

Trace element systematics in cold seep carbonates and associated lipid compounds

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ABSTRACT

Seeping of methane-rich fluids at submarine cold seeps drives intense microbial activity and precipitation of authigenic carbonates. Some trace elements play an important role in the biogeochemical processes operating at cold seeps, especially as specific enzymatic co-factors related to methanogenesis and the anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM). However, it is unclear whether microbial trace metal utilization can be traced by the geochemical composition of seep carbonates. In this study, we analyzed a series of authigenic carbonate samples recovered from various seep settings worldwide and report for the first time trace element concentrations for total lipid fractions, combined with biomarker analyses and determination of elemental abundances in associated inorganic mineral phases (carbonate phases, sulfides, organic compounds and detrital fractions). Our results indicate marked enrichments of Co, Ni, Cu, Mo and W in the archaeal and bacterial lipids associated with authigenic carbonates, which can all be ascribed to previously identified enzymatic pathways. In addition to the microbial communities involved in AOM, which most likely control specific lipid-bound enrichments of Co, Ni, Mo and W in seep carbonates, Cu was found to display higher concentrations in the lipid fractions extracted from a few authigenic carbonate samples formed closer to the sediment-water interface, hence possibly related to the presence of aerobic methane-oxidizing bacterial assemblages in the near seafloor environment. While the above mentioned trace metals are relatively enriched in all studied inorganic and organic fractions, the very low W concentrations measured in carbonate phases, combined with their pronounced enrichment in associated lipid fractions and inferred microbial requirement, suggest that tungsten depletion in pore waters could possibly act as a limiting factor on AOM at cold seeps. Finally, two other trace elements (Li and Ti) also displayed particular enrichments in studied lipid fractions, which, despite no reported evidence, could possibly indicate that they are also involved as metalloenzymes in microbial methane oxidation processes at cold seeps.

1. Introduction

The seepage of methane-rich fluids at ocean margins sustains abundant chemosynthetic seafloor ecosystems, which rely on the use of reduced chemical compounds (Levin, 2005). Fluid seepage is accompanied by intense microbial activity at cold seeps, leading to

precipitation of authigenic minerals, such as carbonates and sulfides, and development of microbial mats close to the seafloor (Sibuet and Olu, 1998; Peckmann et al., 2001; Joye et al., 2004). Microbial communities prospering in cold seep environments support the highest biomass in deep-sea ecosystems, with up to 10^{12} cells per cm^3 (Michaelis et al., 2002). The dominant microbial processes at cold seeps

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are the anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) coupled to sulfate reduction. Until recently, it was generally thought that AOM was mainly coupled with sulfate reduction in anoxic sediments, both processes being driven by a consortium of archaea and bacteria assemblages, respectively (e.g. Boetius et al., 2000). However, over the past few years, several studies have demonstrated that microorganisms could also use nitrate or metal oxides to promote methane oxidation at cold seeps (Raghoebarsing et al., 2006; Beal et al., 2009; Scheller et al., 2010; Glass et al., 2014). Manganese (Mn) and iron (Fe)-rich oxyhydroxides have been identified as electron acceptors for AOM (Beal et al., 2009), but other trace metals, such as nickel (Ni), cobalt, (Co), molybdenum (Mo) and tungsten (W) are also involved in methane oxidation processes as enzymatic co-factors (Krüger et al., 2003; Glass et al., 2014). Trace metals are also suspected to have played key roles in the long-term evolution of microbial activity through geologic time (Anbar, 2008; Konhauser et al., 2009; Reinhard et al., 2013). For example, an important drop in dissolved Ni concentrations in Precambrian oceans after about 2.5 Ga, as a consequence of the progressive decrease in the production of Ni-rich volcanic rocks (komatiites) on Earth, would have led to reduced activity of methanogenic microbes, with possibly global impact on the composition of the atmosphere (Konhauser et al., 2009). To date, however, and despite their potential importance in AOM, very little is known about the utility of trace elements for microbial activity and metabolism at cold seeps.

Trace metals are essential in biological systems, playing key roles in microbially-driven biogeochemical processes. In addition to iron, other transition metals (Zn, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, V, Mo and W) have been identified in proteins and enzymes involved in the metabolism of sulfate-reducing bacteria or methanogenic and methanotrophic archaea (e.g. Scherer et al., 1983; Krüger et al., 2003; Barton et al., 2007; Scheller et al., 2010; Glass and Orphan, 2012; Glass et al., 2014, 2018). Among trace metals, Ni appears to play a particularly important role in anaerobic methanotrophy and methanogenesis (Krüger et al., 2003; Scheller et al., 2010; Thauer et al., 2010). The microbial communities involved in AOM also utilize other essential trace metals, such as Co, W and Mo (e.g. Glass et al., 2014, 2018). Many of these findings have been obtained from culture experiments, but little is known about how microbial activity at cold seeps may be affected by changes in trace metal bioavailability from one site to another. Transition metals can be intensively scavenged during precipitation of authigenic minerals, such as sulfides and carbonates in methane seepage areas (Bayon et al., 2011a; Lemaitre et al., 2014), which can severely reduce their availability to microbial communities (Glass and Orphan, 2012). Recent investigations have also suggested that light rare earth elements (REE) could be essential for methanotrophs as co-factors in the methanol dehydrogenase enzyme (Pol et al., 2014; Jahn et al., 2018; Picone and Op den Camp, 2019). This previously unsuspected biological role of REE for methanotrophic and methylotrophic bacteria was also demonstrated in a recent study that investigated the methane plumes emitted in the Gulf of Mexico following the Deepwater Horizon blowout, which revealed significant depletion of light REE (La, Ce, Pr, and Nd) relative to the surrounding seawater (Shiller et al., 2017).

At submarine methane seeps, authigenic carbonates are a by-product of microbially-mediated AOM (Aloisi et al., 2000, 2002), which can hence provide unique information on past seepage activity and associated environmental parameters (Feng and Chen, 2015). Extensive work has been conducted on the geochemistry of authigenic carbonates and associated sediments, in both modern and ancient seep settings. Previous studies have focused on both conventional and non-conventional stable isotopes and radiogenic isotopes (including U-Th dating methods) to provide constraints on both fluid sources and the timing of fluid seepage events at ocean margins (Peckmann et al., 2001; Pierre and Fouquet, 2007; Ge and Jiang, 2013; Bayon et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015a; Sun et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2017).

Trace elements in seep carbonates have been mostly used as proxies for the source of fluids, but also to provide information on redox

conditions. Both carbonates and associated sediments at methane seeps display relatively high elemental concentrations, suggesting that they act as a sink for many trace elements, such as Mo and rare earth elements (Sato et al., 2012; Lemaitre et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2015b). It is generally assumed that trace element distribution patterns in authigenic carbonates reflect the composition of ambient pore waters. However, fractionation of REE can occur upon carbonate precipitation, in response to changing carbonate alkalinity levels in pore waters, which affect REE complexation by organic and carbonate ligands (Himmler et al., 2010; Rongemaille et al., 2011). The degree of Ce enrichment or depletion in modern and ancient seep carbonates, relative to its trivalent REE neighbors (the so-called Ce-anomaly), has been also used as a paleo-redox tracer (Feng et al., 2009).

Comparatively, there have been very few studies dedicated to trace elements in organic compounds at cold seeps. Freslon et al. (2014) reported REE concentrations for organic compounds chemically leached from a series of marine sediment samples, including sediments recovered from active seep sites worldwide, showing strong REE enrichments in cold seep sediments. This study suggested that a significant fraction of sedimentary organic matter at these sites was derived from chemosynthetic processes recycling REE-enriched pore waters. Over the past decades, lipid biomarker analysis of seep carbonates has provided a wealth of information on the nature of microbial communities involved in carbonate precipitation (e.g. Aloisi et al., 2002; Himmler et al., 2015; Guan et al., 2016). However, to the best of our knowledge, the trace element geochemistry of lipids preserved in authigenic carbonates has never been investigated so far.

In this study, we aimed at characterizing the trace element geochemistry of lipids preserved in authigenic carbonates, in order to provide independent information on the utility of trace metals to microbial activity at methane seeps. In contrast to the trace element signatures preserved by inorganic phases in cold seep carbonates, which mostly reflect the composition of ambient pore waters and local redox conditions (Hu et al., 2015b), our working hypothesis is that any particular elemental enrichments/anomalies in the lipid fractions reflect trace metal requirements for microbial metabolism. To this purpose, we have analyzed a series of authigenic carbonate samples from various active seeps worldwide, reporting trace element data for both carbonate and lipid fractions. Our approach combines biomarker and inorganic element analyses of total lipid fractions extracted from a series of carbonate crusts, together with determination of trace element contents in associated mineral phases (carbonates, sulfides and organic compounds, detrital fractions), separated by sequential chemical leaching. The aim of this study was to detect specific enrichments that would be indicative of preferential metal utilization by microorganisms.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sample preparation

A total of 19 seep carbonate samples from five different active seepage areas worldwide (Congo fan, Nile deep-sea fan, Niger fan, Eastern Mediterranean Sea, Gulf of Mexico) were analyzed (Fig. 1). Most of these samples have been previously characterized for carbonate mineralogy and/or stable isotopes (Table 1; see references therein). For clarity, note that we re-labelled the name of the samples in this study (Fig. 1; Table 1).

2.2. Pretreatment procedures

Carbonate chips were first cleaned with ultrapure Milli-Q (MQ) water and dried, prior to being crushed into powder using an agate and mortar. Samples were split into two aliquots of about 5 g each for lipid biomarker extraction and analyses at the Korea Polar Research Institute (KOPRI) and sequential chemical leaching at IFREMER, respectively.

