1	Forearc carbon sequestration reduces long-term volatile recycling into the mantle
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55 Summary:

56 Carbon and other volatiles are transported from Earth's surface into the 57 mantle at subduction margins. The efficiency of this transfer has profound 58 implications for the nature and scale of geochemical heterogeneities in Earth's deep 59 (mantle) and shallow (crustal) reservoirs, as well as Earth's oxidation state. However, 60 the proportion of volatiles released in the forearc and backarc are not well-61 constrained compared to fluxes from the volcanic-front. Here, we use helium and 62 carbon isotope data from deeply-sourced springs along two cross-arc transects to 63 show that ~91% of carbon released from the slab/mantle beneath the Costa Rica 64 forearc is sequestered within the crust by calcite deposition, and an additional ~3% is 65 incorporated into biomass through microbial chemolithoautotrophy. We estimate 66 that ~1.2 × 10⁸ to 1.3×10^{10} mol CO₂/yr are released from the slab beneath the 67 forearc, resulting in up to ~19% less carbon being transferred to Earth's deep mantle 68 than previously estimated.

69

70 Main Text:

71 Terrestrial carbon traverses various reservoirs on Earth from the surface to the 72 mantle. It is subjected to a number of geological, geochemical, and biological cycles, each 73 of which operates on vastly different temporal and spatial scales. Perhaps the most 74 important physical process linking the deep and shallow carbon cycles is subduction, 75 which transports both oxidized and reduced forms of crustal carbon into the mantle. 76 During subduction, volatile-rich fluids are released from the downgoing slab (upper 77 mantle and crust). These fluids are thought to migrate through the overlying mantle-78 wedge and crust, and are ultimately released across the forearc, volcanic arc-front and 79 backarc (i.e., behind the volcanic front). However, little is known about what effect 80 volatile fluxes through the forearc may have on the total volatile budget and estimates of 81 recycling efficiency¹. Much of the forearc subsurface is at low temperatures (<100°C) that 82 are conducive to microbial life as well as shallow water-rock interactions. Therefore,

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microorganisms and/or abiotic chemical processes may alter the speciation, isotopic
 composition, and presumed carbon budgets. Regional-scale effects of these shallow
 processes on volatile fluxes in the forearc have not previously been quantified.

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Carbon budgets for convergent margins typically assume negligible carbon
emissions from the area between the trench (i.e., where the downgoing slab subducts
beneath the overriding plate) and the degassing volcanic arc-front¹⁻³. It is not clear
whether the lack of obvious high emission sources reflects a lack of deep CO₂ input from
the slab-mantle mixture, or if secondary processes in the upper plate⁴⁻⁵ mask diffuse but
significant CO₂ release.

93

94 Carbon outputs at the Central American Volcanic Arc, which have been the focus 95 of several studies, are estimated to represent only 12% of the total subducted carbon input along the middle American trench^{2,6-7}, whereas global arcs typically have carbon 96 97 outputs that approach their inputs, suggesting limited volatile delivery to the mantle¹. 98 However, recent work⁸ proposed a far higher volcanic carbon flux for Central America, 99 suggesting that this region may be more similar to other arc segments¹ than previously 100 thought^{2,6}. Our study focuses on the Nicoya Peninsula area of Costa Rica in part because it 101 is one of the few places on Earth with easy sampling access to an on-land forearc region 102 and thus presents an opportunity to study the fate of carbon across an entire arc. Few 103 carbon flux estimates have been made from the forearc region of any arc, despite the fact 104 that there is plentiful ancillary evidence for fluid venting in forearc regions (e.g., 105 serpentinite diapirism in the Marianas⁹ and mud volcanism at various accretionary prisms 106 worldwide¹⁰), as well as ample geophysical evidence that shows fluid upwelling in the forearc region from the downgoing slab¹¹. In Costa Rica, the only available forearc data 107 108 are from three submarine venting sites³, where the authors estimated that the carbon 109 output from the outer forearc represents less than 1% of the carbon input at the trench. 110 Taking into account the loss at the volcanic-front, they proposed two explanations: either 111 subducted carbon was largely transported into the deep mantle or significant quantities

of carbon were lost to the forearc or backarc regions. Independently, thermodynamic

113 models of subduction predict significant CO_2 loss (i.e., decarbonation) from the top of the

114 subducting slab beneath global forearc regions¹², as the slab penetrates to greater

115 temperature and pressure conditions.

116

117 The extensive occurrence of calcite veining throughout the Costa Rica forearc¹³⁻¹⁴ 118 suggests that much of the CO₂ released from the slab beneath the forearc could be 119 sequestered into the crust as calcite, in which case direct measurements of diffuse 120 degassing in this region are not representative of deep mantle processes. Additional 121 mechanisms for masking CO_2 gas release in the upper plate include microbial biomass 122 production, conversion to CH₄, trapping in reservoirs beneath impermeable caps, and 123 abiotic organic matter synthesis. Calcite deposition results in a temperature dependent isotope fractionation and may be microbially mediated¹⁵⁻¹⁶ in cation-rich alkaline waters 124 with high aqueous CO₂ concentrations. Additionally, in the absence of light for 125 126 photosynthesis, microorganisms in subsurface settings instead fix CO₂ into biomass 127 through chemolithoautotrophy¹⁷⁻¹⁹. Both calcite deposition and chemolithoautotrophy 128 occur mostly at temperatures below 100°C, which are the prevalent conditions in the 129 forearc subsurface²⁰. Biologically induced carbon fixation generally results in a kinetic 130 fractionation of carbon isotopes that preferentially removes ¹²C from CO₂²¹. The degree of 131 fractionation depends on the microorganism's physiology, as well as substrate limitations, 132 temperature, and pressure. Biological activity can also decrease the carbon isotopic 133 composition (δ^{13} C) of CO₂, by adding ¹³C-depleted carbon through heterotrophic 134 respiration of organic matter or methane. This process is not associated with a large 135 carbon isotope fractionation²¹ relative to pure kinetic reactions driven solely by biological 136 processes. In addition, abiotic hydrocarbon production from dissolved CO_2 has been 137 demonstrated in laboratory experiments over 250°C²², a possible temperature regime in 138 hotter forearc regions.

