

1 **Timing Earth's Abiotic Kitchen: Short Hydrothermal Fluid** 2 **Residence Times in Serpentinizing Oceanic Crust**

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9 **Key Points:**

- 10 • Many recent models for prebiotic organic synthesis and the emergence of early life prominently
11 feature hot, reducing waters circulating through ultramafic rock
12 • Timescales of subsurface fluid flow in such settings have historically been poorly understood
13 • Moore *et al.* (2021) present novel observations of unusual short-lived ²²³Ra excess in fluids venting
14 at the Lost City serpentinite system, proposing a model for very short (<2 yr) circulation times,
15 limiting timescales these fluids could produce or destroy potential non-biological organic molecules
16 in Earth's crust

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Hydrothermal alteration of ultramafic rock (serpentinization) creates extremely reducing (H₂-rich)
20 fluids in the oceanic crust, resulting in strong thermodynamic drives to reduce CO₂ to organic
21 molecules in the absence of life. Timescales on which such hydrothermal fluids circulate (thus
22 produce or destroy such organic molecules) have remained enigmatic. In their new publication,
23 Moore *et al.* (2021, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021JC017886>) present compelling radioisotope-based
24 estimates of fluid residence times in a widely known site of purported abiotic synthesis – the Lost
25 City Hydrothermal Field. Using a model that accounts for the sorptive behavior of Ra radionuclides
26 during circulation, they find that fluids at Lost City must have inordinately short residence times,
27 averaging 0.5 to 2 yr or less. The study represents a critical step forward in our understanding of
28 Earth's abiotic organic 'kitchen', as it now places a constraint on the timeframe in which such organic
29 molecule creation should occur in such fluids (if at all) prior to venting at the seafloor.

30 Plain Language Summary

31 Deep sea hot springs are widespread along Earth's ~60,000 km of mid-ocean ridge crust. These
32 systems host some of the planets most diverse geologic fluids, as well as extreme ecosystems that
33 depend on their chemicals for chemosynthetic energy. Hence, understanding the behavior and timing
34 of hydrothermal fluid circulation in oceanic crust prone to seafloor venting is of paramount
35 importance to understanding linkages between geologic processes and extreme life. Compared to
36 other seafloor hydrothermal systems, the ghostly 'Lost City' hot springs on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge
37 are spectacular and unusual in their chemistry, providing a window into heated fluid reactions with
38 mantle rock. Critically, we have lacked insights into the timescales these heated fluids spend
39 circulating in the subsurface aquifer, limiting our understanding of geochemical reactions that depend
40 on time. In their new paper, Moore *et al.*(2021) use a short-lived radionuclide of Radium (^{223}Ra) –
41 abundant in Lost City fluids, to constrain subsurface lifetimes of fluids there to less than 0.5 to 2
42 years, similar to other seafloor hot springs. This time constraint is crucial to further investigating
43 hydrothermal carbon transformation reactions that may have led to the formation of Earth's first
44 biomolecules, and perhaps ultimately early life itself.

45 1. Commentary

46 Convective circulation of seawater-derived fluids beneath mid-ocean ridge crust is inherently
47 obscured from direct observation, yet both the timing and scale of such hydrothermal fluid movement
48 have implications not just for geochemical processes during metasomatism, but also their ultimate
49 outward expressions – seafloor hot springs. Given the challenges of probing systems of active
50 hydrothermal convection by drilling (potentially disturbing circulation, *e.g.* Ildefonse *et al.* 2007), or
51 tracking crustal fluid flow by other means (*e.g.* subsurface tracer injection, Neira *et al.* 2016), much of
52 what we understand of hydrothermal fluid behavior in oceanic crust has had to be inferred from
53 actively venting seafloor hydrothermal fluids and associated deposits accessible by submersible.
54 Hydrologic timescales of circulation in heated crust aquifers are poorly constrained in a great many
55 systems, with implications for many key geochemical reactions with kinetic limitations.