Upon formation at cold seeps, authigenic carbonates can

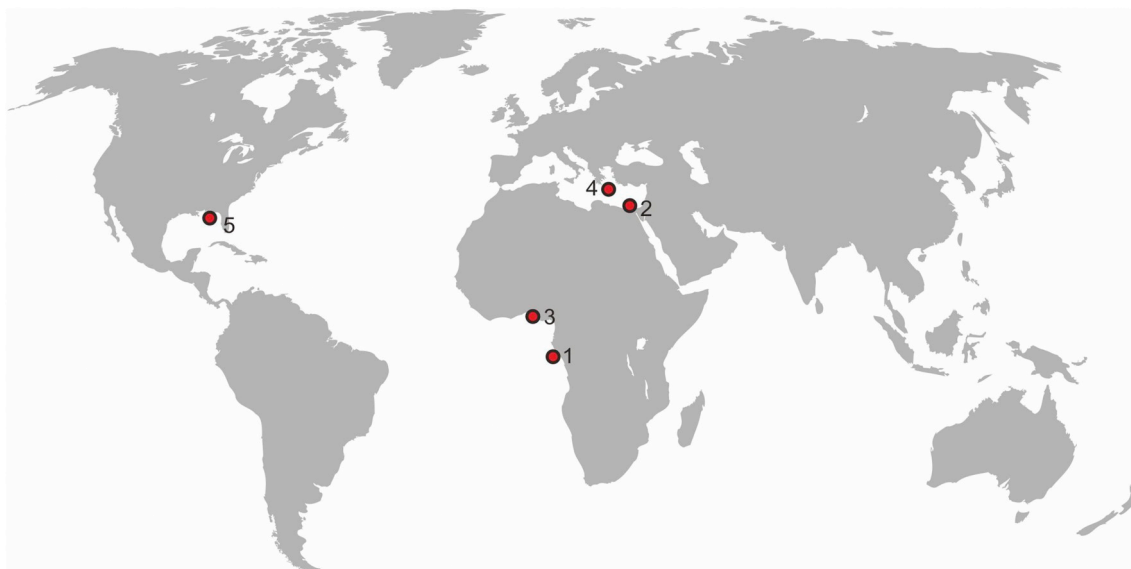


Fig. 1. Global map showing the five study areas: 1) Congo fan; 2) Nile deep-sea fan; 3) Niger fan; 4) Eastern Mediterranean Sea; 5) Gulf of Mexico.

incorporate substantial amounts of sulfide and detrital minerals from the surrounding sediment, in addition to the various organic compounds related to AOM. Previous studies have shown that even a small proportion of detrital contamination can significantly modify trace element abundances in carbonates (Nance and Taylor, 1976; Nothdurft et al., 2004; Frimmel, 2009). Therefore, selective chemical leaching methods are required for investigating the geochemistry of relatively pure carbonate and organic phases, without contamination from detrital and sulfide minerals (Bayon et al., 2002; Rongemaille et al., 2011; Freslon et al., 2014). In this study, we used a sequential leaching procedure adapted from Chao and Sanzalone (1977), Freslon et al. (2014) and Tachikawa et al. (2014), resulting in the following sequence of leaching steps: 1) stepwise addition of 1 M acetic acid (AA), to extract a pure fraction of the most labile carbonate phases, such as aragonite and calcite; 2) 0.25 M HCl, to remove most carbonate minerals; 3) 5% hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), to extract organic compounds (and possibly some sulfide minerals); 4) 3 M HNO_3 to leach out pyrite minerals (and presumably any residual carbonate and organic phases); 5) digestion of detrital silicate minerals using concentrated HF + HCl.

For the first leaching step, about 50 mg of powdered carbonate samples were placed into an acid-cleaned 15 ml polyethylene centrifuge tube, together with 500 μ l ultrapure MQ water. After addition of a Tm spike (see details below), carbonates were slowly dissolved with stepwise (100 μ l) addition of ultraclean 1 M AA solution. The next 100 μ l aliquot was added once the bubbling has ceased; this step being repeated until addition of a total of 1 ml 1 M AA, hence corresponding to a resulting leaching solution of about 3.8 wt%. This gentle leaching step was initially developed for measuring neodymium (Nd) isotopic ratios in foraminifera (Tachikawa et al., 2014). It ensures partial dissolution of the most soluble carbonate phases (aragonite, calcite) with limited contamination from silicate and sulfide minerals. The tube was then centrifuged at 3800 rpm for 4 min, and the supernatant was transferred into a cleaned polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) vial, prior to evaporation and preparation for ICP-MS analyses.

Next, a four-stage sequential leaching procedure was conducted on our series of carbonate samples, starting from about 500 mg of bulk powdered samples. Following a protocol adapted from Freslon et al. (2014), the most soluble carbonate phases were first dissolved using

Table 1

Site information - mineralogical and stable isotopic composition of studied authigenic carbonate samples.

Sites	Location	Old ID	New ID	Water depth (m)	C and O isotopes		Mineral composition (wt%)			Reference
					$\delta^{13}C$ (‰)	$\delta^{18}O$ (‰)	Aragonite	Calcite	Dolomite	
1	Congo Fan	ZR2-PL13-P04	1-1	2830	-58.5	5.3		> 50		Pierre and Fouquet (2007)
		ZR2-PL14-P05	1-2	3150	-53.6	5.6		> 50		
		BZ1-GBT3-PL7-83	1-3	3150	-49.5	2.9		> 50		
2	Nile Deep-Sea Fan	NL4-CC1	2-1	3032	-38.9	2.8	72	4	1	Gontharet et al. (2007)
		NL7-CC1	2-2	1691	-41.8	4.2	0	51	27	
		NL14-CC5	2-3	2129	-29.2	3.2	70	20		
		NL20-CC1	2-4	3018	-38.4	3.1	82	5		
3	Niger Fan	N1-KS-07	3-1	1633	-45.9	4.0	87	12		Rongemaille et al. (2011)
		N1-KS-22	3-2	1150	-27.8	4.9	90	10		
		N1-KSF-45	3-3	1546	-47.1	6.1		6	87	
		N1-KI-47	3-4	1540	-48.0	5.7		8	86	
4	Eastern Mediterranean Sea	MN13BT6-1	4-1	~2000	-31.0	3.9	87	4		Aloisi et al. (2000)
5	Gulf of Mexico	#2 4173-2 (AT340)	5-1	2216	-54.2	4.0	63			Feng et al. (2010)
		#7 4174-2 (GC600)	5-2	1250	-21.4	4.8		52		Roberts et al. (2010)
		#65 271-1 (MC462)	5-3	973	-40.5	4.6	80			D. Feng (unpub. data)
		#67 272-1 (GC415)	5-4	1110	-38.2	3.4		68	1	Feng and Roberts (2011)
		#68 273-1 (GC852)	5-5	1633	-40.2	3.7		70	1	Roberts et al. (2010)
		#69 273-2 (GC852)	5-6		-40.1	3.7		62	2	
		#70 273-3 (GC852)	5-7		-48.1	4.5		54	2	

0.25 M HCl in a PTFE vial left at room temperature for 3 h. After centrifugation of the supernatant, this leaching step was repeated once, and the remaining residue was rinsed twice with ultrapure MQ water, and dried overnight in the oven.

The remaining dried residues were weighed, crushed, and placed into corresponding PTFE vials. The next leaching step corresponded to the addition of a mixed solution of 5% H₂O₂ + 0.01 M HNO₃, together with Tm spike, in order to oxidize organic matter (and possibly the easily dissolvable sulfide phases; Dold, 2003). The vials were placed on a mechanical shaker and left at room temperature for 48 h. The solutions were centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 3 min and the supernatants were transferred into acid-cleaned 15 ml centrifuge tubes after filtration using high-density polyethylene (HDPE) 0.2 µm filters. After evaporation onto the hot plate, the organic-rich samples were digested overnight with concentrated nitric (140 °C), prior to being evaporated again and prepared for ICP-MS analyses.

Next, the residues left after the H₂O₂ leaching step were rinsed with ultrapure MQ water, dried overnight, crushed and weighed. The next leaching step was performed using 3 M HNO₃, aiming at dissolving a substantial fraction of sulfide minerals (Chao and Sanzolone, 1977), but also, presumably, any residual carbonate and organic phases that would have been left after the 0.25 M HCl and 5% H₂O₂ steps, together with probably some silicate minerals. Chao and Sanzolone (1977) investigated various chemical treatments for dissolving primary sulfide minerals in sediments, showing that the use of moderately diluted HNO₃ solutions was quite effective for dissolving pyrite, hence our decision to use 3 M HNO₃ for this leaching step. After addition of a Tm spike, 3 M HNO₃ was added to the samples and left on a mechanical shaker overnight. The leachates were separated by centrifugation (3800 rpm for 4 min) and transferred into an acid cleaned Teflon vial prior to preparation for ICP-MS analyses. The residues were rinsed with ultrapure MQ water, dried and crushed. Finally, about 15 mg of the final residual fractions were digested on the hotplate (140 °C for 5 days) with concentrated HF and HCl.

2.3. ICP-MS analysis

All trace element analyses were performed at the Pôle Spectrométrie Océan (Brest, France) on an Element XR ICP-MS. Polyatomic oxide and hydroxide interferences on the REE were corrected using oxide formation rates determined by analyzing solutions of MQ-H₂O, Ba + Ce, Pr + Nd and Sm + Tb at the beginning of each measurement session and applied to all samples. Elemental concentrations were calculated using the Tm addition method (Barrat et al., 1996; Bayon et al., 2009). Over recent years, this method has been successfully applied to and validated for a wide range of geological samples, including detrital and organic sediments (Freslon et al., 2014; Bayon et al., 2015), carbonates (Rongemaille et al., 2011), seawater (Bayon et al., 2011b; Freslon et al., 2011). Briefly, raw trace element data were calibrated against an unspiked (no added Tm) BHVO-2 reference solution run after every three samples to correct for instrumental drift. The BHVO-2 values used for the calculations (Barrat et al., 2012; Jochum et al., 2016) are given in Table 1. Trace element abundances in the samples are then calculated using the mass of sample spiked with Tm and the amount of Tm added. The internal precision on all measurements was generally better than 5%. Repeated analyses of the JLs-1 (Triassic limestone) reference material were also performed, with a precision of < 10% for most trace elements (Table 2), except for Li (11.8% RSD), Ti (61% RSD) and Zr (17% RSD). Due to high Ba/REE ratios, several carbonate samples (including JLs-1) analyzed displayed anomalously high Eu (and to a lesser extent Gd) concentrations as a result of under-corrected interferences, hence these two elements were not reported.

2.4. Lipid biomarker analysis

Detailed procedures for lipid biomarker analyses were previously

Table 2

Elemental concentrations (mg/kg) for BHVO-2 and JLs-1.

Element	BHVO-2	JLs-1	
	Reference values ^a	This study	RSD (%)
Li	4.7	0.07	11.8
Ca	81429 ^b	403500 ^c	–
Sc	32.3	0.019	7.8
Ti	16,364	2.75	61.0
V	317	3.00	2.4
Mn	1290	14.68	2.4
Co	45	0.045	4.9
Ni	121	0.30	4.6
Cu	123	0.15	7.3
Zn	101	2.09	2.6
Rb	9.08	0.10	5.5
Sr	396	274	2.3
Y	27.6	0.24	0.4
Zr	164.9	0.14	17.0
Mo	4.07 ^b	0.079	3.3
Ba	131	432	2.6
La	15.2	0.094	2.6
Ce	37.5	0.171	3.1
Pr	5.31	0.021	1.8
Nd	24.5	0.084	0.7
Sm	6.07	0.019	1.5
Tb	0.94	0.003	1.8
Dy	5.31	0.019	1.6
Ho	1.00	0.005	3.4
Er	2.54	0.014	4.4
Tm	0.34	–	–
Yb	2.00	0.012	3.2
Lu	0.27	0.002	2.2
W	0.22	0.10	3.5
Pb	1.51	0.08	9.1
Th	1.21	0.017	2.6
U	0.41	1.68	1.1

^a Barrat et al. (2012).

^b Jochum et al. (2016).

described by Lee et al. (2018). Briefly, total lipid fractions were extracted 3 times with dichloromethane (DCM):methanol (MeOH) (2:1). One-half of the total lipid extract (TLE) was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and treated with tetrabutylammonium sulfite reagent to remove elemental sulfur. The TLE was chromatographically separated into apolar and polar fractions over an Al₂O₃ (activated for 2 h at 150 °C) column. The apolar fraction was eluted using hexane: DCM (9:1), and 40 µl of 5α-androstane (10 µg ml⁻¹) was added as an internal standard. The polar fraction was recovered with DCM:MeOH (1:1) as an eluent and divided into two aliquots, to which either C₂₂ 7,16-diol (10 µg ml⁻¹) or C₁₉ nonadecanoic acid (10 µg ml⁻¹) were added as an internal standard. Each aliquot was derivatized through the procedures of silylation and methylation, prior to quantification with gas chromatography (GC) and identification with gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS). GC and GC–MS conditions were as described by Lee et al. (2018). Molecular compounds were determined by comparing their mass spectral fragmentation patterns and retention times with previously published data (e.g. Stadnitskaia et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2018).

