to 597 increase the δ^{13} C values of the residual methane (Miller et al., 2016).

In the present study, the different values observed for δ^{13} C of CH₄ probably reflect different 599 sources of carbon or different CH₄ generation processes. The present study shows that (a) H_2 -600 rich gases from Oman display δ^{13} C of CH₄ between -12.8 and +7.9‰, while (b) in the 601 Philippines δ^{13} C of CH₄ are ranging between -13.5 and -5.6‰ which is compatible with the 602 results obtained by Abrajano et al. (1988), (c) in Turkey gases from H_2 -CH₄ type display a 603 δ^{13} C of CH₄ values between -7.9 and -11.9‰ (Horgormez et al., 2008 and this study), 604 whereas (d) for New-Caledonia some gases from $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ type values are between -38.5 605 and -32.4‰ (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016). Consequently, two different types of signatures 606 were observed corresponding initial probably (despite of fractionation processes) to two 607 different carbon sources. The first one (high δ^{13} C between -13 and +8‰) would correspond 608 most probably to an inorganic carbon source, while the second one (lower δ^{13} C between -39 609 and -32‰) corresponds probably to an organic source. The high $\delta^{13}C$ of CH₄ from Oman, the 610 Philippines and Turkey might correspond to a carbon source, probably $CO₂$, found as DIC in 611 the reacting waters. Two different origins may be proposed for this inorganic carbon. It may 612 correspond to mantle degassing, as it might be the case in the Philippines in link with the 613 vicinity of the active volcanism of the Pinatubo system related to an active subduction zone, 614 as suggested by noble gas analyses especially for one gas sample with high R/Ra values (Fig. 615 10), or it may come from the dissolution of carbonate rocks (for instance the carbonate 616 sediments present under the ophiolites), as it might be the case in Oman (Nicolas et al., 2000) 617 and Turkey (Juteau et al., 1977). Note that the H_2 -bearing gas samples studied here (as well as 618 those analyzed in previous studies) show only locally tiny traces of CO_2 for which $\delta^{13}C_{CO2}$ 619 measurements have to be considered with caution (not reported in table 2). The measurements 620 in the N₂-rich gas type of Oman (seeping out from below the ophiolites), in which $CO₂$ contents are more important (data from Sano et al., 1993, and this study, Table 1 and 2), gave values between -19.4‰ and -9.6‰ which are consistent with an origin from sedimentary rocks below the ophiolites (metamorphism and/or carbonate destabilization).

624 Methane with δ^{13} C values comprised between -39 and -32‰, in New Caledonia, could simply be issued from an organic source (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016). In agreement with the 626 absence or low contents of C_{2+} in the gas mixtures (below 0.01%), methane may originate 627 from a reaction between H_2 and a mature/overmature organic matter or graphite present in the sediments below the ophiolites.

629 Also note that, in addition to the absence or very low contents of $CO₂$ in H₂-bearing gas 630 samples, neither HCO_3^- nor CO_3^{2} have been found in the ultra-basic springs, notably in the case of Oman (Neal and Stanger, 1985) suggesting that almost the entire stock of available DIC was converted into CH4 under extreme carbon limitation. Also, no form of organic matter or graphite are known within the peridotites of the areas studied. This limitation probably 634 allows H_2 to be present in the gas, otherwise all the generated H_2 would have been consumed to generate CH4, as it was suggested by Milesi et al. (2016) in the Solimes Basin in Brazil.

636 In both, H₂-rich and N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas types, CH₄ contents being lower than 20 mol%, this 637 suggests a very limited carbon source compared with the H_2 -CH₄ gas type (Fig. 4 and 8). Indeed, if we consider carbonic acid in rain water as the initial main source of carbon, its contribution is regarded as limited and rapidly buffered, whereas if the carbon source 640 corresponds to carbonate rocks or deep $CO₂$ fluxes, the amount of carbon available is more abundant at depth but the connection with the ophiolites depends on the hydrodynamics and 642 the available carbonate dissolved in circulating water. H_2 -CH₄ gas type might correspond to such a system connected to deep sources of carbon.

