1 Forearc carbon sink reduces long-term volatile recycling into the mantle 2 P.H. Barry^{1,2,3*}, J. M. de Moor^{4,5,‡} D. Giovannelli^{6,7,8,9,‡} M. Schrenk¹⁰, D. Hummer¹¹, T. 3 Lopez¹², C.A. Pratt¹³, Y. Alpízar Segura¹⁴, A. Battaglia¹⁵, P. Beaudry¹⁶, G. Bini¹⁷, M. 4 Cascante⁴, G. d'Errico^{6,18}, M. di Carlo¹⁸, D. Fattorini^{18,19}, K. Fullerton²⁰, E. Gazel²¹, G. 5 González¹⁴, S. A. Halldórsson²², K. Iacovino^{23,24}, J.T. Kulongoski^{2,25}, E. Manini⁶, M. 6 7 Martínez⁴, H. Miller¹⁰, M. Nakagawa⁸, S. Ono¹⁶, S. Patwardhan⁷, C.J. Ramírez¹⁴, F. Regoli^{18,19}, F. Smedile⁷, S. Turner²⁶, C. Vetriani⁷, M. Yücel²⁷, C.J. Ballentine¹, T.P. Fischer⁵, 8 D.R. Hilton²⁵, K.G. Llovd^{20‡} 9 10 11 ¹Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oxford, UK 12 ²California Water Science Center, USGS, CA, USA 13 ³Now at: Marine Chemistry and Geochemistry Department, Woods Hole Oceanographic 14 Institution, Woods Hole, MA, USA 15 *Correspondence email: pbarry@whoi.edu 16 ⁴Observatorio Volcanológico y Sismológico de Costa Rica (OVSICORI), Universidad 17 Nacional, Costa Rica 18 ⁵Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of New Mexico, NM, USA 19 ⁶Institute of Institute for Marine Biological and Biotechnological Resources, National 20 Research Council of Italy, (IRBIM-CNR), Ancona, Italy 21 ⁷Department of Marine and Coastal Science, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ, USA 22 ⁸Earth-Life Science Institute, Tokyo Institute for Technology, Tokyo, Japan 23 ⁹Now at: Department of Biology, University of Naples "Federico II", Naples, Italy 24 ¹⁰Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Michigan State University, MI, USA ¹¹Department of Geology, Southern Illinois University, IL, USA 25 26 ¹²Geophysciual Institute, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, AK, USA 27 ¹³Graduate School of Oceanography, University of Rhode Island, RI, USA 28 ¹⁴Volcanes Sin Fronteras (VSF), Costa Rica

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59 Summary:

60 Carbon and other volatiles are transported from Earth's surface into the 61 mantle at subduction margins. The efficiency of this transfer has profound 62 implications for the nature and scale of geochemical heterogeneities in Earth's deep 63 (mantle) and shallow (crustal) reservoirs, as well as Earth's oxidation state. However, 64 the proportion of volatiles released in the forearc and backarc are not well-65 constrained compared to fluxes from the volcanic-front. Here, we use helium and 66 carbon isotope data from deeply-sourced springs along two cross-arc transects to 67 show that ~91% of carbon released from the slab/mantle beneath the Costa Rica 68 forearc is sequestered within the crust by calcite deposition, and an additional ~3% is 69 incorporated into biomass through microbial chemolithoautotrophy. We estimate that $\sim 1.2 \times 10^8$ to 1.3×10^{10} mol CO₂/yr are released from the slab beneath the 70 71 forearc, resulting in up to ~19% less carbon being transferred to Earth's deep mantle 72 than previously estimated.

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74 Main Text:

Terrestrial carbon traverses various reservoirs on Earth from the surface to the mantle. It is subjected to a number of geological, geochemical, and biological cycles, each of which operates on vastly different temporal and spatial scales. Perhaps the most important physical process linking the deep and shallow carbon cycles is subduction, which transports both oxidized and reduced forms of crustal carbon into the mantle. During subduction, volatile-rich fluids are released from the downgoing slab (upper mantle and crust). These fluids are thought to migrate through the overlying mantle-

82 wedge and crust, and are ultimately released across the forearc, volcanic arc-front and 83 backarc (i.e., behind the volcanic front). However, little is known about what effect 84 volatile fluxes through the forearc may have on the total volatile budget and estimates of 85 recycling efficiency¹. Much of the forearc subsurface is at low temperatures (<100°C) that 86 are conducive to microbial life as well as shallow water-rock interactions. Therefore, 87 microorganisms and/or abiotic chemical processes may alter the speciation, isotopic 88 composition, and presumed carbon budgets. Regional-scale effects of these shallow 89 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.

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98 Carbon outputs at the Central American Volcanic Arc, which have been the focus 99 of several studies, are estimated to represent only 12% of the total subducted carbon 100 input along the middle American trench^{2,6-7}, whereas global arcs typically have carbon 101 outputs that approach their inputs, suggesting limited volatile delivery to the mantle¹. 102 However, recent work⁸ proposed a far higher volcanic carbon flux for Central America, 103 suggesting that this region may be more similar to other arc segments¹ than previously 104 thought^{2,6}. Our study focuses on the Nicoya Peninsula area of Costa Rica in part because it 105 is one of the few places on Earth with easy sampling access to an on-land forearc region 106 and thus presents an opportunity to study the fate of carbon across an entire arc. Few 107 carbon flux estimates have been made from the forearc region of any arc, despite the fact 108 that there is plentiful ancillary evidence for fluid venting in forearc regions (e.g., 109 serpentinite diapirism in the Marianas⁹ and mud volcanism at various accretionary prisms 110 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 111 112 are from three submarine venting sites³, where the authors estimated that the carbon 113 output from the outer forearc represents less than 1% of the carbon input at the trench. 114 Taking into account the loss at the volcanic-front, they proposed two explanations: either 115 subducted carbon was largely transported into the deep mantle or significant quantities 116 of carbon were lost to the forearc or backarc regions. Independently, thermodynamic 117 models of subduction predict significant CO_2 loss (i.e., decarbonation) from the top of the 118 subducting slab beneath global forearc regions¹², as the slab penetrates to greater 119 temperature and pressure conditions.