2.5. Principal component analysis (PCA)

Based on the fractional abundances of microbial lipids, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using R software version 3.4.2 (package information; FactoMineR) to provide a general view of the variability of the microbial lipid distributions. For the statistical analysis, gaps in the data set were filled as described by Yunker et al. (2005). Briefly, in cases when some of microbial lipids were not determined, a value of one-half of minimum value detected for that

Table 3 Elemental concentrations for inorganic and organic fractions of cold seep carbonates (mg/kg).

Table with 3 columns: 1. I MAAL leachates (rows 1-1 to 5-7), 2. 3 M HNO3 leachates (rows 1-1 to 5-7), and 3. Detrital fractions (rows 1-1 to 5-7). Each column contains 28 elements (Li, Sc, Ti, V, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Rb, Sr, Zr, Mo, Ba, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Tb, Dy, Y, Ho, Er, Yb, Lu, W, Pb, Th, U) and their respective concentrations in mg/kg.

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

Detrital fractions																															
New ID	Li	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Mn	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Rb	Sr	Zr	Mo	Ba	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Tb	Dy	Y	Ho	Er	Yb	Lu	W	Pb	Th	U
1-2	101.3	1335	12.0	4052	74.4	64.2	6.50	25.8	11.5	43.8	72	35	125	1.56	257	24.10	34.92	4.16	13.72	2.34	0.33	1.98	12.89	0.41	1.23	1.30	0.19	1.59	10.18	5.59	1.95
1-3	107.5	947	11.5	4421	80.5	68.2	5.83	44.4	15.3	59.0	64	63	135	4.31	396	38.62	55.56	6.56	21.53	3.47	0.39	2.16	12.10	0.41	1.16	1.13	0.16	1.79	17.14	8.52	2.53
2-1	52.0	4073	15.5	7421	109.0	103.4	7.75	33.9	8.1	52.7	46	163	261	5.69	204	28.31	43.31	4.96	16.96	2.91	0.42	2.76	20.34	0.61	1.89	2.05	0.30	1.58	5.86	3.60	1.60
2-2	57.7	4699	16.5	6905	123.6	227.9	15.93	52.2	37.2	59.2	61	91	213	24.75	209	16.20	25.97	3.05	10.83	2.02	0.35	2.29	15.97	0.50	1.54	1.65	0.24	1.56	8.44	3.94	1.71
2-3	57.6	3466	16.0	5832	119.9	129.2	7.82	34.7	15.7	47.7	62	113	217	1.86	231	26.90	45.32	5.10	17.82	3.07	0.43	2.73	18.90	0.59	1.77	1.91	0.28	1.21	7.60	6.77	2.14
2-4	41.2	6165	10.5	4062	65.0	106.2	6.13	27.2	11.4	44.0	59	109	144	3.96	13,128	19.67	32.94	3.73	13.11	2.31	0.33	2.11	14.54	0.46	1.39	1.50	0.22	0.97	7.12	3.61	1.57
3-3	109.4	1890	12.8	5623	109.0	77.4	6.73	30.3	5.9	45.7	78	92	183	5.19	239	51.02	89.50	8.98	29.57	4.63	0.52	2.98	18.01	0.61	1.77	1.82	0.27	1.33	16.61	7.38	1.89
3-4	68.4	679	10.0	3291	176.8	210.7	9.58	31.9	5.6	66.7	68	52	118	3.31	144	35.20	57.90	6.27	20.56	3.26	0.37	2.09	12.20	0.42	1.21	1.25	0.19	2.16	14.64	5.45	1.14
4-1	55.2	3123	16.0	4227	99.4	162.1	9.25	80.2	22.3	67.6	80	69	128	2.59	218	20.48	35.68	3.90	13.39	2.15	0.30	1.96	13.86	0.44	1.38	1.51	0.22	2.20	4.58	4.73	1.83
5-1	46.5	3722	11.9	3588	154.7	90.8	4.45	16.0	5.7	42.0	102	143	116	1.22	511	19.11	33.25	3.66	12.65	2.02	0.27	1.78	12.93	0.41	1.32	1.48	0.22	1.01	4.42	4.28	1.95
5-2	54.9	2074	12.9	3065	120.7	97.9	4.37	16.8	3.5	34.7	111	80	109	1.69	497	24.67	45.29	4.92	16.95	2.64	0.34	2.24	15.39	0.51	1.59	1.74	0.26	0.87	4.77	5.37	2.74
5-3	49.9	3256	12.5	3711	132.9	100.1	4.80	28.6	21.7	47.6	102	125	123	3.12	478	24.25	41.85	4.65	16.02	2.56	0.34	2.23	15.63	0.50	1.56	1.72	0.25	1.36	7.65	7.34	2.65
5-4	59.5	2648	12.5	3911	133.8	177.6	6.83	29.8	12.1	58.2	120	93	125	12.18	441	25.05	44.53	4.82	16.55	2.64	0.36	2.36	16.39	0.53	1.65	1.79	0.26	1.39	6.16	5.57	2.24
5-5	51.4	2503	12.4	3360	110.5	117.2	6.03	18.5	10.3	41.3	107	90	129	1.21	547	24.19	45.22	4.87	16.96	2.74	0.38	2.53	17.14	0.56	1.73	1.84	0.27	1.16	6.87	6.35	2.48
5-6	53.2	3065	12.6	4096	130.6	145.2	7.87	23.2	15.3	49.1	123	97	131	1.81	500	24.85	45.51	4.95	17.25	2.80	0.39	2.57	17.79	0.57	1.77	1.88	0.28	1.39	7.03	5.75	2.53
5-7	34.0	5087	8.1	3164	71.5	132.8	4.63	15.7	6.8	30.3	76	134	168	1.68	510	18.61	34.02	3.78	13.44	2.34	0.34	2.23	15.51	0.50	1.54	1.65	0.24	0.80	6.16	4.25	1.67

5% H ₂ O ₂ leachates																															
New ID	Li	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Mn	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Rb	Sr	Zr	Mo	Ba	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Tb	Dy	Y	Ho	Er	Yb	Lu	W	Pb	Th	U
1-1	0.14	784	0.01	784	0.06	2.75	0.04	0.06	0.21	10.8	0.02	4.9	0.03	0.02	2.32	0.06	0.06	0.21	0.28	0.96	0.07	0.13	0.93	0.28	0.77	0.13	0.21	0.62	0.02	0.02	2.32
1-2	2.28	267,484	0.01	1,48,388	107	171	8.89	18.3	9.48	9.67	1.62	525	0.02	19.7	52.4	18.3	9.64	4.46	4.46	3.65	0.86	442	0.61	1935	0.02	0.03	0.02	28.2	19.7	72.6	72.6
1-3	5.19	1,48,388	0.01	1,48,388	68.0	103	4.67	9.64	4.46	2.39	0.61	442	0.02	28.2	72.6	2.23	2.23	2.39	5.69	5.99	2.11	2.85	0.74	4980	0.06	0.06	0.06	57.1	57.1	82.0	82.0
2-1	2.36	108,335	0.01	108,335	156	26.2	1.13	2.23	2.39	4.65	0.36	1.00	0.96	0.36	359	9.37	9.37	5.69	1.00	4.90	0.96	0.99	0.99	2612	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.68	0.68	37.2	37.2
2-2	2.86	226,833	0.01	226,833	214	323	4.65	0.74	0.74	17.0	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.36	359	0.36	0.36	5.69	1.00	4.90	0.96	0.99	0.99	2612	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.68	0.68	37.2	37.2
2-3	3.43	97,444	0.00	97,444	136	17.0	0.36	0.36	0.36	17.0	0.36	0.36	0.36	0.36	359	0.36	0.36	5.69	1.00	4.90	0.96	0.99	0.99	2612	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.68	0.68	37.2	37.2
2-4	2.45	158,338	0.01	158,338	75.5	9.33	0.23	0.37	5.73	4.90	0.99	2612	0.04	0.68	37.2	0.37	0.37	5.73	1.00	4.90	0.96	0.99	0.99	2612	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.68	0.68	37.2	37.2
3-2	0.09	275,657	0.02	275,657	45.3	10.4	0.28	0.28	8.77	9.13	0.42	6319	0.21	96.9	36.1	4.40	4.40	8.77	1.00	4.90	0.96	0.99	0.99	2612	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.68	0.68	37.2	37.2
3-3	0.61	119,234	0.01	119,234	22.8	15.1	1.03	1.31	2.08	0.87	0.57	3240	0.04	0.68	37.2	1.31	1.31	2.08	1.00	4.90	0.96	0.99	0.99	2612	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.68	0.68	37.2	37.2
3-4	9.13	497,185	0.03	497,185	387	793	8.97	9.66	1.47	3.56	8.87	780	0.25	79.1	66.2	9.66	9.66	1.47	1.47	3.56	2.07	2.41	13.6	0.35	0.35	0.35	4.78	4.78	8.63	8.63	
4-1	3.04	1924	0.17	1924	62.3	83.0	1.45	4.42	2.68	2.07	2.41	13.6	0.35	4.78	8.63	4.42	4.42	2.68	1.39	0.07	0.07	1.93	2148	0.03	0.03	0.03	1.16	1.16	6.5	6.5	
5-3	5.12	159,575	0.01	159,575	99.6	29.3	21.65	1.08	1.39	0.07	1.93	2148	0.03	1.16	6.5	1.08	1.08	1.39	0.07	0.07	0.07	1.93	2148	0.03	0.03	0.03	6.10	6.10	21.9	21.9	
5-4	0.49	147,453	0.01	147,453	4.8	549.9	1.03	4.63	11.71	0.49	1.63	3179	0.05	7.54	69.4	4.63	4.63	11.71	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	500	0.02	0.02	0.02	7.54	7.54	69.4	69.4
5-5	1.66	132,791	0.01	132,791	265.1	135.4	0.49	2.51	1.94	0.45	1.22	315	0.06	1.83	40.1	2.51	2.51	1.94	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	500	0.02	0.02	0.02	7.54	7.54	69.4	69.4
5-7	1.50	161,386	0.01	161,386	8.7	69.9	0.45	1.29	1.52	0.45	1.22	315	0.06	1.83	40.1	1.29	1.29	1.52	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.015	500	0.02	0.02	0.02	7.54	7.54	69.4	69.4

