

Significance of H2 and CO release during thermal treatment of natural phyllosilicate-rich rocks

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Benoît Quesnel, Laurent Truche, Michel Cathelineau, Marie-Christine Boiron, Malgorzata Lempart-Drozd, et al.. Significance of H2 and CO release during thermal treatment of natural phyllosilicate-rich rocks. Chemical Geology, 2022, 588, pp.120647. 10.1016/j.chemgeo.2021.120647. hal-03457415

HAL Id: hal-03457415 https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/hal-03457415v1

Submitted on 30 Nov 2021

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1	Significance of H ₂ and CO release during thermal treatment of natural							
2	phyllosilicate-rich rocks							
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15								
16	Keywords: natural hydrogen, hydrogen isotope, dehydrogenation, chlorite, talc							
17								
18	Highlights							
19	• H ₂ is produced by dehydrogenation of Fe-poor phyllosilicates							
20	 H₂ produced by dehydrogenation has very low δD values 							
21	• Large mineral-H ₂ hydrogen isotope fractionations are induced by dehydrogenation							
22	• Dehydrogenation is a potential H ₂ source term in the hydrogen geochemical cycle							
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26	Abstract							
27	Phyllosilicates may trap hydrogen (H_2) in the crust, but they may also produce it							
28	through various processes, including oxidative dehydrogenation. The dehydrogenation							
29	temperature depends on the type and composition of the phyllosilicates considered, but it may							
30	be as low as 300 °C. Here, we document the release of H_2 and CO during thermal treatment of							
31	chloritite (300 °C) and talc (500 °C) from the Trimouns deposits (Eastern Pyrenees, France).							
32	Thermal release of gases coupled to stable isotope analysis has been used to recover and							
33	characterize H_2 and CO, the two detected gases. Hydrogen content may be as high as 7 ppm							
34	with δD_{H2} values ranging from -258 ‰ to - 224 ‰ for sub-pure chloritite and -140 ‰ for pure							
35	talc. CO content ranges between 3 ppm and 35.3 ppm with very homogeneous $\delta^{13}C_{CO}$ values							
36	between -27.6 $\%$ and -25.7 $\%$. This study supports the idea that H ₂ was produced during							

experiments by dehydrogenation. The origin of CO remains enigmatic, but its carbon isotope
composition suggests a link to the few amounts of graphite documented in chloritite and talc
from the deposit. This work also reports extensive hydrogen isotope fractionation between H₂
produced by dehydrogenation and both talc and chloritite. Dehydrogenation of phyllosilicates
is a potential source term of H₂ in numerous magmatic-hydrothermal settings and must thus be
accounted for in the budget of the H₂ geochemical cycle.

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45 1. Introduction

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47 Recent investigations have demonstrated that phyllosilicates are excellent traps for 48 gaseous species migrating in the Earth's crust. Entrapment of CH₄ or CO₂ by phyllosilicates is 49 already well documented in the context of shale gas exploration, CO₂ sequestration, and nuclear 50 waste storage (Busch et al., 2016; Klewiah et al., 2020; Sanz et al., 1983; Ziemiański et al., 51 2020). High H₂ contents (up to 500 ppm) have been recently reported in clay-rich rock 52 surrounding the Cigar Lake U-ore deposit in Canada (Truche et al., 2018). In this latter case, 53 H_2 was released sequentially within minutes after thermal heating of the samples within the 80 54 - 300 °C temperature window.

For this study, the first intention was to study the paleo-gas(es) entrapped or adsorbed in talc and chloritite from the Trimouns deposit (France). In this area, hydrothermal fluids could have been enriched in H₂, CH₄, and CO as lherzolites are serpentinized in the talc deposit surroundings. This work proposes quantifying and measuring the stable isotope composition of gases released during the heating of natural chloritite and talc samples from the Trimouns deposit (Pyrenees, France) and discussing their origin and geological significance.

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64 2. Material and Methods

65 2.1 Material

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Chloritites and talc from the Trimouns deposit (Fig. 1) result from the hydrothermal
alteration of host rocks (pegmatites, micaschists and dolostone) by primary brines circulation
(Boiron et al., 2005; Boiron et al., 2007; Boulvais et al., 2006; Moine et al., 1989; Parseval (de)
et al., 2004; Quesnel et al., 2019). In this study, three types of samples from the Trimouns
deposit and La Porteille area - the north extension of the main deposit - have been studied (Fig.
1). Alteration of pegmatite yield to Chloritite-P, micaschist to Chloritite-M, and talc (Fig. 2)
formed at the expense of the three lithologies (Moine et al., 1989; Parseval (de), 1992).