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121 The extensive occurrence of calcite veining throughout the Costa Rica forearc¹³⁻¹⁴ 122 suggests that much of the CO_2 released from the slab beneath the forearc could be 123 sequestered into the crust as calcite, in which case direct measurements of diffuse 124 degassing in this region are not representative of deep mantle processes. Additional 125 mechanisms for masking CO_2 gas release in the upper plate include microbial biomass 126 production, conversion to CH_4 , trapping in reservoirs beneath impermeable caps, and 127 abiotic organic matter synthesis. Calcite deposition results in a temperature dependent 128 isotope fractionation and may be microbially mediated¹⁵⁻¹⁶ in cation-rich alkaline waters 129 with high aqueous CO₂ concentrations. Additionally, in the absence of light for 130 photosynthesis, microorganisms in subsurface settings instead fix CO₂ into biomass 131 through chemolithoautotrophy¹⁷⁻¹⁹. Both calcite deposition and chemolithoautotrophy 132 occur mostly at temperatures below 100°C, which are the prevalent conditions in the 133 forearc subsurface²⁰. Biologically induced carbon fixation generally results in a kinetic 134 fractionation of carbon isotopes that preferentially removes ¹²C from CO₂²¹. The degree of 135 fractionation depends on the microorganism's physiology, as well as substrate limitations, 136 temperature, and pressure. Biological activity can also decrease the carbon isotopic 137 composition (δ^{13} C) of CO₂, by adding ¹³C-depleted carbon through heterotrophic 138 respiration of organic matter or methane. This process is not associated with a large 139 carbon isotope fractionation²¹ relative to pure kinetic reactions driven solely by biological

processes. In addition, abiotic hydrocarbon production from dissolved CO₂ has been
 demonstrated in laboratory experiments over 250°C²², a possible temperature regime in
 hotter forearc regions.

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144 He and C Results:

145 We collected samples from 23 sites in northern and central Costa Rica (Figure 1), 146 which traversed forearc (Nicoya Peninsula), arc and backarc regions. Springs likely to 147 represent deeply-sourced fluids (based on field data such as temperature, dissolved 148 oxygen, salinity) were targeted, and samples were taken by inserting tubes into outflow 149 vents to minimize fluid interaction with atmosphere and surface water. The sites were 150 classified into two groups: the northern transect samples, which were collected to the 151 north of the EPR-CNS on-land extension, and the Central transect samples, which were 152 collected to the south of this plate transition. The two groups, with the exception of 153 Santa Lucia, are separated by the on-land extension of a major transition in the 154 downgoing slab: the boundary between oceanic crust formed at the East Pacific Rise 155 (EPR) and the Cocos Nazca Spreading (CNS) zone. We measured ³He/⁴He vs. air, 156 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 17 157 geothermal fluid (i.e., spring water) samples and 17 free gas samples. In addition, we 158 measured δ^{13} C vs. Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) 159 in 31 geothermal fluid samples, dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in 16 fluid samples, and 160 CO_2 in 16 free gas samples (Supplementary Table 1). Sediments surrounding the surface 161 emanation of the springs were also sampled and total organic carbon (TOC) contents 162 and δ^{13} C were measured. The relative abundances of He to CO₂ are also reported 163 $(CO_2/^3He;$ Extended Data Figure 1). The air-normalized $^4He/^{20}Ne$ ratio is used to 164 calculate the X-value, (multiplied by the Bunsen solubility (1.23) at the assumed 165 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 sample 24 . As X-values are high (>5) for the majority of 166 167 samples of this study (Extended Data Figure 2), the correction factor is small and hence

168 there is typically little difference between measured (R/R_A) and corrected (R_C/R_A) 169 ³He/⁴He ratios (Supplementary Table 1).

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171 The air-corrected ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ (R_C/R_A) values range from 0.49 to 6.79 R_A 172 (Supplementary Table 1), with the highest values occurring in the volcanic arc and the 173 lowest occurring in the outer forearc. Arc values approach upper mantle values ($\sim 8 R_A$), 174 however, they exhibit evidence for a small but discernible addition of radiogenic helium 175 at all locations. In contrast, outer forearc and forearc values are predominantly 176 radiogenic, with a small but distinct mantle contribution, suggesting these fluids are an 177 admixture of crustal fluids and deeply sourced volatiles likely with some influence of 178 shallow water-rock interaction. He-isotope values are systematically higher (i.e., more 179 mantle-like) in both fluids and gases close to the volcanic arc-front and lower toward the 180 trench (i.e., in the forearc; Figure 2A), showing that slab/mantle outgassing is not limited 181 to the arc-front, and occurs throughout the entire forearc. However, free CO₂ gas 182 (bubbling springs) was only detected within ~20km of the arc (Figure 2B). In the absence 183 of gas manifestations, we examined evidence for forearc carbon processing in dissolved 184 carbon from spring outflows.

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The δ^{13} C and carbon content of DIC and DOC within spring fluids decrease 186 187 systematically trenchward across the entire arc (Figure 2B and Figure 3). Strikingly, 188 DIC values in northern and central Costa Rica follow distinct parallel trends (Figure 3), 189 which are not masked by site-dependent surface-derived organic material 190 heterogeneities, such as vegetation, degradation of photosynthetic organic matter 191 and/or surface water infiltration, indicating that the distribution of carbon in these 192 fluids results from deep subsurface phenomena. In contrast, TOC is heavily 193 influenced by surface detrital carbon and shows no apparent trend between 194 concentration and δ^{13} C in samples across the two transects. DIC and DOC define 195 Rayleigh distillation curves, with northern springs showing consistently higher δ^{13} C 196 for both DIC and DOC at a given DIC content. The parallel trends of decreasing δ^{13} C

197 with decreasing DIC are consistent with isothermal (~65°C) precipitation of 198 isotopically heavy calcite from forearc fluids (see methods for details), with generally 199 higher degrees of calcite precipitation observed closer to the trench. This model is 200 supported by water chemistry data; PhreeqC was used to show that all outer forearc 201 samples are strongly saturated with respect to calcite and thus would be predicted to 202 readily precipitate calcite (Supplementary Table 3). We present a model for calcite 203 precipitation that closely fits the observed data distribution (Figure 3), but requires a 204 more positive δ^{13} C value of the deep total dissolved carbon (DC = DIC+DOC) source 205 fluid (+5.0‰) released from the slab in northern Costa Rica than in central Costa Rica 206 (+0.5‰). Volcanic gases, which are presumed to represent the primary magmatic 207 fluid, show isotopically more negative values than dissolved carbon in the calculated 208 DIC endmember fluids, due to the additional isotopic fractionation associated with 209 dissolution of CO₂ gas into an aqueous fluid²⁵ (Figure 3). Importantly, the modeled 210 initial dissolved carbon values thus reflect both the isotopic composition of the 211 subduction fluids and a fractionation effect derived from CO₂ dissolution from source 212 gases²⁶⁻²⁷ (Figure 3). Our data suggest that surface carbon expressions across the 213 forearc are ultimately inherited from slab/mantle fluids, which are intricately linked 214 to the tectonics of the region, and modified by broadly coherent shallow processes.

