

# Methane enrichment in low-temperature hydrothermal fluids from the Suiyo Seamount in the Izu-Bonin Arc of the western Pacific Ocean

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Received 31 October 2007; revised 17 June 2008; accepted 26 June 2008; published 22 August 2008.

[1] The gas geochemistries of high-temperature and low-temperature hydrothermal fluids (HTHFs and LTHFs, respectively) were studied for the Suiyo Seamount hydrothermal system (140°39'E, 28°33'N) in the southern Izu-Bonin (Ogasawara) Arc of the western Pacific Ocean. HTHFs (290  $\pm$  20°C) were collected from four active vents using a gastight fluid sampler, which prevented the loss of volatile components through degassing during sample processing. The end-member  $CH_4$  concentrations were homogeneous across the vent fields. LTHFs were collected from four diffuse flow zones using a funnel, which was deployed on the seafloor with replacement of the seawater inside the funnel by the LTHF. Strong linear relationships were found among the concentrations of  $CH_4$ ,  $\Sigma CO_2$ , and Si of the obtained samples, which ensured that the end-member chemical composition of the LTHFs could be accurately estimated. While the  $\Sigma CO_2$  concentrations of the HTHFs and LTHFs were similar, all four LTHFs showed enrichment of CH<sub>4</sub> as compared to the HTHFs. The carbon isotopic composition of CH4 also revealed a significant difference: the LTHFs ( $\delta^{13}C(CH_4) = -4.8 \pm 0.3\%$ PDB) showed <sup>13</sup>C enrichment, as compared to the HTHFs ( $\delta^{13}C(CH_4) = -5.8 \pm 0.4\%$ PDB). The <sup>13</sup>C enrichment can be explained by a combination of microbial CH<sub>4</sub> production and oxidation after formation of the LTHFs. On the basis of the observed differences in  $CH_4$  concentrations and carbon isotopic compositions of the HTHFs and LTHFs, microbial methane oxidation and production are estimated to have comparable impacts. These results support the notion of a subseafloor microbial consortium of methanogens and methanotrophs.

**Citation:** Toki, T., U. Tsunogai, J. Ishibashi, M. Utsumi, and T. Gamo (2008), Methane enrichment in low-temperature hydrothermal fluids from the Suiyo Seamount in the Izu-Bonin Arc of the western Pacific Ocean, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *113*, B08S13, doi:10.1029/2007JB005476.

# 1. Introduction

[2] Hydrothermal fluid venting from the seafloor was discovered at the spreading axes of the Galapagos Ridge in 1977 [*Corliss et al.*, 1979; *Edmond et al.*, 1979b]. Thereafter, deep-sea hydrothermal systems have been considered as one of the most interesting and important subjects for earth scientists. Numerous studies have revealed that hydrothermal activity is a ubiquitous concomitant phenomenon for shallow magmatic heat sources. The chemical

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composition of the pure hydrothermal fluid in a deep reservoir depends primarily on the nature of the rocks in the reservoir. The seawater-rock interaction abiotically produces high levels of hydrogen, methane, and light hydrocarbons through the Fischer-Tropsch reaction [Welhan and Craig, 1983; Welhan, 1988; Charlou et al., 2002; Simoneit et al., 2004; Proskurowski et al., 2008b]. The chemical composition of low-temperature hydrothermal fluids (LTHFs) is controlled mainly by mixing of the pure hydrothermal fluid in the deep reservoir with ambient seawater, although it can also be modified by subsurface processes during circulation, which include mineral precipitation and recrystallization [Edmond et al., 1979b; Edmond et al., 1979a], phase separation [Von Damm and Bischoff, 1987; Massoth et al., 1989; Butterfield et al., 1990], and microbial metabolism [Deming and Baross, 1993; Takai and Horikoshi, 1999].

[3] Microbial metabolism may play an important role in fluid chemistry during hydrothermal circulation, as recent studies have pointed to the existence of an enormous biosphere lying beneath the seafloor of submarine hydrothermal fields, which is supported by the continuously mixing environment of the reduced state of high-temperature hydrothermal

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fluids (HTHFs) in the subsurface layer and the cooler, oxidized seawater of the ocean [Deming and Baross, 1993; Shock and Schlute, 1998; Takai and Horikoshi, 1999; Proskurowski et al., 2008a]. A common ancestor of life is likely to have been a thermophilic or hyperthermophilic chemolithoautotroph that lived in a hydrothermal system [Pace, 1991]. Most microorganisms obtain carbon and energy from the oxidation of organic matter to  $CO_2$ . Submarine hydrothermal vent fluids contain significant amounts of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> [Welhan and Craig, 1979], which is suitable organic matter for microbial metabolism [Jannasch and Mottl, 1985]. When microbes utilize CH<sub>4</sub> as an organic material for metabolism (equation (1)), biogenic fractionation generates <sup>12</sup>C-enriched CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the remaining  $CH_4$  is enriched for <sup>13</sup>C. On the other hand, the utilization of  $CO_2$  together with  $H_2$  by methanogenic archaea produces  $CH_4$ , resulting in  $^{12}C$ -enriched  $CH_4$ (equation (2)).

$$CH_4 + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2 \tag{1}$$

$$\mathrm{CO}_2 + 4\mathrm{H}_2 \to \mathrm{CH}_4 + 2\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O} \tag{2}$$

Thus, characterization of the levels of dissolved  $CH_4$  and  $\Sigma CO_2$  (CO<sub>2</sub> gas plus dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>,  $HCO_3^-$ , and  $CO_3^{2-}$ ) provides useful information regarding the microbial processes in deep-sea hydrothermal systems.

[4] We conducted the present study using samples from active hydrothermal fields at the top of the Suivo Seamount, which is a submarine volcano that lies about 1000 km from the nearest landmass. A previous study on the fatty acid compositions of sediment samples [Yamanaka et al., 2001] revealed that from the contribution of terrigeneous organic compounds was almost negligible. Therefore, we consider the Suivo hydrothermal field to be an extreme seafloor environment, in which organic materials are supplied exclusively by chemolithoautotrophic microbes, and which resembles the early Earth [Holm and Andersson, 1998]. Many novel thermophilic and hyperthermophilic microbes (archaea and bacteria) have been isolated from hydrothermal vent chimneys and fluids, and in situ incubators have been deployed at the Suiyo Seamount site [Kasai et al., 2003; Nakagawa et al., 2003; Sako et al., 2003; Takai et al., 2003a; Takai et al., 2003b; Higashi et al., 2004; Mori et al., 2004; Nakagawa et al., 2004a; Nakagawa et al., 2004b; Kuwabara et al., 2005; Hara et al., 2005; Elsaied et al., 2007; Kuwabara et al., 2007]. These studies imply that the subseafloor of the Suiyo Seamount contains a microbial community that is similar to that postulated to have been present during the early periods of life on Earth [Hara et al., 2005; Yamagishi, 2005]. The microbial activities reported for the hydrothermal plume above the Suiyo Seamount indicate the presence of sulfur-oxidizing and methaneoxidizing microbes, as well as carbon monoxide-producing organisms [Sunamura et al., 2004; Utsumi et al., 2004; Tsunogai et al., 2005].

[5] Fluid chemistry showed that all of the fluid samples obtained during the present study have a single source in the hydrothermal system [*Ishibashi et al.*, 2003; *Kishida et al.*, 2004]. The calculated Si end-member for all the collected samples indicated a quartz equilibrium at 300°C. The level

of Cl end-member at this seamount was found to be significantly greater than that in seawater. Such chemical features of hydrothermal fluids have been observed for several years [*Ishibashi and Urabe*, 1995; *Kishida et al.*, 2004].