139

140 He and C Results:

141 We collected samples from 23 sites in northern and central Costa Rica (Figure 1), 142 which traversed forearc (Nicoya Peninsula), arc and backarc regions. Springs likely to 143 represent deeply-sourced fluids (based on field data such as temperature, dissolved 144 oxygen, salinity) were targeted, and samples were taken by inserting tubes into outflow 145 vents to minimize fluid interaction with atmosphere and surface water. The sites were 146 classified into two groups: the northern transect samples, which were collected to the 147 north of the EPR-CNS on-land extension, and the Central transect samples, which were 148 collected to the south of this plate transition. The two groups, with the exception of 149 Santa Lucia, are separated by the on-land extension of a major transition in the 150 downgoing slab: the boundary between oceanic crust formed at the East Pacific Rise 151 (EPR) and the Cocos Nazca Spreading (CNS) zone. We measured ³He/⁴He vs. air, expressed as (R/R_A), where R = 3 He/ 4 He_{sample} and R_A = 3 He/ 4 He_{air}=1.39 × 10⁻⁶ for 17 152 153 geothermal fluid (i.e., spring water) samples and 17 free gas samples. In addition, we 154 measured δ^{13} C vs. Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) 155 in 31 geothermal fluid samples, dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in 16 fluid samples, and 156 CO_2 in 16 free gas samples (Supplementary Table 1). Sediments surrounding the surface 157 emanation of the springs were also sampled and total organic carbon (TOC) contents and δ^{13} C were measured. The relative abundances of He to CO₂ are also reported 158 159 $(CO_2/^{3}He; Extended Data Figure 1)$. The air-normalized $^{4}He/^{20}Ne$ ratio is used to 160 calculate the X-value, (multiplied by the Bunsen solubility (1.23) at the assumed 161 recharge temperature of 15°C²³ for fluid samples), which is used to estimate the aircorrected ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ ratio (R_c) of the sample²⁴. As X-values are high (>5) for the majority of 162 163 samples of this study (Extended Data Figure 2), the correction factor is small and hence 164 there is typically little difference between measured (R/R_A) and corrected (R_C/R_A) 165 ³He/⁴He ratios (Supplementary Table 1).

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167 The air-corrected ³He/⁴He (R_C/R_A) values range from 0.49 to 6.79 R_A 168 (Supplementary Table 1), with the highest values occurring in the volcanic arc and the 169 lowest occurring in the outer forearc. Arc values approach upper mantle values (~ 8 R_A),

170 however, they exhibit evidence for a small but discernible addition of radiogenic helium 171 at all locations. In contrast, outer forearc and forearc values are predominantly 172 radiogenic, with a small but distinct mantle contribution, suggesting these fluids are an 173 admixture of crustal fluids and deeply sourced volatiles likely with some influence of 174 shallow water-rock interaction. He-isotope values are systematically higher (i.e., more 175 mantle-like) in both fluids and gases close to the volcanic arc-front and lower toward the 176 trench (i.e., in the forearc; Figure 2A), showing that slab/mantle outgassing is not limited 177 to the arc-front, and occurs throughout the entire forearc. However, free CO₂ gas 178 (bubbling springs) was only detected within ~20km of the arc (Figure 2B). In the absence 179 of gas manifestations, we examined evidence for forearc carbon processing in dissolved 180 carbon from spring outflows.

181

182 The δ^{13} C and carbon content of DIC and DOC within spring fluids decrease 183 systematically trenchward across the entire arc (Figure 2B and Figure 3). Strikingly, 184 DIC values in northern and central Costa Rica follow distinct parallel trends (Figure 3), 185 which are not masked by site-dependent surface-derived organic material 186 heterogeneities, such as vegetation, degradation of photosynthetic organic matter 187 and/or surface water infiltration, indicating that the distribution of carbon in these 188 fluids results from deep subsurface phenomena. In contrast, TOC is heavily 189 influenced by surface detrital carbon and shows no apparent trend between 190 concentration and $\delta^{13}C$ in samples across the two transects. DIC and DOC define 191 Rayleigh distillation curves, with northern springs showing consistently higher δ^{13} C 192 for both DIC and DOC at a given DIC content. The parallel trends of decreasing δ^{13} C 193 with decreasing DIC are consistent with isothermal (~65°C) precipitation of 194 isotopically heavy calcite from forearc fluids (see methods for details), with generally 195 higher degrees of calcite precipitation observed closer to the trench. This model is 196 supported by water chemistry data; PhreeqC was used to show that all outer forearc 197 samples are strongly saturated with respect to calcite and thus would be predicted to 198 readily precipitate calcite (Supplementary Table 3). We present a model for calcite

199 precipitation that closely fits the observed data distribution (Figure 3), but requires a 200 more positive δ^{13} C value of the deep total dissolved carbon (DC = DIC+DOC) source 201 fluid (+5.0‰) released from the slab in northern Costa Rica than in central Costa Rica 202 (+0.5‰). Volcanic gases, which are presumed to represent the primary magmatic 203 fluid, show isotopically more negative values than dissolved carbon in the calculated 204 DIC endmember fluids, due to the additional isotopic fractionation associated with 205 dissolution of CO₂ gas into an aqueous fluid²⁵ (Figure 3). Importantly, the modeled 206 initial dissolved carbon values thus reflect both the isotopic composition of the 207 subduction fluids and a fractionation effect derived from CO₂ dissolution from source 208 gases²⁶⁻²⁷ (Figure 3). Our data suggest that surface carbon expressions across the 209 forearc are ultimately inherited from slab/mantle fluids, which are intricately linked 210 to the tectonics of the region, and modified by broadly coherent shallow processes.

211

212 **Origin of fluids:**

213 The observation that northern and central Costa Rica samples have markedly 214 different source fluid compositions suggests a relationship to the character of the 215 subducting slab. The northern EPR crust has a higher density of seamounts and is more permeable than the CNS crust²⁸. The higher resulting fluid flow through sub-216 217 seafloor basalts at the EPR cools, hydrates, and chemically weathers the plate²⁹. Building on previous models³⁰, we hypothesize that the higher fluid flow from this 218 219 water-rich downgoing slab flushes more carbon from the slab upward into the 220 overriding plate at shallower depths beneath the forearc, accounting for the greater 221 contributions of relatively ¹³C-enriched carbonates in our northern sample set. 222 Additionally, enhanced fluid circulation in the EPR crust likely promotes calcite 223 veining in the downgoing plate, potentially providing an additional source of heavy carbon³¹ in northern Costa Rica. Thus, the composition of the subducting slab is 224 225 expressed in surface-manifestations across the forearc. Our model predicts that source fluids from northern Costa Rica are more ¹³C-enriched than in central Costa 226 227 Rica (Figure 3). Both volcanic arc CO_2 and dissolved forearc carbon reflect a larger

228 carbonate contribution in northern Costa Rica, which is consistent with previous

229 observations in the volcanic arc which show an increased carbonate signal in

230 northern Costa Rica, which extends into Nicaragua^{30, 32-36}.