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

5% H ₂ O ₂ leachates																			
New ID	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Tb	Dy	Y	Ho	Er	Sm	Tb	Dy	Yb	Lu	W	Pb	Th	U
3-4	0.0809	0.1438	0.0176	0.0748	0.0152	0.0037	0.0304	0.3506	0.0092	0.0343	0.0438	0.0088	0.0088	0.08	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	2.16
4-1	0.4650	1.2438	0.1292	0.5348	0.1106	0.0164	0.0979	0.5309	0.0211	0.0595	0.0590	0.0087	0.0087	0.23	0.80	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.11
5-3	0.0033	0.0037	0.0006	0.0031	0.0006	0.0002	0.0010	0.0296	0.0003	0.0008	0.0009	0.0001	0.0001	61.96	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13
5-4	0.0076	0.0086	0.0006	0.0063	0.0007	0.0002	0.0013	0.0403	0.0003	0.0010	0.0007	0.0001	0.0001	0.96	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	14.04
5-5	0.0045	0.0036	0.0004	0.0023	0.0007	0.0001	0.0006	0.0100	0.0001	0.0003	0.0002	0.0001	0.0001	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.16
5-7	0.0053	0.0064	0.0010	0.0049	0.0007	0.0001	0.0006	0.0080	0.0001	0.0003	0.0002	0.0000	0.0000	0.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.46

Lipid biomarkers																															
New ID	Li	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Mn	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Rb	Sr	Zr	Mo	Ba	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Tb	Dy	Yb	Lu	W	Pb	Th	U			
1-1	27.9	19,749	0.12	13.04	1.41	24.6	0.22	2.18	2.74	13.5	1.40	77.2	0.46	0.42	634	0.38	1.00	0.10	0.36	0.07	0.01	0.05	0.35	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.04	0.47	0.13	0.47
1-2	21.7	13,741	0.10	16.99	2.61	8.3	0.29	2.60	2.38	10.1	1.01	51.9	1.04	0.52	38.0	0.38	0.97	0.09	0.34	0.07	0.01	0.06	0.43	0.01	0.04	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.66	0.14	0.44
1-3	10.1	10,002	0.10	17.58	1.96	5.9	0.15	1.17	0.94	6.5	0.68	183	0.27	0.14	8.7	0.44	0.88	0.09	0.36	0.06	0.01	0.03	0.20	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.51	0.13	0.19
2-1	17.1	9828	0.12	26.06	1.91	15.4	0.36	1.56	4.48	10.2	0.71	208	0.92	0.67	5.4	0.37	0.82	0.09	0.37	0.07	0.01	0.06	0.32	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.27	0.06	0.24
2-2	12.9	5209	0.07	10.14	1.10	10.0	0.38	1.65	2.86	11.2	0.57	19.8	0.34	0.20	8.2	0.21	0.57	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.26	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.59	0.04	0.12
2-3	24.4	10,589	0.07	11.98	1.27	4.8	0.27	0.84	37.9	6.8	0.68	153	0.24	0.55	8.9	0.19	0.36	0.05	0.20	0.04	0.01	0.04	0.32	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.05	0.39	0.03	0.11
2-4	16.4	6279	0.02	3.01	0.41	3.0	0.07	1.54	20.5	12.7	0.48	87.6	0.14	0.17	163	0.08	0.16	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.10	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.24	0.01	0.05	
3-1	9.79	22,032	0.02	2.58	1.66	2.1	0.09	1.87	3.21	9.3	0.84	507	0.14	2.98	13.5	0.06	0.18	0.01	0.07	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.39	0.01	0.30	
3-2	32.6	51,045	0.06	8.23	2.08	7.0	0.33	2.73	3.41	23.1	1.01	1106	0.26	0.76	28.8	0.66	1.41	0.14	0.59	0.09	0.01	0.04	0.23	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.86	0.06	0.99
3-3	31.3	2270	0.05	1.14	0.72	5.9	0.40	3.10	2.80	7.7	0.80	384	0.12	0.16	2.8	0.14	0.38	0.04	0.16	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.20	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.29	0.02	0.08
5-1	6.76	10,240	0.07	4.78	2.13	11.8	0.17	1.48	3.79	6.3	0.82	221	0.26	0.12	8.7	0.20	0.42	0.05	0.19	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.17	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.30	0.07	0.15
5-2	9.03	7114	0.06	4.61	9.30	10.5	0.22	5.39	3.49	46.5	0.83	28	0.34	0.14	7.9	0.15	0.35	0.04	0.14	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.12	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.21	0.04	0.03
5-3	6.94	18,461	0.08	8.38	1.79	25.6	0.24	1.81	3.59	4.0	0.89	410	0.32	0.20	12.7	0.35	0.59	0.08	0.33	0.06	0.01	0.04	0.23	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.04	0.38	0.08	0.39
5-4	8.19	22,396	0.23	24.43	8.62	58.6	0.46	2.20	2.55	8.1	2.20	104	0.99	0.63	34.4	0.65	1.24	0.16	0.60	0.12	0.01	0.09	0.62	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.01	0.08	0.62	0.18	0.42
5-5	6.60	27,418	0.29	29.35	6.39	33.5	0.57	3.75	3.35	6.3	2.62	82	1.33	0.21	33.7	0.88	1.69	0.21	0.81	0.16	0.02	0.12	0.81	0.03	0.07	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.89	0.22	0.08
5-6	6.94	23,642	0.29	27.91	6.12	49.6	0.72	2.65	2.10	4.8	2.43	72	1.40	0.19	29.9	1.00	1.86	0.24	0.95	0.19	0.02	0.17	1.10	0.03	0.09	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.95	0.24	0.21
5-7	8.25	8983	0.09	29.55	5.25	8.5	0.19	1.73	7.49	22.2	1.00	33	0.44	0.13	19.5	0.40	0.80	0.09	0.34	0.07	0.01	0.05	0.30	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.37	0.08	0.09

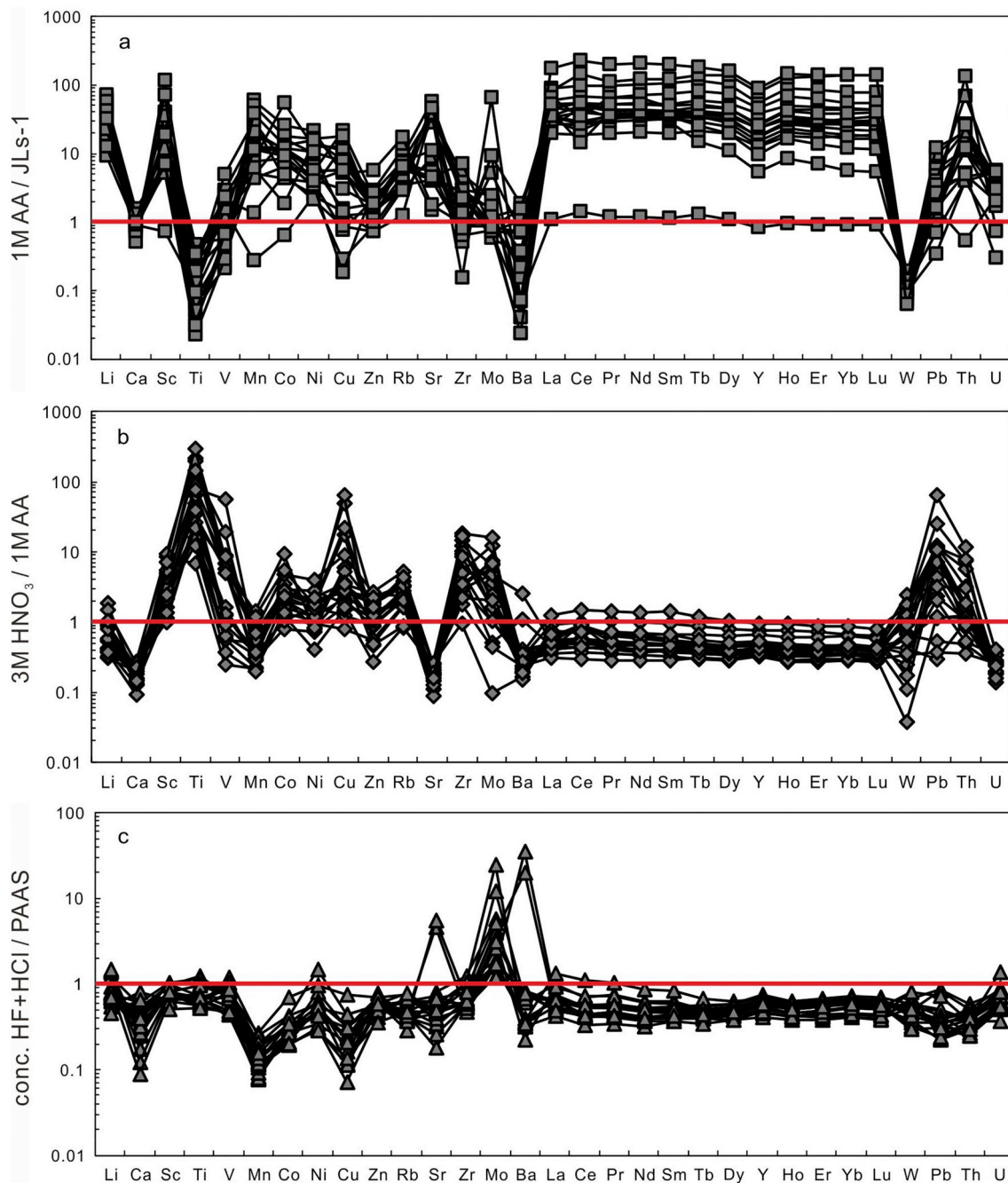


Fig. 2. Enrichment factor of inorganic fractions (carbonate phases + sulfide minerals + detrital silicate fractions). (a) 1 M acetic acid (AA) leachate data normalized to values for the JLS-1 carbonate reference material; (b) 3 M HNO_3 leachate data normalized to values for corresponding 1 M AA leachates; (c) conc. HF + HCl data normalized to post-Archaean Australian shale (PAAS) reference values.

variable in the whole data was set as the limit of detection. These values then were replaced by a random number between zero and the limit of detection. Finally, samples were transformed using Z-score normalization to remove artefacts related to the large differences in concentration between samples.

3. Results

Trace element data for carbonate (1 M AA leachates), sulfide-rich (3 M HNO_3 leachates), detrital (HF-HCl digestion), bulk organic (5% H_2O_2 leachates) and lipid fractions are reported in Table 3 and described below in separate sections. For clarity, results are also presented as normalized values (Figs. 2 and 3), which helps identifying any

particular trace element enrichment or depletion in studied mineral and organic fractions. In addition, archaeal and bacterial lipid biomarker data were presented in Table 4 and described in a separate section.