56
57 The majority of known seafloor hydrothermal systems circulate predominantly through mafic (*i.e.*
58 MORB) host rock, typically generating high temperature (up to ~400°C), acidic, H₂-poor and H₂S-
59 and metal-rich fluids (German & Seyfried, 2014). Systems where fluids circulate through ultramafic
60 host rock (*e.g.* exposed mantle peridotites, troctolites, olivine-rich gabbroic intrusives *etc.*), have
61 attracted increasing attention (see Rona *et al.* 2010) since the serendipitous discovery of the
62 spectacular Lost City Hydrothermal Field (LCHF) in 2001 (Kelley *et al.* 2001). Hosted in variably
63 altered ultramafic and metagabbroic rocks, Lost City lies on the southern flank of Atlantis Massif, a
64 detachment fault-dominated ‘oceanic core complex’ on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Kelley *et al.* 2001,
65 2005; Denny *et al.* 2016), emanating milder temperature (~96–116 °C) fluids, with reducing, uniquely
66 alkaline chemistry. Extensive interest has arisen in this style of hydrothermal fluid venting for non-
67 biological (abiotic) organic molecule formation, its relevance to life’s potential hydrothermal origin
68 (*e.g.* Martin & Russell, 2006; Martin *et al.*, 2008; Preiner *et al.* 2020), and the search for life
69 associated with hydrothermal alteration of ultramafic rock elsewhere in the Solar System (*e.g.* Glein
70 *et al.* 2015; Waite *et al.* 2017).

71
72 The generation of Lost City fluid compositions primarily reflects oxidation of the Fe(II) component of
73 olivine (by H₂O; the serpentinization reaction) under moderate subsurface temperatures (~150–300°C;
74 Foustoukos *et al.* 2008; Seyfried *et al.* 2015), forming serpentinite rock composed of various
75 serpentine clays, brucite and magnetite. H₂ production from H₂O by serpentinization creates highly
76 favorable thermodynamic conditions to reduce inorganic carbon (ΣCO₂) to organic molecules at such
77 temperatures (McCollom, 2008; McCollom & Seewald, 2013). While thermodynamics provides the
78 energetic driving force for such reactions, it is ultimately the realm of chemical kinetics (*i.e.* time-
79 dependent mechanistic constraints), however, that dictates whether such ‘abiotic’ carbon reduction
80 can actually proceed or not in serpentinizing fluids. Over a third of Earth’s ~60,000 km long mid-
81 ocean ridge system occurs under slow-ultraslow spreading (<20mm/yr full rate) tectonic conditions

82 favoring exposure of olivine-rich rock to hydrothermal alteration (Dick *et al.* 2003; Baker *et al.* 2004;
83 Hannington *et al.* 2005; German *et al.* 2016), and (as yet) unclear fluxes of heated fluids circulate
84 through these systems (Cannat *et al.* 2010), on unknown timescales. Quantifying these timescales is a
85 major step toward building comprehensive physico-chemical models for abiotic organic geochemical
86 reactions in these systems that are bounded in realistic temporal constraints.

87

88 Despite the increasing interest in ultramafic-hosted hydrothermal circulation and serpentinization,
89 timescales of fluid flow associated with this key crustal alteration process have until now been a
90 mystery. Previous efforts to constrain residence times of vent fluids in oceanic crust have focused
91 exclusively on ‘bare-rock’ basalt-hosted hydrothermal systems, mainly along the Juan de Fuca Ridge,
92 where serpentinization does not occur. Short-lived radionuclides in high temperature (>300°C) ‘black
93 smoker’ fluids have played a crucial role, in particular lead (^{210}Pb) and radium (^{228}Ra , ^{226}Ra)
94 radioisotopes, derived from the decay series of uranium (^{238}U) and thorium (^{232}Th), respectively
95 (Turekian & Cochran, 1986; Kadko & Moore, 1988; Grasty *et al.* 1988; Kadko, 1996). Activities (and
96 activity ratios) of radionuclides measured in fluids typically reflect a mathematical balance between
97 their production from parent isotopes, and subsequent decay, as a function of fluid residence time in
98 the crust. Using measured ratios of short-lived ^{210}Pb to Pb, and ^{228}Ra to ^{226}Ra activity ratios (nuclides
99 with vastly different half-lives) in high temperature (>300°C) ‘black smoker’ fluids, estimates of the
100 residence time of fluids under relatively high temperature conditions, *i.e.* beginning from the onset of
101 Mg loss and acidic pH conditions (likely above *ca.* 200°C), to venting at the seafloor, are consistently
102 constrained to <2–4yrs (Kadko & Moore, 1988; Kadko & Butterfield, 1998).