75 2.2 Sample characterization methods

76 2.2.1 Bulk rock characterization

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78 Major and trace element concentrations were determined according to the analytical 79 procedure developed by Carignan et al. (2001). Total CO₂ and sulfur have been measured using 80 a HORIBA EMIA 320V2 analyzer. Organic carbon content has been measured using a 81 HORIBA EMIA 320V2 analyzer on decarbonated samples after hydrochloric acid digestion of 82 carbonates. For FeO, whole-rock samples have been digested by a sulpho-nitric solution, and Fe²⁺ content has been determined by volumetric titration. The latter consists of using a titrated 83 potassium dichromate solution with potentiometric marking (platinum electrode and reference 84 85 electrode Hg/Hg₂Cl₂, saturated KCl) of the equivalent point using an automatic Titroline Schott 86 Titrimeter. Unfortunately, the digestion of most of the samples was incomplete, and Fe₂O₃ 87 analyses corresponding to the total iron content of whole-rock samples will be used for 88 diagrams and discussions. In contrast, FeO analyses will be presented for indicative purposes 89 only. These whole rock analyses have been performed at Service d'Analyses des Roches et des 90 Minéraux (SARM) at Centre de Recherche Pétrographiques et Géochimiques (CRPG), Nancy, 91 France.

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93 Qualitative and quantitative minerals composition of bulk samples were performed 94 using X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) analysis on a Thermo X'TRA diffractometer working in 95 Bragg-Brentano geometry. Powder diffraction analytical conditions involved an X-ray tube with a copper anode (CuK α – 1.54178 Å, voltage 45.2 kV, current 35 mA), the 0.9 mm 96 97 divergence slit, and 1.6 mm anti-scatter slit were used on the primary side while on the 98 secondary side, 1.6 mm anti-scatter slit and 0.3 mm receiving slit were used; soller slits 2.3° on 99 both sides and a scintillation X-ray detector. Samples were scanned from 4 to $80^{\circ}2\theta$ with step 100 size 0.02°20. Before the measurements, all samples were ground in a McCrone micronizing 101 mill for 3 minutes. Mineral quantification was performed by the Rietveld refinement method 102 using the BGMN program (www.bgmn.de), based on the XRD patterns collected on randomly 103 oriented specimens for #CH4, #CH5, #CH6, #CH8, and #PORT7 samples, and on oriented 104 specimens for #CH3 and #TLC1.

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106 2.2.2 Whole Rock hydrogen isotope analysis

Hydrogen isotopic measurements of the different samples were performed online using
the EA Eurovector – GV Isoprime IRMS System at CRPG laboratory (Nancy, France)
according to the procedure developed by Lupker et al. (2012). First, the samples were weighed
in tin capsules (1–5 mg). To remove atmospheric water potentially adsorbed by the samples,

111 these capsules were then loaded in a sample carousel and degassed at 120 °C under vacuum for 112 48h in a degassing canister (Lupker et al., 2012). After dehydration, the degassing canister was 113 open into a dry, N₂ flushed glove box, and the sample carrousel was transferred into a sealed 114 auto-sampler initially pre-flushed with He. The auto-sampler was then connected to the EA and 115 pumped out for 20 min before opening it to the reduction column. Then, samples were 116 combusted at 1450 °C on an EA glassy carbon reaction tube, filled with glassy carbon chips, 117 and placed itself into a ceramic liner to reduce hydroxyls (OH) release by the samples into H₂. 118 Produced gas was separated on a chromatographic column maintained at 60 °C, and H₂ was 119 introduced into the mass spectrometer and analyzed for D/H isotopic composition. Isotopic 120 compositions were determined by comparison with three internal standards routinely included 121 during the analysis: (i) phlogopite (Mica-Mg: $\delta D = -77 \%$), (ii) muscovite (MuscD65: $\delta D = -77 \%$) 122 85 ‰), (iii) fine-grained marine sediment from the Bay of Bengal (SO188: $\delta D = -83$ ‰). Produced H_2 was corrected from the H^{3+} contribution using in-house H_2 standard injections. 123 The hydrogen isotopic composition is expressed as δD (‰) relative to Standard Mean Ocean 124 125 Water (SMOW). The reproducibility of the method is better than 2% for δD .

