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1 Carbonation by fluid-rock interactions at High-Pressure conditions: implications for 2 carbon cycling in subduction zones

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39 Abstract

40 Carbonate-bearing lithologies are the main carbon carrier into subduction zones. Their 41 evolution during metamorphism largely controls the fate of carbon, regulating its fluxes 42 between shallow and deep reservoirs. Recent estimates predict that almost all subducted 43 carbon is transferred into the crust and lithospheric mantle during subduction metamorphism 44 via decarbonation and dissolution reactions at high-pressure conditions. Here we report the 45 occurrence of eclogite-facies marbles associated with metasomatic systems in Alpine Corsica (France). The occurrence of these marbles along major fluid-conduits as well as textural, 46 47 geochemical and isotopic data indicating fluid-mineral reactions are compelling evidence for 48 the precipitation of these carbonate-rich assemblages from carbonic fluids during 49 metamorphism. The discovery of metasomatic marbles brings new insights into the fate of 50 carbonic fluids formed in subducting slabs. We infer that rock carbonation can occur at high-51 pressure conditions by either vein-injection or chemical replacement mechanisms. This 52 indicates that carbonic fluids produced by decarbonation reactions and carbonate dissolution 53 may not be directly transferred to the mantle wedge, but can interact with slab and mantle-54 forming rocks. Rock-carbonation by fluid-rock interactions may have an important impact on 55 the residence time of carbon and oxygen in subduction zones and lithospheric mantle reservoirs as well as carbonate isotopic signatures in subduction zones. Furthermore, 56 57 carbonation may modulate the emission of CO₂ at volcanic arcs over geological time scales.

58

59 Keywords: Subduction carbon cycle, Carbonation, CO₂ sequestration, Metasomatism

60

61 **1. Introduction**

62 Subduction exerts a key role in the long-term carbon cycle by regulating the fluxes of carbon 63 between the Earth's surface and the deep Earth. The redistribution of carbon between the exogenic and endogenic reservoirs largely depends on the evolution of carbonate-bearing 64 65 lithologies in subduction zones. Carbonates are present in sedimentary, mafic and ultramafic lithologies, and constitute the dominant reservoir of carbon in the subducting lithosphere (Alt 66 67 and Teagle, 1999; Kelemen & Manning, 2015). There is growing evidence that carbonates 68 can be extremely reactive during subduction metamorphism via devolatilization reactions 69 (Cook-Kollars et al., 2014; Kerrick & Connolly, 2001), as well as carbonate dissolution via 70 fluid-rock interactions at high-pressure conditions (Frezzotti et al., 2011; Ague and Nicolescu, 71 2014; Kelemen and Manning, 2015), carbonate reduction reactions (Galvez et al., 2013a; 72 Malvoisin et al., 2012), or melting of the subducting crust (Poli, 2015). Nonetheless, key 73 questions remain regarding the mechanisms of carbonic fluid transfer from the slab to the 74 lithospheric mantle in the sub-arc region, their role in mantle wedge metasomatism, and their 75 contribution to the CO₂ degassing at volcanic arcs.

76 To address these questions, a growing number of studies have been carried out using both experimental petrology (Molina and Poli 2000; Poli et al., 2009) and thermodynamic 77 78 modeling (Kerrick and Connolly 2001; Gorman et al., 2006). All these studies agree that, 79 considering a "closed system" (no external fluid supply), significant carbon transfer to the 80 mantle wedge is feasible only at shallow depth in the forearc region. This transfer is made 81 possible via devolatilization reactions that, based on experimental and thermodynamic results, 82 are much more limited at deeper, subarc conditions (Connolly, 2005; Poli et al., 2009). 83 Nevertheless, the role of fluid-rock interactions appears to be critical for the stability of 84 carbonates. Recently, field based studies (Ague and Nicolescu, 2014; Frezzotti et al., 2011) as 85 well as theoretical and experimental works (Facq et al., 2014; Sverjensky et al., 2014) have 86 pointed out that massive carbonate dissolution in fluids may occur at high-pressure-low

87 temperature conditions and can generate large amounts of carbonic fluids (see Kelemen and 88 Manning, 2015 for review). Accounting for carbonate dissolution at high-pressure conditions 89 in comprehensive budgets overturns older paradigms on carbonate stability with respect to 90 carbon mobility in subduction zones. The most recent budgets actually predict that carbonate 91 dissolution allows almost all subducted carbon to be transferred to the mantle wedge 92 (Kelemen & Manning, 2015). Owing to the very recent discovery of these processes, much 93 remains to be learned about the fate of these carbonic fluids and their interaction with slab-94 and mantle-forming rocks.

Here, we report the occurrence of eclogite-facies marbles formed by fluid-rock interaction processes (metasomatism) occurring along intensely metasomatized lithological interfaces (Alpine Corsica, France). We present and discuss the occurrence, textures, mineralogy and geochemistry of these metasomatic marbles. We then propose a mechanism of carbonates formation by precipitation and mineral carbonation by carbonic fluid-rock interactions at high-pressure conditions. Finally, the implications and contribution of rock carbonation to the deep carbon fluxes and cycling are discussed.

102

103 **2. Geological setting**

Alpine Corsica (France) is a branch of the Alpine orogenic system (Jolivet et al., 1991; Molli and Malavieille, 2011) (Fig.1a). The belt mainly includes remnants of subducted Mesozoic slow-spreading oceanic and passive margin lithosphere, which formed part of the Tethys Ocean basin. This rock package is classically referred to as the Schistes Lustrés Complex (Fig. 1b; Jolivet et al., 1990; Fournier et al., 1991; Malavieille et al., 1998; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2013). The exceptional preservation of prograde-to-peak mineral assemblages, including widespread lawsonite, makes the Schistes Lustrés of Alpine Corsica an excellent site for field investigations related to subduction. These units underwent various metamorphic overprints during the Alpine subduction ranging from subgreenschist-facies conditions of about 300°C and 0.5 GPa to lawsonite blueschist and lawsonite eclogite-facies conditions which reached 500-550 °C and ~2.3 GPa (e.g. Fournier et al., 1991; see Vitale Brovarone et al., 2013 for review).

116 Carbonate-bearing rocks are widespread in the Schistes Lustrés of Alpine Corsica. The 117 most typical carbonate-bearing lithologies are metamorphosed oceanic sediments (referred to as calcschists hereafter), ophicarbonate, and carbonated metabasalts (Miller et al., 2001; 118 119 Ravna et al., 2010; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2011b). In each lithology, primary carbonates and 120 various generations of carbonate veins are observed (Miller et al., 2001; Ravna et al., 2010; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2011b). These veins have been shown to be in most cases in isotopic 121 122 equilibrium with the host rocks with little effect of external fluid infiltrations and 123 metasomatism (Cartwright and Buick, 2000). On the other hand, evidence for high-pressure-124 low temperature fluid-rock interactions and metasomatism in the Schistes Lustrés of Alpine 125 Corsica is widespread, most typically localized at lithological interfaces. In this work, we 126 focus on processes occurring where serpentinites are in contact with metasedimentary rocks.

127 Here, past results on high-pressure metasomatism in Alpine Corsica are briefly 128 summarized. In the blueschist-facies zone, reactions between serpentinites and overlying 129 metasediments led to carbonate reduction and precipitation of wollastonite and abiotic 130 graphite at blueschist-facies conditions (Malvoisin et al., 2012; Galvez et al., 2013a). Except 131 for the influx of external, serpentinite-derived fluids, the reacted metasediments revealed 132 largely conservative carbon budget (Galvez et al., 2013a). In similar lithological settings, 133 massive precipitation of lawsonite from fluid-rock interactions at the expense of metasedimentary rocks in contact with serpentinites testifies to the reincorporation of large 134 135 amounts of water in the rock at prograde blueschist-to-eclogite-facies metamorphic conditions

136 (Martin et al., 2011; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2014; Vitale Brovarone and Beyssac, 2014;).
137 This process is characterized by a dramatic whole-rock chemical modification leading to
138 mafic/ultramafic, Ca-rich metasomatic products.