 Considering oceanic hydrothermal vents, values of δD of CH4 probably record the isotopic fractionation associated to a primary process involving a carbon compound with water, to produce methane. If open system conditions apply, δD of CH4 depends on isotopic equilibrium at the given temperature. For dry seepages in fractures, data are in agreement with these conditions. For seepages in water, a different process would provide scattered and very 649 low δ D values of CH₄ (Fig. 6), either because the system is closed and isotopic equilibrium is not reached or because a different secondary process (eventually biology) is influencing the isotopic composition of hydrogen in methane. As such, the very low values of δD of methane in spring water raise the question of a possible microbial role in methane generation.

653 For the H₂-CH₄ and N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas types a remarkable correlation exists between H₂ and CH₄ 654 when normalized to ${}^{36}Ar$ (Fig. 11A) wherever is the site studied in Oman, in the Philippines 655 and New Caledonia. A similar correlation exists between H_2 and CH₄ when normalized to 656 84 Kr, (Fig. 11B). For the CH₄-H₂ and N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas types, this suggests that, independently 657 of the considered ophiolite and geological context, generations of H_2 and CH₄ are coupled and both related to a deep process which is independent of interactions with ASW shallow 659 aquifers. Conversely, these correlations do not exist for the H_2 -rich gas type which is in agreement with the interpretations proposed above that this type of gas underwent more influences with ASW aquifers. Also, this correlation is not observed in the samples of Turkey possibly due to a mixing with thermogenic methane. Indeed, according to other studies, some 663 samples, notably in Turkey (H_2 -C H_4 type), might comprise a thermogenic component. It has been considered that high methane content cannot be attributed univocally to dissolved 665 carbonates reduction by H_2 , for example in Chimaera (Turkey), up to 40 mol% of the CH₄ has been estimated to be thermogenic gas originating from a source rocks with highly mature kerogen in a Mesozoic limestone nearby (Hosgörmez et al., 2008; Etiope et al., 2011). This is 668 in good agreement with occurrences of C_{2} + (C_{2} - C_{6} alkanes) in the gas analyzed in Turkey (Hosgörmez et al., 2008; Etiope et al., 2011, and this study, see table 2). However, whatever 670 the geographic location of samples is, dry seepages display higher CH_4 relative contents together with higher δD of CH⁴ when compared to gas seepages in water. This suggests that it can be linked to a different process as mentioned above (primary methane production) and 673 probably higher temperature during production of methane. Gas mixtures belonging to the H_2 - CH4 type correspond probably to highly reactive zones of water reduction at higher temperature with less carbon restriction.

Nitrogen origin

 In the subsurface, nitrogen gas can have different origins, either atmosphere via the hydrodynamism of air equilibrated water, or sediments (organic matter, or ammonium- bearing clay minerals, or nitrogen-bearing salt in evaporites present in sedimentary rocks), or else the deep crust or mantle degassing (Jenden et al., 1988; Zhu et al., 2000; Ballentine and Sherwood-Lollar, 2002b). Nitrogen contents within ophiolitic rocks are low but experimental 684 studies have however shown that adsorbed N-species can be leached out while H_2 and CH₄ are produced from altered peridotites (Okland et al., 2014).