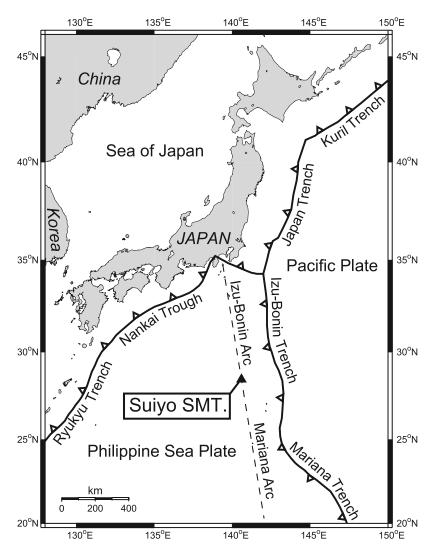
[6] We studied the concentrations and stable carbon isotopic compositions of the  $CH_4$  and  $\Sigma CO_2$  species in HTHFs and LTHFs. We found that the estimated endmember compositions of the HTHFs and LTHFs were different. We discuss (1) the processes that potentially cause this difference; (2) the estimated levels of microbiological consumption and production of methane; and (3) the composition of the microbial ecosystem that utilizes methane.

# 2. Study Area

[7] The Izu-Bonin (Ogasawara) Arc, which lies south of Japan, is a well-developed intraoceanic island arc that is associated with the Izu-Bonin subduction system (Figure 1a). The chain of active volcanic islands and submarine volcanoes, which is about 1200 km in length, extends to the northern end of the Mariana arc [*Yuasa*, 1985]. This subduction system lies on the eastern rim of the Philippine Sea plate, where the Pacific plate subducts toward the northwest (Figure 1a).

[8] The Suiyo Seamount (Suiyo SMT, 140°39′E, 28°33′N) lies on the volcanic front in the middle part of the Izu-Bonin Arc [Taylor et al., 1990]. The Suiyo Seamount has two major peaks, the eastern and western peaks (Figure 1b). Numerous small sulfide chimneys venting clear hydrothermal fluid at 230°C were discovered on the slope of the caldera of the western peak at a depth of 1320 m in 1991 [Kasuga and Kato, 1992]. In 1992, vigorous hydrothermal activity with HTHFs (260–311°C) was detected at the caldera floor at a depth of 1370 m [Watanabe et al., 1994; Watanabe and Kajimura, 1993; Watanabe and Kajimura, 1994]. An active hydrothermal field is distributed within an approximately  $300 \times 150$  m area in the NNW-SSE direction south of the huge rolling stone of dacitic lava, the so-called "Big Rock" [Watanabe et al., 1994; Kakegawa et al., 2005; Marumo et al., 2005; Kinoshita et al., 2006], as shown in Figure 1c. This area comprises structures typical of hydrothermal fields, such as sulfide chimneys of up to  $\sim 30$  cm that emit black HTHFs (AP01 and Marker 223), and mounds of shimmering clear LTHFs (Marker 300 and the neighborhoods of the high-temperature hydrothermal vents). Macrofaunal assemblages (mussel colonies), which are seen in most vent environments [Van Dover, 2000], have been observed around the hydrothermal vents, and in particular, dense mussel colonies ("Shell Carpet") have been noted in the warm shimmering vent fluid around Marker 300 (Figure 1c).

[9] As part of the Archaean Park Project, the seafloor of the Suiyo hydrothermal field was drilled, to allow direct collection of purer hydrothermal fluids from the subsurface of the hydrothermal system [*Urabe et al.*, 2001]. Seven boreholes (site names APSK01–07) were drilled in the hydrothermal field of the Suiyo Seamount in June 2001 using a portable marine drill (Benthic Multicoring System) [*Matsumoto and Sarata*, 1996]. All the artificially drilled vents, with the exception of APSK02 discharged hydrothermal fluids; their temperatures are listed in Table 1. The surface sediments at these boring sites consist primarily of



**Figure 1a.** The Izu-Bonin (Ogasawara) Arc on the eastern edge of the Philippine Sea plate (after *Taylor et al.* [1990]). The Suiyo Seamount (triangle) is located at 28°33'N, 140°39'E.

sandy volcaniclastics, below which unaltered volcanic rocks dominate the mainly pumice deposits. Beneath this zone, mixed-layer clay minerals, chlorite and montmorillonite, which are presumed to be altered dacite, are the dominant hydrothermal minerals, and anhydrite cements the rocks and fills the pore spaces. Sulfide grains, mostly pyrite, have been observed in several zones, representing possible vestiges of hydrothermal veining, followed by zones that are less altered, more porous, and containing a mixture of mica and chlorite. These are the predominant features of the Suiyo hydrothermal field [*Takano et al.*, 2004].

#### 3. Sampling

### 3.1. Equipment

### 3.1.1. Fluid Accumulation Sampler (FAS)

[10] The Fluid Accumulation Sampler (FAS) was deployed over a vent site with the purpose of channeling the effluent from the seafloor into a semienclosed environment (Figure 2). The sampler holds 12 acrylic cylindrical bottles (100 cm<sup>3</sup>), a revolving switch valve, a pump, a controller unit that contains the electronics and batteries, and a bell jar. The internal volume of each cylinder is

initially filled with distilled water. An inlet tube is inserted through a hole in the top of the bell jar, and the distilled water in the cylindrical samplers is replaced through the introduction of the accumulated fluid samples within the jar. Sampling intervals are preprogrammed before dive commencement. It takes about 2 min to fill one cylinder. The sampler has a dead space of about 3 cm<sup>3</sup> in the inlet tube, which is filled with bottom seawater before deployment. Temperature changes are monitored during the deployment period by a temperature sensor inside the bell jar.

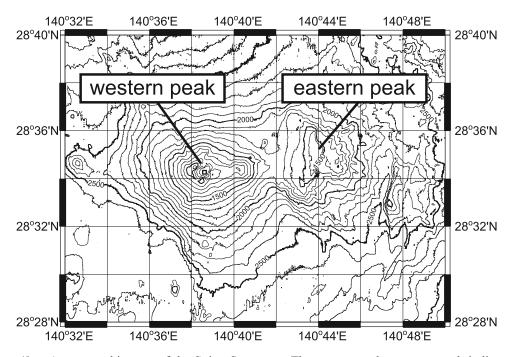
# 3.1.2. WHATS

[11] The Water and Hydrothermal *Atsuryoku* Tight Sampler (WHATS) was designed to hold collected gas and gasrich fluids during the ascent of a submersible. *Atsuryoku* means "pressure" in Japanese. A detailed description of this sampler is presented elsewhere [*Tsunogai et al.*, 2003; *Saegusa et al.*, 2006]. It takes about 7 min to fill one sample bottle with capacity of 150 cm<sup>3</sup>.

#### 3.2. Samples

#### 3.2.1. LTHFs

[12] LTHFs were sampled using the FAS and the remotely operated submersible *Hakuyo 2000* (SNK OCEAN Co.,



**Figure 1b.** A topographic map of the Suiyo Seamount. The square on the western peak indicates the area of Figure 1c. Contour interval is 100 m.