103

104 These ‘geochemical’ fluid residence times are in very good agreement with independent estimates
105 based purely on geophysical considerations of fluid flow; very similar timescales can be calculated
106 based on potential hydrologic reservoir size, effective crustal porosity/permeability and measured heat
107 fluxes (*e.g.* Fisher, 2003), with much more rapid timeframes (minutes to hours) inferable for hottest
108 ‘upflow’ zones of systems (Converse *et al.* 1984). In summation, high-temperature hydrothermal
109 fluids exiting basaltic seafloor have likely only resided in the ocean crust for a few years on average
110 (as opposed to weeks or decades), not only from the geochemical perspective of radionuclides venting
111 at the seafloor.

112

113 Writing in *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, Moore *et al.* (2021) recently expanded the
114 application of these short-lived Ra isotope ‘timers’ to constrain residence times of fluids venting at
115 Lost City. Contrasting strongly with mafic-hosted hydrothermal systems, Moore *et al.* show the Lost
116 City fluids display extraordinary enrichments in short-lived ^{223}Ra ($t_{1/2} = 11.4$ d) - indeed, the highest
117 measured to date in any oceanic setting. This ^{223}Ra must ultimately have been derived from U (the
118 ^{235}U decay series) that was strongly sequestered into the large serpentinite body beneath Atlantis

119 Massif from recharging seawater percolating the subsurface (*cf.* Chen *et al.* 1986). Using lessons
120 learned from Ra behavior in terrestrial groundwaters, and considering Ra may be less mobile in
121 alkaline fluids, similarly short fluid residence times of maximum 0.5 to 2 y are required by the Moore
122 *et al.* model explaining these excesses.

123

124 The strong similarity to residence times from higher temperature (~200–400°C) mafic systems is
125 perhaps not entirely unexpected. Moore *et al.* argue that density, porosity and permeability can differ
126 between mafic and ultramafic rock types, but in essence, hydrothermal fluid flow in mid-ocean ridge
127 crust can invariably be best described as a hot fluid rising buoyantly through a pervasively fractured
128 medium of highly variable permeability. Fracture network geometries and spatial scales of fluid flow
129 *i.e.* smaller scale fractures (*e.g.* at faster spreading centers like the Juan de Fuca Ridge) vs. larger-
130 scale detachment fault conduits (*e.g.* Atlantis Massif), may well differ between mid-ocean ridge
131 environments, but overall the medium “setting” can be considered broadly similar. Buoyancy forces on
132 cooler (96–116°C) Lost City fluids will differ from ~350°C ‘black smokers’ as a function of fluid
133 density, but the latter varies less than a factor of ~2 between such temperatures at typical seafloor
134 depths.

135

136 Since fluid residence time will naturally scale as a function of hydrologic reservoir size, as well as
137 fluid velocity, the similarity is instead intriguing if one considers the potential spatial scale of the Lost
138 City subsurface aquifer relative to the mafic-hosted black smoker systems. Subsurface serpentinite
139 extends to at least *ca.* 1.4 km depth for several km over the Atlantis Massif dome, based on IODP Leg
140 304/305 drilling and direct submersible observation (Karson *et al.* 2006). Fluids may not currently
141 circulate to this depth; it likely reflects a cumulative zone of ultramafic alteration through time.
142 Instead, they are likely focused through the fault network of the detachment shear zone, mining heat
143 from warm country rock (Titarenko & McCaig, 2016; Lowell, 2017). We currently lack geochemical
144 proxies (*e.g.* dissolved silica geobarometry, used in mafic systems) to constrain depths of fluid
145 reaction in ultramafic rock, due to unclear controls on dissolved SiO₂ (Humphris & Klein, 2018),
146 hindering geochemical estimates of potential circulation depths. Given the scale (many km) of the
147 Atlantis Massif detachment fault, potential reservoir sizes and geometry may differ substantially from
148 mafic systems heated by shallow magma emplacement.