231

232 Importantly, the carbon isotope compositions of forearc springs can be used to 233 calculate the fraction of carbon lost through calcite deposition (see Figure 3 and 234 methods for details). Using the average δ^{13} C of the DC ($\delta^{13}C_{DC}$) of all the forearc springs 235 for each transect (northern = -8.8‰, central = -14.3‰) we find that 88% and 89% of the 236 total carbon released in the forearc is precipitated as calcite, respectively. Using the 237 average $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ of the outer forearc springs (i.e., Nicoya Peninsula only; northern = -238 14.4‰, central = -16.5‰) yields 95% and 92% of the total carbon precipitated as calcite, 239 for the northern and central transects, respectively. The close agreement between the 240 calculated fractions of total carbon lost to calcite is due to the fact that the Rayleigh 241 fractionation curves are steep at low δ^{13} C values (Figure 3). Thus, a large range in δ^{13} C 242 observed in the forearc corresponds to a relatively narrow range of calculated 243 fractionation (F) values (i.e., fraction of carbon remaining; Figure 3). We conclude that 244 91 ± 4% of forearc carbon is lost through calcite precipitation.

245

Measured DOC δ^{13} C values varied widely from -0.65 to -25.48‰ vs. VPDB, 246 247 with a mean value of -12.00%. Like DIC, the lowest values were observed in the outer forearc and the highest values were observed in the forearc, where values are 248 249 highly variable (Figure 2B and 2C). However, with the exception of one site in the 250 central region (Santa Lucia), DOC carbon isotope compositions and concentrations 251 strongly correlate with those of DIC (Figure 3), suggesting that DOC is produced from 252 deeply sourced fluids. Considering this, we propose a two-stage model whereby 91 ± 253 4% of the carbon released from the slab/mantle is consumed by calcite precipitation 254 and the remaining dissolved carbon is further fractionated by biological consumption. 255 Our model assumes a steady-state flux of deep (slab/mantle) fluids, which imparts 256 the carbon isotope signature of the slab into the upper plate where carbon is

257 partitioned into CO₂ gas, calcite, DIC, and DOC. DOC is potentially a mixture of deep 258 thermogenic DOC, deep microbial chemolithoautotrophy, and shallow 259 photosynthetic DOC. The outlier DOC sample, Santa Lucia, is likely dominated by 260 deep thermogenic DOC, due to the fact that it has an anomalously high DOC 261 concentration (5.69mmolC/L), δ^{13} C value (-0.65‰), and polycyclic aromatic 262 hydrocarbon concentrations (Supplementary Table 2), accompanied by a pronounced 263 visible oily sheen on the surface fluids. In all other sampling sites, DOC is likely 264 synthesized from DIC at physiologically feasible temperatures in the subsurface 265 rather than being a mixture of exogenous sources, since its concentrations and δ^{13} C 266 values correlate tightly with DIC.

267

268 DIC and DOC carbon isotopes are offset from each other by 10.9 ± 1.6‰ in 269 the north, and 5.8 ± 2.2‰ in the central region (Figure 3); these $\Delta^{13}C_{DIC-DOC}$ values are 270 within the expected range for the reverse tricarboxylic cycle, which is a common microbial carbon fixation pathway in the subsurface 17,37 . The $\Delta^{13}C_{DIC-DOC}$ values are 271 272 also consistent with isotopic fractionation of hydrocarbons synthesized abiotically 273 from DIC at 250°C²². However, calcite precipitation occurs at ~65°C, and DOC 274 synthesis must occur after calcite precipitation for DOC carbon isotope compositions 275 to correlate with the post-precipitation DIC values. Therefore most of the DOC 276 appears to be derived from subsurface chemolithoautotrophy at <65°C. This is 277 further supported by the detection of microbial cells in all hot spring fluids except Las 278 Hornillas. We conclude that DOC at the remaining sites is primarily synthesized from 279 chemolithoautotrophy within the deep subsurface environment and that 280 slab/mantle-derived carbon is used by microorganisms to build biomass. By using cell 281 abundance values for the sampled subsurface fluids, we estimate that up to 2.8×10^9 282 moles of additional carbon could be locked into biomass in the Costa Rican forearc, 283 potentially contributing significantly to the overall carbon sink.

284

285 These findings have major implications for the global carbon mass balance of 286 subduction zones. We calculate a CO_2 flux from the forearc (Supplementary Table 4) by 287 combining the average DIC concentration in forearc waters of 4.24 mmol/L CO₂ with 288 measured flow rates, which ranged between 1-10 L/s and an estimated 50-500 springs³⁸ 289 throughout the forearc region. We further consider that 5-50 of these springs have a 290 separate gas phase, with measured CO₂ fluxes of 201 mol \times m⁻² \times d⁻¹ to 655 mol \times m⁻² \times 291 d⁻¹, and bubbling areas that typically cover 1 m² to 10 m² based on our field 292 observations. Using these broad criteria, the steady-state CO₂ flux is constrained to 7.1 × 293 10^{6} to 7.9 × 10^{8} mol/yr (mean = 4.0×10^{8}), which is two orders-of-magnitude smaller than the volcanic-arc flux $(1.3-6.1 \times 10^{10} \text{ mol/yr})^{2,8}$. As argued above, carbon isotopes 294 295 indicate that forearc calcite deposition and chemolithoautotrophy together remove 296 $^{94\%}$ of the total carbon inputs. This increases the flux range that we calculate to 1.2 imes 10^8 to 1.3×10^{10} mol/yr, which is significantly larger than the previous outer forearc 297 298 estimate of 2.1×10^7 mol/yr, determined using a smaller number of submarine seeps³. This represents up to 36% of the total volcanic-arc flux (= $3.7 \times 10^{10} \pm 66\%$ mol/yr; taken 299 as the mean of previous CO₂ flux estimates from references^{2,8}; Figure 4; Supplementary 300 301 Table 4), which would result in a ~19% reduction in the amount of total carbon 302 transported to the deep mantle. Similarly, dissolved CH₄ concentrations and CH₄/CO₂ in 303 sampled fluids are used to constrain the CH₄ flux from 5.1×10^3 to 1.0×10^6 mol/yr. 304 Thus, CH₄ emissions contribute negligibly to the total forearc C budget.