Ltd.) and the submersible *Shinkai 2000* of the Japan Marine Science Technology Center (JAMSTEC) during the 2001 Archaean Park Project. In Table 2, the sample names are listed together with the sampling site, fluid temperature measured during sampling, and the analytical results for the chemical and isotopic compositions. The sampler was deployed according to the following concepts: (1) a relatively flat seafloor where the bell jar could be positioned as firmly as possible, to avoid influx of ambient seawater; and (2) at a shimmering vent, for which the temperature of the shimmering fluid was above that of the ambient seawater ( $3^{\circ}$ C), thereby confirming the discharge of LTHF.

[13] During dive HY11, the FAS was placed for about 7 h over a vent around the APSK04 site at a depth of 1385 m. Ten fluid samples were taken from the bell jar at intervals of 15 min. During Dive 1293, the sampler was set for 2.3 h over a densely populated colony of clams and bacterial mats, awash in warm shimmering vent fluid, around Marker 300 on the "Shell Carpet" at a depth of 1379 m. During Dive 1297, the sampler was placed for 3.3 h over a densely populated colony of clams and bacterial mats, from which shimmering hot water was discharged, around the APSK07 site at a depth of 1383 m. During Dive 1312, the sampler was deployed for 2.8 h over a white patch, presumably composed of sulfate minerals, around the APSK03 site at a depth of 1368 m.

[14] Each of the recovered fluid samples was immediately transferred to two 30-cm<sup>3</sup> glass vials (one for measurements of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> content and  $\delta^{13}$ C(CH<sub>4</sub>), and the other for assaying  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub> content and  $\delta^{13}$ C(CO<sub>2</sub>)), with sufficient overflow to avoid air contamination in the onboard laboratory of the tender ship. After the samples were poisoned with HgCl<sub>2</sub> (the final concentration of mercury was ~100 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), the glass vials were capped with a gray butyl rubber septum without headspace. The residual fluid was transferred as soon as possible to a  $30\text{-cm}^3$  polypropylene bottle for measurements of pH, titration alkalinity, salinity, and Si content, as well as for onshore measurements of the major cations and anions. All samples were stored in the dark and kept at 4°C until analysis.

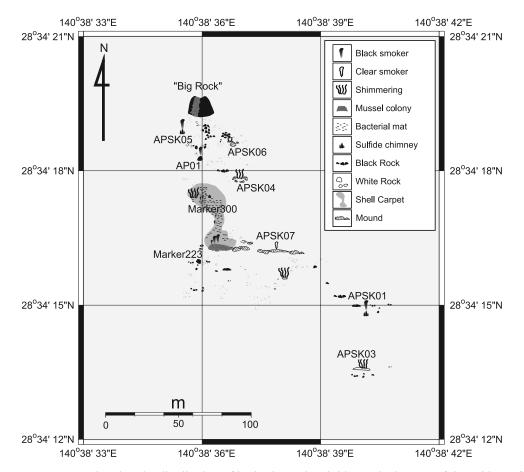
#### 3.2.2. HTHFs

[15] HTHFs were collected using the WHATS in 2001 from several active vents within the caldera (Table 1), during dives by the manned submersible Shinkai 2000 (JAMSTEC). The gas and liquid phases were immediately isolated in the laboratory aboard the tender ship Natsushima using the following procedures. First, the sampler was connected to a vacuum line made of stainless steel, and the fluid sample was transferred to a 2-L evacuated stainless steel container. The fluid sample was then acidified by adding amidosulfuric acid, to convert all dissolved carbonate species to  $CO_2$  in the gas phase, and mixed with HgCl<sub>2</sub>, to deposit the H<sub>2</sub>S as HgS. The gas phase was transferred to a 150-cm<sup>3</sup> evacuated stainless steel container for CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\Sigma CO_2$  content and isotope measurements. After the gas phase was obtained, the liquid phase was filtered (mesh size, 0.45  $\mu$ m) and placed in a 50-cm<sup>3</sup> polypropylene bottle for assays of major cations and anions.

### 4. Analytical Methods

#### 4.1. Concentration and Isotopic Composition of Gases

[16] The concentrations and stable carbon isotopic compositions of CH<sub>4</sub> in both the liquid and gas samples were measured using the Finnigan MAT 252 isotope-ratiomonitoring continuous-flow mass spectrometer [*Tsunogai et al.*, 2000]. The hydrocarbon content of the sample was calculated by comparing the <sup>44</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> output with that of a working standard gas, which contained ~875 ppm CH<sub>4</sub>, ~44 ppm C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, and 21 ppm C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> in nitrogen, derived from

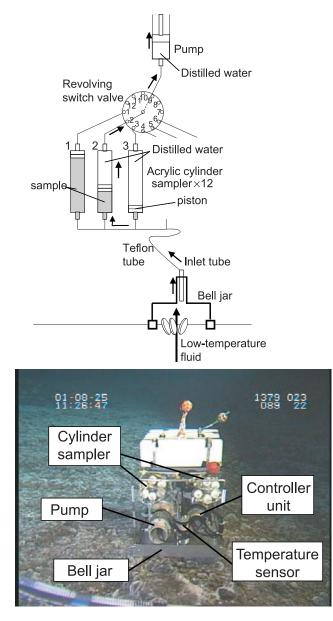


**Figure 1c.** A map showing the distribution of hydrothermal activities at the bottom of the caldera of the Suiyo Seamount.

**Table 1.** Chemical and Isotopic Compositions of High-Temperature Hydrothermal Fluids Collected by WHATS From Suiyo SeamountHydrothermal Vents<sup>a</sup>

				Maximum	Si (mmol/kg)	pН	Sal. (‰)	Alk. (mmol/kg)	Mg (mmol/kg)	CH <sub>4</sub> (µmol/kg)	δ <sup>13</sup> C(CH <sub>4</sub> ) (‰PDB)	$\Sigma CO_2$ (mmol/kg)	$ \begin{array}{c} \delta^{13}\mathrm{C(CO_2)} \\ (\text{\%PDB}) \end{array} $
Date	Dive	Sample	Site	Temperature (°C)	Color.	Elec.	Ref.	Titr.	ICP-AES	CF-IRMS	CF-IRMS	CF-IRMS	CF-IRMS
2001.9.2	D1298	W-1	APSK01	298.5	11.9	3.80	40.5	-0.15	-	113	-5.7	39.5	-0.5
2001.9.2	D1298	W-2	APSK01	172.0	9.85	4.35	40.0	0.05	-	94.2	-7.1	25.7	-0.7
2001.10.11	D1307	W-4	APSK03	223.0	9.50	5.13	40.0	1.52	6.6	91.3	-6.0	17.1	-0.9
2001.9.15	D1303	W-1	APSK04	285.5	12.2	4.29	37.5	-0.02	-	16.6	-9.5	6.17	-0.2
2001.9.15	D1303	W-2	APSK04	276.0	11.8	4.09	40.0	-0.04	-	64.8	-7.4	42.1	-0.4
2001.8.26	D1293	W-1	APSK05	156.0	-	-	38.0	-	-	40.1	-9.1	22.1	-0.9
2001.9.14	D1302	W-3	APSK05	111.0	1.19	6.60	36.5	2.08	-	26.0	-6.1	5.16	-1.8
2001.10.6	D1305	W-1	APSK05	305.0	13.1	4.17	41.5	-0.08	0.6	127	-5.7	39.5	-0.4
2001.10.6	D1305	W-2	APSK05	305.0	13.4	3.81	41.5	-0.15	0.6	170	-6.2	46.7	-0.4
2001.9.6	D1301	W-1	APSK06	50.0	1.71	6.48	35.0	2.12	-	18.4	-4.2	8.06	-1.3
2001.9.14	D1302	W-1	APSK06	265.5	10.8	4.72	40.5	0.09	-	140	-5.8	40.3	-0.6
2001.9.14	D1302	W-2	APSK06	300.0	10.6	4.78	40.5	0.10	-	168	-5.4	40.3	-0.5
2001.10.12	D1308	W-4	APSK07	280.0	12.6	3.99	35.0	-0.02	2.3	150	-6.1	40.1	-0.4
2001.8.30	D1297	W-2	Marker 223	292.0	-	-	38.0	0.08	-	79.6	-6.1	35.7	-0.5
2001.9.2	D1298	W-3	Marker 223	291.5	11.2	3.83	40.5	-0.11	-	158	-6.3	38.1	-0.5
2001.9.2	D1298	W-4	Marker 223	293.3	10.3	3.83	40.5	-0.11	-	135	-5.5	39.3	-0.5
2001.10.6	D1305	W-4	Marker 223	225.0	13.0	3.82	40.5	-0.14	0.5	230	-5.3	49.3	-0.5
2001.9.5	D1300	W-2	Marker 300	4.0	0.16	7.53	34.0	2.44	-	0.66	-5.3	3.67	-1.1
2001.8.30	D1297	W-3	AP01	312.6	12.6	-	40.0	-0.10	0.8	79.2	-5.3	37.9	-0.5
2001.8.30	D1297	W-4	AP01	312.6	12.6	-	41.5	-0.03	1.3	169	-6.0	38.0	-0.5
2001.9.15	D1303	W-3	AP01	308.0	12.6	3.95	40.5	-0.07	-	164	-6.0	44.5	-0.4
2001.9.15	D1303	W-4	AP01	307.5	12.7	3.86	40.5	-0.08	-	166	-5.8	41.2	-0.5