149

150 The critical finding of the Moore *et al.* model for observed ²²³Ra, is that it places a reasonable
151 estimate on average timescales fluids circulate solely within serpentinite beneath Atlantis Massif. In
152 their model, ²²³Ra is only introduced to Lost City fluids by radioactive decay of U highly concentrated
153 in the serpentinite body, *i.e.* by alpha particle recoil; it does not inherently require high temperature
154 alteration. This differs from the ‘high temperature’ residence times calculated in mafic systems above,
155 which do not include the unknown timeframe of seawater recharge and heating prior to Mg loss

156 (<200°C; Kadko, 1996). This subsurface zone of serpentinization effectively represents the crustal
157 ‘kitchen’ for the production of H₂ – the key reactant of abiotic carbon reduction and a major shaper of
158 the biogeochemical energy ‘landscape’ of the seafloor vent ecosystem (Amend *et al.* 2011).

159

160 This serpentinite ‘kitchen timer’ is very consistent with many major geochemical traits of the Lost
161 City fluids, not least of which are mmolar levels of H₂ and near zero Mg concentrations. Observations
162 of rapid Mg disappearance (Seyfried *et al.* 2007) and production of comparable H₂ concentrations
163 (McCollom *et al.* 2016) during experimental serpentinization of ultramafic rock indicate both traits
164 are achievable within 0.5–2yr at conditions resembling the inferred LCHF subsurface (~200–300°C,
165 35–50 MPa). In contrast, to produce the abundant CH₄ in these fluids at the sluggish rates of abiotic
166 CH₄ production observed during experimental serpentinization (McCollom, 2016) would require
167 decades, possibly millennia, at these conditions (FIGURE 1). Recent shifts in the debate on the origin
168 of CH₄ in ultramafic-hosted hydrothermal fluids now point, using multiple lines of evidence, to CH₄
169 instead being extracted by circulating fluids from longer-lived gas-rich fluid inclusions occluded
170 within subsurface olivine or other minerals (McDermott *et al.* 2015; Wang *et al.* 2018; Klein *et al.*
171 2019; Grozeva *et al.* 2020).

172 Several other inorganic carbon reduction reactions, in contrast, can and do readily proceed in heated
173 fluids (in some cases, to chemical equilibrium) on even shorter timeframes in experimental
174 simulations at comparable conditions to Lost City (FIGURE 1). The ability to simulate realistic single-
175 phase, representative hydrothermal fluid pressure-temperature (P-T) conditions in the laboratory has
176 been of immense value to studies of hydrothermal carbon transformation (Reeves & Fiebig, 2020).
177 The initial reduction from inorganic carbon (CO₂, HCO₃⁻, CO₃²⁻) to carbon monoxide (CO), *via* the
178 intermediate formic acid (HCOOH), proceeds rapidly to equilibrium on the order of days to a few
179 weeks (Seewald *et al.* 2006) at 200–300°C (35 MPa), and abiotic HCOOH produced in this manner is
180 now considered to fuel bacteria inhabiting the Lost City vent structures (Lang *et al.* 2010; 2018).

181 Further reduction of inorganic carbon to methanol (CH₃OH, a key origin of life species, *e.g.* Preinar *et al.*
182 *et al.* 2020) is also possible under longer timescales (weeks to months), and appears to be equilibrium
183 controlled also (FIGURE 1; Seewald *et al.* 2006; Reeves, 2010; Reeves & Fiebig, 2020). As yet no
184 CH₃OH concentration data have been reported for seafloor hydrothermal systems to test this
185 prediction. It may be that, while CH₃OH formation does proceed, it might not achieve equilibrium
186 concentrations given the similarity in required timescales to subsurface residence times. It is
187 important to note the residence time calculated by Moore *et al.* likely does not represent the total time
188 spent at the most favorable temperatures for any given reaction to proceed strongly, and carbon
189 reduction reaction timescales display strong kinetic sensitivity between ~150°C to ~300°C (Seewald
190 *et al.* 2006; Reeves, 2010). Carbon-sulfur bond formation without catalysis at least appears feasible at

191 the upper limit of these conditions (Reeves, 2010; Reeves & Fiebig, 2020), even if likely subject to
192 strong kinetic limitation.