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306 Implications for evolution of Earth Reservoirs:

307 Our results suggest that significantly less carbon is transported into Earth's 308 mantle than previous estimates suggest¹, due to the previously unrecognized calcite 309 forearc carbon sink. This observation has wide ranging implications for the volatile 310 inventory of the mantle and the temporal evolution of Earth reservoirs, which controls 311 the planet's redox balance³⁹⁻⁴¹. For example, the nature (reduced vs. oxidized carbon) 312 and extent of carbon reaching the mantle is intricately linked to volatile recycling, and 313 impacts the net oxidation state of Earth's surface and deep interior. Furthermore, we

314 propose that carbon sequestration in the forearc may be directly related to plate 315 subduction angle, which dictates the extent of forearc. Globally, flat subduction zones 316 represent only about 10% of total subduction zones⁴², which would indicate that 317 approximately 2% less carbon than previously estimated is currently delivered to the 318 deep mantle. However, such a carbon sink may have been enhanced during the late 319 Archean, when oceanic crust was subducted at an anomalously low-angle⁴³. Notably, 320 evidence for the so-called Archean flat-subduction is preserved in most late Archean 321 (3.0–2.5 Ga) terrains, but is lacking in the early Archean (>3.3 Ga). If carbon was stored 322 overwhelmingly on continental (or island arc) margins, then continental collisions and 323 continental arc flare-ups would be the most important regulator of atmospheric CO₂ 324 through time. During the Proterozoic, subduction zones were dominated by high dip angles and smaller forearcs⁴⁴, enabling volatiles to be more efficiently transferred into 325 326 deep mantle, as the forearc carbon sink would likely be less significant and transfer to 327 the mantle would be more efficient. A more efficient transfer of reduced carbon to the 328 mantle could then lead to enhanced accumulation of oxygen in the atmosphere over 329 time. Thus, this work provides potential forcing mechanisms on the great oxygenation 330 event, which was certainly controlled in part by subduction efficiency and plate tectonics⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷. In addition, these findings also have implications for the modern 331 332 atmosphere, as better constraints on the long-term volcanic carbon budget and how it 333 may be buffered by chemical and biological processes is critical for evaluating natural 334 and anthropogenic climate forcings.

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576 Author contributions:

577 P.H.B. originally conceived the idea for the project, was lead-PI on the Sloan (Deep 578 Carbon Observatory) grant that supported the work, and prepared the first draft of 579 the manuscript. J.M.dM., D.G., and K.G.L. were all co-PIs on the grant and 580 contributed immensely (and equally) to modeling these data and to the writing 581 process. M.S. contributed significantly to modeling and writing, although he was not 582 a co-PI on the Sloan grant. D.H., T.L. and C.A.P. were co-PIs on the Sloan grant and 583 contributed to the writing process. Noble gas analysis was conducted in the 584 laboratory of C.J.B. at Oxford. T.P.F. and D.R.H. are senior PIs who first brought P.H.B. 585 and J.M.dM. to Costa Rica as PhD students, and were instrumental in the conception 586 of this project. In addition, a portion of the data reported in this contribution was 587 generated from those early expeditions. All other authors (listed alphabetically) 588 provided comments on the manuscript and either assisted in sample collection (as 589 part of the Biology Meets Subduction team or on previous expeditions) and/or 590 analyzed samples in their respective laboratories.

591

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- 596

Figure 1 – Map of the northwest coast of Costa Rica. Northern sites (blue) and central
sites (orange) as well as the plate boundary between the East Pacific Rise (EPR) crust
and Cocos Nazca spreading center (CNS) crust, and the Quesada Sharp Contortion (QSC)
are shown. Sample distances to trench (Supplementary Table 1) were calculated as the

601 distance of a line segment extending from the sample location, along the angle of

convergence, to the plate boundary⁴⁸. Red-tipped triangles are volcanoes Orosí, Rincón
dela Vieja, Miravalles, Tenorio, Arenal, Platanar, Poás, Barva, Turrialba, and Irazú, from
north to south. Thin lines are depth to slab in 20km intervals⁴⁹. Background data from
GeoMapApp (http://www.geomapapp.org)⁵⁰.

606

607 **Figure 2A** – Helium isotopes $({}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He})$ vs. distance from trench. The plot shows a 608 decrease in ³He/⁴He trenchward, suggesting that there is pervasive deep slab/mantle 609 degassing occurring across the entire arc, even though free CO₂ gas is absent. **2B** – 610 carbon concentrations (as indicated by circle size) and δ^{13} C of CO₂ gas, dissolved 611 inorganic carbon (DIC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and total organic carbon in 612 sediments surrounding the surface emanation of the springs (sTOC) are shown vs. 613 distance from trench and subduction zone section (C) in order to show the full range 614 in data. These "bubble plots" show that there is a corresponding decrease in carbon 615 concentrations and δ^{13} C values of DIC and DOC trenchward, and no change in 616 concentrations and δ^{13} C values of TOC.

617

618Figure 3 – Carbon isotopes as a function of DIC concentrations for northern (blue)619and central (orange) DIC (filled symbols), along with isotope fractionation model in620solid lines. DOC δ^{13} C values (open markers) as well as DOC concentrations (inset)621correlate with those of DIC. For clarity, Santa Lucia (5.69 mmol/L DOC) is not included622in inset. Values for arc gases (T ≥ boiling; plotted at 0% C sequestered as calcite)623represent an endpoint of CO2 concentration and δ^{13} C, offset from DIC by the

624 fractionation from gas to aqueous phase.

625

626 **Figure 4A**– Box model showing the carbon inputs⁸ in the Costa Rica Forearc.

627 Estimated inputs are from sediments, altered oceanic crust and serpentinized mantle

628 via subduction. Estimated outputs are show for the forearc (this study) and the $arc^{2,8}$,

- as well as predicted transport to the deep mantle (inputs minus outputs). **4B** Inset
- 630 box model showing endmember carbon isotopic values into the forearc following

631 release from the slab/mantle. The model shows fluid pathways and associated

632 fractionation as calcite forms, with approximately 91% of total carbon released in the

633 forearc sequestered as calcite. The remaining dissolved carbon (DC) is isotopically

634 depleted and partitioned into dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and dissolved organic

635 carbon (DOC).

636

637 Methods:

638 Sample collection and analysis:

639 In 2017, fluid and gas samples were collected across two transects of the 640 Costa Rican Arc (Figure 1), with pH ranging from 0.9-10.0 and temperatures ranging 641 from 23-89°C. Fluid and gas samples were collected in evacuated glass flasks and Cutubes using standard collection procedures⁵¹, whereby precautions were taken to 642 minimize any possible air contamination²⁷. Gas and fluids samples (n=24) from 2017 643 644 are accompanied by addition (n=17) samples collected during reconnaissance field 645 campaigns in 2008, 2010 and 2012. He and C isotope data from the initial 646 reconnaissance field campaigns were produced in the Fluids and Volatiles Laboratory 647 at Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO), whereas data from 2017 are from

648 Oxford (He-isotopes) and Tokyo Institute for Technology (C-isotopes).

649

650 Samples were collected over several field campaigns; however, all samples 651 were collected during the dry season in an effort to minimize seasonal effects 652 (Supplementary Table 1). Considering this, the data from the various labs are in good 653 agreement. For example, fluids were collected at the Sabana Grande site in 2008, 654 2010 and again in 2017; C-isotope values of -12.69‰ (2017; Japan) agree well with -655 12.75‰ (2008; SIO), -12.79‰ (2008; SIO) and -13.43‰ (2012; SIO). He-isotope 656 values for this site were 2.66 ± 0.13 R_A (2017; Oxford), 0.60 ± 0.03 R_A (2008; SIO) and 657 1.04± 0.11 R_A (2012: SIO), all indicate an admixture of radiogenic and mantle derived 658 gases. Notably, there is not thought to be a discernable cosmogenic component in 659 subduction-related fluids, as ³He outputs greatly exceed input parameters⁶. Also,