<sup>a</sup>Analytical method: Si (colorimetry), pH (pH meter), salinity (refractmeter), alkalinity (potentiometric titration) onboard analysis, Mg (ICP-AES), CH<sub>4</sub>,  $\delta^{13}$ C(CH<sub>4</sub>),  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub>, and  $\delta^{13}$ C(CO<sub>2</sub>) (Continuous flow isotope-ratio-monitoring gas chromatography/mass spectrometry) onland analysis.



**Figure 2.** (top) Schematic diagram showing the "Fluid Accumulation Sampler." (bottom) A view of the Fluid Accumulation Sampler over a dense clam colony with bacteria mats, the so-called "Shell Carpet," in the Suiyo Seamount during Dive 1293. (Photographs provided by JAMSTEC.)

the NIST RM 8560 (IAEA NGS2) standard. The precision of the concentration determination (1 sigma value for 10 determinations) was estimated to be 6.5% at a concentration of 2 nmol/kg of CH<sub>4</sub>. The  $\delta^{13}$ C values were calibrated using the NGS2 CH<sub>4</sub> standard. The detection limits of this isotope analysis are 200 pmol for isotope ratio standard deviations of 0.3‰, which corresponds to 6 nmol/kg CH<sub>4</sub> in seawater samples, in a 30-cm<sup>3</sup> vial. The analytical blank associated with the method, being less than 1 pmol, is negligible.

[17] The content and carbon isotopic composition of  $\Sigma CO_2$  in the gas samples were measured using the Finnigan MAT 252 isotope-ratio-monitoring continuous-flow mass

spectrometer [*Ijiri et al.*, 2003]. The  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub> content of the sample was calculated by comparing the <sup>44</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> output with that of a working standard gas, which contained ~1095 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> in nitrogen, derived from the Oztech standard. The precision of the isotope analysis (1 sigma value for 10 determinations) was estimated to be 2% at a concentration level of 2 mmol/kg of  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub>. The  $\delta^{13}$ C values were calibrated by using the Oztech CO<sub>2</sub> standard (-11.0‰ PDB). The detection limits of this content analysis were 5 nmol for isotopic ratio standard deviations of 0.3‰. The analytical blank associated with the method, being less than 4 pmol, was negligible.

[18] The concentrations of  $\Sigma CO_2$  in the liquid samples were measured with a coulometer (UIC Inc.). The precision of the determination (1 sigma value for 10 determinations) was estimated to be less than 3%. The carbon isotopic composition of  $\Sigma CO_2$  in liquid samples was analyzed using the Finnigan MAT 252 isotope-ratio-monitoring dual-inlet mass spectrometer [*Kroopnick*, 1971]. The precision of the isotope analysis (1 sigma value for 10 determinations) was estimated to be 0.04‰. The carbon isotope composition is reported as a  $\delta$  value relative to the PDB standard, where

$$\delta = (R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000\%,$$

with R being the isotope ratio  ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ .

# 4.2. Major Components of the Liquid Samples

[19] The Mg concentrations in the fluid samples were measured by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) emission spectrophotometry. The analytical precision was estimated to be within 5% for Mg. Samples were analyzed aboard the ship for alkalinity, pH, and Si. Alkalinity was determined by potentiometric titration with 0.1 M HCl. Si was measured by spectrophotometry using the silicomolybdate complex method. The analytical precisions were estimated to be within 0.5% for pH, 5% for alkalinity, and 7% for Si.

### 5. Results

[20] The chemical and isotopic compositions of the HTHFs and LTHFs are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. We also determined the end-members of the HTHFs and LTHFs.

# 5.1. End-Members of the HTHFs

[21] To determine the end-members of the HTHFs, we assessed the purities of the samples collected by the WHATS, by measuring the Si and Mg concentrations in the hydrothermal samples. The Si concentration of pure hydrothermal fluids from the Suiyo hydrothermal system were determined on the basis of the Si-Mg relationship observed for the fluid samples from numerous vents in the Suivo Seamount during these expeditions, since the there was a linear relationship between the Si and Mg concentrations [Kishida et al., 2004]. Correction for the addition of seawater to the pure hydrothermal fluid was carried out by extrapolating Mg to 0 based on the assumption that the Mg concentration in the pure hydrothermal fluid was zero [Von Damm et al., 1985]. The end-member Si concentration was estimated as  $12.8 \pm 0.3$  mmol/kg, and the hydrothermal system was assumed to have only a single source of