139 The carbonate-rich rocks studied herein are intimately related to the latter Ca-rich 140 metasomatic rocks and were collected in the lawsonite eclogite-facies San Petrone unit. This 141 unit is characterized by a basal body of serpentinite variably overlain by Jurassic pillow 142 metabasalts, Mesozoic metasediments (e.g. calcschists, marbles, Mn-metacherts) or slivers of Hercynian continental basement rocks mainly consisting of pre-Alpine, carbonate-free, high-143 144 temperature metasediments and granitic rocks overprinted at high-pressure-low temperature 145 conditions during the Alpine subduction (Vitale Brovarone et al., 2011b; Fig. 1c). 146 Ophicarbonate rocks are locally found at the top of the serpentinite body. The San Petrone 147 unit has been considered as a remnant of a Mesozoic hyper-extended passive margin (Vitale 148 Brovarone et al., 2011b; Beltrando et al., 2014). Peak metamorphic conditions in this unit are 149 estimated at ca. 490-530 °C and ~2.3 GPa by means of pseudosection modeling and 150 thermometry based on Raman spectroscopy of carbonaceous material (Ravna et al., 2010; 151 Vitale Brovarone et al., 2011a, 2013). The peak metamorphic age of ~34 Ma has been 152 determined by several techniques including U-Pb zircon and Lu-Hf garnet and lawsonite 153 geochronology (Martin et al., 2011; Vitale Brovarone and Herwartz, 2013).

154

155 **3. Structural occurrence of metasomatic marbles**

The carbonate-rich rocks which are the subject of this paper occur along a regional lithological boundary separating serpentinites from either slivers of Hercynian basement rocks (dominantly pre-Alpine high temperature metasedimentary rocks) or Mesozoic metasedimentary rocks (Figs. 1c and 2). The first few meters of rock above the serpentinites

160 exhibit intense Alpine metasomatism that has already been described in previous studies 161 (Martin et al., 2011; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2011b, 2014). These metasomatic rinds can be followed for several kilometers along the top of the serpentinite body and are characterized by 162 163 lawsonite-rich assemblages, but diopside-rich rocks are also common. These rocks are 164 referred to as Stage#1 diopside-lawsonite rocks (Fig.2). The carbonated rocks which are the 165 subject of this study are referred to as Stage#2 metasomatic marbles (or simply metasomatic 166 marbles), these form discontinuous patches or lenses of variable thickness and lateral 167 extension (from a few tens of cm to several m, Fig. 2), and are preferentially associated with 168 diopside-rich rather than the lawsonite-rich metasomatic rocks. The petrological differences 169 between Stage#2 metasomatic marbles and Mesozoic metasediments are discussed in Section 170 5.

171 The metasomatic marbles show a range of structural relationships with the surrounding 172 diopside-lawsonite rocks, and the carbonate/host rock ratios are extremely variable. Figure 2 173 summarizes the field relationships between the different rock types, i.e. serpentinites, Stage#1 174 diopside-lawsonite rocks, Stage#2 metasomatic marbles, and the inferred protolith rocks 175 (continental basement rocks or Mesozoic metasediments). The transition from diopside-176 lawsonite rocks to Stage#2 metasomatic marbles is marked by a gradual increase of 177 carbonate/host rock ratio, passing from diopside-lawsonite rocks to isolated carbonate-rich 178 veins in Stage#1 host rocks, to Stage#2 metasomatic marbles with remnants of Stage#1 rocks. 179 Isolated veins have crack-seal texture and are mainly composed of rod-shaped Ca-carbonate \pm 180 omphacite (Figs. 3a, b, d). Carbonate rods are perpendicular to the vein walls (Fig. 3b). 181 Omphacite grows from the vein wall toward the center (Fig. 3d). Some veins exhibit 182 interaction with the host Stage#1 rocks characterized by omphacite replacement of the 183 precursor diopside (Al-Na gain; Ca-Mg loss) and local carbonate precipitation (Fig. 3d). The 184 abundance of omphacite decreases from the vein wall to the host rock. Diopside far from the

vein does not display any chemical zoning involving Na-Al enrichment. The isolated veins are connected to dm-thick layers (ca. 20 cm) showing similar crack-seal textures (Figs. 2 and 3a). These layers are meter-scale and are parallel to the wallrock foliation (Fig. 2). Outcropscale hydraulic breccias consisting of cm- to m-scale angular clasts of Stage#1 diopsidelawsonite rocks embedded within a carbonate vein network provide strong evidence for diffuse hydrofracturing and carbonate precipitation (Figs. 2, 3e and f).

191 In some outcrops, serpentinites are overlain by a sequence of metasomatic marbles ranging in 192 thickness from less than one m to ~10m (Figs. 2, 3g and 4a). These metasomatic marbles are 193 hosted within the diopside-lawsonite rock and contain remnants of the host rock-ranging 194 from a few microns to several centimeters-floating in a carbonate-dominated matrix. 195 Remnants of diopside-lawsonite rocks in the metasomatic marbles differ from the angular 196 clasts found in the hydraulic breccias. First, they have embayed margins and microtextures 197 (see Section 5) suggest digestion of the silicate portions into the carbonate matrix. Second, the 198 host rock remnants preserve their original orientation (Fig. 4a), whereas the clasts in the 199 hydraulic breccias have random rotation (Figs. 2). Last, the diopside remnants are commonly 200 rimmed by omphacite, the latter being in textural equilibrium with the carbonate as observed 201 in the isolated carbonate veins.

202

4. Methods

204 *4.1 Scanning electron microscopy and electron microprobe*

Petrographic thin sections were carbon coated for scanning electron microscopy (SEM).
Observations were performed at a working distance of 7.5 mm using a Zeiss Ultra 55 field
emission gun SEM operated at 15 kV with a 120 µm aperture. Backscattered electron (BSE)
mode was used to investigate chemical heterogeneities using an Angle Selective

209 Backscattered Detector (AsB) or an Energy Selective Backscattered Detector (EsB). Energy 210 dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDXS) maps were acquired using an EDXS QUANTAX 211 system equipped with a silicon drift detector XFlash 4010 (Bruker). Data were processed with 212 the software Esprit (Bruker). Mineral analyses were performed on a Cameca electron 213 microprobe (either SX-100 or SX Five) (Camparis, Université Paris 6). Common analytical 214 conditions were adopted for spot analyses [15 kV, 10 nA, wavelength-dispersive spectroscopy 215 (WDS) mode], using Fe₂O₃, MnTiO₃ (Mn, Ti), diopside (Mg, Si), orthoclase (Al, K), 216 anorthite (Ca) and albite (Na) as standards. The automated Cameca ZAF procedure was used 217 for quantification (Tables S1, S2, S4 and S5).

218 *4.2 Whole rock major and trace element data*

219 Chips of low to highly carbonated rock were removed from hand-samples. Samples were 220 crushed in an agate mortar (grain size $< 80 \mu$ m) and sent for major and trace element, CO₂ and 221 organic carbon analyses at the Service d'Analyse des Roches et Minéraux (SARM, Centre de 222 Recherches Pétrographiques et Géochimiques, Nancy, France) by alkali fusion of rock 223 samples (LiBO₂), followed by concentration measurements using an ICP-OES Icap 6500 224 (Thermoscientific) for major elements, and an ICP-MS X7 (Thermoscientific) for minor 225 elements (protocol by Carignan et al., 2001). The modal proportions of silicates vs. carbonate 226 were estimated first with optical microscopy and then checked using whole rock and mineral 227 composition. In two cases, samples 1COR12-20d and COR13-29c, two different chips were 228 taken: one representative of the metasomatic marble, where silicates are present as clasts, and 229 another one representative of a Stage#1 diopside+lawsonite rock, where carbonate is a minor 230 constituent. When an average value is indicated, the standard deviation (1σ) is also reported 231 (Tables 1 and S2).

232 *4.3 Carbon mass balance calculation*

233 In/out carbon fluxes in the subducting slab (during high-pressure metamorphism) are 234 estimated from the grams of CO₂ per 100g of rock released by decarbonation reaction and 235 carbonate dissolution vs. the grams of CO₂ per 100g of rock bound by rock carbonation 236 process (Section 8.3). The CO_2 bound in the rocks of this study was back calculated from 237 whole rock analyses removing the measured organic carbon content to the measured CO₂ (red 238 bar in Fig. 8a, see also Table S2). Values for CO₂ released per 100g of rock after carbonate 239 dissolution (Ague and Nicolescu, 2014) and decarbonation of calcschists (Cook-Kollars et al., 240 2014) are taken from the literature. For the data on carbonate dissolution (Ague and 241 Nicolescu, 2014), we took the average of the estimated CO_2 loss in samples from Syros 242 (35.1g) and Tinos (22.2g), thus resulting in 28.65 g of CO₂ lost during carbonate dissolution 243 (blue bar in Fig. 8a). For samples affected by decarbonation, we took the calcschist modeled 244 by Cook-Kollars et al. (2014). This rock initially contains 40 wt.% carbonate (i.e. the initial 245 CO₂ content is 17.6g per 100 of rock) and it loses 50% of its initial CO₂, thus 8.8g per 100g of 246 rock (green bar in Fig. 8a). Cook-Kollars et al. (2014) highlighted that natural samples from 247 Schist Lustrés and Cignana suite show a lower extent of decarbonation. They conclude that 248 decarbonation reactions during metamorphism may cause the loss of 10 to 20% of the initial 249 CO_2 . We took the intermediate value of 15%. Thus, considering the same initial CO_2 content 250 of 17.6g per 100 g of precursor rock, the CO₂ lost is 2.64g per 100g of rock (orange bar in 251 Fig. 8a).