660 much too little interplanetary dust particles is available to sustain the flux required. 661 See Trull 1994. Also, high diffusivity of He in most low-T minerals is important. When 662 considering the reproducibility of He isotope measurements, it is essential to 663 consider the amount of air contamination in a given sample, which is estimated using 664 the relative amount of He and Ne, expressed as the X-value (⁴He/²⁰Ne normalized to 665 air). At Sabana Grande, the most pristine sample (highest X-value) yielded the highest 666 He isotope value of 2.66 R_A (Extended Data Figure 2). Helium isotopes were also 667 measured in samples collected at the Pueblo Antiguo site in 2010 (SIO), 2012 (SIO) 668 and 2017 (Oxford), and in the two samples with high X-values (>5), the He isotopes 669 measured at different laboratories are within analytical error (Oxford, 2017 = $4.34 \pm$ 670 $0.22 R_A$ and SIO, $2010 = 4.51 \pm 0.11 R_A$).

671

Gas and water samples from the 2008, 2010 and 2012 campaigns were analyzed
at SIO for helium and carbon isotopes using instrumentation and protocols described
previously^{2,7,52}. All samples were extracted on a dedicated preparation line with a
fraction of the non-condensable gas (containing He and Ne) captured in a 1720-glass
breakseal. All CO₂ was condensed into a Pyrex breakseal following separation from
water vapor, non-inert gases (N₂, CO, CH₄) and heavy noble gases (Ar, Kr and Xe).

Helium and neon analyses were carried out on a MAP-215 noble gas mass spectrometer SIO. First, the gas was released from the breakseal and prepared for analysis using a series of traps, held at liquid nitrogen temperature, and active-gas getters. Helium was separated from neon using a helium-cooled refrigeration stage interfaced to a trap lined with activated charcoal. All sample ³He/⁴He ratios were normalized to standard aliquots of air processed and analyzed under identical conditions.

686

687 Carbon dioxide was purified at SIO on a dedicated line using a variable
 688 temperature trap designed to separate CO₂ from sulfur-bearing species. Following

689 cleanup, the amount of CO₂ was measured using a capacitance gauge manometer in a 690 calibrated volume, prior to freezing an aliquot of the CO₂ in a Pyrex breakseal. For 691 isotope analysis, the CO₂ aliquot was inlet into a Thermo-Finnigan Delta XP^{Plus} Isotope 692 Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS). Carbon isotopes on gas samples from the 2017 693 campaign were analyzed at Universidad Nacional on a Picarro G2201-I by acidification of 694 NaOH solutions extracted from Giggenbach bottle samples. $\delta^{13}C_{PDB}$ values were 695 calibrated against a set of 8 standards with values ranging from + 2.42 % to -37.21%, 696 including internationally accepted standards NBS19 and Carrara Marble. Reported delta 697 values have uncertainties of <0.1 ‰ based on repeat analyses of standards and samples. 698

699 Noble gas analysis was also conducted in the Noble Laboratory at the University 700 of Oxford (2017 samples), using a dual mass spectrometer setup, interfaced to a 701 dedicated extraction and purification system⁵³. Gases were collected in Cu-tubes, and 702 then transferred to the extraction and purification line where reactive gases were 703 removed by exposing gases to a titanium sponge held at 950 °C. The titanium sponge 704 was cooled for 15 minutes to room temperature before gases were expanded to a dual 705 hot (SAES GP-50) and cold (SAES NP-10) getter system, held at 250 °C and room 706 temperature, respectively. A small aliquot of gases was segregated for preliminary 707 analysis on a Hiden Analytical HAL-200 quadrupole mass spectrometer. All noble gases 708 were then concentrated using a series of cryogenic traps; heavy noble gases (Ar-Kr-Xe) 709 were frozen down at 15 K on an all SS finger and the He and Ne were frozen down at 19 710 K on a cold finger filled with charcoal. The temperature on the charcoal finger was then 711 raised to 34 K to release only He, which was inlet into a Helix SFT mass spectrometer. 712 Following He analysis, the temperature on the charcoal cryogenic trap was raised to 90 713 K to release Ne, which was inlet into an ARGUS VI mass spectrometer.

714

Water samples for carbon isotope analysis (2017 samples) of dissolved inorganic
 carbon (DIC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were collected by 50-mL syringes and
 filtered by connecting membrane syringe filters with a pore size of 0.20 μm (DISMIC–

718 25AS; Advantec Toyo Kaisha, Tokyo, Japan) and syringe needle. Then filtered water was 719 directly injected to the pre-vacuumed 50-mL serum bottle sealed with butyl rubber 720 septa and an aluminum crimp. The subsampled water (10 mL) for DIC measurement 721 from each water sample of 50-mL sealed vials by nitrogen gas and transferred to a pre-722 vacuumed 30-mL glass vial sealed with butyl rubber septa and an aluminum crimp. DIC 723 concentrations and their δ^{13} C values were measured using CO₂ in the headspace of glass 724 vials after a 1-h reaction with injected 0.5mL H₃PO₄. DOC were also measured CO₂ in the 725 headspace after the reaction of carbonate-free residue with 0.2 g sodium persulfate. 726 The amount of CO₂ and the isotopic values were measured using a Agilent 6890N gas 727 chromatograph attached to a Thermo-Finnigan Delta XP^{Plus}. Two international standards 728 $(\delta^{13}C = -13.90\%$ and 2.52‰) were used for standardization, and the standard 729 deviations were shown by over 3 times measurement.

730

731 The sediments surrounding the surface emanations of the springs were collected 732 for measuring TOC content and carbon isotopic compositions. The sediment samples 733 were kept at 4°C until transporting to the laboratory. Glass vial samples were then 734 stored at -80°C until further treatment. Firstly, the sediment samples were freeze-dried 735 and then crushed into fine grains using a mortar to remove large leaves and roots. 50-736 100 mg of sediment samples were weighed and reacted with 1 M HCl solution until 737 effervescence stopped, followed by a rinse with distilled water until the pH neutralized. 738 The TOC sediment samples were analyzed using an elemental analyzer (EA-1110; 739 Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled to a Thermo Fisher Scientific MAT 252 isotope ratio 740 mass spectrometer (IRMS).