Date  Dive Sample Time  Note  Color  File  Tit  PCP AFS CF-RMSS CF-RMSS Colormer (FMMS)							Si mmol/kg	pН	Cl mmol/kg	Sal. g ‰	Alk. mmol/k	Mg g mmol/kg		$\delta^{13}C(CH_4)$ % PDB	$\Sigma CO_2$ mmol/kg	δ <sup>13</sup> C(CO <sub>2</sub> ) ‰PDB
Dive  Sample Time  Note  Color  Elec  Tim  Ref  Tite  CP-ALSCF-RMSS_CPLANSS_Coulometer  Intell    2001.8.8  HY11  T2  0930  136  3.5  heffor: encage  -  2.30  5.20  0.02 81  2.23     2001.8.8  HY11  T2  0930  1363  3.5  heffor: encage  -  2.30  5.00  0.03 71  2.23     100  1383  3.4  onwork  0.55  5.54  -  2.41  5.13  0.06 5.4  2.37     17  1000  1385  9.0  PS  APS(0  0.63  6.52   2.16  50.4  4.03 5.5  2.78          0.16  1.00  1.00  1.00  0.35  7.4   2.24  50.0  4.45  2.47   1.00  1.00			Γ	Depth	Temp.											Dual
12  0930 1363  3.5  before  0.14  7.55  549  -  2.39  50.9  0.03  -7.1  -    13  1000 1383  3.4  onswords  0.55  6.43  549  -  2.41  51.3  0.06  -5.4  2.37  -    14  1030 1385  9.1  setat  0.50  6.43  549  -  2.25  49.1  7.83  -5.0  3.53  -    175  1100 1385  9.9  APSK04  0.63  6.57  547  -  2.21  50.4  4.03  -5.3  2.78  -  -  1.1	Date Dive S	Sample					Color.	Elec.	Titr.	Ref.	Titr.	ICP-AES	CF-IRMS	CF-IRMS	Coulometer	Inlet
T2  0930 1363  3.5  before  0.14  7.55  549  -  2.39  50.9  0.03  -7.1  -  -    release  in cage  in cage  in cage  in cage  -  2.31  50.9  0.03  -7.1  -  -    T4  1030 1385  9.4  onsold  6.43  549  -  2.15  40.6  9.60  -5.0  3.53  -    T5  1100 1385  9.0  A.63  6.47  577  -  2.15  40.6  9.60  -5.0  3.53  -    T0  1200 1385  9.0  A.63  6.77  577  -  2.26  50.6  3.30  -5.2  2.80  - <t< td=""><td>2001.8.8 HY11</td><td>T1</td><td>0900</td><td>960</td><td>4.1</td><td>descending</td><td>0.13</td><td>7.53</td><td>544</td><td>-</td><td>2.36</td><td>52.2</td><td>0.02</td><td>-8.1</td><td>2.23</td><td>-</td></t<>	2001.8.8 HY11	T1	0900	960	4.1	descending	0.13	7.53	544	-	2.36	52.2	0.02	-8.1	2.23	-
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T3  1000  138  3.4  on working  0.15  7.59  5.4  -  2.41  5.13  0.06  -  5.4  2.37  -    T4  1030  138  9.1  set at  0.50  6.33  55  2.7  2.15  49.6  9.60  -5.0  3.53  -    T5  1100  1385  8.4  0.30  6.57  547  -  2.15  49.6  9.60  -5.0  3.53  -  -  -  -  2.15  10.4  4.03  -5.5  2.78  -																
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$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		11	1150	1575	5.5		0.11	1.00	512	51.5	2.01		0.09	5.1	2.19	
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		T5	1145	1379	3.2	Marker	0.14	7.52	546	34.5	2.67	-	0.10	-5.0	2.46	-
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		T6	1200	1379	3.2		(0.14)	(7.57)	(540)	(34.5)	(2.63)	-	(0.07)	(-10.2)	(2.44)	-
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$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		T10	1330	1379	4.1		0.16	7.29	540	34.5	2.45	-	0.44	-5.8	2.43	-0.76
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$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2001.10.24 D1312	T1	1130	1380	3.4		0.13	7.64	551	-	3.27	51.2	0.05	-6.8	2.20	-
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$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		T4			4.5	APSK03		7.11		-			1.37	-7.2		-0.16
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T12 1415 1368 5.3 rec. at 0.27 6.71 547 - 2.59 51.1 2.74 -5.2 2.62 +0.89																+0.72
1450		T12	1415 1	1368	5.3		0.27	6.71	547	-	2.59	51.1	2.74	-5.2	2.62	+0.89

**Table 2.** Chemical and Isotopic Compositions of Low-Temperature Hydrothermal Fluids Collected by Fluid Accumulation Sampler From Suiyo Seamount Hydrothermal Vents<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Analytical method: Si (colorimetry), pH (pH meter), chrolinity (Mohr titration), salinity (refractmeter), alkalinity (potentiometric titration) onboard analysis, Mg (ICP-AES), CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\delta^{13}$ C(CH<sub>4</sub>) (Continuous flow isotope-ratio-monitoring gas chromatography/mass spectrometry),  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub> (coulometer), and  $\delta^{13}$ C(CO<sub>2</sub>) (dual inlet isotope-ratio-monitoring mass spectrometry) onland analysis.

Site	Sample	Temp. (°C)	Si (mmol/kg)	CH <sub>4</sub> (µmol/kg)	$\delta^{13}$ C(CH <sub>4</sub> ) (‰PDB)	$\Sigma CO_2 \text{ (mmol/kg)}$	$\delta^{13}C(CO_2)$ (% PDB)
APSK05	D1305 W-1, -2	305	$13.2 \pm 0.3$	$150 \pm 40$	$-5.9 \pm 0.4$	$43 \pm 6$	$-0.43 \pm 0.02$
APSK07	D1308 W-4	280	$12 \pm 2$	$150 \pm 10$	$-6.1 \pm 0.3$	$40 \pm 1$	$-0.4 \pm 0.3$
Marker 223	D1298 W-3, -4, D1305 W-4	$270 \pm 40$	$11 \pm 2$	$170 \pm 50$	$-5.7 \pm 0.6$	$42 \pm 7$	$-0.50 \pm 0.05$
AP01	D1297 W-3, -4, D1303 W-3, -4	$310 \pm 3$	$12.6 \pm 0.1$	$140 \pm 50$	$-5.8 \pm 0.3$	$40 \pm 4$	$-0.47\pm0.08$
Average		$290\pm20$	$12 \pm 1$	$150 \pm 40$	$-5.8 \pm 0.4$	$40 \pm 5$	$-0.4 \pm 0.2$

**Table 3.** Concentrations and Isotopic Compositions of Dissolved  $CH_4$  and  $\Sigma CO_2$  of End-Member High-Temperature Hydrothermal Fluid

hydrothermal fluids, as mentioned previously [Ishibashi et al., 2003].

[22] We successfully captured some hydrothermal fluid samples without artificial mixing, as evidenced by a Si concentration close to the end-member value (12.8 mmol/kg). For the four active sites (APSK05, APSK07, Marker 223, and AP01), the concentrations and isotopic compositions of dissolved  $CH_4$  and  $\Sigma CO_2$  were averaged site by site, the values of which together with the average temperatures are shown in Table 3. Both the concentrations and isotopic compositions were similar across the four sites. These results are in agreement with those of the major element fluid chemistry [Ishibashi et al., 2003] and suggest that the microbial activities related to  $CH_4$  and  $\Sigma CO_2$  are low or homogenous in the HTHFs. Clear microbial diversity has been reported between a borehole and natural vent sites based on 16S rDNA clone libraries [Higashi et al., 2004]. These results imply that the microbial activities in the HTHFs are minimal.

### 5.2. End-Members of the LTHFs

[23] Correction for the addition of seawater to the pure hydrothermal fluid is an important step in considering other subsurface processes. The concentration of each chemical species in the undiluted pure hydrothermal fluid can be estimated by extrapolating the linear relationship from the data on each LTHF sample back to Mg = 0 [Von Damm et al., 1985]. However, the analytical error for Mg (±1 mmol/kg) is too large to correct for the addition of seawater to the hydrothermal fluid. The linearity noted between the Si and Mg concentrations suggests that Si is one of the conservative components [Kishida et al., 2004]. The analytical error associated with the Si measurement is much smaller than that associated with the Mg measurement, so we adopted the Si concentration of  $12.8 \pm 0.3$  mmol/kg, the endmember Si concentration in the pure Suiyo Seamount hydrothermal fluid, for estimating the end-member fluid compositions of other components of the LTHFs. This approach to estimating the end-member fluid compositions has previously been applied to diffuse fluids, using the endmember Si concentration to estimate the chemical composition of the pure hydrothermal fluid [Von Damm and Lilley, 2004].