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216 **Origin of fluids**:

217 The observation that northern and central Costa Rica samples have markedly 218 different source fluid compositions suggests a relationship to the character of the 219 subducting slab. The northern EPR crust has a higher density of seamounts and is 220 more permeable than the CNS crust²⁸. The higher resulting fluid flow through sub-221 seafloor basalts at the EPR cools, hydrates, and chemically weathers the plate²⁹. 222 Building on previous models³⁰, we hypothesize that the higher fluid flow from this 223 water-rich downgoing slab flushes more carbon from the slab upward into the 224 overriding plate at shallower depths beneath the forearc, accounting for the greater 225 contributions of relatively ¹³C-enriched carbonates in our northern sample set.

226 Additionally, enhanced fluid circulation in the EPR crust likely promotes calcite 227 veining in the downgoing plate, potentially providing an additional source of heavy 228 carbon³¹ in northern Costa Rica. Thus, the composition of the subducting slab is 229 expressed in surface-manifestations across the forearc. Our model predicts that 230 source fluids from northern Costa Rica are more ¹³C-enriched than in central Costa 231 Rica (Figure 3). Both volcanic arc CO₂ and dissolved forearc carbon reflect a larger 232 carbonate contribution in northern Costa Rica, which is consistent with previous 233 observations in the volcanic arc which show an increased carbonate signal in northern Costa Rica, which extends into Nicaragua^{30, 32-36}. 234

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236 Importantly, the carbon isotope compositions of forearc springs can be used to 237 calculate the fraction of carbon lost through calcite deposition (see Figure 3 and 238 methods for details). Using the average δ^{13} C of the DC (δ^{13} C_{DC}) of all the forearc springs 239 for each transect (northern = -8.8‰, central = -14.3‰) we find that 88% and 89% of the 240 total carbon released in the forearc is precipitated as calcite, respectively. Using the 241 average $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ of the outer forearc springs (i.e., Nicoya Peninsula only; northern = -242 14.4‰, central = -16.5‰) yields 95% and 92% of the total carbon precipitated as calcite, 243 for the northern and central transects, respectively. The close agreement between the 244 calculated fractions of total carbon lost to calcite is due to the fact that the Rayleigh fractionation curves are steep at low δ^{13} C values (Figure 3). Thus, a large range in δ^{13} C 245 246 observed in the forearc corresponds to a relatively narrow range of calculated 247 fractionation (F) values (i.e., fraction of carbon remaining; Figure 3). We conclude that 248 91 ± 4% of forearc carbon is lost through calcite precipitation.

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250 Measured DOC δ^{13} C values varied widely from -0.65 to -25.48‰ vs. VPDB, 251 with a mean value of -12.00‰. Like DIC, the lowest values were observed in the 252 outer forearc and the highest values were observed in the forearc, where values are 253 highly variable (Figure 2B and 2C). However, with the exception of one site in the 254 central region (Santa Lucia), DOC carbon isotope compositions and concentrations

255 strongly correlate with those of DIC (Figure 3), suggesting that DOC is produced from 256 deeply sourced fluids. Considering this, we propose a two-stage model whereby 91 ± 257 4% of the carbon released from the slab/mantle is consumed by calcite precipitation 258 and the remaining dissolved carbon is further fractionated by biological consumption. 259 Our model assumes a steady-state flux of deep (slab/mantle) fluids, which imparts 260 the carbon isotope signature of the slab into the upper plate where carbon is partitioned into CO₂ gas, calcite, DIC, and DOC. DOC is potentially a mixture of deep 261 262 thermogenic DOC, deep microbial chemolithoautotrophy, and shallow 263 photosynthetic DOC. The outlier DOC sample, Santa Lucia, is likely dominated by 264 deep thermogenic DOC, due to the fact that it has an anomalously high DOC 265 concentration (5.69mmolC/L), δ^{13} C value (-0.65‰), and polycyclic aromatic 266 hydrocarbon concentrations (Supplementary Table 2), accompanied by a pronounced 267 visible oily sheen on the surface fluids. In all other sampling sites, DOC is likely synthesized from DIC at physiologically feasible temperatures in the subsurface 268 269 rather than being a mixture of exogenous sources, since its concentrations and δ^{13} C 270 values correlate tightly with DIC.

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272 DIC and DOC carbon isotopes are offset from each other by $10.9 \pm 1.6\%$ in the north, and 5.8 ± 2.2‰ in the central region (Figure 3); these $\Delta^{13}C_{DIC-DOC}$ values are 273 274 within the expected range for the reverse tricarboxylic cycle, which is a common 275 microbial carbon fixation pathway in the subsurface^{17,37}. The $\Delta^{13}C_{DIC-DOC}$ values are 276 also consistent with isotopic fractionation of hydrocarbons synthesized abiotically 277 from DIC at 250°C²². However, calcite precipitation occurs at ~65°C, and DOC 278 synthesis must occur after calcite precipitation for DOC carbon isotope compositions 279 to correlate with the post-precipitation DIC values. Therefore most of the DOC 280 appears to be derived from subsurface chemolithoautotrophy at $<65^{\circ}$ C. This is 281 further supported by the detection of microbial cells in all hot spring fluids except Las 282 Hornillas. We conclude that DOC at the remaining sites is primarily synthesized from 283 chemolithoautotrophy within the deep subsurface environment and that

slab/mantle-derived carbon is used by microorganisms to build biomass. By using cell
 abundance values for the sampled subsurface fluids, we estimate that up to 2.8 x 10⁹
 moles of additional carbon could be locked into biomass in the Costa Rican forearc,
 potentially contributing significantly to the overall carbon sink.