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127 2.2.3 Thermogravimetric (TG) analysis

128 Thermogravimetric (TG) analysis was performed using a TA Discovery instrument (TA 129 Instruments, USA), which had a weight measurement accuracy of $<0.1 \mu g$, and a thermal drift 130 between 200 and 1000°C of $<4 \mu g$. A 20 mg air-dried powder sample placed in a Pt crucible 131 was heated in a dry nitrogen gas atmosphere (>99.999 % purity) with a flow rate of 100 cm^3 132 min⁻¹. Before the TG experiment, each sample was dried in situ in the TG furnace isothermally 133 for 15 min at 200 °C to remove the adsorbed water. A ramp heating to 1000 °C at a rate of 10 134 °C min⁻¹ was used for each measurement. The total mass loss was calculated as the difference between mass loss recorded at 205 °C and 1000 °C (endpoint of heating). The thermal events 135 136 temperature was analyzed using the first derivative of the TG curve (DTG).

137 The use of thermal analysis allows observing the thermal decomposition reactions, 138 involving mostly dihydroxylation (in the range 400 °C - 800 °C). Dehydroxylation occurs 139 during the heating of all phyllosilicates leading to the formation and migration of H₂O formed 140 by neighbouring OH groups in the octahedral sheet (Heller-Kallai and Rozenson 1980; Drits et 141 al. 1995).

142

143 2.3 Thermal treatment

Between 55 g to 80 g of the 0.5-5 mm grain size fraction of the rock samples were
loaded in a pyrex tube, connected to the vacuum separation line (Fig.3), and pumped less than
1 minute at ambient temperature to reach good vacuo condition (~10⁻³ mbar). During

147 progressive heating to reach stationary temperatures, most of the condensable gases were 148 released below 300° C (mainly adsorbed H₂O and CO₂) and were immediately trapped in liquid nitrogen. Fixed temperatures of 300 °C and 500 °C have been chosen for chloritite and talc 149 150 samples, respectively, because preliminary tests revealed that non-condensable gases such as 151 H₂ and CO were not released at lower temperatures. The progressively released non-152 condensable gases (H₂, CO) were regularly transferred in a calibrated volume using a Toepler 153 pump (Fig. 3). All the samples were heated for about 20 hours, although most gases were released in the first hours. After 20 hours, the non-condensable gases were transferred in a 154 155 sealed pyrex tube containing CuO and Cu₂O grains to be oxidized into H₂O and CO₂ for isotopic 156 measurements (see section 2.4). Before being used, the CuO and Cu₂O grains were heated few 157 minutes under vacuum at 350°C and pumped overnight at room temperature to remove 158 adsorbed gases such as H₂O and CO₂. Finally, the condensable gases still trapped in the line 159 were separated cryogenically. CO₂ was evacuated, and H₂O was collected using a clean syringe 160 and transferred in a 2mL vial for isotopic analysis by CRDS (Cavity Ring Down Spectroscopy 161 - see section 2.5.1).

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2.4 Separation of H₂ and CO and quantification

After extraction, CO and H₂ are oxidized into CO₂ and H₂O with CuO and Cu₂O, respectively, at 450 °C for 1 hour. The produced CO₂ and H₂O are then separated cryogenically under vacuum. Water is then reduced into H₂ at 800 °C in a uranium furnace. H₂ and CO₂ are separately quantified using calibrated volume and transferred in a pyrex vessel for isotope analysis.

169

170 2.5 Hydrogen stable isotope analysis

171 2.5.1 H₂O

All water samples were analyzed at the CRPG UMR 7358 CNRS-UL (Nancy, France)
using a CRDS L2140-i Picarro water isotope analyzer coupled to a A0211 vaporization module.
Water released during thermal treatment of the rock samples was transferred into 2 mL Pyrex
vials with a 0.1 mL conic insert and sealed by an ultraclean 9 mm septum. For each sample, 10
injections of 1.8 μL of water were performed. Only the 6 last injections were used for
measurements to avoid any memory effect.