[24] Among the samples collected from a diffuse flow field, the concentrations of volatile components (CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub>) showed linear relationships with the Si concentration (Figures 3 and 4). The end-member compositions of CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub> for each site were calculated by extrapolation of the relationship determined by the least squares fit to Si = 12.8 ± 0.3 mmol/kg. The estimated end-member concentrations of CH<sub>4</sub> and  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub> are listed in Table 4. As for D1293, all the collected samples were too diluted by seawater to allow accurate estimations of the end-member values.

[25] The end-member  $\Sigma CO_2$  concentrations of the LTHFs (36–46 mmol/kg) were in the same range as those of the HTHFs (40–43 mmol/kg) within the range of the analytical error (Tables 3 and 4). This agreement suggests that LTHFs are formed by dilution of the original hydrothermal fluid with seawater. Moreover, the strong agreement noted between the end-member  $\Sigma CO_2$  concentrations calculated from two different types of hydrothermal fluids confirm the reliabilities of the two sampling devices used in the present study. In contrast, the end-member concentrations of dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> in the LTHFs (150–210  $\mu$ mol/kg) were higher than those in the HTHFs (140–170  $\mu$ mol/kg) above the analytical error (Tables 3 and 4).

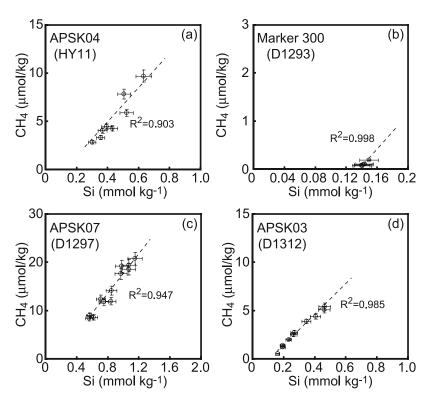
[26] The carbon isotopic compositions of the  $CH_4$  in the LTHFs were compared with those in the HTHFs. To estimate the CH<sub>4</sub> carbon isotopic composition of the LTHF end-members, the  $\delta^{13}$ C of CH<sub>4</sub> was plotted against 1/CH<sub>4</sub> (reciprocal of the CH<sub>4</sub> concentration) for the collected samples at each site (Figure 5). All the plots should be distributed along a straight line if simple mixing between the end-member and the ambient seawater is the sole process that determines the methane dissolved in the collected samples (from the sampling chamber in a diffuse flow field). For the regression factors (Figure 5), strong relationships were identified (with the exceptions of two samples from D1293 (Figure 5b)) for each site, which enabled the determination of the methane carbon isotopic compositions by extrapolation of the least squares fit to  $(1/CH_4) = 0$ . The calculated  $\delta^{13}$ C values were  $-4.8 \pm 0.3\%$  for APSK04 (HY11),  $-4.6 \pm 0.6\%$  for Marker 300 (D1293),  $-4.9 \pm$ 0.3% for APSK07 (D1297), and  $-4.7 \pm 0.2\%$  for APSK03 (D1312) (Table 4). In comparison with the methane carbon isotopic composition of the HTHF end-member ( $-5.8 \pm$ 0.4‰, indicated by an asterisk in Figure 5), the LTHF endmember comprised methane that was significantly enriched in <sup>13</sup>C.

[27] The chemical and isotopic compositions of the ambient seawater averaged 50 nmol/kg and  $-6.3 \pm 0.7\%$ , respectively, based on the fluids (HY11 T2 and 3, D1293 T2 and 3, D1312 T1 and 2) obtained using the FAS (Table 2). For D1312, the background seawater of the mixing line was a local source rather than the ambient seawater, as mentioned above, but the mixing line was apparently straight, such that there is no doubt about the value for the hydro-thermal end-member (Figure 5d).

### 6. Discussion

# 6.1. Processes That Control the Methane Concentrations of Hydrothermal Fluids

[28] The end-member methane concentrations of the LTHFs were higher than those of the HTHFs. The mechanisms that increase the methane concentration in hydrothermal fluids



**Figure 3.** Plots of  $CH_4$  concentration versus Si concentration in the low-temperature fluid samples recovered by the Fluid Accumulation Sampler during deployment for (a) HY11, (b) D1293, (c) D1297, and (d) D1312. The dashed line is the regression line of all data together with the correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ).

in sediment-starved hydrothermal systems include: (1) phase separation [*Massoth et al.*, 1989]; (2) abiogenic production [*Welhan and Craig*, 1983]; and (3) microbial production [*Deming and Baross*, 1993].

[29] During ascent, as its temperature reaches the boiling point, the hydrothermal fluid is separated into gaseous and aqueous phases. Subsequently, the gaseous phase mixes with cooler seawater to form a vapor-rich fluid, owing to its fractionation during boiling. However, according to the Rayleigh distillation model phase-segregated (gas phase) fluids should contain CH<sub>4</sub> enriched in <sup>12</sup>C due to fractionation during boiling, which is inconsistent with our observation. In our study, the  $\delta^{13}$ C value of methane as the end-member of the LTHFs showed enrichment for <sup>13</sup>C relative to that of the HTHFs (Tables 3 and 4). Indeed, the temperature at the time of sampling of the Suiyo Seamount  $(290 \pm 20^{\circ}\text{C}; \text{ Table 4})$  was below the boiling point  $(330^{\circ}\text{C})$ for seawater at ambient pressure (140 bar) [Bischoff and Rosenbauer, 1988], and no decrease in salinity or chloride concentration was observed for any of the samples (Table 2), which contradicts the idea of gas phase fluid venting induced by phase separation.

[30] Abiogenic methane production is generally observed in sediment-starved seafloor hydrothermal fluids. The  $\delta^{13}$ C of methane is typically -15% to -25% PDB [*Welhan and Craig*, 1983; *Evans et al.*, 1988]. The Fischer-Tropsch synthesis reaction,

# $\mathrm{CO}_2 + 4\mathrm{H}_2 = \mathrm{CH}_4 + 2\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O},$

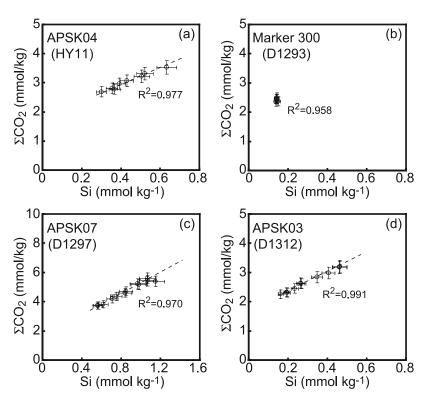
has been demonstrated experimentally at 127°C, with reported kinetic isotopic fractionation of 50% to 100%

[*Lancet and Anders*, 1970]. Kinetic isotopic fraction during abiogenic CH<sub>4</sub> formation was determined as:  $\alpha = ({}^{13}\text{CH}_4/{}^{12}\text{CH}_4)/({}^{13}\text{CO}_2/{}^{12}\text{CO}_2) = 0.940$  to 0.950 at 200°C and  $\alpha = 0.960$  to 0.965 at 300°C, based on an experiment performed in the presence of Ni-Fe alloy as catalyst [*Horita* and Berndt, 1999]. The equilibrium  ${}^{13}\text{C}/{}^{12}\text{C}$  fractionations expected between  $\Sigma\text{CO}_2$  and CH<sub>4</sub> were evaluated as  $\alpha$ (equil) = 0.970 at 200°C and  $\alpha$  (equil) = 0.982 at 300°C [*Horita*, 2001]. Abiogenic methane has also been found in slow-spreading ridges, such as Rainbow, Lost City, and Logatchev, where the  $\delta^{13}$ Cs of methane vary from -15.8‰ to -8.8‰ PDB [*Charlou et al.*, 2002; *Kelley et al.*, 2005; *Charlou et al.*, 1998]. Therefore, abiogenic methane production cannot be the source of the higher CH<sub>4</sub> concentration and heavier isotopic values of CH<sub>4</sub> observed for the LTHF samples from Suiyo Seamount.