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289 These findings have major implications for the global carbon mass balance of 290 subduction zones. We calculate a CO_2 flux from the forearc (Supplementary Table 4) by 291 combining the average DIC concentration in forearc waters of 4.24 mmol/L CO₂ with 292 measured flow rates, which ranged between 1-10 L/s and an estimated 50-500 springs³⁸ 293 throughout the forearc region. We further consider that 5-50 of these springs have a separate gas phase, with measured CO₂ fluxes of 201 mol \times m⁻² \times d⁻¹ to 655 mol \times m⁻² \times 294 d⁻¹, and bubbling areas that typically cover 1 m² to 10 m² based on our field 295 296 observations. Using these broad criteria, the steady-state CO_2 flux is constrained to 7.1 × 297 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 298 299 indicate that forearc calcite deposition and chemolithoautotrophy together remove 300 $^{94\%}$ 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 301 302 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 303 304 as the mean of previous CO₂ flux estimates from references^{2,8}; Figure 4; Supplementary 305 Table 4), which would result in a ~19% reduction in the amount of total carbon 306 transported to the deep mantle. Similarly, dissolved CH₄ concentrations and CH₄/CO₂ in 307 sampled fluids are used to constrain the CH₄ flux from 5.1×10^3 to 1.0×10^6 mol/yr. 308 Thus, CH₄ emissions contribute negligibly to the total forearc C budget. 309

310 Implications for evolution of Earth Reservoirs:

Our results suggest that significantly less carbon is transported into Earth's
 mantle than previous estimates suggest¹, due to the previously unrecognized calcite

313 forearc carbon sink. This observation has wide ranging implications for the volatile 314 inventory of the mantle and the temporal evolution of Earth reservoirs, which controls 315 the planet's redox balance³⁹⁻⁴¹. For example, the nature (reduced vs. oxidized carbon) 316 and extent of carbon reaching the mantle is intricately linked to volatile recycling, and 317 impacts the net oxidation state of Earth's surface and deep interior. Furthermore, we 318 propose that carbon sequestration in the forearc may be directly related to plate 319 subduction angle, which dictates the extent of forearc. Globally, flat subduction zones 320 represent only about 10% of total subduction zones⁴², which would indicate that 321 approximately 2% less carbon than previously estimated is currently delivered to the 322 deep mantle. However, such a carbon sink may have been enhanced during the late 323 Archean, when oceanic crust was subducted at an anomalously low-angle⁴³. Notably, 324 evidence for the so-called Archean flat-subduction is preserved in most late Archean 325 (3.0–2.5 Ga) terrains, but is lacking in the early Archean (>3.3 Ga). If carbon was stored 326 overwhelmingly on continental (or island arc) margins, then continental collisions and 327 continental arc flare-ups would be the most important regulator of atmospheric CO₂ 328 through time. During the Proterozoic, subduction zones were dominated by high dip 329 angles and smaller forearcs⁴⁴, enabling volatiles to be more efficiently transferred into 330 deep mantle, as the forearc carbon sink would likely be less significant and transfer to 331 the mantle would be more efficient. A more efficient transfer of reduced carbon to the 332 mantle could then lead to enhanced accumulation of oxygen in the atmosphere over 333 time. Thus, this work provides potential forcing mechanisms on the great oxygenation 334 event, which was certainly controlled in part by subduction efficiency and plate 335 tectonics⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷. In addition, these findings also have implications for the modern 336 atmosphere, as better constraints on the long-term volcanic carbon budget and how it 337 may be buffered by chemical and biological processes is critical for evaluating natural 338 and anthropogenic climate forcings.

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579

580 Author contributions:

581 P.H.B. originally conceived the idea for the project, was lead-PI on the Sloan (Deep 582 Carbon Observatory) grant that supported the work, and prepared the first draft of 583 the manuscript. J.M.dM., D.G., and K.G.L. were all co-PIs on the grant and 584 contributed immensely (and equally) to modeling these data and to the writing 585 process. M.S. contributed significantly to modeling and writing, although he was not 586 a co-PI on the Sloan grant. D.H., T.L. and C.A.P. were co-PIs on the Sloan grant and 587 contributed to the writing process. Noble gas analysis was conducted in the 588 laboratory of C.J.B. at Oxford. T.P.F. and D.R.H. are senior PIs who first brought P.H.B. 589 and J.M.dM. to Costa Rica as PhD students, and were instrumental in the conception 590 of this project. In addition, a portion of the data reported in this contribution was 591 generated from those early expeditions. All other authors (listed alphabetically) 592 provided comments on the manuscript and either assisted in sample collection (as 593 part of the Biology Meets Subduction team or on previous expeditions) and/or 594 analyzed samples in their respective laboratories.

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601 Figure 1 – Map of the northwest coast of Costa Rica. Northern sites (blue) and central 602 sites (orange) as well as the plate boundary between the East Pacific Rise (EPR) crust 603 and Cocos Nazca spreading center (CNS) crust, and the Quesada Sharp Contortion (QSC) 604 are shown. Sample distances to trench (Supplementary Table 1) were calculated as the 605 distance of a line segment extending from the sample location, along the angle of 606 convergence, to the plate boundary⁴⁸. Red-tipped triangles are volcanoes Orosí, Rincón 607 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 608 GeoMapApp (http://www.geomapapp.org)⁵⁰. 609

610

611 Figure 2A – Helium isotopes $({}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He})$ vs. distance from trench. The plot shows a 612 decrease in ³He/⁴He trenchward, suggesting that there is pervasive deep slab/mantle 613 degassing occurring across the entire arc, even though free CO₂ gas is absent. 2B -614 carbon concentrations (as indicated by circle size) and δ^{13} C of CO₂ gas, dissolved 615 inorganic carbon (DIC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and total organic carbon in 616 sediments surrounding the surface emanation of the springs (sTOC) are shown vs. 617 distance from trench and subduction zone section (C) in order to show the full range 618 in data. These "bubble plots" show that there is a corresponding decrease in carbon 619 concentrations and δ^{13} C values of DIC and DOC trenchward, and no change in 620 concentrations and δ^{13} C values of TOC.

621

622Figure 3 – Carbon isotopes as a function of DIC concentrations for northern (blue)623and central (orange) DIC (filled symbols), along with isotope fractionation model in624solid lines. DOC δ^{13} C values (open markers) as well as DOC concentrations (inset)625correlate with those of DIC. For clarity, Santa Lucia (5.69 mmol/L DOC) is not included626in inset. Values for arc gases (T ≥ boiling; plotted at 0% C sequestered as calcite)627represent an endpoint of CO2 concentration and δ^{13} C, offset from DIC by the

628 fractionation from gas to aqueous phase.

630 Figure 4A– Box model showing the carbon inputs⁸ in the Costa Rica Forearc. 631 Estimated inputs are from sediments, altered oceanic crust and serpentinized mantle 632 via subduction. Estimated outputs are show for the forearc (this study) and the $arc^{2,8}$, 633 as well as predicted transport to the deep mantle (inputs minus outputs). 4B - Inset 634 box model showing endmember carbon isotopic values into the forearc following 635 release from the slab/mantle. The model shows fluid pathways and associated 636 fractionation as calcite forms, with approximately 91% of total carbon released in the 637 forearc sequestered as calcite. The remaining dissolved carbon (DC) is isotopically 638 depleted and partitioned into dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and dissolved organic 639 carbon (DOC).