- 686 Considering the geochemical results of this study, N_2 present in the gas of the H₂-rich type 687 shows N₂³⁶Ar and N₂⁸⁴Kr ratios generally equivalent or slightly higher than those of ASW, 688 suggesting mainly an atmosphere origin for N_2 via a fractured aquifer (Fig. 12A and B).
- 689 Samples of the N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas type, which show higher N₂ contents than H₂ contents
-
- 690 compared to the H₂-rich gas type display notably a nitrogen enrichment relative to ³⁶Ar and $84Kr$ (Fig. 12A and B), suggesting an addition of non-atmospheric nitrogen. This contributes 692 to dilute the neo-formed H_2 and CH₄ (Deville and Prinzhofer, 2016). Samples of the N₂-rich 693 gas type show a ⁴He enrichment correlated with the N₂ enrichment when compared to 694 atmosphere (Fig. 13). This suggests that non-atmospheric N_2 might be of crustal origin 695 associated to radiogenic helium from depth. The R/Ra ratio $({}^{3}\text{He}/^{4}\text{He})$ ratio of the sample 696 normalized over the same ratio for the air = 1.384×10^{-6}) suggests that a crustal component 697 exists in most of the samples and locally a mantle component is observed in the Philippines 698 (Fig. 10).
- 699 The differences between the H₂-rich type and the N₂-H₂-CH₄ type are possibly linked to the 700 existence of two different reactive zones for the production of H_2 -rich fluids in peridotitic 701 ground waters: one (H₂-rich) being more surficial than the other (N₂-H₂-CH₄-rich) and that 702 two different reactive fluids should be considered: (1) a meteoric fluid in the more surficial 703 environment (H₂-rich) and (2) a deep N₂-bearing fluid with crustal signature, probably issued 704 from sediment metamorphism from below the obducted ophiolitic units.
- 705 Samples of the N₂-H₂-CH₄ type could also result from the mixing of H₂-rich gas and N₂-rich 706 gas. These N₂-rich samples contain mostly N₂ and no or little H₂. Because they were found in 707 hot water springs, displaying pH between 6.9 and 10 and relatively high 4 He contents which 708 suggest a different origin, probably deeper according to water temperature (reaching locally 709 66°C) and in a crustal environments as suggested by the high ⁴He contents. This deep N₂ is 710 probably not directly produced within the peridotite units. The geological context suggests 711 rather an origin from the underthrusted sediments below the ophiolitic units, so in this case $N₂$ 712 would be issued more probably from the buried sediments, either from the water of hydrated 713 clay (clay dewatering) or from the destabilization of ammonium-bearing clays. Reaction of 714 such deep fluids with peridotite or mixing these fluids with H_2 -rich gas type are susceptible to 715 generate fluids with the chemical signatures of the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ gas type where N_2 dilutes H_2 716 and is found in excess relative to ASW or air. Throughout the study of the 4 types of gas, it 717 appears that the presence of nitrogen in the mixture is always linked to the presence of water 718 at the seepage. This gas is almost absent from the dry seepages (H_2-CH_4) type).

 δ^{15} N measurements in the nitrogen-dominant gas types (N₂-H₂-CH₄ and N₂-rich), gave values of -0.3‰ in Rustaq (Oman), which is consistent with previous studies (Sano et al, 1993) and - 721 0.1‰ in Mangatarem (Philippines; table 2), whereas $\delta^{15}N$ measurements in the H₂-CH₄ gas type gave values comprised between -2.8‰ and -2.1‰ in the Chimaera gas seepages of Turkey (Hosgörmez et al., 2008) and +0.5‰ in Nagsasa in the Philippines (Table 2). The δ^{15} N value for atmospheric nitrogen being 0‰ (Sano and Pillinger, 1990; Nishizawa et al., 725 2007), it cannot be clearly distinguished from the values measured in the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ and N_2 - rich samples considering potential sampling bias plus analytical uncertainties of the measurements. Although these results are compatible with an atmospheric nitrogen 728 component in the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ and N_2 -rich gas mixtures, this atmospheric component is not a 729 contamination as shown by the N₂³⁶Ar ratios for instance. This N₂ might thus be issued from pore water trapped in the sediments (initial ASW) below the ophiolites or from the metamorphism of clays from the sediments underthrusted below the ophiolitic units. However, such a nitrogen isotopic value is not a clear diagnostic. Although it is compatible with an atmospheric value, it does not exclude other origins like deeper components from mantle and/or crust because a multiple origin of nitrogen is indeed supported by the results of the noble gas analyses.

736 Noble gas contents suggest that there are at least two different sources of N_2 . The plot of R/Ra 737 versus ²⁰Ne/⁴He (Fig. 10) shows that the N₂-bearing gases are ranging on a mixing line 738 between the crust and the atmospheric end-member. In the H₂-rich type, the N₂³⁶Ar ratio is 739 close to the air and ASW ratios (Fig. 12A). This implies that N_2 in this gas originates from the 740 atmosphere and was carried by an aquifer equilibrated with the atmosphere or that the main 741 nitrogen component is acquired during the gas migration upwards through the aquifer. The 742 other samples $(N_2-H_2-CH_4$ and N_2 -rich) do not align on these atmospheric ratios. They display 743 a nitrogen enrichment relative to ${}^{36}Ar$ (Fig. 12A) and the contents are much too high to be 744 only due to extraction from an aquifer related to free gas flows toward the surface.