[31] Methanogenic archaea can produce CH<sub>4</sub> from H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>. The carbon isotopic fractionation from CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> by cultured microbes is reported to be  $-20\% \sim -30\%$  PDB [*House et al.*, 2003]. The observed isotopic composition of  $\Sigma$ CO<sub>2</sub> in all samples collected from the Suiyo hydrothermal system in the present study was  $-0.3 \pm 0.5\%$ . Since the  $\delta^{13}$ C of microbially produced methane from CO<sub>2</sub> should be -20.3% to -30.3% PDB, microbial methane production in the hydrothermal circulation cannot explain the <sup>13</sup>C enrichment in the LTHF samples compared to the  $\delta^{13}$ C data for the hydrothermal end-member.

# 6.2. Combination of Microbial Production and Oxidation of Methane

[32] Thus, the CH<sub>4</sub> enrichment and <sup>13</sup>C enrichment in  $\delta^{13}C(CH_4)$  for the LTHFs are not explained by any of the



**Figure 4.** Plots of  $\Sigma CO_2$  concentration versus Si concentration in the low-temperature fluid samples recovered by Fluid Accumulation Sampler during deployment for (a) HY11, (b) D1293, (c) D1297, and (d) D1312. The dashed line is the regression line of all data together with the correlation coefficient (R<sup>2</sup>).

above mentioned processes. However, the hydrothermal vents of the Suivo Seamount contain a number of methanogenic hyperthermophilic archaeal clones [Higashi et al., 2004], which are closely related to Methanococcaldococcus infernos, which grows at temperatures of between 49°C and 89°C, with an optimum growth temperature of 85°C [Jeanthon et al., 1998], and Methanococcaldococcus *jannaschii*, which grows at 50°C to 86°C with an optimum growth temperature of 85°C [Jones et al., 1983]. On the other hand, microbial methane oxidation was measured using direct sampling of the hydrothermal vent fluid from the Suiyo Seamount [Utsumi et al., 2004]. Of the three sites from which LTHFs were collected, the site with the highest temperature (Table 2) showed the highest  $CH_4$  end-member concentration (Table 4), which supports the notion of microbial influence on the CH<sub>4</sub> concentration of the LTHFs. Since methane enrichment and <sup>13</sup>C enrichment of methane could be due to a combination of microbial methane production and oxidation after formation of the LTHFs, we estimated methane production and consumption by microbial processes.

[33] For calculations of combinatory production and oxidation of methane in the hydrothermal system during

circulation, the carbon isotopic fractionation ( $\varepsilon$ ) of methane production and kinetic isotopic effect (KIE)  $\alpha$  of methane oxidation were taken from previous studies [*House et al.*, 2003; *Utsumi et al.*, 2004; *Templeton et al.*, 2006].

[34] For methane production, the carbon isotopic fractionation  $\varepsilon$  value for the conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> by the methanogenic microbe *Methanococaldococcus jannaschii*, which is closely related to the clones from the Suiyo Seamount [*Higashi et al.*, 2004], has been reported [*House et al.*, 2003], and 25% PDB was adopted as a representative value of  $\varepsilon$  in the present study.

[35] The value of KIE ( $\alpha$ ) due to both aerobic and anaerobic methane oxidation has been reported in several microbiological and geochemical studies [e.g., *Whiticar and Faber*, 1986], with  $\alpha$  defined as the ratio of relative separation rates of molecules that contain different isotopes,

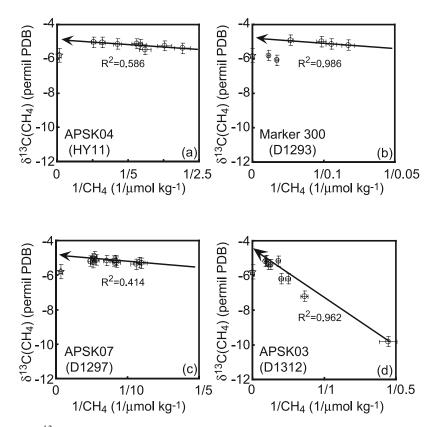
$$\alpha = \mathbf{k}_{12}/\mathbf{k}_{13},$$

where  $k_{12}$  and  $k_{13}$  are the rate constants of the following respective reactions:

 $^{12}CH_4 + (O) \rightarrow ^{12}CO_2$ 

Table 4. Calculated Concentrations and Isotopic Compositions of Dissolved  $CH_4$  and  $\Sigma CO_2$  of End-Member Low-Temperature Hydrothermal Fluid

Site	Sample	CH <sub>4</sub> (µmol/kg)	$\delta^{13}C(CH_4)$ (%PDB)	$\Sigma CO_2 \text{ (mmol/kg)}$	$\delta^{13}C(CO_2)$ (‰PDB)
APSK04	HY11 T-4 $\sim -12$	$270\pm60$	$-4.8 \pm 0.3$	$36 \pm 8$	$-1.2 \pm 0.4$
Marker 300	D1293 T-4 $\sim -8$	$150 \pm 310$	$-4.6 \pm 0.6$	-	-
APSK07	D1297 T-1 $\sim -12$	$280 \pm 50$	$-4.9 \pm 0.3$	$46 \pm 7$	$-0.4 \pm 0.1$
APSK03	D1312 T-3 $\sim -12$	$210 \pm 30$	$-4.7 \pm 0.2$	$42 \pm 5$	$+4.5 \pm 0.5$



**Figure 5.** The  $\delta^{13}$ C versus 1/(CH<sub>4</sub> concentration) for the low-temperature samples after Fluid Accumulation Sampler deployment for (a) HY11, (b) D1293, (c) D1297, and (d) D1312, with the endmember value of the pure Suiyo Seamount hydrothermal fluid recovered by "WHATS" (star). The solid arrow indicates a hypothetical mixing line between the supposed hydrothermal fluid end-member and the ambient seawater in the caldera, together with the correlation coefficient (R<sup>2</sup>).

and

$$^{13}\mathrm{CH}_4 + \mathrm{(O)} \rightarrow ^{13}\mathrm{CO}_2.$$

[36] The reported KIE values are  $\alpha = 1.002-1.039$  for aerobic methane oxidation [*Zyakun et al.*, 1979; *Barker and Fritz*, 1981; *Coleman et al.*, 1981; *Tsunogai et al.*, 2000; *Grant and Whiticar*, 2002; *Cowen et al.*, 2002; *Utsumi et al.*, 2004; *Keir et al.*, 2005; *Templeton et al.*, 2006] and  $\alpha =$ 1.008–1.014 for anaerobic methane oxidation [*Whiticar and Faber*, 1986; *Alperin et al.*, 1988; *Martens et al.*, 1999; *Tsunogai et al.*, 2002]. In the present study, we use 1.004 as the value for  $\alpha$  based on prior measurements at Suiyo Seamount [*Utsumi et al.*, 2004].