640

641 **Methods**:

642 Sample collection and analysis:

643 In 2017, fluid and gas samples were collected across two transects of the 644 Costa Rican Arc (Figure 1), with pH ranging from 0.9-10.0 and temperatures ranging 645 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 646 minimize any possible air contamination²⁷. Gas and fluids samples (n=24) from 2017 647 648 are accompanied by addition (n=17) samples collected during reconnaissance field 649 campaigns in 2008, 2010 and 2012. He and C isotope data from the initial 650 reconnaissance field campaigns were produced in the Fluids and Volatiles Laboratory 651 at Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO), whereas data from 2017 are from 652 Oxford (He-isotopes) and Tokyo Institute for Technology (C-isotopes). 653 654 Samples were collected over several field campaigns; however, all samples 655 were collected during the dry season in an effort to minimize seasonal effects

656 (Supplementary Table 1). Considering this, the data from the various labs are in good

agreement. For example, fluids were collected at the Sabana Grande site in 2008,

658 2010 and again in 2017; C-isotope values of -12.69‰ (2017; Japan) agree well with -659 12.75‰ (2008; SIO), -12.79‰ (2008; SIO) and -13.43‰ (2012; SIO). He-isotope 660 values for this site were 2.66 \pm 0.13 R_A (2017; Oxford), 0.60 \pm 0.03 R_A (2008; SIO) and 661 1.04± 0.11 R_A (2012: SIO), all indicate an admixture of radiogenic and mantle derived 662 gases. Notably, there is not thought to be a discernable cosmogenic component in 663 subduction-related fluids, as ³He outputs greatly exceed input parameters⁶. Also, 664 much too little interplanetary dust particles is available to sustain the flux required. 665 See Trull 1994. Also, high diffusivity of He in most low-T minerals is important. When 666 considering the reproducibility of He isotope measurements, it is essential to 667 consider the amount of air contamination in a given sample, which is estimated using 668 the relative amount of He and Ne, expressed as the X-value (4 He/ 20 Ne normalized to 669 air). At Sabana Grande, the most pristine sample (highest X-value) yielded the highest 670 He isotope value of 2.66 R_A (Extended Data Figure 2). Helium isotopes were also 671 measured in samples collected at the Pueblo Antiguo site in 2010 (SIO), 2012 (SIO) 672 and 2017 (Oxford), and in the two samples with high X-values (>5), the He isotopes 673 measured at different laboratories are within analytical error (Oxford, 2017 = $4.34 \pm$ 674 $0.22 R_A and SIO, 2010 = 4.51 \pm 0.11 R_A$).

675

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).

682

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.

690

691 Carbon dioxide was purified at SIO on a dedicated line using a variable 692 temperature trap designed to separate CO₂ from sulfur-bearing species. Following 693 cleanup, the amount of CO_2 was measured using a capacitance gauge manometer in a 694 calibrated volume, prior to freezing an aliquot of the CO₂ in a Pyrex breakseal. For 695 isotope analysis, the CO₂ aliquot was inlet into a Thermo-Finnigan Delta XP^{Plus} Isotope 696 Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS). Carbon isotopes on gas samples from the 2017 697 campaign were analyzed at Universidad Nacional on a Picarro G2201-I by acidification of 698 NaOH solutions extracted from Giggenbach bottle samples. $\delta^{13}C_{PDB}$ values were 699 calibrated against a set of 8 standards with values ranging from + 2.42 ‰ to -37.21‰, 700 including internationally accepted standards NBS19 and Carrara Marble. Reported delta 701 values have uncertainties of <0.1 ‰ based on repeat analyses of standards and samples. 702

703 Noble gas analysis was also conducted in the Noble Laboratory at the University 704 of Oxford (2017 samples), using a dual mass spectrometer setup, interfaced to a 705 dedicated extraction and purification system⁵³. Gases were collected in Cu-tubes, and 706 then transferred to the extraction and purification line where reactive gases were 707 removed by exposing gases to a titanium sponge held at 950 °C. The titanium sponge 708 was cooled for 15 minutes to room temperature before gases were expanded to a dual 709 hot (SAES GP-50) and cold (SAES NP-10) getter system, held at 250 °C and room 710 temperature, respectively. A small aliquot of gases was segregated for preliminary 711 analysis on a Hiden Analytical HAL-200 quadrupole mass spectrometer. All noble gases 712 were then concentrated using a series of cryogenic traps; heavy noble gases (Ar-Kr-Xe) 713 were frozen down at 15 K on an all SS finger and the He and Ne were frozen down at 19 714 K on a cold finger filled with charcoal. The temperature on the charcoal finger was then 715 raised to 34 K to release only He, which was inlet into a Helix SFT mass spectrometer.

Following He analysis, the temperature on the charcoal cryogenic trap was raised to 90K to release Ne, which was inlet into an ARGUS VI mass spectrometer.

718

719 Water samples for carbon isotope analysis (2017 samples) of dissolved inorganic 720 carbon (DIC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were collected by 50-mL syringes and 721 filtered by connecting membrane syringe filters with a pore size of 0.20 μ m (DISMIC-722 25AS; Advantec Toyo Kaisha, Tokyo, Japan) and syringe needle. Then filtered water was 723 directly injected to the pre-vacuumed 50-mL serum bottle sealed with butyl rubber 724 septa and an aluminum crimp. The subsampled water (10 mL) for DIC measurement 725 from each water sample of 50-mL sealed vials by nitrogen gas and transferred to a pre-726 vacuumed 30-mL glass vial sealed with butyl rubber septa and an aluminum crimp. DIC concentrations and their δ^{13} C values were measured using CO₂ in the headspace of glass 727 728 vials after a 1-h reaction with injected 0.5mL H₃PO₄. DOC were also measured CO₂ in the 729 headspace after the reaction of carbonate-free residue with 0.2 g sodium persulfate. 730 The amount of CO₂ and the isotopic values were measured using a Agilent 6890N gas 731 chromatograph attached to a Thermo-Finnigan Delta XP^{Plus}. Two international standards 732 $(\delta^{13}C = -13.90\%$ and 2.52‰) were used for standardization, and the standard 733 deviations were shown by over 3 times measurement.