252 *4.4 Stable isotope data*

253 4.4.1 Carbon and Oxygen isotopes of calcite

254 Chips of carbonate were taken from hand-samples and crushed in an agate mortar. Raman and 255 SEM analyses establish that the carbonate is nearly pure Ca-carbonate. The isotopic 256 composition of calcite was measured by an AP2003 continuous flow mass spectrometer at 257 LGIS, IPGP. Approximately 2 to 2.5 mg of sample were loaded in vials; three standards of 258 pure calcite were also used for calibration of both concentration and isotopic composition. 259 After flushing with ultrapure helium, orthophosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) was introduced in each tube in order to produce gaseous CO₂. After 4 hours of reaction at ambient temperature, 260 261 calcite completely decomposes to release CO₂ (McCrea, 1950); gases were then transferred 262 into the mass spectrometer for analysis. In order to improve the precision of the 263 measurements, each analysis was repeated four times for each vial, and each sample analysed twice. The isotopic ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ and ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ ratios are expressed using the conventional δ -notation 264 relative to PDB and SMOW international standards. The precision is 0.1‰ for δ^{13} C and 0.2‰ 265 for δ^{18} O. The results are reported in Table S3. When an average value is indicated, the 266 267 standard deviation (1σ) is also reported.

268 *4.4.2 Oxygen isotopes of clinopyroxene*

A polished sample of omphacite+carbonate vein hosted in diopside-lawsonite rock was first 269 270 studied by SEM to identify zones representative of Stage#1 diopside and Stage#2 omphacite (Figs. 3d and S2). Aliquots of carbonate+omphacite vein were crushed (<100 µm) and single 271 272 crystals of omphacite were separated by handpicking under a binocular microscope. Diopside-273 rich protolith rock was sampled out of the vein selvage (ca. 2 cm from the vein) in order to 274 avoid the isotopic contribution of the vein-related omphacite rims, as checked by SEM. Rock 275 was crushed (<100 µm) and single crystals of diopside were separated by handpicking under a 276 binocular microscope. Approximately 2 mg of omphacite and 2 mg of diopside were analyzed using laser fluorination at IPGP (Paris, France) along with UWG-2 garnet standard. 277 278 Analytical methods are similar to those documented in Rumble et al. (1997). The oxygen 279 isotopic ratios are reported using the international V-SMOW standard. Measurement of UWG-2 garnet standard aliquots gave 2σ external error on δ^{18} O of ±0.036‰, which is in the 280

same range of in-run uncertainties for individual measurements (<0.03‰). Measurements were duplicated for omphacite, while for diopside the material collected was not sufficient. Fractionation factors (Hoffbauer et al., 1994) were used to infer oxygen isotopes equilibrium temperature between carbonate and clinopyroxenes (Table S3.1). Estimated errors using a Monte Carlo simulation on the calculated temperatures are 30°C and 20°C for the omphacitecalcite and diopside-calcite equilibrium, respectively.

287

288 5. Petrography of selected metasomatic marbles

289 Metasomatic marbles have characteristic features that make them different from any other 290 carbonate-bearing rocks of the Schistes Lustrés (i.e. Mesozoic impure marbles, calcschists 291 and ophicarbonates), although they may display mineralogical and chemical variations from 292 one to another outcrop. As an example, the matrix carbonate in these rocks systematically 293 displays a rod-shaped habit with rods oriented at high angles to the regional schistosity or to 294 the margin of Stage#1 clasts in hydraulic breccias (Fig. 3b). In all but one metasomatic 295 marble, the carbonate is a Ca-carbonate phase. Matrix carbonate is calcite, whereas aragonite 296 was found as inclusions in garnet and apatite (see Fig. S1). Dolomite was detected in only one 297 sample by Raman spectroscopy and it was in very small proportions compared to Ca-298 carbonate (dolomite content below X-ray diffraction detection limit). No ankerite was 299 observed in these rocks, whereas it is common in calcschists and ophicarbonates of the 300 Schistes Lustrés. As Ca-carbonate is the dominant carbonate phase, we will use hereafter the 301 term "carbonate" to indicate compositionally pure Ca-carbonate (i.e. calcite after aragonite).

302 In thin section, metasomatic marbles display a characteristic structure defined by carbonate-303 rich and diopside-lawsonite-rich domains, the latter occurring as either continuous layers or 304 isolated patches (Figs. 4b, d, e). A compositional layering is defined by the alternation of 305 carbonate aggregates with diopside (±lawsonite) aggregates. Calcite rods are mm-sized; 306 diopside and lawsonite grain size ranges from um to mm. The mineral assemblage most 307 commonly consists of carbonate, diopside and lawsonite, with modal proportions varying 308 from sample to sample (Fig. 4). Garnet is also present in several samples. It is found as 309 euhedral, µm to mm-sized crystals in textural equilibrium with carbonate. Its composition 310 ranges from grossular to almandine-spessartine solid solution (Table S4). Phengite, epidote, 311 quartz and pumpellyite (Table S5) are also present. Common accessory phases are titanite, 312 apatite and graphite. Although such assemblages are described in calcschists in the Western 313 Alps (see e.g. Cook-Kollars et al., 2014), they have never been documented in Alpine Corsica 314 to our knowledge. Moreover, the textural and mineralogical features of these silicates indicate 315 that they resulted from intense metasomatism during their high-pressure evolution, as 316 described below.

317 For simplicity, two dominant mineralogical assemblages representative of Stage#1 and 318 Stage#2 rocks are distinguished, i.e. diopside + lawsonite and carbonate + omphacite, 319 respectively. As mentioned above, additional phases may be present from one sample to 320 another. The chronological relations between the two mineralogical assemblages may be 321 deciphered from the outcrop-scale down to the micro-scale. Diopside (Quadrilateral_{96.5} Agirine_{3.5}; classification after Morimoto, 1989; see Tab. S1) formation at high-pressure 322 323 conditions during subduction is demonstrated by: (i) the occurrence of diopside veins cross-324 cutting lawsonite-bearing fabrics (Fig. 3d) and (ii) the fact that the diopside veins are in turn 325 cut by carbonate+omphacite veins, indicating near peak P-T metamorphic conditions. In the 326 carbonate-bearing domains, diopside in contact with carbonate shows either embayed grain 327 boundaries or newly-formed compositional coronas of omphacite (Figs. 5a; Jadeite_{39,5} Quadrilateral_{44.5} Aegirine₁₆; see Tab. S1). Tiny (c.a. 10-20 µm), second generation idioblastic 328 329 lawsonite crystals were locally found in the carbonate. In the vein selvage, omphacite rims on diopside (Fig. 5b) have the same composition as omphacite growing together with carbonate in the vein. In metasomatic marbles, atoll-like textures show relict diopside cores being replaced by carbonate and rimmed by omphacite (Fig. 5a), the latter being in textural equilibrium with the carbonate matrix. The abundance of omphacite varies from one sample to another. All transitional stages from carbonate-free diopside-lawsonite rocks to carbonaterich rocks are depicted in Figure 4.

Only one sample (COR13-21d) displays a different mineralogy, composed of (in order of volume abundance): calcite, actinolite, chlorite and clinopyroxene. This sample was collected within a sequence of typical metasomatic marbles, and shares with them similar characteristic features such as rod-shaped carbonate and Na-rich clinopyroxene coronas (aegirine-augite, Na-Fe³⁺ rich clinopyroxene, see Fig. 5c) on relict diopside. Geochemical data for this sample are given in Section 6.

342

343 6. Whole rock chemical compositions

344 Samples of metasomatic marbles were analyzed for their major and trace element bulk 345 composition (Table S2). Reference samples of Mesozoic calcschist and ophicarbonate 346 unaffected by metasomatism (i.e. far from the studied lithological boundaries and showing no 347 mineralogical or textural evidence for fluid-rock interactions), were also analyzed (Table S2). 348 Table 1 reports the average major element composition of metasomatic marble as well as the 349 compositions of a Stage#1 diopside-lawsonite rock (sample OF3598 in Vitale Brovarone et 350 al., 2014) and a Stage#1 rock with higher lawsonite content (lawsonite mode c.a. 75%; 351 sample COE5, Martin et al., 2011).