3.1. Carbonate phases (aragonite, calcite): 1 M AA leachates

Studied carbonate samples display a large range of Sr concentrations (between ~ 300 to 15,500 mg/kg). As already described previously (e.g. Jørgensen, 1992; Savard et al., 1996; Bayon et al., 2007), aragonite-rich samples are characterized by much higher Sr contents (between ~ 8000 to 15,500 mg/kg), than calcite- or dolomite-dominated samples (generally < 3000 mg/kg). Other elements also display large concentration ranges, for example for Co (between 0.03 and

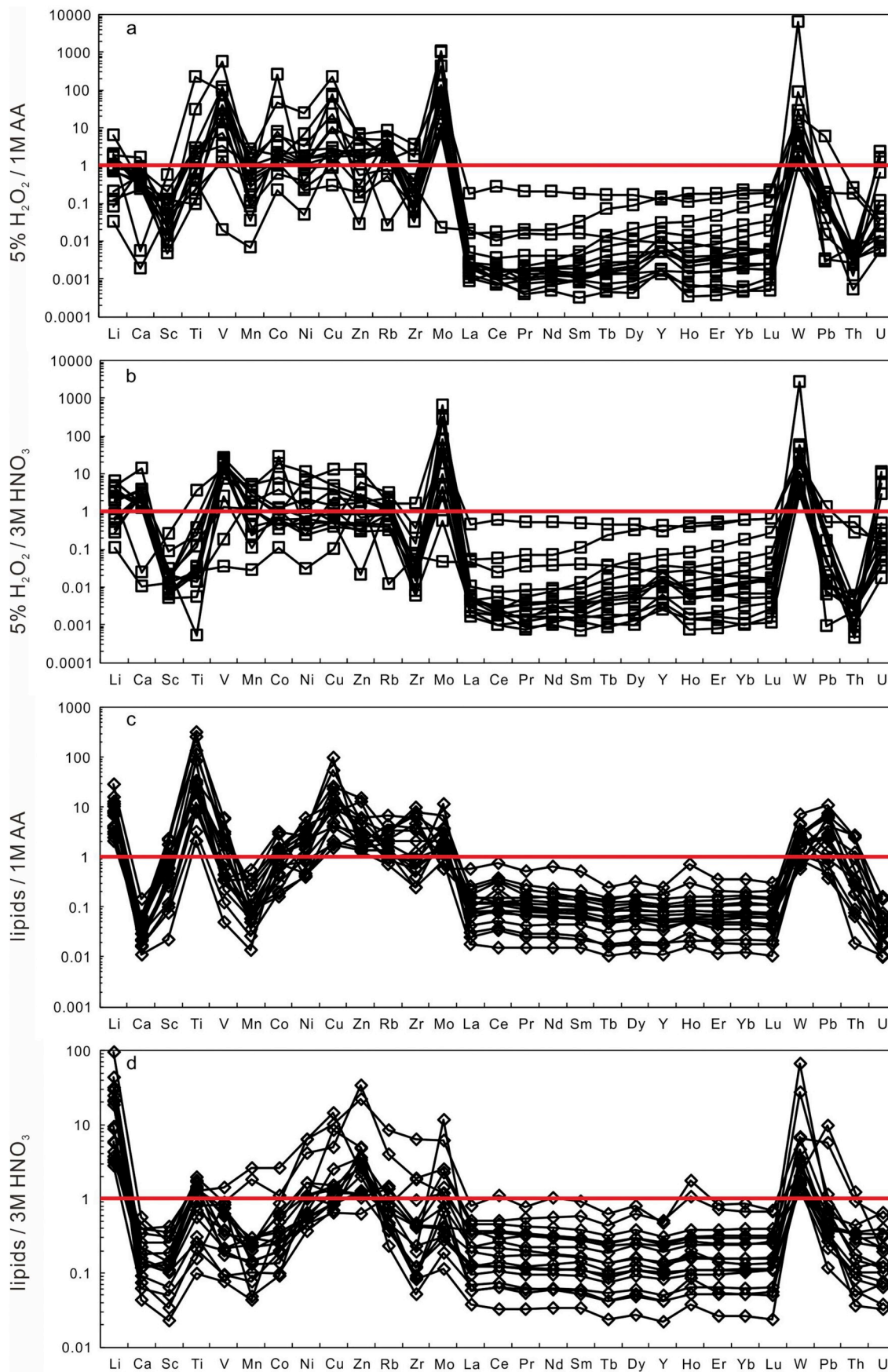


Fig. 3. Enrichment factor of organic fractions (organic compounds + lipid biomarkers). (a) 5% H₂O₂ leachate data normalized to values for corresponding 1 M acetic acid (AA) leachates; (b) 5% H₂O₂ leachate data normalized to values for corresponding 3 M HNO₃ leachates; (c) lipid-bound trace element data normalized to values for 1 M AA leachates; (d) lipid-bound trace-element data normalized to values for 3 M HNO₃ leachates.

Table 4
Lipid biomarker concentrations.

Sites	Location	Archaeal lipids (µg/g dw)										Bacterial lipids (µg/g dw)																				
		Pytane + crocetane					Archaeol					<i>sn</i> -2-hydroxy archaeol					<i>sn</i> -3-hydroxy archaeol					DGD>If	DGD_Ila	DGD_IId	<i>i</i> -C15:0	<i>ar</i> -C15:0	C16:1ω7	C16:0	C17:0	C18:1ω9	C18:1ω7	C18:0
		PMI	PMI:3	Archaeol	<i>sn</i> -2-hydroxy archaeol	<i>sn</i> -3-hydroxy archaeol	DGD>If	DGD_Ila	DGD_IId	<i>i</i> -C15:0	<i>ar</i> -C15:0	C16:1ω7	C16:0	C17:0	C18:1ω9	C18:1ω7	C18:0	C20:0	C22:0													
1	Congo Fan	1-1	-	-	0.01	0.03	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.16	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.04												
		1-2	-	-	0.03	0.04	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.14	-	-	0.02	0.02	0.21	-	0.02												
		1-3	0.03	-	0.83	0.60	0.22	0.43	0.07	0.11	0.01	-	0.01	0.64	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.88	0.02	0.03												
2	Nile Deep-Sea Fan	2-1	0.21	0.42	0.49	1.28	0.10	0.17	0.16	0.22	0.05	0.02	0.23	0.03	0.07	0.14	0.39	0.04	0.02													
		2-2	0.08	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.06	-	-	-	-	0.15	0.01	0.02												
		2-3	0.05	0.02	-	0.21	0.48	0.03	-	-	-	-	0.01	0.22	-	-	0.02	0.18	0.01	0.02												
3	Niger Fan	3-1	0.02	0.03	-	0.36	0.46	0.06	0.12	0.22	-	0.01	0.24	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.19	0.01	0.02													
		3-2	0.25	0.25	0.01	6.97	22.13	0.41	1.07	0.55	0.02	0.02	0.14	-	0.04	0.02	0.08	-	0.01													
		3-3	0.07	0.05	-	0.73	1.34	0.04	-	-	-	-	0.35	-	0.01	0.01	0.30	0.01	0.02													
4	Eastern Mediterranean Sea	3-4	0.09	-	0.09	0.23	0.02	-	-	-	-	0.06	0.22	0.02	0.02	0.08	0.19	-	0.06													
		4-1	0.13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.12	0.87	0.05	0.16	-	0.78	0.02	0.02													
		5-1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.09	-	-	-	0.11	-	0.01													
5	Gulf of Mexico	5-1	0.17	0.09	-	0.31	0.68	0.12	-	-	0.05	0.06	1.99	0.14	0.09	0.14	1.61	0.05	0.07													
		5-2	0.25	-	0.02	-	-	0.04	-	-	0.03	0.03	0.89	0.12	0.10	-	0.63	0.03	0.06													
		5-3	0.13	0.11	-	1.76	3.20	0.29	0.21	-	0.05	0.03	-	0.62	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.46	0.02	0.01												
		5-4	0.15	0.14	-	1.48	3.08	0.09	0.29	0.25	0.39	0.01	0.02	0.78	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.63	0.03	0.02												
		5-5	0.07	0.03	-	0.04	0.03	-	-	-	-	0.02	0.02	0.76	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.61	0.02	0.02												
		5-6	0.06	0.04	-	0.06	0.04	-	-	-	-	-	0.02	0.55	0.03	-	0.08	0.39	0.01	0.06												
		5-7	0.06	0.03	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.02	0.45	0.05	0.02	0.04	0.36	0.02	0.07												

“-” not determined.

2.42 mg/kg), Mo (0.05–5.13 mg/kg) and Nd (0.10–10.3 mg/kg). Compared to the marine limestone standard (JLs-1), cold seep carbonate samples are generally characterized by much higher trace element contents (Fig. 2a), many of them (Li, Sc, transition metals, Sr, Mo, REE, Pb and Th) being up to a few hundred times more enriched. In contrast, three elements (Ti, Ba and W) display much lower concentrations (up to 100 times depleted compared to JLs-1).

3.2. Sulfide minerals: 3 M HNO₃ leachates

The concentrations for Ca in 3 M HNO₃ leachates range between 37,088 and 115,006 mg/kg, hence being significantly lower than in 1 M AA leachates. Selected trace element concentrations also display a very large range of values (between 2.0 and 36.4 mg/kg for Ti; 0.03–3.84 mg/kg for Co; 0.05–2.16 mg/kg for Mo; and 0.06–8.37 mg/kg for Nd). Trace element data for 3 M HNO₃ leachates are normalized to the 1 M AA leachate data in order to evaluate their degree of enrichment or depletion relative to corresponding carbonate phases. Apart from Ca and Sr, and to a lesser extent Mn, Ba, REE, W and U, which are generally depleted in 3 M HNO₃ leachates compared to 1 M AA leachates, most trace elements are enriched up to 10 times (Co, Ni, Zn, Rb, Zr, Mo, Hf, and Th) or 100 times (Ti, Cu, Pb) in the sulfide-rich leached fractions of studied carbonate samples.

3.3. Detrital silicate fractions: conc. HF + HCl acid digestion

Measured Ca concentrations for the residual silicate fractions associated with seep carbonates (between 679 and 6165 mg/kg) are much lower than in any other studied mineral/organic phases. This shows that our sequential chemical procedure was effective at quantitatively removing most carbonate material. Many trace elements generally display a relatively small range of concentrations (Table 3). Trace element abundances in residual silicate fractions can be normalized to reference shale values, such as the Post Archean Australian shale composite (PAAS; Taylor and McLennan, 1985), in order to identify particular enrichment or depletion relative to an average bulk sediment composition. Several elements, such as Ca, Mn, Cu, Sr, Ba and Pb, are significantly depleted in the residual silicate fraction of seep carbonates relative to PAAS, but this simply reflects, at least to some extent, the fact that PAAS is a bulk reference composite sediment that also contains non-silicate phases (carbonates) enriched in these particular elements. However, a few samples display much higher PAAS-normalized concentrations for Ba and Sr (up to 30 times), which reflect the presence of barite, i.e. a common authigenic mineral at cold seeps that is resistant to most chemical leaching procedures, including digestion using concentrated HF-HCl solutions. In addition, many residual silicate fractions are also characterized by pronounced PAAS-normalized enrichments in Mo, also up to 30 times.

3.4. Bulk organic compounds: 5% H₂O₂ leachates

The 5% H₂O₂ leachates are generally characterized by very high Ca concentrations (up to ~570,000 mg/kg), indicating that carbonates represent the dominant phase extracted during this leaching step. This is also reflected by the high Sr (up to 6300 mg/kg) and Mg (up to 127,000 mg/kg) concentrations determined in the same solutions. As a consequence, it appears difficult to draw any conclusions regarding the partitioning of selected trace elements into the organic compounds hosted by seep carbonates. However, normalizing the 5% H₂O₂ leachate data to those obtained for 1 M AA (carbonates) and 3 M HNO₃ (sulfides) leachates can still help identifying some particular elements that would be more specifically associated with the organic component hosted by seep carbonates. This is the case for at least three elements (V, Mo and W), which all show pronounced normalized-enrichments (up to a thousand times) in 5% H₂O₂ leachates (Fig. 3a and b). To a lesser extent, the transition metals (Co, Ni, Cu, Zn) also appear to be enriched

(up to 10–100 times) in 5% H₂O₂ leachates compared to 1 M AA and 3 M HNO₃ leachates.