734

735 The sediments surrounding the surface emanations of the springs were collected 736 for measuring TOC content and carbon isotopic compositions. The sediment samples 737 were kept at 4°C until transporting to the laboratory. Glass vial samples were then 738 stored at -80°C until further treatment. Firstly, the sediment samples were freeze-dried 739 and then crushed into fine grains using a mortar to remove large leaves and roots. 50-740 100 mg of sediment samples were weighed and reacted with 1 M HCl solution until 741 effervescence stopped, followed by a rinse with distilled water until the pH neutralized. 742 The TOC sediment samples were analyzed using an elemental analyzer (EA-1110; 743 Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled to a Thermo Fisher Scientific MAT 252 isotope ratio 744 mass spectrometer (IRMS).

746 Samples for cell counts were taken in 2017 as close to the source spring as 747 possible, usually in an outflow from a rock outcrop or a small surface pool that was 748 rapidly being refilled by the source. We placed 1 ml fluids into a 2 ml plastic tube with a 749 rubber o-ring screwcap (to prevent evaporation) containing 500 µl 3% 750 paraformaldehyde solution in phosphate-buffered-saline (PBS). Cell count samples fixed 751 with 3% paraformaldehyde in the field were kept at room temperature during return to 752 the University of Tennessee and were weighed upon returning to the lab. Cell counts 753 were determined on a Guava Easy Cyte 6HT-2L (Millipore) flow cytometer. Triplicate 754 aliquots of each sample (200μ L) were stained with 5× SybrGreen prior to analysis. We 755 estimated contributions of cell biomass with total cell counts, and average carbon 756 content of subsurface microbes⁵⁴, by multiplying the average number of cells in our fluid 757 samples by the volume of hosting rocks (from the trench to the arc – assuming a log 758 increase of the isotherms moving toward the arc) up to 2 km depths, and using an 759 average rock porosity (to obtain possible fluid amounts)⁵⁵, and found that they did 760 represent a significantly large carbon reservoir.

761

745

762 Aliphatic hydrocarbons (C10-C40) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons 763 (PAHs) were analyzed using conventional procedures based on gas chromatography 764 with a flame ionization detector (FID) and HPLC with diode array and fluorimetric 765 detection⁵⁶. Briefly, aliphatic hydrocarbons (C10-C40) were extracted with 766 hexane:acetone (2:1) in a microwave (110°C for 25 min, 800 Watt) (Mars CEM, CEM 767 Corporation, Matthews NC). After centrifugation at 3.000 × g for 10 min, the 768 supernatants were purified with solid-phase extraction (Phenomenex Strata-X, 500 769 mg \times 6 mL plus Phenomenex Strata-FL, 1000 mg \times 6 mL) and then concentrated using 770 a SpeedVac (RC1009; grade n-hexane and analyzed with a PerkinElmer gas 771 chromatograph) equipped with an Elite-5 capillary column (30 mm \times 0.32 mm ID \times 772 $0.25 \,\mu\text{m}$ -df) and a FID. For guantitative determination, the system was calibrated 773 with an unsaturated pair n-alkane standard mixture according to ENISO 9377-3 (Fluka

774 68281). For the analysis of PAHs, sediment samples were extracted using 0.5 M 775 potassium hydroxide in methanol with microwave at 55°C for 20 min (800 Watt) 776 (CEM, Mars System). After centrifugation at 3.000 × g for 10 min, the methanol 777 extracts were concentrated using a SpeedVac and purified with solid-phase 778 extraction (Octadecyl C18, 500 mg × 6 mL, Bakerbond). A final volume of 1 mL was 779 recovered with pure, analytical HPLC gradient grade acetonitrile; HPLC analyses were 780 carried out in a water-acetonitrile gradient by fluorimetric and diode array detection. 781 The PAHs were identified according to the retention times of an appropriate pure 782 standards solution (EPA 610 Polynuclear Aromatic Hydrocarbons Mix), and classified 783 as low molecular weight (LMW: naphthalene, acenaphthylene, 1-methyl 784 naphthalene, 2-methyl naphthalene, acenaphthene, fluorene, phenanthrene, 785 anthracene) or high molecular weight (HMW: fluoranthene, pyrene, 786 benzo(a)antrhacene, chrysene, 7,12-dimethyl-benzo(a)anthracene, 787 benzo(b)fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, benzo(a)pyrene, 788 dibenzo(a,h)anthracene, benzo(g,h,i)perylene, indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene). Accuracy 789 and precision were checked analyzing both pure standard solutions and reference 790 materials (NIST 1944) and the obtained concentrations were always within the 95% 791 confidence intervals of certified values. Aliquots of all the samples were dried in a 792 oven at 60°C for at least 8 h, up to obtain a constant weight, in order to quantify the 793 interstitial water content, allowing to express all the analyzed chemicals as a function 794 of the dry weight (d.w.) of the sediments.

795

796 Isotope fractionation modeling:

He-C studies in volcanic arc settings^{2,57-60} have coupled helium and carbon
isotopes to distinguish carbon from different provenances using a three-component
mixing model (Extended Data Figure 1). In such acidic settings, volcanic activity has been
suggested to release previously sequestered CO₂⁶¹⁻⁶⁴, which mixes with slab/mantle
carbon and results in the characteristic signatures. Samples from this study were
collected from a range of lithologies from ophiolites in Nicoya⁶⁵⁻⁷⁰ to andesitic and

803 basaltic volcanic rocks in the arc and forearc. The volcanic front in Costa Rica developed 804 on the western edge of the Caribbean Plateau, an oceanic plate basement without any 805 preexisting continental or arc material⁷¹⁻⁷³. The Santa Elena ophiolite is part of a series 806 of exotic, arc-related terrenes that make the basement of the volcanic front in southern 807 Nicaragua and does not extend south of the Hess Escarpment-Santa Elena suture⁷⁴⁻⁷⁵. 808 However, these carbon isotope data are consistent with a model that requires for a 809 homogenous C isotope input flux. This indicates that degassing of the downgoing 810 slab/mantle drives the ¹³C-isotope inputs, rather than the over-riding crust, but in some 811 cases, this signal is subsequently obfuscated by low temperature precipitation of 812 isotopically heavy calcite, which effectively fractionates the carbon isotopes. Here we 813 provide additional details on the fractionation modeling used to construct the calcite 814 fractionation curves in Figure 3 (main text).