741

Samples for cell counts were taken in 2017 as close to the source spring as
possible, usually in an outflow from a rock outcrop or a small surface pool that was
rapidly being refilled by the source. We placed 1 ml fluids into a 2 ml plastic tube with a
rubber o-ring screwcap (to prevent evaporation) containing 500 µl 3%
paraformaldehyde solution in phosphate-buffered-saline (PBS). Cell count samples fixed

747 with 3% paraformaldehyde in the field were kept at room temperature during return to 748 the University of Tennessee and were weighed upon returning to the lab. Cell counts 749 were determined on a Guava Easy Cyte 6HT-2L (Millipore) flow cytometer. Triplicate 750 aliquots of each sample (200μ L) were stained with 5× SybrGreen prior to analysis. We 751 estimated contributions of cell biomass with total cell counts, and average carbon 752 content of subsurface microbes⁵⁴, by multiplying the average number of cells in our fluid 753 samples by the volume of hosting rocks (from the trench to the arc – assuming a log 754 increase of the isotherms moving toward the arc) up to 2 km depths, and using an 755 average rock porosity (to obtain possible fluid amounts)⁵⁵, and found that they did 756 represent a significantly large carbon reservoir.

757

758 Aliphatic hydrocarbons (C10-C40) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons 759 (PAHs) were analyzed using conventional procedures based on gas chromatography 760 with a flame ionization detector (FID) and HPLC with diode array and fluorimetric 761 detection⁵⁶. Briefly, aliphatic hydrocarbons (C10-C40) were extracted with 762 hexane:acetone (2:1) in a microwave (110°C for 25 min, 800 Watt) (Mars CEM, CEM 763 Corporation, Matthews NC). After centrifugation at 3.000 × g for 10 min, the 764 supernatants were purified with solid-phase extraction (Phenomenex Strata-X, 500 765 mg \times 6 mL plus Phenomenex Strata-FL, 1000 mg \times 6 mL) and then concentrated using 766 a SpeedVac (RC1009; grade n-hexane and analyzed with a PerkinElmer gas 767 chromatograph) equipped with an Elite-5 capillary column (30 mm × 0.32 mm ID × 768 0.25 μm-df) and a FID. For quantitative determination, the system was calibrated 769 with an unsaturated pair n-alkane standard mixture according to ENISO 9377-3 (Fluka 770 68281). For the analysis of PAHs, sediment samples were extracted using 0.5 M 771 potassium hydroxide in methanol with microwave at 55°C for 20 min (800 Watt) 772 (CEM, Mars System). After centrifugation at 3.000 × g for 10 min, the methanol 773 extracts were concentrated using a SpeedVac and purified with solid-phase 774 extraction (Octadecyl C18, 500 mg × 6 mL, Bakerbond). A final volume of 1 mL was 775 recovered with pure, analytical HPLC gradient grade acetonitrile; HPLC analyses were

- carried out in a water-acetonitrile gradient by fluorimetric and diode array detection.
- The PAHs were identified according to the retention times of an appropriate pure
- standards solution (EPA 610 Polynuclear Aromatic Hydrocarbons Mix), and classified
- as low molecular weight (LMW: naphthalene, acenaphthylene, 1-methyl
- 780 naphthalene, 2-methyl naphthalene, acenaphthene, fluorene, phenanthrene,
- anthracene) or high molecular weight (HMW: fluoranthene, pyrene,
- 582 benzo(a)antrhacene, chrysene, 7,12-dimethyl-benzo(a)anthracene,
- 783 benzo(b)fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, benzo(a)pyrene,
- dibenzo(a,h)anthracene, benzo(g,h,i)perylene, indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene). Accuracy
- and precision were checked analyzing both pure standard solutions and reference
- materials (NIST 1944) and the obtained concentrations were always within the 95%
- 787 confidence intervals of certified values. Aliquots of all the samples were dried in a
- 788 oven at 60°C for at least 8 h, up to obtain a constant weight, in order to quantify the
- interstitial water content, allowing to express all the analyzed chemicals as a function
- of the dry weight (d.w.) of the sediments.
- 791
- 792 Isotope fractionation modeling:

He-C studies in volcanic arc settings^{2,57-60} have coupled helium and carbon 793 794 isotopes to distinguish carbon from different provenances using a three-component 795 mixing model (Extended Data Figure 1). In such acidic settings, volcanic activity has been 796 suggested to release previously sequestered CO_2^{61-64} , which mixes with slab/mantle 797 carbon and results in the characteristic signatures. Samples from this study were 798 collected from a range of lithologies from ophiolites in Nicoya⁶⁵⁻⁷⁰ to andesitic and 799 basaltic volcanic rocks in the arc and forearc. The volcanic front in Costa Rica developed 800 on the western edge of the Caribbean Plateau, an oceanic plate basement without any 801 preexisting continental or arc material⁷¹⁻⁷³. The Santa Elena ophiolite is part of a series 802 of exotic, arc-related terrenes that make the basement of the volcanic front in southern 803 Nicaragua and does not extend south of the Hess Escarpment-Santa Elena suture⁷⁴⁻⁷⁵. 804 However, these carbon isotope data are consistent with a model that requires for a

homogenous C isotope input flux. This indicates that degassing of the downgoing
slab/mantle drives the ¹³C-isotope inputs, rather than the over-riding crust, but in some
cases, this signal is subsequently obfuscated by low temperature precipitation of
isotopically heavy calcite, which effectively fractionates the carbon isotopes. Here we
provide additional details on the fractionation modeling used to construct the calcite
fractionation curves in Figure 3 (main text).

811 In summary, CO₂ is released from the slab/mantle and reacts with shallow 812 groundwater forming an initial DIC pool (dissolved CO₂). A fractionation factor (see 813 details below) is calculated based on temperature (assumed to be 67°C in the northern 814 transect and 63°C in the central transect) and an alpha value for CO_2 -HCO₃-CaCO₃, 815 where CaCO₃ is calcite. The starting δ^{13} C input is determined to be different from the 816 northern (5.0‰) and central (0.5‰) transect, presumably controlled by different slab 817 inputs. Notably, the presumed slab inputs are consistent with positive isotope values measured in carbonate sediments off the coast of Nicoya⁷⁶. Starting δ^{13} C input 818 819 conditions are assumed to be the same for forearc, backarc and arc. DOC is in isotopic 820 equilibrium with DIC at these temperatures and assumed alpha values. The DIC is 821 transformed from CO₂ to HCO₃⁻ in alkaline waters and the resulting DIC concentrations 822 are not affected by further dilution of meteoric water or by concentration due to steam 823 loss. As the Rayleigh fractionation progresses, the DIC in the forearc is consumed and a 824 Rayleigh fractionation occurs. Open system fractionation (Rayleigh distillation) curves 825 were iteratively fitted to the data using:

826

827 eq. 1.