The variability of both Stage#1 rocks and Stage#2 metasomatic marbles hampers quantitative mass balance calculation. Here, only concentrations of the most representative oxides CaO, MgO, SiO₂ and CO₂ are presented. Metasomatic marbles have variable compositions based on the carbonate-silicate modal proportions (Tables 1, S2). The average composition is: CaO 39 wt.% (\pm 5%, 1 σ); CO₂ 27 wt.% (\pm 6%, 1 σ); SiO₂ 20 wt.% (\pm 6%, 1 σ) and MgO 3 wt.% (\pm 2%, 1 σ). The silicate mode in sample COR13-21d is higher, thus resulting in a slightly different bulk rock composition (CaO 22%; CO₂ 12%; SiO₂ 37%). Even accounting for the lower carbonate content, sample Cor13-21d has an Mg-richer composition (MgO 11 wt.%) compared to metasomatic marbles.

361 Comparing the average composition of metasomatic marbles with Stage#1 diopside-362 lawsonite rock (Table 1), the following features can be outlined. Despite the variability of the 363 protolith (with more or less abundant lawsonite), CaO is always enriched (CaO in 364 metasomatic marbles is about double that in Stage#1 rocks). MgO variations are more 365 difficult to evaluate, as they depend not only on the silicate content of metasomatic marbles, 366 but also on the initial diopside modal proportion of Stage#1 rock (cf. samples OF3598 and 367 COE5, Table 1). The reference calcschist (sample COR13-32) fits the range of compositions 368 of Alpine calcschists (Busigny et al. 2003, Galvez et al., 2013b). The reference ophicarbonate 369 sample (sample COR13-30a), has a Mg-rich composition (13 wt.% vs. 3 wt.% in metasomatic 370 marbles), similar to sample COR13-21d.

371 Whole-rock Rare-Earth Element (REE) analyses of most analyzed samples have 372 positive slopes (La_N/Lu_N>1) comparable to the reference calcschist and the host diopside-373 lawsonite rock formed at the expense of carbonate free, continental basement 374 metasedimentary rocks (Fig. 6; Martin et al., 2011; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2014). Only 375 sample COR13-21d differs significantly. It has a rather flat REE pattern, except for a slight 376 negative Ce anomaly (Fig. 6). This pattern matches reasonably well with the ophicarbonate 377 standard and passive margin serpentinites (Barnes et al., 2014; Deschamps et al., 2013; 378 Kodolányi et al., 2011). This sample also has a significantly higher Ni and Cr content than the other analyzed samples (1022 and 2114 ppm respectively, Table S2). These patterns suggestan ultramafic signature for this sample.

381

382 7. Carbon and oxygen stable isotope analysis of Ca-carbonate and clinopyroxene

C and O isotopic compositions of calcite from metasomatic marbles (including veins) were analyzes, as well as the O isotopic compositions of Stage#1 diopside and Stage#2 omphacite. For reference, calcite from calcschist and ophicarbonate was also analyzed. Analyses of carbon and oxygen isotopes of calcite are reported in Table S3.

387 For all samples (reference calcschists and ophicarbonate as well as metasomatic marbles) calcite δ^{13} C values vary little and average 1.1‰ (±1.2, 1 σ) (Fig. 7a), consistent with 388 marine sedimentary carbonate rocks (Plank and Langmuir, 1998). The average calcite δ^{18} O 389 value of metasomatic marbles is 14.3% (\pm 3.2, 1 σ) (Fig. 7a). The two reference calcschists 390 (from ca. 8 to 50 m from the serpentinite, across strike) have an average δ^{18} O of 21.5‰ (±1.5, 391 1 σ). The ophicarbonate analyzed in this study has δ^{18} O of 11‰. Carbonate in veins cutting 392 across carbonate-free, diopside-rich rocks has very low δ^{18} O 10.6‰ (±0.2, 1 σ), independent 393 394 of vein distance from the serpentinite. Carbonate in samples collected from outcrops with 395 higher carbonate/silicate ratios (e.g. carbonate mode 70%) display more dispersed values that 396 vary from ~12 to ~18‰. In these rocks, samples collected a few centimeters from the 397 serpentinite body have an average value of $\sim 14\%$ (9 samples), whereas the two samples 398 collected far from the serpentinite (i.e. more than 3m) and within the analyzed interaction 399 zone (cf. Figs. 6 and S3 and Table S3 for sample location and respective REE patterns and 400 isotope composition) have a heavier signature of $\sim 18\%$. A simple correlation cannot be established between the distance from the serpentinite and the δ^{18} O values within the reaction 401 zone. Indeed, Stage#2 omphacite-carbonate veins far from the serpentinite body (up to 8 m 402

from the contact) have low δ^{18} O values similar to metasomatic marble sampled a few cm from the serpentinite body (e.g. samples 2COR14-4i and 1COR14-11a; Table S3). However, taken as a whole, metasomatic marbles, overlying the serpentinite body, have lower δ^{18} O compared to the reference calcschists. Indeed, calcschists that lack the petrographic characteristics of intense fluid-rock interaction present in metasomatic marbles always have heavier values (ca. 21‰, see samples COR13-32 and 1COR12-11Q, Table S3), even if they crop out at less than 1m from the metasomatic zones.

410 Reconnaissance oxygen isotope measurements on silicate minerals were performed in 411 order to test for isotopic equilibrium between the two clinopyroxene generations (Stage#1 412 diopside and Stage#2 omphacite) and the vein infill carbonate. The analyzed sample is 413 composed of the host Stage#1 diopside-rich rock cut across by a Stage#2 calcite-omphacite vein (Figs. 3d and S2). Diopside has δ^{18} O values of ~6‰. Vein infill omphacite has heavier 414 $\delta^{18}O$ of ~7‰. Fractionation factors available from literature data ($\Delta_{calcite-clinopyroxene}$ from 415 416 Hoffbauer et al., 1994, , Table S3.1), give equilibrium temperature of 494°C (±30°) for the omphacite-carbonate assemblage and 426°C (±20°) for diopside-carbonate using the same 417 418 database. These differing temperatures are consistent with textural disequilibrium between the 419 mineral pairs (carbonate-diopside and diopside-omphacite). The omphacite-calcite 420 thermometer yields temperatures closer to the estimated peak T conditions of the 421 metamorphic unit (490-530°C, see Section 2). This observation suggests isotopic equilibrium 422 for the omphacite+carbonate paragenesis and confirms the microtextural observations (see 423 Section 5).

424 Equilibrium was likely reached by fluid-mediated reactions. However, this 425 interpretation must be taken with caution because only one sample was analyzed. The 426 composition of an aqueous fluid in equilibrium with these minerals was also calculated at 500 427 °C (i.e. near peak conditions). The δ^{18} O of a fluid in equilibrium with the measured Ca428 carbonate is 10.1‰ ($\Delta_{cal-H2O}$ =0.62, Zheng et al. 1994). For the analyzed omphacite composition, the water δ^{18} O obtained is 8.4% (Δ_{di-H2O} =-1.95, Δ_{ae-H2O} =-0.07 and Δ_{id-H2O} =-0.14, 429 430 Zheng et al., 1993). Although the fractionation factors for lawsonite are not available, the 431 diopside-water equilibrium, can be used as a proxy for fluid in equilibrium with the Stage#1 assemblage implying that the fluid $\delta^{18}O=8\%$. The mismatch between calcite-water and 432 433 omphacite-water oxygen composition equilibrium is guite small as well as for water in 434 equilibrium with diopside. It is worth noting that the estimated fluid composition is similar for 435 both metasomatic stages.

436

437 **8. DISCUSSION**

438 8.1 Fluid-mediated carbonation at high-pressure conditions

Detecting metasomatism in metasedimentary rocks is often challenging owing to the variability of protolith compositions (Bebout and Burton, 1989; Ague, 2003). The occurrence of carbonate in metasedimentary rock is common, and in most cases likely reflects the primary composition of the subducted rocks. However, the direct spatial association of Stage#2 metasomatic marbles along major fluid conduits characterized by intense metasomatism (Martin et al., 2011; Vitale Brovarone et al., 2014) suggests that the evolution of these rocks was mediated by the interaction with external fluids (e.g. Ague, 2003).