815

816 In summary, carbon is released from the slab/mantle and reacts with shallow 817 groundwater forming an initial pool of dissolved carbon (DC). An isotopic fractionation 818 factor between dissolved carbon and calcite (see details below) is calculated based on best fit to the observed data by varying temperature iteratively. The starting δ^{13} C of DC 819 820 is determined to be different from the northern (5.0%) and central (0.5%) transect, 821 presumably controlled by different slab inputs. Notably, the presumed slab inputs are 822 consistent with positive isotope values measured in carbonate sediments off the coast 823 of Nicoya⁷⁶. Starting δ^{13} C input conditions are assumed to be the same for forearc, 824 backarc and arc. As the Rayleigh fractionation progresses, calcite is precipitated and the 825 isotope composition of residual DC reflects open system (Rayleigh) fractionation 826 processes. Rayleigh distillation curves were iteratively fitted to the data using: 827

828 eq. 1.

829 $\delta^{13}C_{DC_f} \cong (\delta^{13}C_{DC_i} + 1000)(F^{\alpha_{DC-calcite}-1}) - 1000$

830

after⁷⁷, where F is the fraction of dissolved carbon (DC) remaining in the fluid, $\delta^{13}C_{DC_f}$ 831 is the carbon isotope composition of DC at F, $\delta^{13}C_{DC_i}$ is the initial isotope composition 832 833 of the DC, and $\alpha_{DC-calcite}$ is the fractionation factor between DC and calcite at a given 834 temperature. The fractionation factor between DC and calcite was calculated from⁷⁸: 835 836 eq. 2. 837 $1000 ln\alpha_{DC-calcite} = -8.91 x 10^8 T^{-3} + 8.557 x 10^6 T^{-2} - 1.881 x 10^4 T^{-1} + 8.27 x 10^{-1} + 1.000 x^{-1} + 1.$ 838 839 840 where T is the temperature in Kelvin. 841 842 Model curves were fit to the data from each transect by iteratively varying the values of $\delta^{13}C_{DC_i}$ and the temperature of calcite formation. Best-fit results were 843 obtained with $\delta^{13}C_{DC_i} = +5.0\%$ and T = 67 °C (R² = 0.91) for the northern transect and 844 $\delta^{13}C_{DC_i} = +0.5\%_0$ and T = 63 °C (R² = 0.86) for the central transect. 845 846 847 Total dissolved carbon (DC) values used in the model are calculated from the 848 sum of measured DIC and DOC concentrations (Supplementary Table 4), and $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ is the average of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{DOC}$, weighted by their respective DIC and DOC 849 850 concentrations. DIC dominates total DC contents, typically accounting for ~80% of DC 851 on a sample by sample basis. DOC data are not available for 12 of our 30 samples, as 852 several samples were collected on previous reconnaissance field campaigns. 853 However, the strong correlation between DC and DIC (Extended Data Figure 3) allows 854 us to confidently predict the DC concentration and $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ of the samples for which DOC is not available. The predicted DC and $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ are thus used for the 12 samples 855 856 for which DOC data are not available in Figure 3 (main text). The slope of the linear 857 regressions in Figures S2a and S2c is used to calculate the fraction of DOC in the 858 northern and central transects (5.4 % and 4.7 %, respectively). 859

860 **Carbon budget calculations:**

861 The carbon isotope fractionation model allows calculation of the fraction of 862 carbon in various forearc reservoirs. Based on the average $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ values at the forearc 863 sites (here defined as located at <155 km from the trench), the fraction (F) of carbon 864 remaining in the fluid can be calculated (expressed as "% carbon sequestered as calcite" 865 in Figure 3, which is equal to 100(1- F)). The average $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ values at forearc sites are 866 further used to calculate the total DC concentration in mmol/L based on the Rayleigh 867 curves. Because the curves are steep at low F values, the $\delta^{13}C_{DC}$ values represent a more 868 robust and sensitive parameter than DC concentrations, which are more susceptible to 869 dilution and analytical uncertainty at low concentrations. The average DIC concentration 870 for forearc fluid is then calculated from dissolved carbon concentrations from the 871 relationship between DC and DIC expressed in Figures S2a and S2c. In this model, DOC 872 is then the residual carbon once DIC and calcite concentrations are accounted for. The 873 results of these calculations indicate that 91.3% of the total forearc carbon is 874 sequestered as calcite, 6.0% is released at the surface as DIC, and 2.7% is consumed by 875 microbiological processes to form DOC.

876

877 Our flux estimates for the Costa Rican forearc (see main text) show that between 878 7.1×10^6 and 7.9×10^8 mol CO₂/yr are released to the surface by spring outflow as DIC 879 and CO₂ gas. Based on the above-described model, we argue that this represents the 880 residual carbon left over after pervasive calcite deposition. The total flux (i.e., subducted 881 slab and mantle fluid) through the forearc, including both calcite deposition and 882 microbial consumption, ranges from 1.2×10^8 to 1.3×10^{10} mol/yr (Figure 4).

883

884 **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

889 Costa Rica convergent margin predicts efficient CO_2 release from the top of the 890 subducting slab beneath forearcs, at depths of 65-80 km¹².

891

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.

900 Arc fluxes are typically only measured along a relatively narrow transect source: 901 the volcanic front. In contrast, springs occur over a large stretch of the forearc, so this is 902 a much larger area to integrate. Quantitative assessment of gas fluxes from the forearc, 903 backarc, fault-related sites, hydrothermal volcanic systems (e.g., Tenorio, Miravalles, 904 Irazú, Rincón de la Vieja flank sites), and concurrent diffuse degassing are lacking. Here 905 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 906 907 per year, which represents as much as ~36% of the total arc flux. , and could reduce the 908 amount transferred into the deep mantle by up to ~19%.

909

910 Previous studies have utilized helium and carbon isotopes (3 He/ 4 He, δ^{13} C) and 911 relative abundances ratios (CO₂/ 3 He) of fumarole sites at arc settings. Two approaches 912 were taken in these areas in order to determine CO₂ fluxes: 1) combining measured 913 CO₂/ 3 He data with known 3 He fluxes and 2) to combine measured CO₂/SO₂ data with 914 known SO₂ fluxes. Previous work was conducted throughout Costa Rica^{3,6,8} El Salvador 915 Honduras⁷ and Nicaragua².