828
$$\delta^{13}C_{DC_f} \cong (\delta^{13}C_{DC_i} + 1000)(F^{\alpha_{DC-calcite}-1}) - 1000$$

829

after⁷⁷, where F is the fraction of dissolved carbon (DC) remaining in the fluid, $\delta^{13}C_{DC_f}$ is the carbon isotope composition of DC at F, $\delta^{13}C_{DC_i}$ is the initial isotope composition of the DC, and $\alpha_{DC-calcite}$ is the fractionation factor between DC and calcite at a given temperature. The fractionation factor between DC and calcite was calculated from⁷⁸:

834	
835	eq. 2.
836	
837	$1000 ln\alpha_{DC-calcite} = -8.91 x 10^8 T^{-3} + 8.557 x 10^6 T^{-2} - 1.881 x 10^4 T^{-1} + 8.27$
838	
839	where T is the temperature in Kelvin.
840	
841	Model curves were fit to the data from each transect by iteratively varying the
842	values of $\delta^{13} \mathcal{C}_{DC_{i}}$ and the temperature of calcite formation. Best fit results were
843	obtained with $\delta^{13}C_{DC_i}$ = +5.0‰ and T = 67 °C (R ² = 0.91) for the northern transect and
844	$\delta^{13}C_{DC_i} = +0.5\%$ and T = 63 °C (R ² = 0.86) for the central transect.
845	
846	Total dissolved carbon (DC) values used in the model are calculated from the sum of
847	measured DIC and DOC concentrations (Supplementary Table 4), and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DC}}$ is the
848	average of $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DOC}}$, weighted by their respective DIC and DOC
849	concentrations. DIC dominates total DC contents, typically accounting for ~80% of DC
850	on a sample by sample basis. DOC data are not available for 12 of our 30 samples, as
851	several samples were collected on previous reconnaissance field campaigns.
852	However, the strong correlation between DC and DIC (Extended Data Figure 3) allows
853	us to confidently predict the DC concentration and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DC}}$ of the samples for which
854	DOC is not available. The predicted DC and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DC}}$ are thus used for the 12 samples
855	for which DOC data are not available in Figure 3 (main text). The slope of the linear
856	regressions in Figures S2a and S2c is used to calculate the fraction of DOC in the
857	northern and central transects (5.4 % and 4.7 %, respectively).
858	
859	Carbon budget calculations:
860	The carbon isotope fractionation model allows calculation of the fraction of
861	carbon in various forearc reservoirs. Based on the average $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DC}}$ values at the forearc

sites (here defined as located at <155 km from the trench), the fraction (F) of carbon

863 remaining in the fluid can be calculated (expressed as "% carbon sequestered as calcite" 864 in Figure 3, which is equal to 100(1- F)). The average $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ values at forearc sites are 865 further used to calculate the total DC concentration in mmol/L based on the Rayleigh 866 curves. Because the curves are steep at low F values, the $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ values represent a more 867 robust and sensitive parameter than DC concentrations, which are more susceptible to 868 dilution and analytical uncertainty at low concentrations. The average DIC concentration 869 for forearc fluid is then calculated from dissolved carbon concentrations from the 870 relationship between DC and DIC expressed in Figures S2a and S2c. In this model, DOC 871 is then the residual carbon once DIC and calcite concentrations are accounted for. The 872 results of these calculations indicate that 91.3% of the total forearc carbon is 873 sequestered as calcite, 6.0% is released at the surface as DIC, and 2.7% is consumed by 874 microbiological processes to form DOC.

875

Our flux estimates for the Costa Rican forearc (see main text) show that between 7.1 x 10⁶ and 7.9 x 10⁸ mol CO₂/yr are released to the surface by spring outflow as DIC and CO₂ gas. Based on the above-described model, we argue that this represents the residual carbon left over after pervasive calcite deposition. The total flux (i.e., subducted slab and mantle fluid) through the forearc, including both calcite deposition and microbial consumption, ranges from 1.2 x 10⁸ to 1.3 x 10¹⁰mol/yr (Figure 4).

882

883 **Previous Mass Balance calculations:**

To put our forearc flux estimate into context, we must consider previous flux estimates, which to date, have focused mostly on high temperature regions¹¹⁻¹³, where there is a distinct point-source for carbon emissions. However, little work has been conducted in the forearc of Costa Rica³ even though thermodynamic modeling of the Costa Rica convergent margin predicts efficient CO₂ release from the top of the subducting slab beneath forearcs, at depths of 65-80 km¹².

890

Past budget approaches⁵⁸ coupled He and C isotopes to tease apart C sourced from different provenances using a three-component mixing model (Fig. S1). Subducted slab carbon is presumed to derive from carbonate rocks and have a value of ~0 VPDB, mantle values are assumed to be approximately –6.5 ± 2.0‰ and isotopically low carbon isotope values are attributed to contributions from organic sediments (-30‰). Here we argue that in the forearc environment these values do not result from mixing, but instead from low temperature calcite precipitation and biological consumption.

898

899 Arc fluxes are typically only measured along a relatively narrow transect source: 900 the volcanic front. In contrast, springs occur over a large stretch of the forearc, so this is 901 a much larger area to integrate. Quantitative assessment of gas fluxes from the forearc, 902 backarc, fault-related sites, hydrothermal volcanic systems (e.g., Tenorio, Miravalles, 903 Irazú, Rincón de la Vieja flank sites), and concurrent diffuse degassing are lacking. Here 904 we place better constraints on forearc fluxes, which complement recent constraints on magmatic C fluxes⁸. We estimate a flux between of 1.2×10^8 and 1.3×10^{10} to mol CO₂ 905 906 per year, which represents as much as ~36% of the total arc flux. , and could reduce the 907 amount transferred into the deep mantle by up to ~19%.

908

909 Previous studies have utilized helium and carbon isotopes (${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}, \delta^{13}\text{C}$) and 910 relative abundances ratios (CO₂/ ${}^{3}\text{He}$) of fumarole sites at arc settings. Two approaches 911 were taken in these areas in order to determine CO₂ fluxes: 1) combining measured 912 CO₂/ ${}^{3}\text{He}$ data with known ${}^{3}\text{He}$ fluxes and 2) to combine measured CO₂/SO₂ data with 913 known SO₂ fluxes. Previous work was conducted throughout Costa Rica^{3,6,8} El Salvador 914 Honduras⁷ and Nicaragua².