745 From the plots of figures 12A and B, it can be inferred that N_2 -rich type gases in Oman and 746 New Caledonia consist of a mixture of an atmospheric component and an almost pure 747 nitrogen end-member. The proportion of the nitrogen component varies in a large range (from 748 $\,$ 10 to 90% mol). ⁴He is mainly a radiogenic product issued from the continental crust. It 749 cannot be produced in such amounts by mantle-derived ultrabasic rocks. Thus, the N_2 -rich 750 gases can be interpreted as a crustal gas with a 4 He component. A potential interpretation for 751 the origin of deep N_2 could be that it was produced in the sediments and/or metasediments 752 buried under the ophiolitic units. In this case, the source could be the interstitial water in the 753 sediments and/or the solid matrix of the sediments (organic matter or ammonium in clay 754 sediments).

755

756 **Conclusion**

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758 Integrating the results of previous studies and original results in different areas of the world, 759 this multi-tracer approach provided new insights on gas seepages in ophiolitic contexts. Four 760 types of gas mixtures were defined, three of them being associated with water springs and 761 characterized by the presence of N_2 , CH₄ in proportions under 20 mol% and the presence of 762 H₂ within the ultra-basic springs. The fourth type corresponds to focused gas flows seeping 763 out directly from fractures (without water flow) and characterized by high proportions of CH4 764 and low N₂. In all cases, H₂ is interpreted as a consequence of oxidation of Fe^{II}-rich minerals 765 present in the ophiolitic rocks (even though a contribution by microorganisms by dark 766 fermentation processes cannot be ruled out). Taking into account the pH conditions associated 767 with the H₂ generation, Fe^{III}-bearing mineral were formed at the vicinity of the sites of 768 oxidation of Fe^{II}-bearing mineral without an important mobility of Fe²⁺. A relatively shallow 769 H_2 production is substantiated in the H₂-rich gas type by its association with quasi-770 atmospheric noble gases. It is consistent with the D/H isotopic data of H_2 that may correspond 771 to a fluid rock reaction occurring at low temperature (probably below 50° C), whereas higher 772 temperatures are suspected for the H_2 production in the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ gas type and notably in the 773 H₂-CH₄ gas type (probably above 100^oC locally). The preservation of H₂ in the gas is directly 774 related to extreme limitation of carbon in the geological setting. It is probably related to the 775 carbon capture associated with massive precipitation of carbonates due to high-pH 776 conditions. Concerning CH4, multiple origins are supported by the carbon isotopic data. The 777 carbon and hydrogen sources are various. Both, a primary CH_4 (from H_2O reacting with DIC) 778 and a secondary CH₄ (from an H₂ intermediate reacting with a C source) are suspected for the 779 H₂-CH₄ gas type and for N_2 -H₂-CH₄ and H₂-rich gas types, respectively. In the gas mixtures, 780 N_2 appears to have two distinct origins: an atmospheric component and a deep crustal 781 component, as it was highlighted by the noble gas analyses. The different processes described 782 involve different types of fluids, which are: a shallow meteoric fluid, a crustal fluid carrying 783 metamorphic N_2 , a deep mantle originating fluid carrying primordial CO_2 . Depending on the 784 location with respect to the geodynamical context (Fig. 14), these different fluids interact and 785 mix in different proportions, yielding the types of gas mixture observed at the surface 786 seepages. The shallower kitchen is interpreted as the H_2 -rich gas type from meteoric water

787 interacting with the ophiolite. The deepest kitchen is interpreted as the H_2 -CH₄ gas type from 788 a deep fluid (carrying $CO₂$ from the mantle, or from dissolved carbonates or organic carbon) 789 interacting with the ophiolite. H_2 -CH₄ gas flows are generally more localized (focused) and 790 these flows are generally higher than the other H_2 -bearing gas flows. This is probably due to 791 the fact that they are generated at greater depth and at higher temperature conditions. This 792 probably induces the individualization of a gas phase preventing H_2 to react during the rise 793 toward the surface, notably by preventing any biological consumption of H_2 which required 794 an aqueous media. The N₂-bearing fluids are probably generated mostly from the sediments 795 located below the ophiolitic units and migrate upwards forming the N_2 -rich gas type when 796 reaching the surface or the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ type if mixing occurs between the N₂-rich and the H₂-797 rich types (Fig. 14).