446 Rod-shaped calcite crystals in marbles from eclogite-facies terrains have been 447 described in Syros (Greece) and the Sivrihisar belt (Turkey) (Brady et al., 2004; Seaton et al., 448 2009), and have been interpreted as topotactic pseudomorphs of calcite after aragonite. Both 449 studies regard carbonate as a primary constituent of the rock and do not consider fluid-450 mediated precipitation. In the study case, we consider this hypothesis unlikely based on 451 several lines of evidence. Textures like crack-seal and networked carbonate veins cutting 452 across carbonate-free metasomatic rocks suggest high pore fluid pressure and hydrofracturing 453 (e.g. Bebout and Barton, 1989). This evidence clearly points to the percolation of carbonic 454 fluids along lithological boundaries, and their precipitation of carbonate. As reported in 455 Sections 2 and 5, field relations and microstructural features (Figs. 4) suggest carbonation of 456 the Ca-Mg-rich silicate rocks. The lateral (along schistosity) transition from carbonate-free 457 diopside-lawsonite rocks and metasomatic marbles is evidence for chemical interaction 458 occurring between a carbonic fluid and the host-rock assemblage. Progressive replacement of 459 diopside-rich rocks by carbonate is demonstrated at the microscale by the corroded texture of 460 precursor minerals (embayed and atoll-like diopside, Figs. 4d, e and 5a) and producing 461 coronas in contact with carbonates (e.g. omphacite rims on diopside, Figs. 5a and b). The 462 carbonate isotopic composition presented in this work (Section 7) further supports the 463 hypothesis of fluid-mediated carbonate precipitation. All metasomatic marbles are composed 464 of Ca-carbonate (calcite after aragonite). This appears unlikely in the case of metamorphic 465 recrystallization of rocks containing significant whole rock Mg (Table S2). These 466 observations suggest that carbonate precipitation occurred via two concurrent processes of 467 fluid-rock interaction: crack-sealing (carbonation by volume increase, Section 3) and mineral 468 replacement (Section 5). Note that carbonation of mafic rocks during high-pressure 469 metamorphism was also suggested by Boundy et al. (2002) for eclogite-facies rocks from the 470 Lindås Nappe (Caledonides, Western Norway) and by Kleine et al. (2014) for blueschist-471 facies rocks from Syros. Both authors proposed carbonation of mafic eclogites along a shear 472 zone affected by fluid circulation. Similarly, Nishiyama (1990) proposed metamorphic 473 carbonation during exhumation of blueschist-facies metabasic rocks in association with 474 serpentinites in the Nishisonogi metamorphic complex (Japan).

Based on these observations, the metasomatic history of the Corsican eclogite-facies marbles
can be subdivided into two stages, both occurring at high-pressure conditions during
subduction.

Stage#1: calcic metasomatism of protolith metasedimentary rocks or continental basement
transforms metasediments in contact with serpentinites to Ca-Mg rocks dominantly composed
of diopside and lawsonite during prograde metamorphism (cf. Martin et al., 2011; Vitale
Brovarone et al., 2014).

482 *Stage#2*: carbon-bearing fluid reacts with the pre-existing diopside-lawsonite rock and 483 associated serpentinites leading to the precipitation of carbonate-dominated assemblages as 484 either crack-filling material, or by replacing silicate minerals. The metamorphic conditions for 485 this stage are constrained to high-pressure conditions by the assemblage aragonite + 486 omphacite + lawsonite + garnet that characterize several of the analyzed samples (P > 1.5 487 GPa at 450-500 °C), and supported by the estimated O isotope Ca-carbonate-omphacite 488 equilibrium T of ca. 500 °C.

489 8.2 Stable isotopes: marker of rock carbonation and fluid source?

490 Stable isotope geochemistry has provided important information for the study of high-491 pressure metasomatic processes involving carbonates (Valley 1986; Wang & Rumble 1999; Ague and Nicolescu, 2014; Galvez et al., 2013a,b). The trends of decreasing δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O 492 493 isotopic composition of the metamorphic carbonates may be attributed to: (i) inheritance of 494 protolith isotopic signatures (Wang and Rumble, 1999), (ii) carbonate-silicate isotopic 495 exchange; (iii) devolatilization reactions driven by increasing temperatures (Wang and 496 Rumble, 1999), or (iv) interaction with COH fluids (Ague and Nicolescu, 2014; Galvez et al., 497 2013a,b).

498 In this study, hypothesis (i) can be ruled out by comparison of the isotopic signature of 499 metasomatic marbles with calcschists far from the metasomatic zones. The reference calcschists have δ^{13} C values of ca. 0‰ and δ^{18} O of ca. 21‰ similar to those of calcschists and 500 carbonate veins (for similar metamorphic conditions) in Alpine Corsica (Cartwright and 501 502 Buick, 2000; Miller et al., 2001), Western Alps (Cartwright and Barnicoat, 1999; Cook-503 Kollars et al., 2014), and Cyclades (Ague and Nicolescu, 2014) (Fig. 7a). The metasomatic marble δ^{13} C values are shifted toward heavier values, although still overlapping the 504 compositional range of seawater carbonates, whereas δ^{18} O values display a much greater 505 506 dispersion towards lower values (Fig. 7a).

507 Partial silicate-carbonate oxygen isotope exchange (hypothesis ii) is an alternative way to explain low $\delta^{18}O$ (with almost no change in $\delta^{13}C$). We discard this scenario for two 508 509 reasons. 1) At temperatures of 500°C, isotopic exchange by diffusion between two solid 510 phases is expected to be very slow and thus restricted to grain margins. 2) Even if interface-511 coupled dissolution precipitation allowed faster isotopic exchange (Putnis and John, 2010), the δ^{18} O achieved in the carbonate after such equilibration should be correlated with the 512 silicate content (the lowest δ^{18} O being observed for the highest silicate content; Wang and 513 514 Rumble 1999; Cook-Kollars et al. 2014). Figure 7b shows that no correlation exists between the δ^{18} O of carbonate and the silicate content in the rock. 515

As a test for the third hypothesis, the metasomatic marbles are compared with carbonates that have experienced devolatilization reactions. Carbonates in skarns formed by contact metamorphism are characterized by a strong decrease of δ^{13} C coupled with a smaller δ^{18} O decrease during decarbonation (e.g. Valley 1986). The trend observed in Corsican metasomatic marbles of δ^{18} O decreasing with δ^{13} C remaining constant is actually different from a devolatilization trend (Fig. 7c). 522 Considering the compelling evidences for fluid-rock interactions and metasomatism, interactions between rocks and COH fluids (hypothesis iv) is considered the most likely 523 524 hypothesis. Galvez et al. (2013b) reported carbonate reduction to graphite in contact with serpentinites in the high-pressure units of Alpine Corsica. In this study, carbonates display a 525 peculiar variation showing a decreasing δ^{18} O coupled with increasing δ^{13} C. Residual 526 527 carbonate in samples affected by carbonate dissolution driven by serpentinite-derived fluids 528 described by Ague and Nicolescu (2014) show a drop in oxygen isotopic signature compared to the protolith (6 to 10% lower values). However, changes in δ^{13} C are very small, with only 529 530 a 1.5‰ decrease. Both carbonate precipitation and dissolution seem to be characterized by a large decrease in δ^{18} O and little to no change in δ^{13} C (Fig. 7c; cf. Section 8.3 for additional 531 discussion). The δ^{13} C values of metasomatic marbles are similar to those typical of carbonates 532 in marine sediments (e.g. Hoefs, 2013) and subducted oceanic suites (δ^{13} C close to 0%; e.g. 533 534 Miller et al., 2001), thus indicating that carbon in the fluids derives from marine carbonates, likely from the overlying carbonate-bearing metasedimentary rocks. The low δ^{18} O values 535 536 rather point to fluids equilibrated with silicates in mafic or ultramafic rocks, possibly 537 including Stage#1 metasomatic rocks (Miller et al., 2001; Martin et al., 2014; Vitale 538 Brovarone et al., 2014; Angiboust et al., 2014). The large serpentinite body in contact with 539 the rocks of this study would represent a plausible source for aqueous fluid with a light 540 oxygen signature. Despite the lack of evidence for serpentinite dehydration (e.g. metamorphic olivine) in the samples from Alpine Corsica, a growing number of studies (Faccenda 2014; 541 542 Wilson et al., 2014) have proposed that fluids generated at depth can move up along the plate interface and interact with shallower slab-forming rocks. Ague and Nicolescu (2014) 543 proposed that fluid equilibrated with mafic and ultramafic rocks can drive stoichiometric 544 carbonate dissolution, resulting in aqueous fluid enriched in carbon with δ^{13} C around 0‰. 545 546 However, if fluids were diluted, the contribution of oxygen from dissolved carbonates to the 547 oxygen isotopic signature of the fluid is expected to be very low. The preservation of 548 lawsonite requires very low X_{CO2} fluid concentrations (X_{CO2} <0.005; e.g. Nitsh, 1972), 549 demonstrating that the carbon-bearing fluid was dominantly aqueous. Altogether, these 550 considerations point to metasomatic marbles formation by interaction with aqueous fluids 551 bringing isotopic signatures of both dissolved carbonates and mafic/ultramafic reservoirs.