[37] Application of the Rayleigh fractionation model has a limitation, in that one of the controlling factors is the ratio of the cell density to  $CH_4$  concentration [*Templeton et al.*, 2006]. Assuming that the methane production and oxidation

processes occur under conditions of a closed, homogeneous, well-mixed system, and appropriate cell density, the change in the  $\delta^{13}$ C of the remaining methane during microbial oxidation should be described by the Rayleigh equation connecting the kinetic isotopic fraction factor ( $\alpha$ ) and isotopic composition as follows [e.g., *Coleman et al.*, 1981]:

$$\delta^{13}C_t - \delta^{13}C_0 = 1000(1/\alpha - 1)\ln(M_t/M_0),$$

where  $\delta^{13}C_0$  and  $\delta^{13}C_t$  are the carbon isotopic compositions in the original methane and residual methane at time t, and  $M_0$  and  $M_t$  are the original and residual concentrations of methane in the system, respectively.

[38] When we calculate the methane concentrations derived from production and oxidation during hydrothermal circulation using the concentrations and isotopic compositions of methane and  $\Sigma CO_2$  derived based on this supposition, the values surpass 30 mmol/kg. Since these

Table 5. Calculated Methane Production and Oxidation Observed in Low-Temperature Hydrothermal Fluid<sup>a</sup>

Site	Sample	Production (C <sub>p</sub> ) (µmol/kg)	Oxidation (C <sub>o</sub> ) ( $\mu$ mol/kg)	$C_p/C_o$	T <sub>max</sub> (°C)						
APSK04	HY11	$230 \pm 180$	$110 \pm 80$	$2.1 \pm 3.1$	11.4						
Marker 300	D1293	-	-	-	3.6						
APSK07	D1297	$250 \pm 160$	$120 \pm 70$	$2.1 \pm 2.6$	20 <sup>b</sup>						
APSK03	D1312	$120 \pm 130$	$60 \pm 70$	$2.0 \pm 4.0$	7.0						

<sup>a</sup>The ratio of methane production to oxidation is also shown.

<sup>b</sup>This value is estimated from Si concentration because temperature recording was failured during D1297.

calculated methane concentrations exceed all the measured values, the value chosen for KIE is unrealistic. If these high methane concentrations were actually reached, competition between methane producers and oxidizers would very likely lead to variable  $\Sigma CO_2$  concentrations, which we did not observe (Table 4).

[39] The putative microbial process occurs under the seafloor in the hydrothermal system, when the hydrothermal fluid is not diluted to a great extent by seawater. Under this condition, there is an excess of CH<sub>4</sub> in the fluid, while O<sub>2</sub> is limited, such that fractionation should approach the maximum value [*Templeton et al.*, 2006]. Therefore, we adopted the KIE value of 1.039, which is the maximum reported value [*Templeton et al.*, 2006]. On the basis of this assumption, each methane concentration was calculated for production and oxidation using our acquired data (Table 5). These values are far lower than the  $\Sigma CO_2$  concentrations measured in the samples, which is consistent with the fact that we did not detect any  $\Sigma CO_2$  deficit.

[40] We also observed a tendency for the estimated concentrations of produced and oxidized methane to correspond to the observed maximum temperature in the bell jar, as shown in Table 5, which suggests that the microbes are more active at higher temperatures. However, as mentioned above, the microbial activity in high-temperature fluids (290  $\pm$  20°C) is negligible. The microbes are active at moderate temperatures, i.e., within their optimal temperature range. Archaeal clones derived from the Suiyo Seamount subvent grow at 49°C to 89°C [*Jeanthon et al.*, 1998; *Jones et al.*, 1983], which is consistent with this result.

# 6.3. Life Cycles of Microbes in the Hydrothermal System

[41] Methane-oxidizing microbes use oxygen in an oxidative environment and sulfate in marine sediments. In contrast, methane producers live in a strongly reductive environment. Our conclusion that both methane oxidation and production occur during circulation prompts the question: "What environment do the microbes live in"?

[42] Despite the acquisition of samples from different sites in the Suivo Seamount area, we obtained similar isotopic values for methane  $(-4.8 \pm 0.3)$  and similar ratios of methane production to oxidation  $(2.1 \pm 3.2)$ . This suggests that the set of processes does not occur in a sequence of reductive and oxidative steps in the fluid flow path but occurs in a simultaneous fashion and involves a consortium. If anaerobic oxidation occurs in the reductive part of the fluid flow path and aerobic oxidation occurs in the shallower, oxidative part of the fluid flow path, the methane isotope concentrations and the ratios of methane production to oxidation should vary depending on the length and width of the path, and consequently, the residence and reaction time through the path. We hypothesize that the combination of microbial processes is mediated by a consortium of methanogenic and methane-oxidizing microbes using either oxygen or sulfate. The similar ratio of methane production to oxidation probably corresponds to the similar ratio of the rate of methane production to oxidation for the microbes within the consortium. This consortium may represent a mechanism by which microbes live at the boundary between oxidized and reduced environments. An example of this is the consortium of methaneproducing archaea and sulfate-reducing bacteria observed during anaerobic oxidation of methane in marine sediments [*Boetius et al.*, 2000].

[43] To test this hypothesis experimentally, it will be necessary to conduct isotopic analyses of these cells and to acquire microscopic evidence of the consortium using fluorescence in situ hybridization with specific 16S rRNAtargeted oligonucleotide probes.

# 7. Conclusion

[44] The chemical and isotopic compositions of volatile species ( $\Sigma CO_2$  and  $CH_4$ ) dissolved in hydrothermal fluids collected from the Suiyo Seamount hydrothermal field were investigated using newly developed sampling devices. The end-member compositions estimated from HTHFs did not differ across the four sampling sites, in terms of both  $\Sigma CO_2$ and  $CH_4$  concentrations and isotopic compositions. These results suggest that the original hydrothermal aquifer of the Suiyo Seamount hydrothermal fluid mediates chemical homogeneity within a radius of 100–200 m, as demonstrated by the composition of the major elements of the hydrothermal fluid.

[45] In contrast, the LTHFs showed diversity in terms of the concentration and carbon isotopic composition of CH<sub>4</sub>. The end-member compositions estimated for the LTHFs from three sites showed higher CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations and <sup>13</sup>Cenriched isotopic composition than the end-member compositions determined for the HTHFs. Since the addition of <sup>3</sup>C-enriched methane to the low-temperature hydrothermal fluid cannot be explained by a single-step process, such as phase separation or the abiogenic Fischer-Tropsch reaction, the difference between the LTHFs and HTHFs is attributed to a combination of methane production and methane oxidation by microbes after formation of the LTHFs. Of the three sites from which LTHFs were collected, the site with the highest temperature showed the highest CH<sub>4</sub> endmember concentration, which supports the notion of microbial influence on the CH<sub>4</sub> concentration of the LTHFs.

[46] Using appropriate isotopic fractionation factors during microbial processes, we estimated the ratio of methane production to methane oxidation as  $2.1 \pm 3.2$ . The similarity of the ratios of methane production to oxidation at different sites suggests that the combinatory process is mediated by a consortium of methanogens and methanotrophs in the boundary between oxidized and reduced environments that have approximately the same ratio of methane production to oxidation.

[47] Acknowledgments. The authors would like to thank K. Nakamura and Y. Higashi for their collection of the samples and the captain and the crew of R/V *Natsushima* and *Shinseimaru* during the 2001 Archaean Park Cruises, as well as the *Shinkai 2000* and *Hakuyo 2000* operation teams for their continuing dedication to marine geochemical work. The map was drawn using Online Mapping Tools for GMT (http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu). These investigations were funded in part by the MEXT Special Coordination Fund "Archaean Park" project. We appreciate J. C. Mutter, G. Massoth, J. L. Charlou, M. Lilley, M. Mottli, and the anonymous reviewer for valuable comments to improve the earlier version of the manuscript.

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