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799 **Acknowledgements**

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 Figure 1 – Structural sketch-maps of the different sites studied in this work in Oman (A), the Philippines (B), Turkey (C) and New-Caledonia (D) (same scale), with the location of the sampling sites and the location of the cross-sections shown in figure 2. The gas seepages are associated with ophiolitic ultrabasic rocks. Gas was sampled from different types of seepages: gas seeping in water which originates from ultrabasic or hot springs and gas seeping from fractures without water flow.

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- **Figure 2 -** Geological cross-sections of the different sites studied in this work (same scale;
- earthquake epicenters from USGS data base). A 2D cross-section for the area of Chimaera in
- Turkey is not shown because of too complex 3D geometry in a transform fault system.

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- 1211 **Figure 3** Examples of gas seepages. A: Bubbling H₂-rich gas flow in ultra-basic water
- 1212 (Oman). **B:** Bubbling N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas flow (foreshore of the Baie du Carénage, New
- 1213 Caledonia). **C:** Bubbling N₂-rich gas flow (Rustaq, Oman). **D**: Burning H₂-CH₄ gas flow
- (Chimaera, Turkey).

1216

1217 **Figure 4 -** The major components of the gas mixtures sampled in Turkey, Oman, New 1218 Caledonia and the Philippines : H_2 , N_2 and CH₄ in a triangular diagram (% mol). Four 1219 different types of gas mixtures can be defined according to the relative contents of H_2 , N_2 and 1220 CH₄. Distinct chemical features correspond to distinct seepages styles : N₂-containing gas 1221 mixtures are associated with water and seep in water streams, whereas N_2 -free mixtures 1222 correspond to dry seepages which seep out of fractures of massive rocks and locally ignite 1223 spontaneously. The different types of water-associated seepages correspond also to specific 1224 water physical properties, notably pH and temperature (see Fig. 5).

 Figure 5 - Pourbaix diagram pH-Eh of the water where the gas samples were collected in 1227 springs. Oblique lines (blue and pink) separate the stability fields of H_2 , H_2O and O_2 .

Figure 6 - Comparison of hydrogen isotopic compositions of CH₄ and H₂ for onshore settings (data from this work and two points, LFE-2 and LFE-3, from Abrajano et al., 1988) and oceanic settings (Proskurowski et al., 2006). While a narrow range of CH4 isotopic composition is observed for oceanic settings these values are lower for onshore settings and cover a large range. The values for the gas seeping out of 1236 fractures without associated ultra-basic water (H_2-CH_4) gas type) are close to those of oceanic setting at Lost City and might indicate a similar generation process. In 1238 contrast to the CH₄ isotopic compositions, the H₂ isotopic compositions display a large range in oceanic settings (dependent on temperature) and a narrow range in terrestrial settings for gas seeping from ultra-basic springs.

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1244 **Figure 7 -** CH₄-H₂-H₂O hydrogen isotope systematics. Data for biological hydrogenotrophic 1245 methanogenesis are from Balabane et al. (1987), Valentine et al. (2004) and Okumura et al. 1246 (2016). FTT synthesis refer to experiments investigating abiotic methane production in the 1247 gas phase (Taran et al., 2010) and aqueous phase (Fu et al., 2007; McCollom et al., 2010). 1248 There data were presented in a similar diagram in Suda et al. (2014). This figure shows $\mathcal{E}(H_2$ -1249 H_2O_{aa} versus $\mathcal{E}(CH_4-H_2O_{aa})$ for the samples from Oman, the Philippines and Turkey, 1250 compared to values from oceanic settings. The value ϵ is calculated according to the 1251 following equations : $E=1000$ lna with $\alpha(H_2O_{aq}-H_2) = 1.0473 + 201036/T^2 + 2.060 \times 10^9/T^4 +$ 1252 $0.180 \times 10^{15} / \text{T}^6$ and $\alpha(\text{H}_2\text{O}_{aq}\text{-CH}_4) = 1.0997 + 8456 / \text{T}^2 + 0.9611 \times 10^9 / \text{T}^4 - 27.82 \times 10^{12} / \text{T}^6$. 1253 The thin line indicates the CH_4-H_2 equilibrium fractionation at a given temperature. 1254 According to this interpretation, CH4 from fractures (dry seepages) would be produced 1255 directly from H₂O and DIC whereas, in the H₂-rich and N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas mixtures seeping in 1256 alkaline springs, an H_2 intermediate (possibly biologically mediated secondary process) would 1257 produce $CH₄$. δD of spring water is considered to be close to zero $\%$ from the study made in 1258 Oman by Neal and Stanger (1985; values between -11.2 and +10.7‰).