552

553 8.3 Rock carbonation during subduction: implications for the deep carbon cycle

554 The behavior of carbonate, more specifically Ca-carbonate, during subduction has long been a 555 matter of debate. Few experimental studies of Ca-carbonate solubility in H₂O have been 556 conducted at P-T conditions appropriate for subduction metamorphism (Walther and Long, 557 1986; Fein and Walther, 1989; Newton and Manning, 2002; Caciagli and Manning, 2003; 558 Manning et al., 2013; Facq et al., 2014). Caciagli and Manning (2003) showed that calcite 559 solubility increases with P and T at high-pressure conditions. Ca-carbonate dissolution at 560 high-pressure conditions has been demonstrated to be very efficient in natural environments 561 (P > -2 GPa, Frezzotti et al., 2011; Ague and Nicolescu, 2014), and it is now considered as a562 major process for the mobilization of carbon in subduction zones (Kelemen & Manning, 563 2015). Carbonic fluids produced by carbonate dissolution are thus a potential source of 564 carbon for carbonate precipitation in subduction zones. Figure 8a shows a rough carbon 565 fluxes mass balance (see Section 4.3 for method of carbon fluxes calculation) considering 566 carbon bound by rock carbonation in metasomatic marbles vs. the amount of carbon dioxide 567 released by dissolution and devolatilization reactions estimated in previous field-based studies 568 in analog geological settings (Ague and Nicolescu, 2014; Cook-Kollars et al., 2014). The 569 amount of CO₂ released by decarbonation (green and orange bars) is small compared to that 570 released by dissolution (blue bar). Consequently, processes related to carbonate solubility

571 mobilize carbon in greater quantities than simple decarbonation reactions (Ague and 572 Nicolescu, 2014). A possible explanation for this result is that devolatilization reactions are 573 controlled and limited by the presence of silicate phases with which the carbonate minerals 574 can react, regardless of the fluid fluxes. The red bar in the diagram indicates the inferred 575 amount of CO₂ transferred from the fluid to the rock by rock carbonation, considering an 576 initial carbon content of 0 g per 100g of precursor rock. The amount of carbon bound per 577 100g of rock is directly comparable with that released by carbonate dissolution. This 578 observation suggests that a large amount of dissolved carbon can be re-bound into the solid 579 phase by rock carbonation, and that carbonate dissolution and rock carbonation at high-580 pressure conditions are both crucial processes controlling carbon fluxes during subduction.

581 Slab-parallel ascent of fluids may represent a suitable configuration to enhance the efficiency 582 of rock-carbonation reactions, if favorable conditions occur (Lazar et al., 2014; Kelemen and 583 Manning, 2015; Sverjensky et al., 2014). Figure 8b shows the Ca-carbonate solubility in 584 aqueous fluid as a function of P and T (after Kelemen & Manning 2015) along with the 585 predicted P-T path for cold subduction (after Syracuse et al., 2010). Deep metamorphic fluids 586 ascending parallel to the downgoing slab would cut across the solubility curves during their 587 ascent. Although prediction of fluid slab-parallel ascent by numerical modeling is still limited 588 (e.g. Faccenda, 2014; Wilson et al., 2014), natural samples from high-pressure (this study) 589 and ultrahigh-pressure exhumed metamorphic terrains may preserve records of the 590 interactions of deep-fluids with the slab-forming rocks. In this study, it is shown how major 591 lithological interfaces (e.g. crust-metasediments) may represent ideal settings for fluid 592 channelization. In addition, the data presented here also show that Ca-Mg-rich rocks 593 (diopside-rich) and ultramafic rocks are reactive lithologies for rock carbonation at high-594 pressure conditions.

595 Interaction between slab-derived fluids and mantle-wedge rocks also represents a 596 possible lithological configuration for rock carbonation. High amounts of carbonic fluids 597 resulting from slab carbonate dissolution are expected to percolate through the mantle wedge, 598 where ultramafic rocks may represent a suitable reactant (Kelemen and Manning 2015). 599 Based on the current knowledge of processes occurring along the plate interface (e.g. 600 Syracuse et al., 2010), carbonation of the hydrated mantle wedge overlying subducting slabs 601 seems unlikely in the case of vertical upward migration (rising T), whereas it is more 602 plausible along the slab-mantle interface (decreasing T). Exhumation of cold serpentinite 603 diapirs in forearc settings may also be a possible environment for rock carbonation (Fryer, 604 1992). Future studies on rocks ascribed to the mantle wedge are needed to test this hypothesis.

605 9. Conclusions

606 The petrological and geochemical results of this study indicate that the Corsican eclogite-607 facies marbles found along major fluid conduits have a metasomatic origin and were formed 608 at high-pressure conditions during subduction. These rocks formed by carbonation of Ca-Mg 609 silicate rocks by percolating carbonic fluids (Fig. 9). This implies that carbonic fluids formed 610 during prograde carbonate dissolution may not be directly and fully transferred to the mantle 611 wedge, but can also flow along slab interfaces (i.e. crust-metasediments) and reprecipitate 612 carbonates under favorable conditions in both slab- and mantle-forming rocks. Carbonates 613 precipitating from these fluids then display a characteristic geochemical and isotopic 614 signature. Therefore, carbonation of Ca-Mg silicate rocks at high-pressure-low temperature 615 conditions can be an efficient process to lock carbon in the rock, as is well documented at 616 shallow and seafloor conditions (Guyot et al., 2011; Matter and Kelemen, 2009). The 617 widespread occurrence of these rocks in the units of Alpine Corsica is likely a consequence of 618 the overall exceptional preservation of pristine high-pressure-low temperature assemblages in 619 this belt. This suggests that analogous rocks and processes may have occurred in more

retrogressed high-pressure belts, such as the Western Alps, the Cyclades and Turkey, and maybe happening today in present-day subduction zones as well.

622 Whether or not high-pressure rock carbonation permanently binds carbon in the rock 623 cannot be easily established at present. For example, high-pressure carbonated rocks can 624 experience successive carbonate dissolution in deeper parts of subduction zones. Nonetheless, 625 carbonation of slab- and mantle-forming rocks (Fig. 9) likely modulates the residence time of 626 carbon in different reservoirs, and can modify the oxygen and carbon isotopic signature of carbonates in subduction zones. Considering a longer time-scale perspective (e.g. time 627 628 elapsed from subduction initiation to continental collision), carbonation at high-pressure 629 conditions may ultimately influence the fluctuation of CO₂ emissions at volcanic arcs during 630 the life of a subduction zone, and thereby the fluctuation of atmospheric CO₂ over geological 631 time scales (e.g. Berner & Kothavala, 2001).

632

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832 Figure Captions

Fig.1: Geological background of the study area. a) Simplified regional setting of Alpine Corsica (France) in the
Western Mediterranean region. Modified after Molli and Malavieille (2011). b) Simplified tectono-stratigraphic
map of Alpine Corsica. The black box indicates the position of the study area. c) Simplified geological map of
the San Petrone unit. Figures modified after Vitale Brovarone et al. (2013).

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Fig. 2: simplified structural sketch summarizing the field relationships between the different rock types and the
location of the study samples. The star refers to metasomatic marbles formed at the expense of former
serpentinites.

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842 Fig. 3: Representative textural features of metasomatic marble in the field. a) Crack-seal texture in a 843 metasomatic marble lens located in the metasomatic rind formed along the continental basement-serpentinite 844 contact. Dashed lines mark the schistosity in the host rock and the orientation of the remains of the host rock in 845 the carbonate-rich domain (see detail in b). Note that the silicate layers are deflected toward the carbonate vein. 846 b) Detail of carbonate layers containing rod-shaped aragonite pseudomorphs alternating with vein-parallel bands 847 of wallrock inclusions. c) Interdigitation of rod-shape carbonate with Stage#1 diopside-lawsonite rock. d) 848 Carbonate+omphacite vein cutting across Stage#1 diopside+lawsonite rock. The black dotted line marks the vein 849 wall and the green area overdrawn marks the selvage extension. e) and f) Photograph and related interpretative 850 sketch of a hydraulic breccia (types defined by Jébrak 1997) consisting of angular clasts of diopside+lawsonite 851 rock (Stage#1 metasomatism) sealed by a network of veins containing rod-shaped carbonate crystals. g and h) 852 Outcrop with high carbonate/silicate ratio and corresponding sketch. Rounded chunks of Stage#1 diopside-853 lawsonite rock float in a carbonate matrix. Microtextures in the carbonate-rich domains suggest digestion and 854 chemical replacement of Stage#1 silicates by carbonate. Di=diospide; Lws=lawsonite.