916

917 In typical subduction zones, the vast majority of carbon is thought to be recycled 918 back into the lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere¹, and what remains is 919 transported into the deep mantle. In stark contrast, mass balance considerations from 920 the Costa Rica convergent margin suggest the majority of subducted C (more than 85%) is ultimately transferred into the deep mantle^{2,3,6}. Importantly, this estimation assumes 921 922 that the forearc and backarc fluxes are negligible, which we have shown in this 923 contribution to be untrue. Prior work⁶ estimated the subducting CO₂ input flux for ~310 924 km Arc of Costa Rica to be 8.2×10^{10} mol/yr⁶, assuming "1% organic CO₂" in sediments 925 based on data from a single IODP site (1039) and a "global average" altered crustal 926 composition of 0.2% CO₂, extrapolated over the entire slab thickness. Published carbon 927 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 928 929 determined to be >90% sediment and marine carbonate derived, based on C-isotope 930 data². However, more recent studies^{8,61,79} use a more complete assessment of volcanic 931 degassing from the arc to show that the current volcanic CO₂ flux from Costa Rica is 932 significantly higher $(6.10 \times 10^{10} \text{ mol/yr})$. The 2017 study⁸ is based on new data for 11 933 volcanoes in Costa Rica and Nicaragua showing that the CO₂ flux from the arc is 934 underestimated in previous studies. Their finding suggests that the Central American 935 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 936 937 is an order of magnitude greater than previous estimates^{2,6}. However, the Costa Rican-938 Nicaraguan margin has displayed an increase in arc-wide volcanic activity in recent 939 years⁸. Thus, arc systems probably show significant variation in gas output over time. If 940 the older estimates^{2,6} of CO_2 flux are taken to be more representative of the time-941 integrated CO_2 flux, then there is still a considerable missing flux in the forearc or arc. In 942 Figure 4 we take the average value from references 2 and 8 to determine an average 943 CO_2 flux of 3.7 mol/yr ± 66%.

944

945 **Geologic Background:**

946 The Central American subduction zone is characterized by rapid (70–90 mm/year) 947 convergence of young (15–25 Ma) oceanic lithosphere⁸⁰⁻⁸², whereas the downgoing Cocos 948 plate is composed of a thin sedimentary layer (~428m). The upper section of the column 949 (177 m) consists of Quaternary to upper Miocene hemipelagic diatomaceous mud and 950 middle Miocene brown abyssal clay and the lower section consists of middle-lower 951 Miocene chalky carbonate ooze and manganiferous chalk and chert⁸³⁻⁸⁴. The composition 952 of subducted sediments and carboniferous material is microbiologically altered, due to 953 the fact that anaerobic respiration and fermentation determine sediment redox conditions, alkalinity, and carbon isotope pools⁸⁵⁻⁸⁶. The entire column of incoming 954 955 sediments under-thrusts the toe of the Caribbean Plate. However, the absence of 956 significant off-scraping or sediment accretion suggests the Costa Rica convergent margin is either non-accretionary, or underplated further landward^{79,87}. Under-thrusting leads to 957 958 rapid compaction of the upper hemipelagic sediments and dewatering of pore fluids 959 within the first few kilometers of subduction⁸⁸, resulting in the release of carbon dioxide and methane at relatively shallow depths into the overlying forearc³. Fluids released 960 961 during dehydration reactions ascend through the overriding plate along deep-penetrating 962 faults, producing numerous fluid venting sites in the forearc of Costa Rica⁸⁹. A significant 963 portion of the forearc is subaerial (Nicoya and Osa peninsulas), providing unique sampling 964 opportunities not found at the majority of arc systems. In addition to mechanically 965 induced shallow dewatering near the toe of the overriding plate, deeply-sourced (i.e., 966 abiotic) fluids are released by mineral dehydration reactions and phase transformations at 967 depths of approximately 10-15 km (between 60-140°C)^{88,90}, which are pressure and 968 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 969 970 Central American Volcanic Arc. The volcanic arc in Costa Rica extends from the north to 971 the center of Costa Rica, immediately to the east of the Nicoya Peninsula. We collected 972 samples for this study in the forearc, arc and backarc of this region.

973

974 Microbiological Background:

975 ¹³C-depleted carbon dioxide in fluids released in the submarine portion of the 976 outer forearc indicate a δ^{13} C depleted source and may imply biological production 977 through anaerobic respiration of sulfate, which is an abundant oxidant in seawater 978 (Füri et al. 2010). The level of ¹³C-depletion can be moderate (-10 to -15‰), 979 suggesting electron donors from organic matter, or extreme (-60 to -70‰), 980 suggesting electron donors from methane. Methanotrophy can occur anaerobically 981 through sulfate reduction⁹³, or aerobically when oxygenated seawater mixes with 982 methane-rich fluids⁹⁴. The methane itself may be methanogenic products mobilized from the >12 km source fluids⁹⁵, or shallower methanogenesis⁹⁶, but this has yet to 983 984 be resolved with isotopic analysis.

985

986 Methane in the subaerial section of the margin has been found to have a 987 significant biogenic component, with δ^{13} C of -35 to -45‰, and presence of 988 methanogenic archaea⁹⁷⁻⁹⁸. However, no large-scale survey of the effects of 989 microbiology on degassing across a convergent margin have been performed. The 990 few microbiological studies that have been performed in convergent margins have 991 focused on a single site at a time, preventing any region-scale exploration of how 992 microbes interact with these deep geological processes.

993

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1210	Data Availability Statement (DAS):
1211	All raw data needed to make the plots are available in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2
1212	as well as in the Source Data file provided. All data is archived through EarthChem
1213	(DOI: 10.1594/IEDA/111271).
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1216	
1217	Extended Data Figure 1 – CO ₂ / ³ He vs. δ^{13} C for all samples collected, together with
1218	endmember mixing lines between mantle, organic sediment and carbonate
1219	endmembers. We argue that such mixing relationships cannot easily explain the water
1220	data, and instead carbon isotope fractionation associated with calcite precipitation and
1221	chemolithoautotrophy introduces the observed δ^{13} C variations.
1222	
1223	Extended Data Figure 2 – Helium isotopes (³ He/ ⁴ He) vs. X-values (air-normalized
1224	⁴ He/ ²⁰ Ne; considering solubility in water for fluid samples ²³). The majority of samples
1225	have high (>5) X-values, indicating minimal air-contributions to samples.
1226	
1227	Extended Data Figure 3 – Relationship between DC and DIC concentrations and δ^{13} C.
1228	Values for northern Costa Rica (panels A and B) are shown with blue symbols and
1229	central Costa Rica (panels c and d), with red symbols. Strong correlations allow
1230	prediction of DC concentrations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for the sites for which DIC compositions
1231	are lacking. The slope of the concentration plots is used to calculate the fraction of DIC
1232	and DOC in the sample suites.