193

194 Abiotic formation of more complex molecules of prebiotic relevance under hydrothermal conditions,
195 *e.g.* forming carbon-carbon or carbon-nitrogen bonds on such timescales, is, unfortunately, far from
196 certain at the present time. Moore *et al.*(2021) argue that key abiotic molecules such as amino acids
197 would have sufficient time to be exported to the seafloor on Lost City timescales. Experimentally
198 determined half lives of norvaline and alanine decomposition are on the order of weeks to months at
199 ~150–190°C (35 MPa), and likely even shorter above ~200°C (McCollom, 2013). Such short half-
200 lives require an even more rapid production mechanism to outpace decomposition, similar to the
201 systematics of ²²³Ra regeneration described. We do not presently know, however, on what timeframe
202 organic nitrogen molecules can be created - if at all - under realistic physico-chemical (and now time)
203 constraints imposed by Lost City fluid compositions. Experimental amino acid synthesis using
204 reasonable reactants proven to be present in these fluids has also yet to be convincingly demonstrated
205 experimentally (Reeves & Fiebig, 2020).

206

207 While complex amino acid structures have been found in serpentinite ~175m deep beneath Atlantis
208 Massif (Menez *et al.* 2018), any *a priori* assumption of abiotic amino acid production beneath Lost
209 City remains highly questionable, not least of which by the fact that dissolved amino acids measured
210 in the Lost City fluids appear to reflect near-surface biological sources (Lang *et al.* 2013). Recent
211 work on shallower carbonates beneath Atlantis Massif furthermore reveals extensive incorporation of
212 inorganic carbon likely derived from thermal degradation of background marine dissolved organic
213 matter (Ternieten *et al.* 2021), implying ongoing transformation of pre-existing organic carbon.

214

215 Much research therefore remains to be done to constrain abiotic organic carbon and nitrogen
216 production in these systems. Moore *et al.*(2021) have, nonetheless, placed a timely and crucial
217 ‘kitchen timer’ constraint on the Lost City serpentinite aquifer. It will be interesting to observe if such
218 short timescales are upheld by short-lived ²²³Ra data from other ultramafic-hosted vent fluids (*e.g.*
219 Mid-Cayman Rise, Frankle *et al.* 2020). From the perspective of organic molecule production, the
220 question must now therefore be - what’s cooking?

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228 *between ocean basins*).

229 [Figure 1.](#)