3.5. Total lipids

In contrast to the 5% H₂O₂ leachates, the extracted lipid fractions display much lower Ca concentrations (between 2270 and 51,045 mg/kg, with an average of 15,000 mg/kg), hence indicating limited carbonate dissolution (generally < 5 wt%). Among the other studied elements, Li concentrations range from 6.6 to 32.6 mg/kg; Ti from 1.1 to 29.6 mg/kg; Cu from 0.9 to 37.9 mg/kg; Mo from 0.1 to 3.0 mg/kg and W from 0.01 to 0.08 mg/kg. In comparison, REE display very low concentrations with Nd concentrations between ~0.1 and 1.0 mg/kg. Compared to the abundances determined in carbonate (1 M AA) and sulfide (3 M HNO₃) leachates, elemental concentrations in lipid fractions are very low for the following elements: Ca, Sc, Mn, REE, Th and U (Fig. 3c and d). In contrast, some trace elements, such as Li, Ti, V, Cu, Zn, Mo, and W exhibit clearly identifiable enrichments (up to 100 times) in lipids.

3.6. Microbial lipid biomarkers

Concentrations of archaeal and bacterial lipids showed large variations in studied authigenic carbonates (Table 4). For archaeal lipids, the irregular tail-to-tail isoprenoids such as crocetane, which was co-eluted with phytane, pentamethylcosane (PMI), and polyunsaturated pentamethylcosenes (PMEs) were detected, varying between 0.03 and 0.25 µg/g dry weight (dw), 0.02 to 0.25 µg/g dw, and 0.01 to 0.49 µg/g dw, respectively. Moreover, isoprenoid dialkyl glycerol diethers (isoprenoid DGDs), such as archaeol and *sn*-2-hydroxyarchaeol, were the most predominant archaeal lipids in studied samples, displaying concentration ranges between 0.01 and 6.97 µg/g dw, and 0.03–22.13 µg/g dw, respectively. For bacterial lipids, non-isoprenoid DGDs with anteiso pentadecyl moieties or cyclopropyl groups attached at both the *sn*-1 and *sn*-2 positions were identified, ranging from 0.01 to 1.07 µg/g dw. Among FAs detected, saturated FAs (e.g. C16:0 and C18:0) were most predominant, with the range of 0.06–1.99 µg/g dw (Table 4). Other FAs (e.g. *i*-C15:0, *ai*-C15:0, C16:1ω7, C18:1ω9 and C18:1ω7) were approximately 3 to 10 times lower in concentrations (0.01 to 0.16 µg/g dw) compared to saturated FAs.

4. Discussion

4.1. Distribution of trace elements in authigenic carbonate phases

As discussed in previous studies, the distribution of trace elements in cold seep carbonates can be controlled by various parameters, including mineralogy, composition of the fluids from which they have precipitated from, and redox conditions (Peckmann et al., 2001; Conti et al., 2004; Bayon et al., 2007; Feng et al., 2009; Ge et al., 2010). In addition to Sr, which is significantly enriched in aragonite compared to other carbonate phases (see Section 3.1), U and Mn are also preferentially incorporated into aragonite- (characterized by high Sr/Ca contents) and calcite- (low Sr/Ca) dominated samples (Fig. 4a and b), respectively. To a large extent, the chemical composition of surrounding pore waters also plays a major role in controlling trace element distribution patterns in authigenic carbonates. This explains why many trace elements are enriched in cold seep carbonates compared to marine bioskeletal carbonates (e.g. JLs-1 limestone; Fig. 2a). This is illustrated taking the example of the REE, which also exhibit a relationship with mineralogy in a Nd/Ca versus Sr/Ca plot (Fig. 4c). The abundance of REE in pore waters is generally much higher than in overlying bottom waters, because of various early diagenetic processes, such as the reduction of Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide phases or organic matter remineralization, which can release substantial amounts of dissolved REE within the sub-surface sediment (Haley et al., 2004). Since high-

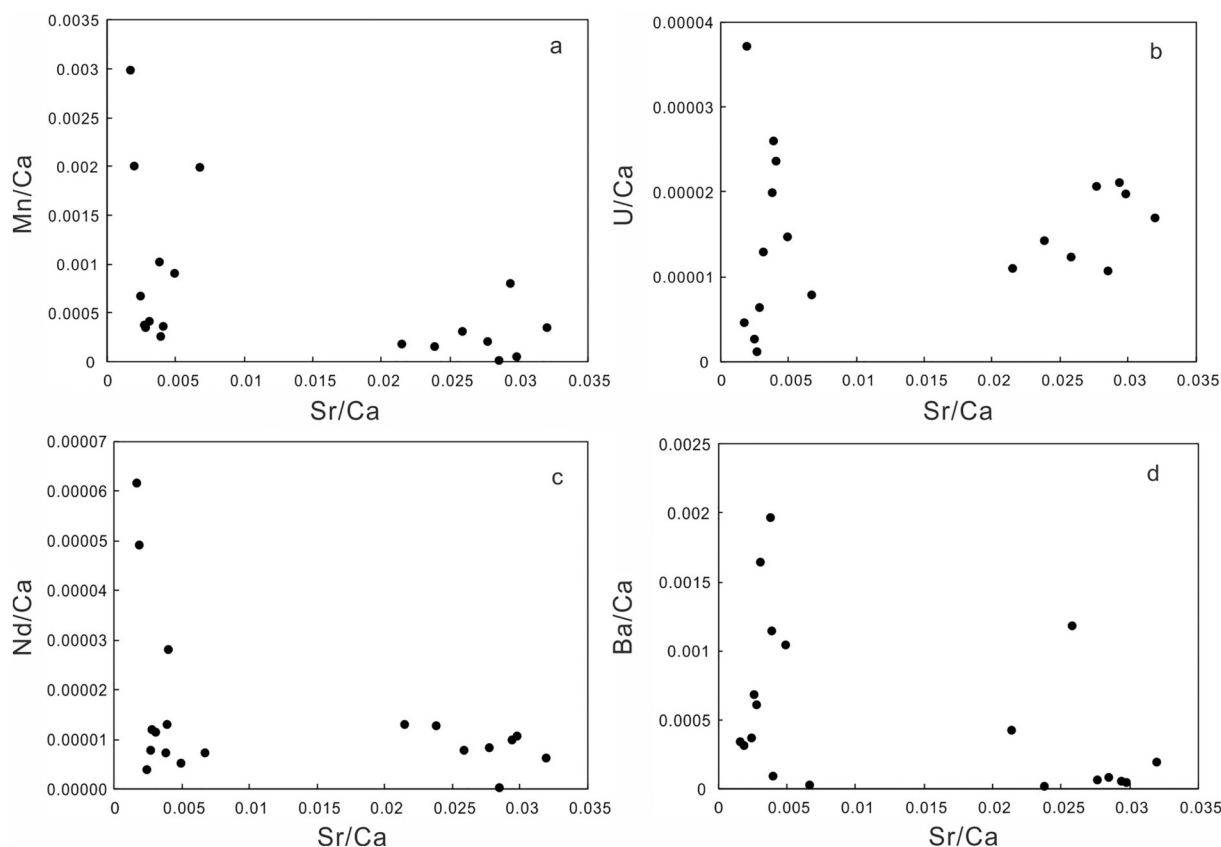


Fig. 4. Metal/Ca ratios in 1 M acetic acid (AA) leachates. (a) Sr/Ca versus Mn/Ca; (b) Sr/Ca versus U/Ca; (c) Sr/Ca versus Ba/Ca; (d) Sr/Ca versus Nd/Ca.

Mg authigenic carbonate minerals, such as dolomite, often form in relatively deeply buried sulfate-depleted sediment layers (typically a few meters below the seafloor) characterized by high dissolved REE contents (Soyol-Erdene and Huh, 2013), they are likely to incorporate higher amounts of REE compared to mineral phases such as aragonite, which precipitate in the near seafloor environment from less REE-enriched pore waters.

In addition to this source effect, the ubiquitous presence of anoxic conditions at cold seeps also explains why many redox sensitive elements are typically more enriched in methane-derived carbonates compared to other marine carbonate material such as JLs-1 (Fig. 2a). For instance, this is the case for redox sensitive elements like Mo, U, Ni, V, Cd, Co, and Zn, which are typically immobilized under anoxic conditions. In fact, many of these elements have been used in previous studies for providing constraints into the redox conditions of formation of carbonate minerals (Morford and Emerson, 1999; Sarkar et al., 2003). Enrichments in Mo have been reported widely in many seep carbonate samples (Central Mediterranean, Cangemi et al., 2010; Vontian Trough, SE-France, Tribouillard et al., 2013; Gulf of Mexico, Hu et al., 2014; Northwestern South China Sea, Liang et al., 2017; Southwestern Taiwan, Wang et al., 2019). Ge et al. (2010) also found particularly high abundances of Mo, V, Co, Ni and U in authigenic carbonate samples recovered from the Shenhu and Dongsha seep areas of the South China Sea compared to marine bioskeletal carbonates.

In marked contrast, as shown in the Results section, Ba, Ti and W often display much lower abundances in studied seep carbonates relative to JLs-1 (Fig. 2a). For Ba, this depletion is best explained by the fact that precipitation of authigenic barite at cold seeps acts as an effective sink for pore water Ba. While previous partitioning experiments have demonstrated that Ba is preferentially incorporated into aragonite compared to calcite (Pingitore Jr and Eastman, 1984), our results indicate instead that Ba generally exhibit higher concentrations in calcite rather than in aragonite-dominated samples (Fig. 4d). This preferential

enrichment of Ba in calcite relative to aragonite is most likely controlled by the availability of Ba at the depth of mineral formation (e.g., Torres et al., 2002, 2010; Snyder et al., 2007). At methane seeps, pore water Ba concentrations markedly increase in the sediment column located below the depth of sulfate depletion, as a consequence of barite (BaSO_4) dissolution. The upward diffusing resulting flux of dissolved Ba is almost quantitatively precipitated into authigenic barite at the sulfate-methane transition zone (SMTZ), but a minor fraction of dissolved Ba is also likely to be incorporated into the high-Mg carbonate phases that form at the SMTZ when it is located well below the sediment-seafloor interface. In contrast, aragonite generally forms in the sulfate-rich near seafloor environment at cold seeps (Burton, 1993; Luff and Wallmann, 2003; Peckmann et al., 2009), where pore water Ba contents are presumably much lower than in the deeper methanogenic sediments, hence possibly explaining the relatively low Ba concentrations encountered in most aragonite-rich samples (Liang et al., 2017).

The cause of Ti and W depletion in studied carbonate samples remains unclear, as these features have never been described previously in the literature, at least to the best of our knowledge. This will be the focus of a part of the discussion below, when interpreting the results obtained for the organic fractions. One hypothesis would be that these elements have been partly re-adsorbed onto residual phases during the 1 M AA leaching step, thereby explaining the depleted Ti and W concentrations in corresponding leachates. However, if this had been the case, one would have also expected similar depletions for other particle reactive elements such as Zr and Hf. Because this is not the case (Fig. 2a), we argue that the observed Ti and W depletions in carbonates simply reflect their very low concentrations in surrounding pore waters at the time of carbonate precipitation, as a consequence of (micro) biogeochemical processes that will be discussed below.