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856 Fig. 4: Progressive transformation of a precursor Stage#1 carbonate-free, diopside-lawsonite rock into a Stage#2 857 metasomatic marble. a) Stage#2 metasomatic marble cropping out along the serpentinite-metasediment contact. 858 The marble (grey) is interdigitated with the host Stage#1 diopside-lawsonite rock (green). The foliation of the 859 diopsode-lawsonite rock (dashed line) can be followed in the carbonate layer. b) Thin section scan showing the 860 interdigitation texture of silicate and carbonate layers analogous to that documented at the outcrop scale in part 861 (a). Different degrees of carbonation are observed. White boxes indicate the location of the photomicrographs c, 862 d and e. c) Plane polarized light photomicrograph and corresponding sketch of the preserved portion of the 863 metasomatic diopside + lawsonite protolith; fan-shape diopside and lawsonite crystals statically crystallized. d) 864 Plane polarized light photomicrograph and corresponding sketch of the patchy distribution of carbonate pods 865 that characterizes a partially carbonated domain. Here, Stage#1 diopside aggregates are cut by the carbonate and 866 some fragments are preserved as relicts in carbonate layers. e) Plane polarized light photomicrograph and 867 corresponding sketch of a highly carbonated portion. Here the rock is transformed into a metasomatic marble; 868 prismatic carbonate crystals are well developed. A few remnants of Stage#1 diopside are preserved; these relicts 869 display embayed rims and atoll-like textures. In every sketch, Stage#1 diopside + lawsonite domains are 870 represented in green, whereas rod-shaped carbonate is in light beige. 871

872 Fig. 5: Backscattered electron (BSE) images obtained by SEM depicting micro scale textural relationships 873 resulting from fluid-rock interaction. a) BSE image of atoll-like Stage#1 diopside suggesting a digestion of a 874 silicate clast by carbonate; the Stage#1 diopsidic core is dissolved in favor of carbonate while a Stage#2 Na-Al 875 rich rim (omphacite) crystallized in textural equilibrium with the carbonate. Small fragments of diopside are 876 preserved as inclusions in carbonate crystals (red lines). b) BSE image of wallrock selvage shown in Figure 3d. 877 Diopside is overgrown by omphacite rim. Omphacite rims have the same composition as the vein infill 878 omphacite crystals (Table S1). c) Plane polarized light photomicrograph of diopside with aegirine-augite rim in 879 sample COR13-21d. Cal=calcite, Omp=omphacite, Di=diopside; Agt=aegirine-augite, Act=actinolite.

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Fig. 6: Whole-rock chondrite normalized REE patterns (CI values from Sun and McDonough, 1989) for metasomatic marbles (orange lines, see Fig. S3 for details), reference calcschist and ophicarbonate (solid and dashed black lines, respectively), and Stage#1 diopside + lawsonite metasomatic rock (solid green line). The shaded field represents the range of passive margin serpentinite whole-rock compositions (either actual or metamorphic equivalent of Tethyan ocean floor; data from Barnes et al., 2014; Kodolányi et al., 2012).

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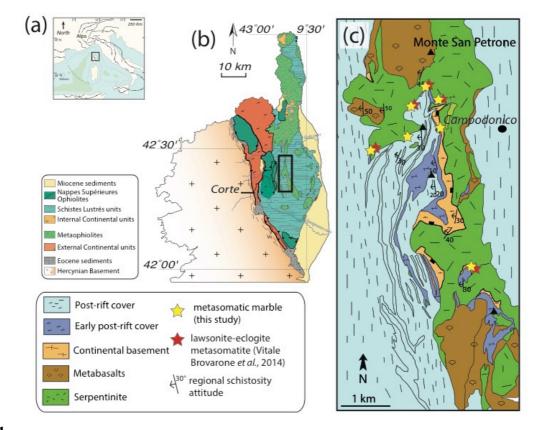
887 Fig. 7: Carbon and Oxygen stable isotopic analyses of calcite. a) Calcite δ^{13} C vs. δ^{18} O plot of metasomatic 888 marbles (this study), blueschist and eclogite-facies marbles and calcite veins from other studies (Ague and 889 Nicolescu, 2014; Cartwright and Buick, 2000; Cook-Kollars et al., 2014; Galvez et al., 2013b). Only data for 890 non-metasomatic calcschists in Ague and Nicolescu (2014) and Galvez et al. (2013b) are reported. b) The rock 891 silicate mineral content vs. calcite δ^{18} O values. The dispersion of data illustrates the lack of correlation between 892 the light O isotopic signature and the silicate content. Analyses of reference calcschists and ophicarbonate are 893 also reported. We plotted data for samples that were also analyzed for their bulk rock composition (samples 894 COR13-32; COR13-30a; COR13-21b; COR13-21d; COR13-27e; COR13-17c; COR13-22c; COR13-28c; Table 895 S3). c) Metasomatic marble and reference calcschists δ^{18} O vs. δ^{13} C plot. Shaded areas correspond to 896 geochemical trend of carbonate affected by devolatilization (Bowman et al., 2009; Gerdes et al., 1995, 1999), 897 and carbonate reduction (Galvez et al., 2013b). Isotopic composition of carbonates affected by carbonate 898 dissolution is also reported (blue diamonds, Ague and Nicolescu, 2014).

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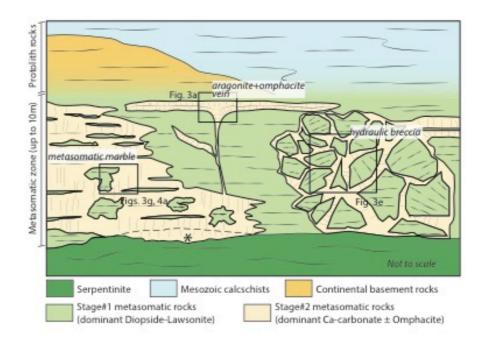
900 Fig. 8: Carbon fluxes during subduction metamorphism. a) Bar diagram reporting the estimation of grams of 901 CO₂ release per 100 g of precursor rock during carbonate dissolution (Ague and Nicolescu 2014, blue bar) and 902 decarbonation reactions (Cook-Kollars et al., 2014, calculation by Perple_X software and natural sample 903 estimation, green and orange bars respectively) and grams of CO_2 bound per 100 g of precursor rock via 904 carbonate precipitation (red bar, this study). b) Contours of [C] in parts per million for aqueous fluid saturated in 905 CaCO₃ as a function of P and T. The red arrow indicates the P-T path of Alpine Corsica (Vitale Brovarone et al., 906 2011a). The star corresponds to the $\Delta_{cal-omp}$ equilibrium temperature. The green field represents the predicted P-T 907 path for active subduction (D80 model, Syracuse et al., 2010). Figure adapted from Kelemen & Manning (2015). 908

Fig. 9: Schematic illustration showing the percolation of COH fluids parallel to the subducting slab. Thedecreasing T and consequent decrease in carbonate solubility along this ascent path together with the interaction