 Figure 8 – A. Diagram showing δD(‰) values of CH4 vs CH4 contents. This shows that the 1265 H₂ -CH₄ gas type shows higher CH₄ contents and δ D values of CH₄ than the other gas types. **B.** Diagram showing carbon versus hydrogen isotopic composition of CH₄ including data from Abrajano et al. (1988) and Hosgörmez et al. (2008), domains are simplified after Scholl (1983), Whiticar (1999), Etiope and Sherwood-Lollar (2013). The classic microbial domain presented here refers to gas generated from an organic substrate. This domain might be wider in the case of microbial gas generated from inorganic carbon. The carbon isotopic compositions of CH4 are among the highest values recorded on Earth. The range of the carbon isotopic values of CH4 is relatively narrow and allows no distinction between the different 1273 types of gas mixtures whereas the hydrogen isotopic values of CH_4 are scattered between - 430‰ and -100‰ and show distinct ranges comparing dry seepages in fractures and seepages 1275 in ultra-basic water. This corresponds probably to different CH_4 generation processes. Note that none of the groups plot in the classical domains of conventional microbial gas or 1277 conventional thermogenic gases. Domain for CH₄ of Mid-Oceanic Ridges hydrothermal fluids is from Proskurowski et al. (2006) and Kawagucci et al. (2016).

1282 **Figure 9 -** N₂ content *vs* N₂^{/36}Ar diagram, depicting nitrogen excess in samples relative to 1283 atmospheric 36 Ar. The values from the H₂-rich type gather along a mixing line between air 1284 and air equilibrated water, implying that probably only inherited atmospheric N_2 can be found 1285 in the gas mixture, whereas the other types show a N_2 excess, suggesting that non-1286 atmospheric N_2 is present in the gas mixture.

1281

1290 **Figure 10 -** Mixing diagram ²⁰Ne/⁴He *vs* R/Ra (³He/⁴He ratio of the sample normalized over 1291 the same ratio for the air = 1.384 x 10⁻⁶). The noble gas data show that except the H₂-rich type 1292 which plots around the atmospheric end-member and indicates a single shallow aquifer 1293 signature, the other gas mixtures have signatures that result from the interaction of several 1294 fluids originating either from the mantle or from the crust. The N_2 -rich type is interpreted as 1295 resulting from the mixing of atmospheric and crustal end-members whereas a mantle 1296 contribution is recorded for samples of the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ and H_2-CH_4 types.

Figure 11 – Mixing diagrams comparing H₂ and CH₄ contents normalized over ³⁶Ar and ⁸⁴Kr 1300 contents. **A.** This diagram shows a correlated enrichment in CH_4 *vs* H_2 when normalized over 1301 ³⁶Ar (linear correlation with $R^2 = 0.9894$). **B.** This diagram shows also a correlated enrichment 1302 in CH₄ *vs* H₂ when normalized over ⁸⁴Kr (linear correlation with $R^2 = 0.9953$). 1303

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50 ASW

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600

400

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 10^{-4}

10⁻⁴ N₂

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Air

ASW

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 $\overline{\mathbf{5}}$

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1307 • Figure 12 – Mixing diagrams comparing H_2 **and** N_2 **contents normalized over ³⁶Ar and ⁸⁴Kr** 1308 contents. **A.** The H₂³⁶Ar *vs* N₂³⁶Ar diagram shows different enrichment trends in H₂ *vs* N₂ 1309 between the H₂-rich gas type and the $N_2-H_2-CH_4$ gas type. Note the good linear correlation 1310 between H_2^{36} Ar *and* N_2^{36} Ar for the N_2 -H₂-CH₄ gas type (linear correlation $R^2 = 0.9785$). **B.** 1311 The H_2^{84} Kr *vs* N₂⁸⁴Kr diagram, as the previous diagram, shows different enrichment trends 1312 in H₂ vs N₂ between the H₂-rich gas type and the N₂-H₂-CH₄ gas type. Note the good linear 1313 correlation between H_2^{84} Kr and N_2^{84} Kr for the N_2-H_2 -CH₄ gas type (linear correlation with 1314 $R^2 = 0.9739$.