4.2. Trace element enrichments associated with the presence of sulfide minerals

The data obtained on 3 M HNO₃ leachates allow us to identify the trace elements that are likely to be preferentially associated with sulfide minerals within seep carbonates. Of course, we are well aware that this leaching step is not selective and may have also led to substantial dissolution of residual carbonate phases, organic compounds and silicate minerals. As a matter of fact, although Ca and Sr in 3 M HNO₃ leachates are significantly depleted compared to corresponding carbonate phases (i.e. 1 M AA leachates), their presence in 3 M HNO₃ leachates clearly indicates that a substantial fraction of the material dissolved by 3 M HNO₃ corresponds to carbonates that were left behind the previous 0.25 M HCl leaching step. Similarly, a few other trace elements, such as Mn, Ba, REE, W and U, almost systematically display lower concentrations in 3 M HNO₃ leachates relative to 1 M AA solutions, showing that they are mostly depleted in sulfide minerals. In addition, the pronounced enrichments displayed by elements typically associated with detrital silicates (Ti, Rb, Zr and Th) clearly indicate that partial dissolution of silicate minerals occurred during the leaching step. In contrast, however, the high elemental abundances determined for transition metals (Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo) and Pb in 3 M HNO₃ leachates, relative to corresponding carbonate phases, are most likely best explained by the presence of sulfide minerals and/or organic compounds in studied carbonate samples. The relative partitioning of these elements between sulfide and organic phases will be discussed below.

4.3. Trace elements in residual detrital fractions

The residual detrital fractions associated with studied carbonate samples mostly correspond to terrigenous silicate minerals, but also presumably include some refractory organic compounds and/or sulfide minerals that were left behind after the 5% H₂O₂ and 3 M HNO₃ leaching steps. In this regard, the most striking feature of the dataset for detrital fractions is the pronounced enrichments in Mo that characterized many samples (Fig. 2c).

In recent years, the distribution of Mo in bulk sediments at cold seeps has received increasing attention, as a potential tracer of methane seepage dynamics (Peketi et al., 2012; Sato et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2015b; Chen et al., 2016). The range of Mo concentrations measured in seep-related sediments from the Nankai Trough (Sato et al., 2012) and the South China Sea (Chen et al., 2016) is similar (up to ~32 mg/kg) to that found in the detrital fractions analyzed in this study (up to 25 mg/kg), being enriched by a factor of about 30 compared to other typical hemipelagic sediments (Sato et al., 2012). This strong Mo enrichment was taken as an evidence that cold seep sediments could possibly represent a net sink in the global biogeochemical marine cycling of Mo (Sato et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2015b). Previous studies have suggested that the enrichment of Mo in marine sediments could relate to high organic contents (Wilde et al., 2004; Guo et al., 2007), or to the presence of high dissolved sulfide (HS⁻) concentrations in the sediment, which can lead to conversion of soluble molybdate (MoO₄²⁻) into particle-reactive thiomolybdate (MoO_xS_{4-x}²⁻) species that are then sequestered within the sediment (Helz et al., 1996, 2011). Clearly, the observed Mo enrichment in the residual silicate fractions associated with seep carbonates can be ascribed to the presence of high dissolved sulfide contents at cold seeps and precipitation of sulfide minerals in the sediment.

Interestingly, we did not identify any particular enrichment for tungsten (W) in studied detrital fractions. Tungsten is the geochemical twin of Mo, and apart from a few differences, both elements generally behave similarly in the marine environment (see Dellwig et al., 2019 for a recent detailed review). In open ocean waters, both Mo and W are intensively scavenged onto Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide phases, which can then be released subsequently into pore waters, following sediment deposition and diagenetic alteration under suboxic/anoxic conditions. Similar

to Mo, high sulfide concentrations in pore waters lead to the conversion of tungstate to thio tungstate that can be incorporated into Fe-sulfides or organic compounds. As will be discussed below, the absence of any W enrichment in studied sulfide and detrital fractions, in contrast to Mo, suggests that an unknown mechanism leads to decoupling of Mo and W in cold seep sediments.

4.4. The characteristics of lipid biomarkers and trace elements in organic fractions

The distribution patterns of microbial lipids extracted from our series of authigenic carbonate samples were examined by PCA (Fig. 6). For archaeal lipids, the first PC component (PC1) accounted for 42.0% of the total variance, and the second PC component (PC2) explained 30.9% of the total variance. The high abundances of isoprenoid DGDs (in particular archaeol and sn-2-hydroxyarchaeol) were responsible for distinguishing between samples for PC1, whereas irregular tail-to-tail isoprenoids (mainly phytane and crocetane) were important for PC2 (Fig. 6a). Based on the PCA results, we also performed a hierarchical clustering of principal components (HCPC) to cluster samples with archaeal lipid abundances. The samples were grouped into three distinct clusters, i.e. Cluster 1, Cluster 2, and Cluster 3 (Fig. 6a). The HCPC results showed that each cluster was associated with distinctive abundances of archaeal lipids investigated. Cluster 3 was associated with the predominant isoprenoid DGDs, which are indicative of AOM-related ANME-1 and -2 assemblages. Cluster 1 with phytane + crocetane is also indicative of ANME-2 related to AOM, but phytane contributions to these samples might be higher than those of Cluster 3. In contrast, Cluster 2 related to PMI, PMI-3, and sn-3-hydroxyarchaeol archaeal lipids are more related to ANME-1 and 2. Among them, the presence of saturated PMI analogue may reflect the growth stages (e.g. lipid biosynthesis) of these communities (Blumenberg et al., 2005; Nauhaus et al., 2007). For bacterial lipids, PC1 and PC2 accounted for 54.4% and 17.3% of the total variance, respectively (Fig. 6b). Most bacterial lipids (i.e. non-isoprenoid DGDs and FAs) were responsible for distinguishing between samples for PC1. The compounds having the strongest influence on PC2 were non-isoprenoid DGDs. Similar to archaeal lipids, bacterial lipids were also grouped into three distinct clusters (Fig. 6b). Cluster 1 identifies a distinctive group characterized by high DGD (If) contributions. Cluster 2 has also a higher contribution of DGD (If) compared to Cluster 3 characterized, with mixed lipid patterns. In this regard, Cluster 1 and 2 appear to be associated with sulfate reducing bacteria inhabiting cold seep environments (e.g. Pancost et al., 2001).

Compared to leaching with hydrogen peroxide solution, lipid extraction leads to much reduced carbonate dissolution, and hence is probably best suited for investigating organic-bound trace element patterns in seep carbonates. Nevertheless, the two methods result in comparatively similar normalized elemental distribution patterns (Fig. 3), both displaying more or less pronounced enrichments in the following elements: Li, Ti, V, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Mo and W. Most of these elements have been already previously identified in microorganism cells, in particular in seep-related microbial assemblages, where they are known to be bound to specific sites of proteins and enzymes (e.g. Barton et al., 2007; Glass and Orphan, 2012). Importantly, this suggests that the determination of trace element patterns in seep carbonates can provide interesting information of the utility of metals to microbial life, and possibly help identifying particular elements with a previously unrecognized importance for microbial metabolism at cold seeps. Microbial metalloenzymes play key roles in catalyzing major biogeochemical reactions, in particular the anaerobic oxidation of methane (Zerkle et al., 2005). The AOM can be largely regarded as a reverse methanogenesis pathway (Hallam et al., 2004; Thauer and Shima, 2008; Scheller et al., 2010), and both reactions are thought to require the same combination of trace metals ranging from Fe, Ni, Co, Mo (and/or W) and Zn (Glass and Orphan, 2012). Below, we use our findings on the distribution of trace elements in lipid fractions to further discuss the

role of specific metals in microbial methane cycling at cold seeps. In particular, by comparing lipid-bound data with elemental abundances measured in corresponding carbonate and sulfide phases, we can discuss how microbial activity at cold seeps can be affected by trace metal bioavailability in pore waters.

4.4.1. Ni and Co

Both Ni and Co are known to play a crucial role in methanogenesis and anaerobic methanotrophy (e.g. Glass and Orphan, 2012). At submarine methane seeps, Ni-containing proteins were first extracted from microbial mats collected in the Black Sea, which provided one of the first direct evidence for the importance of Ni in the AOM process (Krüger et al., 2003). Various geochemical investigations of methanogenic archaea also revealed significant enrichments of Ni and Co at the cell-scale (Cameron et al., 2012; Glass et al., 2018). A study conducted on Cretaceous methane-derived carbonates identified relatively high Ni signals using laser ablation ICP-MS, which were taken as evidence for past microbial activity (Reitner et al., 2015). To date, at least three Ni-dependent enzymes have been identified in methanogens, including the carbon monoxide dehydrogenase/acetyl-CoA (coenzyme A) synthase, and the Ni cofactor F430 in the methyl coenzyme M reductase, which catalyzes the final step of methanogenesis (Ferry, 1993; Ragsdale and Kumar, 1996). Cobalt is a core element of vitamin B12 (cobalamin) that can be biosynthesized anaerobically by methanogens and sulfate-reducing bacteria, and is involved in methanogenesis and reverse methanogenesis pathways (Glass et al., 2014). In this study, while we did not find any strong relationships between lipid biomarker patterns and elemental concentrations, the abundance of Co in extracted lipid fractions displays positive correlation with C17:0, C18:1w9c and DGD (If). In addition, the slight positive correlations observed between Ni and Co enrichments in lipid fractions (relative to 3 M HNO₃ data) and our PCA results for archaeal lipids (PC1 score; archaeol and *sn*-2-hydroxyarchaeol concentrations) adds further support that measured lipid-bound Ni and Co abundances are related to the presence of archaeal communities (Fig. 7). Importantly, the availability of Ni and Co in natural ecosystems most likely represents a limiting factor for the activity of these archaeal communities (Basiliko and Yavitt, 2001). In this study, the evidence that studied carbonate phases always displays relatively high Ni and Co concentrations (Fig. 2) suggests that these elements are generally present in relative abundance in surrounding pore waters. This would indicate that dissolved Ni and Co supply at cold seeps (at least in those investigated during the course of this study) does not represent a limiting factor on microbial activity.