230 Timescales in which selected organic reactions demonstrated have been observed occur in
231 experimental hydrothermal fluids, compared to the 0.5 to 2 year residence time calculated for Lost
232 City fluids (Moore *et al.* 2021). Reaction timescales are calculated at temperatures resembling the
233 likely range of subsurface fluids at Lost City (~150–300°C), and fluid pressures of 35 MPa (*i.e.*
234 single-phase solutions). Reactions separated by “ \leftrightarrow ” refer to observable reaction equilibrium, while
235 “ \rightarrow ” refers to reactions observed to progress to the right only (by the % noted, using reactant-to-
236 product label tracers such as ^{13}C). Reactions (i), (ii) and (iii) have already been demonstrated to occur
237 in some seafloor hydrothermal fluids. Timescale data are calculated from the following: (i–ii)
238 mineral-free experiments of Seewald *et al.* (2006); (iii) redox-buffered experiments, Seewald (2001);
239 (iv–v) mineral-free experiments, Reeves (2010); (vi) olivine serpentinization experiments, McCollom
240 & Seewald (2001), McCollom (2016); (vii) redox-buffered norvaline (*n*-alkyl- α -amino acid)
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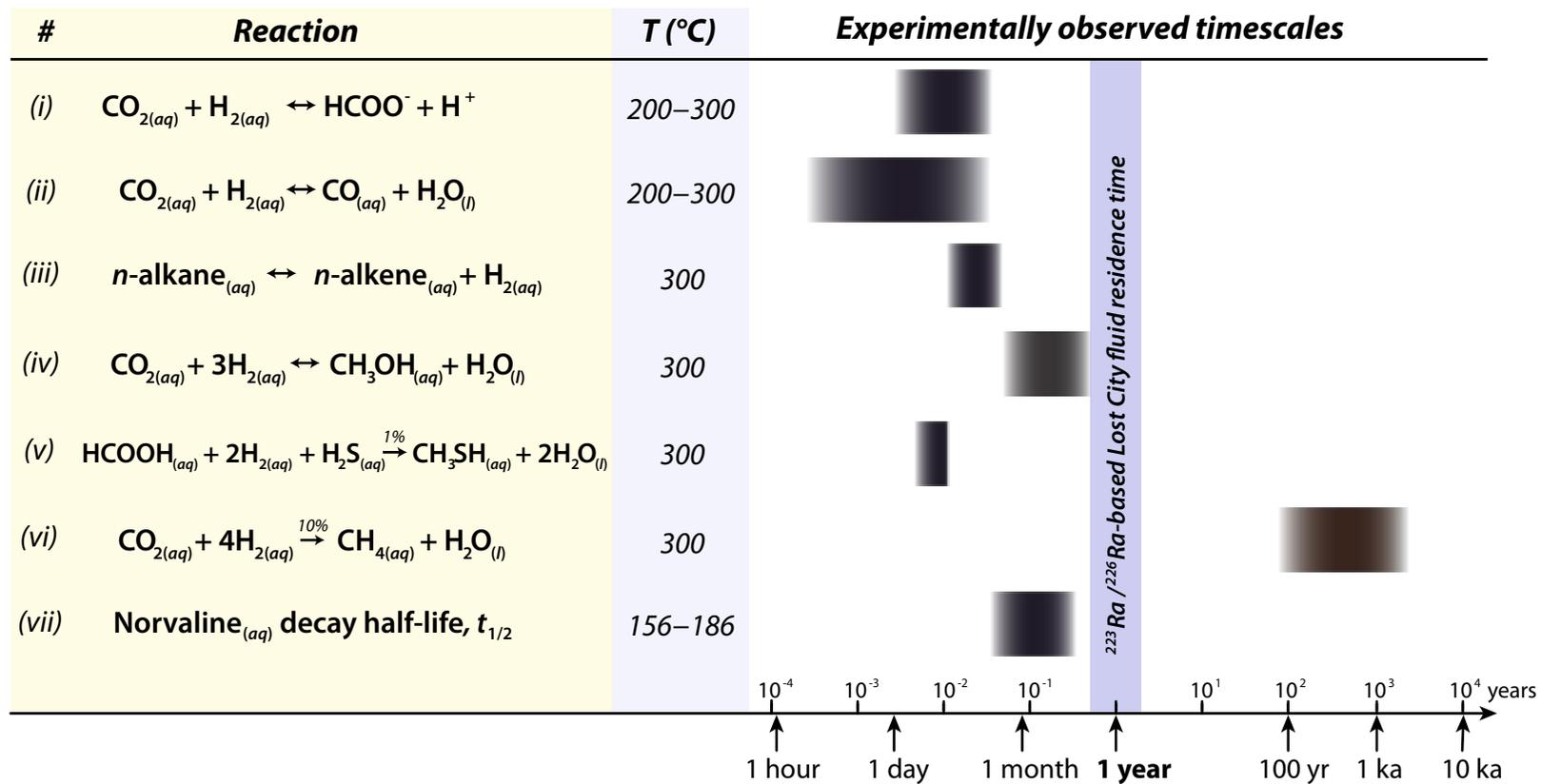


Figure 1.