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 10^{-4} H₂ $/36$ Ar

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1319 **Figure 13 -** ${}^4\text{He}^{36}\text{Ar}$ *vs* N₂³⁶Ar mixing diagram for the gas samples of the N₂-rich gas type. 1320 This diagram shows a correlated enrichment in ⁴He *vs* N₂ when normalized over ³⁶Ar (linear 1321 correlation with $R^2 = 0.9993$)

1324

1325 **Figure 14 -** Synthetic conceptual cross-section of an ophiolitic system with the different gas 1326 generation zones and different types of seepages.

1327 In this interpretative sketch, H_2 is generated within the ophiolite at different depths by 1328 reduction of water, leading to different types of seepages depending on the other fluids 1329 interacting with H_2 . When H_2 is generated in a shallow aquifer, it migrates upwards and seeps 1330 out of the rock as a H₂-rich gas seep. H₂ generated in a deeper generation zone interacts with 1331 deep fluids which can be (1) a N₂-rich fluid issued from the sediments and the mantle below, 1332 leading to a N₂ and H₂–rich gas, or (2) a fluid rich in CO_2 , allowing the production of CH₄ and 1333 the formation of a gas mixture that seeps at the surface as a H_2 -CH₄ gas seepages. N₂-rich 1334 seepages occur when the deep N_2 -bearing fluid does not interact strongly with H_2 -rich fluids 1335 on its migration pathway.

1339

1340 **Table 1**. Temperature, pH and Eh of the studied springs. Major gas analyses (mol%).

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- **Table 2.** δ^{13} C (PDB) values of CO₂ and CH₄ (‰). δ D (SMOW) values of H₂ and CH₄ (‰).
- 1346 Noble gas analyses 4 He, 20 Ne, 36 Ar, 84 Kr (ppmv), and R/Ra (helium isotopic ratios normalized
- 1347 to the air isotopic $Ra = {}^{3}He/{}^{4}He = 1.4 \cdot 10^{-6}$. C2+ contents in all the gas samples are very low,
- 1348 below the threshold of analytical precision (< 0.01%). Global relative uncertainties (at 1σ) for
- 1349 quantification of noble gases with the method used is estimated in the range He: $\pm 10\%$; Ne:
- 1350 $\pm 20\%$; Ar: $\pm 5\%$; Kr: $\pm 10\%$. The global relative uncertainty (1 σ) for the R/Ra ratio is in the
- 1351 range $\pm 2\%$.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL.

 Figure S1 a and b- Photos illustrating alteration processes in the peridotites of Oman. Brow zones correspond to poorly serpentinized peridotites, black zones correspond to serpentinized parts along the fractures which are filled by Mg-Ca carbonate cements.

 Figure S2 - Photo of a thin section illustrating alteration processes in the peridotites of Oman. grey zones correspond to poorly serpentinized peridotites, black zones correspond to serpentinized parts along the fractures which are filled by Mg-Ca carbonate cements which appear in brown.

Figure S3 a and b - Photos of thin sections showing magnetite aggregates.

 Figure S4 - An example of a blue pool in Oman (Sayah). Note the blue color related to the formation of carbonates in water. A precipitate of aragonite and brucite is observed at the bottom of the basin.

 Figure S5 - Another example of a blue pool in Oman. The water in these basins shows pH values generally between 11 and 12. A film of calcite develops on the water surface and a precipitate of aragonite and brucite is deposited at the bottom of the basin.

Figure S7 - Aragonite precipitation in ultra-basic water (Oman).

Figure S8 - Aragonite chimneys forming in ultra-basic water (Oman).

 Figure S9 - Needles of primary Brucite in the foreshore of the Baie des Kaoris (New Caledonia).

1395

Table S1 - $\delta^{13}C$ PBD (‰) and $\delta^{18}O$ SMOW (‰) of carbonate rocks (carbonated peridotite, 1397 carbonate cement in fracture, surface carbonate crust) associated with the ophiolites of Oman. 1398