4.4.2. Cu

While the potential utility of Cu in the anaerobic oxidation of methane is yet to be fully understood (Sushkevich et al., 2017), it is well known that Cu plays a central role in the metabolism of aerobic methane-oxidizing bacteria. In presence of Cu, the particulate methane mono-oxygenase (pMMO), a membrane protein found in methanotrophic bacteria, catalyzes the oxidation of methane to methanol. An increase in Cu concentration can result in up to 55-fold expression of pMMO (Glass and Orphan, 2012). In this study, while lipid-bound Cu concentrations in seep carbonates do not appear to correlate with lipid biomarker patterns, a few aragonite-rich seep carbonates (sample 2-3, 2-4, with Sr/Ca > 0.020) appear to host microbial lipid fractions characterized by higher Cu contents (as inferred from Cu/Ca ratios; Fig. 5). As already mentioned above, aragonite precipitation at cold seeps is favored at sites characterized by high methane fluxes, where the SMTZ is located at shallower sediment depth, in the near-seafloor environment (e.g., Burton, 1993; Bayon et al., 2007; Peckmann et al., 2009; Nöthen and Kasten, 2011). Near the sediment-water interface, it is likely that methane oxidation partly proceeds through Cu-dependent aerobic methane-oxidizing bacteria, which would possibly explain why lipid fractions extracted from a few aragonite-rich carbonates display higher Cu contents than those recovered from high-Mg carbonate

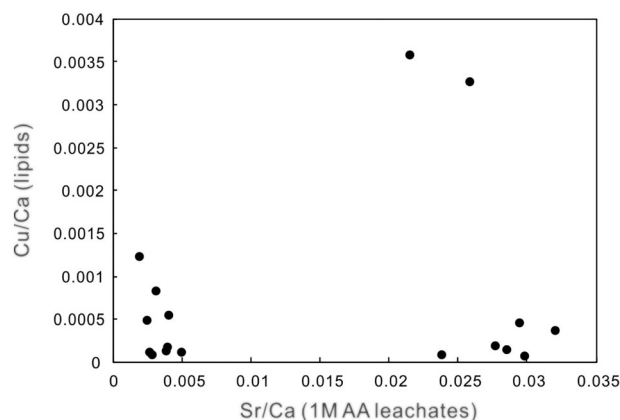


Fig. 5. Cu/Ca ratios in extracted lipid fractions versus Sr/Ca in corresponding 1 M acetic acid (AA) leachates.

phases (which presumably formed from deeper and fully anoxic sediment layers). This would be in full agreement with previous biomarker investigations, which also identified the presence of aerobic methanotrophs in seep carbonates formed near the seafloor (Himmeler et al., 2015).

4.4.3. Mo and W

Molybdenum (Mo) and its geochemical twin tungsten (W) are also important metals in the metabolism of microbial communities involved in the AOM, especially when it is coupled to nitrate reduction (Haroony et al., 2013; Glass et al., 2014). The most well-known biological function for Mo is as nitrate reductase and nitrogenase enzyme (Kisker et al., 1997; Zerkle et al., 2005; Glass and Orphan, 2012; Mcglynn et al., 2013), in which Mo (or W) is bound to a pterin cofactor to form molybdopterin (or tungstopterin). Some methanogens also require Mo and/or W in formyl-methanofuran dehydrogenases system, which catalyze the initial conversion of carbon dioxide to methane (L'vov et al., 2002; Ferry, 2010).

In this study, Mo and W were found to be significantly enriched in lipid fractions, although no major correlation could be identified between lipid-bound Mo-W trace element data and our PCA results for archaeal lipids (figure not shown here). The ubiquitous presence of Mo in all studied fractions, including lipids but also corresponding carbonate and sulfide mineral phases, indicates the abundance of bioavailable Mo at cold seeps. In contrast, while W also displays pronounced enrichments in lipid-bound fractions, the low W concentrations determined in both carbonate phases and sulfide minerals at seeps suggest instead that dissolved W concentrations in surrounding pore waters are relatively depleted. While this assumption agrees with a previous trace metal investigation of pore waters at Hydrate Ridge (Glass et al., 2014), which reported very low dissolved W concentrations at methane seeps, it is in contrast with the fact that thiotungstate should be more soluble than thiomolybdate species in pore waters (Mohajerin et al., 2014, 2016). Based on the above, we speculate that the low W abundances in seep carbonate and sulfide phases (and presumably in pore waters) reflect substantial microbial requirements in W during the AOM. This hypothesis would be supported by previous evidence of striking correlations between W enrichments and the presence of hyperthermophiles in hydrothermal mineral deposits (Holden and Adams, 2003), suggesting that W may be preferred over Mo by anaerobic microbial communities at submarine methane seeps (L'vov et al., 2002; Holden and Adams, 2003).

5. Conclusions

Our combined investigation of trace element systematics in authigenic carbonates and associated lipid fractions provides evidence for

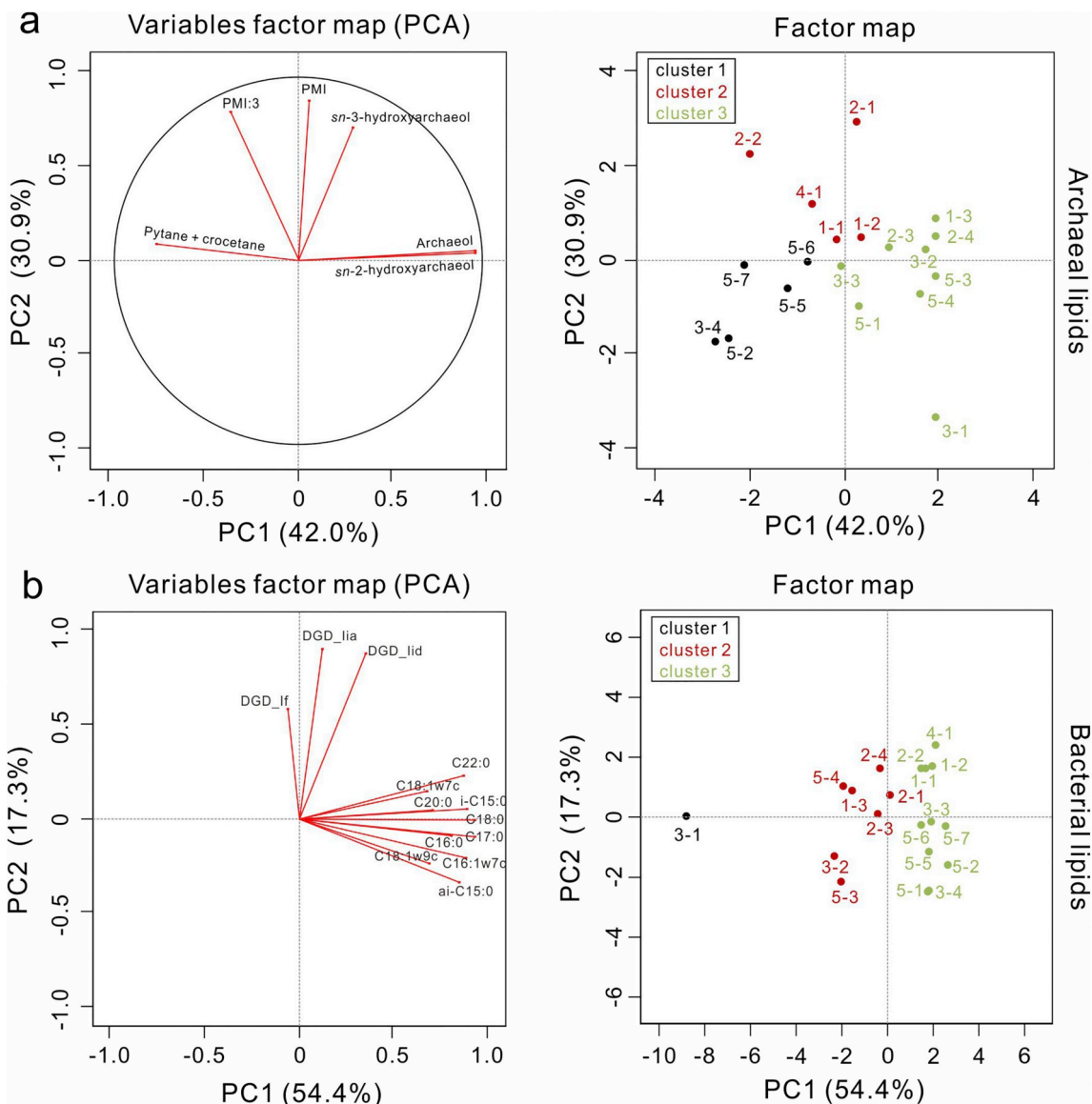


Fig. 6. Principal component analysis (PCA) results for microbial lipid biomarkers. (a) archaeal and (b) bacterial compounds.

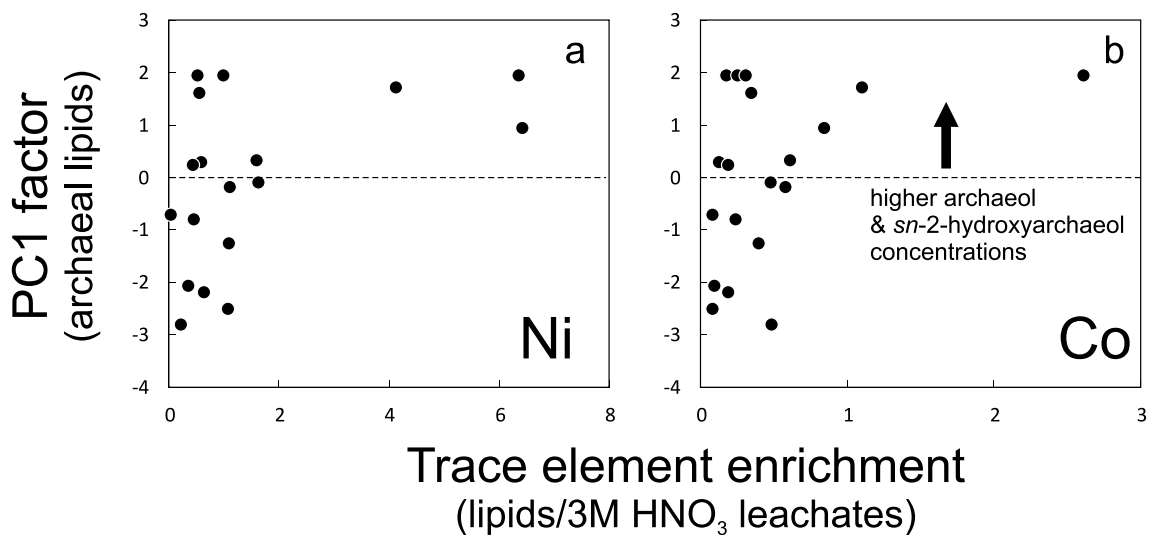


Fig. 7. Results of PCA for archaeal lipids (PC1 score) versus enrichment factors for Ni and Co in carbonate-hosted lipid fractions. The slight positive correlations provide support that lipid-bound Ni and Co abundances are related to archaeal and *sn*-2-hydroxyarchaeol concentrations.

the utility of trace metals to microbial life at cold seeps. While trace element distribution patterns of inorganic carbonate phases mainly reflect the chemical composition of surrounding pore waters at the time of carbonate precipitation, pronounced trace metal enrichments associated with total lipid fractions for Ni, Co, Cu, Mo and W relate to their implication in various microbial enzymatic activities.

The abundance of Ni, Co and Mo is ubiquitous in studied lipid biomarkers, but also in corresponding carbonate phases and sulfide minerals, suggesting that a substantial pool of dissolved Ni, Co and Mo is available at cold seeps for the microorganisms involved in the anaerobic oxidation of methane. In contrast, we propose that important microbial requirement in W during the AOM can lead to strong depletion of dissolved W in pore waters at cold seeps, as inferred from the very low W concentrations determined in both carbonate phases and sulfide minerals. This finding suggests that W could represent a limiting factor for microbial methane oxidation at seeps. Overall, this study demonstrates the utility of combining trace element systematics to lipid biomarker investigations in order to improve our understanding of the microbial biogeochemistry of deep-sea extreme environments.

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