915

In typical subduction zones, the vast majority of carbon is thought to be recycled
back into the lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere¹, and what remains is
transported into the deep mantle. In stark contrast, mass balance considerations from
the Costa Rica convergent margin suggest the majority of subducted C (more than 85%)

920 is ultimately transferred into the deep mantle^{2,3,6}. Importantly, this estimation assumes 921 that the forearc and backarc fluxes are negligible, which we have shown in this 922 contribution to be untrue. Prior work⁶ estimated the subducting CO₂ input flux for ~310 km Arc of Costa Rica to be 8.2×10^{10} mol/yr⁶, assuming "1% organic CO₂" in sediments 923 924 based on data from a single IODP site (1039) and a "global average" altered crustal 925 composition of 0.2% CO₂, extrapolated over the entire slab thickness. Published carbon 926 degassing (output) flux estimates vary between 1.2×10^{10} mol/yr to 1.5×10^{10} mol/yr, with an average value of 1.26×10^{10} mol/yr. Importantly, these estimates are 927 928 determined to be >90% sediment and marine carbonate derived, based on C-isotope data². However, more recent studies^{8,61,79} use a more complete assessment of volcanic 929 930 degassing from the arc to show that the current volcanic CO₂ flux from Costa Rica is significantly higher $(6.10 \times 10^{10} \text{ mol/yr})$. The 2017 study⁸ is based on new data for 11 931 932 volcanoes in Costa Rica and Nicaragua showing that the CO₂ flux from the arc is 933 underestimated in previous studies. Their finding suggests that the Central American 934 subduction margin may be more similar to other arc segments¹ than previously thought^{2,6}. The 2017 findings⁸ suggest the 2014-2015 CO₂ flux from the Costa Rican arc 935 936 is an order of magnitude greater than previous estimates^{2,6}. However, the Costa Rican-937 Nicaraguan margin has displayed an increase in arc-wide volcanic activity in recent 938 years⁸. Thus, arc systems probably show significant variation in gas output over time. If the older estimates^{2,6} of CO_2 flux are taken to be more representative of the time-939 940 integrated CO₂ flux, then there is still a considerable missing flux in the forearc or arc. In 941 Figure 4 we take the average value from references 2 and 8 to determine an average 942 CO_2 flux of 3.7 mol/yr ± 66%.

943

944 **Geologic Background:**

945 The Central American subduction zone is characterized by rapid (70–90 mm/year) 946 convergence of young (15–25 Ma) oceanic lithosphere⁸⁰⁻⁸², whereas the downgoing Cocos 947 plate is composed of a thin sedimentary layer (~428m). The upper section of the column 948 (177 m) consists of Quaternary to upper Miocene hemipelagic diatomaceous mud and

949 middle Miocene brown abyssal clay and the lower section consists of middle–lower 950 Miocene chalky carbonate ooze and manganiferous chalk and chert⁸³⁻⁸⁴. The composition 951 of subducted sediments and carboniferous material is microbiologically altered, due to 952 the fact that anaerobic respiration and fermentation determine sediment redox conditions, alkalinity, and carbon isotope pools⁸⁵⁻⁸⁶. The entire column of incoming 953 954 sediments under-thrusts the toe of the Caribbean Plate. However, the absence of 955 significant off-scraping or sediment accretion suggests the Costa Rica convergent margin 956 is either non-accretionary, or underplated further landward^{79,87}. Under-thrusting leads to 957 rapid compaction of the upper hemipelagic sediments and dewatering of pore fluids 958 within the first few kilometers of subduction⁸⁸, resulting in the release of carbon dioxide 959 and methane at relatively shallow depths into the overlying forearc³. Fluids released 960 during dehydration reactions ascend through the overriding plate along deep-penetrating faults, producing numerous fluid venting sites in the forearc of Costa Rica⁸⁹. A significant 961 962 portion of the forearc is subaerial (Nicoya and Osa peninsulas), providing unique sampling 963 opportunities not found at the majority of arc systems. In addition to mechanically 964 induced shallow dewatering near the toe of the overriding plate, deeply-sourced (i.e., 965 abiotic) fluids are released by mineral dehydration reactions and phase transformations at depths of approximately 10-15 km (between 60-140°C)^{88,90}, which are pressure and 966 967 temperature ranges that are within the range of theoretically habitable environments for microorganisms⁹¹⁻⁹². Volcanoes in Costa Rica form a part of the southern segment of the 968 969 Central American Volcanic Arc. The volcanic arc in Costa Rica extends from the north to 970 the center of Costa Rica, immediately to the east of the Nicoya Peninsula. We collected 971 samples for this study in the forearc, arc and backarc of this region.

972

973 Microbiological Background:

974 ¹³C-depleted carbon dioxide in fluids released in the submarine portion of the 975 outer forearc indicate a δ^{13} C depleted source and may imply biological production 976 through anaerobic respiration of sulfate, which is an abundant oxidant in seawater 977 (Füri et al. 2010). The level of ¹³C-depletion can be moderate (-10 to -15‰),

978 suggesting electron donors from organic matter, or extreme (-60 to -70‰),

979 suggesting electron donors from methane. Methanotrophy can occur anaerobically
980 through sulfate reduction⁹³, or aerobically when oxygenated seawater mixes with
981 methane-rich fluids⁹⁴. The methane itself may be methanogenic products mobilized
982 from the >12 km source fluids⁹⁵, or shallower methanogenesis⁹⁶, but this has yet to
983 be resolved with isotopic analysis.

984

985 Methane in the subaerial section of the margin has been found to have a 986 significant biogenic component, with δ^{13} C of -35 to -45‰, and presence of 987 methanogenic archaea⁹⁷⁻⁹⁸. However, no large-scale survey of the effects of 988 microbiology on degassing across a convergent margin have been performed. The 989 few microbiological studies that have been performed in convergent margins have 990 focused on a single site at a time, preventing any region-scale exploration of how 991 microbes interact with these deep geological processes.

992

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1209	Data Ava	ilability Statement (DAS):

- 1210 All raw data needed to make the plots are available in Tables 1 and 2 as well as in the
- 1211 Source Data file provided. All data is archived through EarthChem (DOI:
- 1212 10.1594/IEDA/111271)
- 1213



1216 **Extended Data Figure 1** – $CO_2/^3$ He vs. δ^{13} C for all samples collected, together with

- 1217 endmember mixing lines between mantle, organic sediment and carbonate
- 1218 endmembers. We argue that such mixing relationships cannot easily explain the water
- 1219 data, and instead carbon isotope fractionation associated with calcite precipitation and
- 1220 chemolithoautotrophy introduces the observed δ^{13} C variations.
- 1221



1223

1224 Extended Data Figure 2 – Helium isotopes (³He/⁴He) vs. X-values (air-normalized

⁴He/²⁰Ne; considering solubility in water for fluid samples²³). The majority of samples

1226 have high (>5) X-values, indicating minimal air-contributions to samples.



1228



1230 Values for northern Costa Rica (panels A and B) are shown with blue symbols and

1231 central Costa Rica (panels c and d), with red symbols. Strong correlations allow

1232 prediction of DC concentrations and δ^{13} C values for the sites for which DIC compositions

- 1233 are lacking. The slope of the concentration plots is used to calculate the fraction of DIC
- 1234 and DOC in the sample suites.