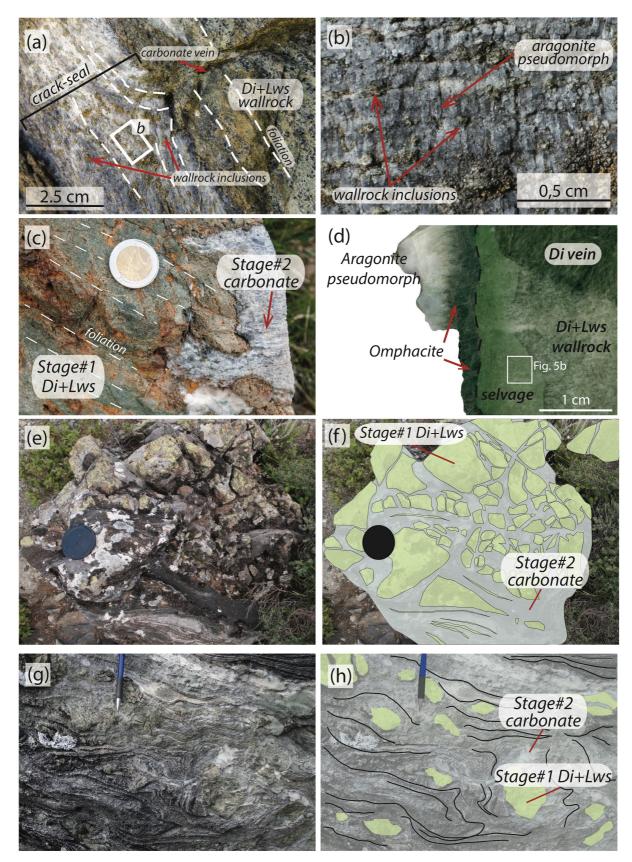
- 911 with slab or mantle rock is a suitable context for carbonate precipitation via vein injection and mineral 912 carbonation.
- 913
- 914 Table 1: Whole rock major element composition of metasomatic marble, Stage#1 diopside+lawsonite rock
- 915 (OF3598) and Stage#1 rock with lawsonite>70% (COE5)
- 916
- 917 Fig. S1: Raman spectrum of aragonite inclusion in garnet.
- 918 **Fig. S2:** picture showing a detail of an omphacite-calcite vein. Omphacite grows from the vein wall toward the 919 center.
- Fig. S3: Whole-rock chondrite normalized REE patterns (CI values from Sun and McDonough, 1989) for
 metasomatic marbles, reference calcschist and ophicarbonate (solid and dashed black lines, respectively), and
 Stage#1 diopside + lawsonite metasomatic rock (dashed blue line). The shaded field represents the range of
 passive margin serpentinite whole-rock compositions (either actual or metamorphic equivalent of Tethyan ocean
 floor; data from Barnes et al., 2014; Kodolányi et al., 2012).
- 925 **Table S1:** Representative clinopyroxene analyses.
- 926 Table S2: Whole rock composition of analyzed samples (major and selected trace elements). Analyses below
- 927 the lower detection limit are labeled "<d.l.". Values in wt.%.
- 928 Table S3: Stable isotopes analyses of calcite. Analyses made in duplicate.
- 929 Table S3.1: Stable oxygen isotopes analyses of clinopyroxenes, average value of calcite filling vein and 930 calculated equilibrium T.
- 931 **Table S4:** Representative garnet analyses.
- 932 **Table S5:** Representative amphibole, lawsonite, phengite, pumpellyite analyses.
- 933

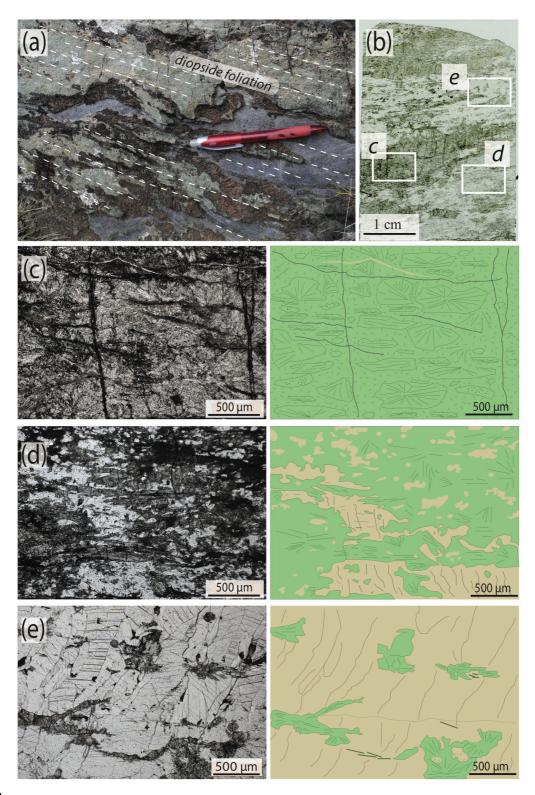


934 Fig. 1

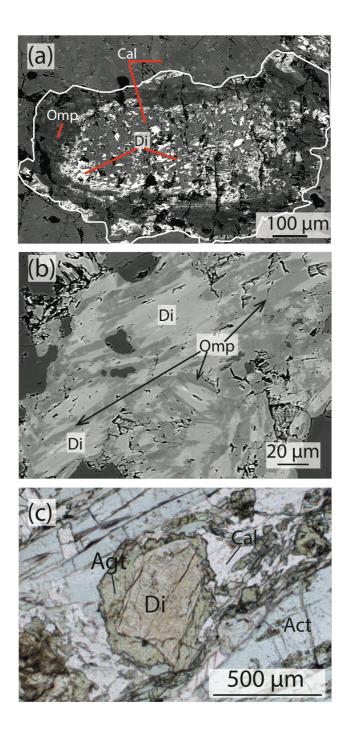


935 Fig. 2

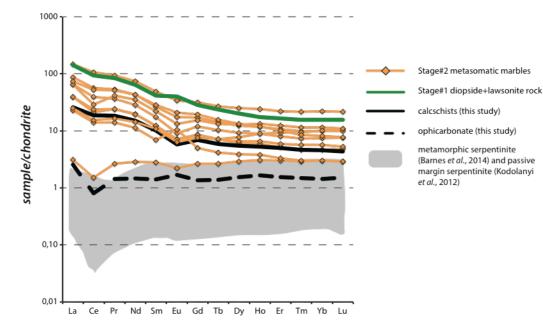


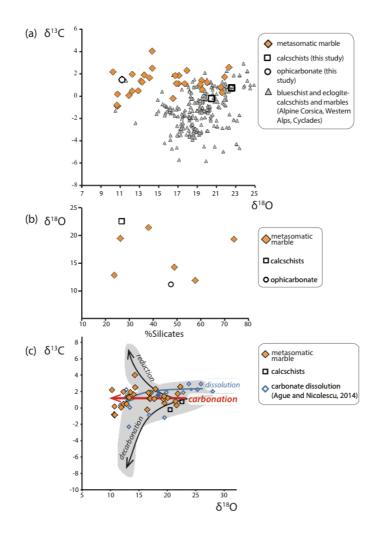


- 938 Fig. 4

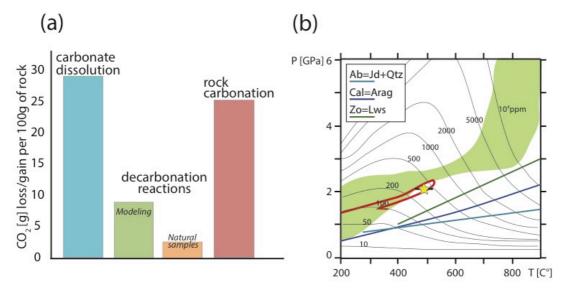


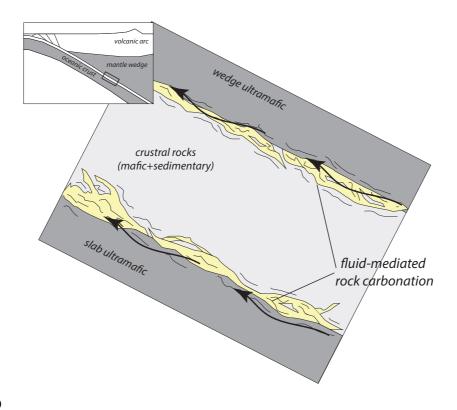






946 Fig. 7





949 Fig. 9

Sample	Metasomatic marble (n=4)	1σ	OF3598 ^a	COE5 ^b
			Stage#1 rock	
SiO2	20.44	5.65	45.30	40.6
Al2O3	4.97	2.94	15.11	25.6
Fe2O3	3.22	1.14	5.03	2.28
MnO	0.18	0.16	0.11	0.13
MgO	3.14	1.77	6.95	1.8
CaO	39.23	5.32	20.62	17.65
Na2O	0.92	0.95	0.47	0.51
K2O	0.12	0.16	0.01	0.24
TiO2	0.18	0.11	0.65	1.94
P2O5	0.09	0.04	0.11	0.41
LOI	27.05	5.12	5.57	7.94
Tot	99.54		99.94	99.10

Table 1: whole rock major element composition for metasomaticmarbles (see Table S2 for details), Stage#1 diopside-lawsonite rock(OF3598) and Stage#1 rock with lawsonite>70% (COE5).

^afrom Vitale Brovarone et al., 2014

^bfrom Martin et al., 2011