178 Isotopic compositions are reported in δ notation relative to the V-SMOW-SLAP scale. All 179 samples were adjusted to three internal references calibrated on the international standards 180 SLAP, GISP, and SMOW. Instrument precision was better than 0.1 ‰ and 1 ‰ for δ^{18} O and 181 δ D, respectively.

183 2.5.2 H_2 and CO

Hydrogen isotopic compositions of released H₂ were analyzed at the CRPG UMR 7358
CNRS-UL (Nancy, France) using a Dual-Inlet VG Isoprime Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer
(IRMS). Isotopic compositions are reported in δ notation relative to the V-SMOW-SLAP scale.
Two internal standards were analyzed, and each weekly batch of H₂ samples was obtained
following the same procedure of reducing uranium at 800 °C. Reproducibility for standards was
estimated to be lower than 2 ‰.

Carbon isotopic compositions of CO₂ formed by oxidation of CO (see section 2.4) were
analyzed at the CRPG UMR 7358 CNRS-UL (Nancy, France) using a Dual-Inlet VG Isoprime
Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS). Isotopic compositions are reported in δ notation
relative to the V-PDB scale. Reproducibility is estimated to be lower than 0.2 ‰.

194 195

196 **3.** Results

197 3.1 Chemical and mineral composition

198 Three types of samples (chloritite-P, chloritite-M, and talc) have been sampled (Fig. 199 2). First, major elements composition shows that chlorites are magnesian-clinochlore (Table. 200 1) which is consistent with the nature of chlorite documented at Trimouns (Boutin, 2016; 201 Parseval (de), 1992). Compared to other chloritite samples, #CH3 and #CH8 are enriched in 202 SiO_2 , depleted in MgO, and depleted in Al_2O_3 for the latter (Table 1). One can remark that 203 #CH5 is also slightly enriched in SiO₂ and slightly depleted in Al₂O₃. Based on XRD results 204 (Table 2), we can explain the major element concentrations in sample #CH3 by mixing with 205 quartz and muscovite and in sample #CH8 by a talc-chlorite mixture (chlorite ~11 % and talc 206 ~ 85 %). Regarding sample #CH5, the XRD results attest for a half-half mixing between 207 chlorite and talc.

Based on the work of Parseval (de) (1992) we used Cr, Ni, and V contents of chloritite samples to determine their origins (i.e. derived from the alteration of pegmatoid or micaschist). Cr, Ni, and V contents presented in Table 1 show that samples #CH4, #CH6, #CH10 and #PORT-7 are pegmatoid-derived, whereas samples #CH3, #CH5, and #CH8 are micaschistderived. One could notice that the nickel content of samples #CH5 and #CH8 is slightly lower than expected (~20 ppm whereas 25-60 ppm were expected) – a fact that could be explained by mixing with significant quantities of talc, which is depleted in Ni (Table 1).

Finally, the total iron contents (expressed as Fe₂O₃) of chloritites and talc are low and
comparable to those documented in the literature (Parseval (de), 1992; Parseval (de) et al.,
1991) with values ranging from 1.43 wt% to 7.41 wt% for chloritites and of 0.42 wt% for talc.
As shown in Parseval (de) et al. (1991), Fe(III) in chlorite is located in tetrahedral sites only,

whereas Fe(II) is located in the three sites of the two octahedral sheets with most of the Fe(II) residing in the interlayer hydroxide sheet. Parseval (de) et al. (1991) showed that Fe(III) represents 20 to 30% of the total iron (Fe₂O₃), which is consistent with both the FeO (indicative purpose only) and the total iron content (Fe₂O₃) documented for chloritite samples in the present study (Table 1). Villiéras et al. (1992) showed that very few Fe(II) was hosted by talc, the substitution of Mg by Fe(II) in the talc lattice being estimated at 1 %.

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3.2 Whole-rock hydrogen isotope composition

Whole-rock hydrogen isotope compositions (Table 2) of studied samples are very
homogeneous with values ranging between -48 ‰ and -43 ‰ with no specific variation related
to the mineralogy of the samples.

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3.3 Thermal evolution by thermogravimetry

232 The thermal behavior of all samples (except for #CH10) was tested using 233 thermogravimetric (TG) analysis (Fig. 4). Under dynamic heating conditions, no significant 234 mass change occurs below 500 °C, indicating no intense thermal decomposition reactions in 235 this temperature range, which is consistent with TG results known for clinochlore (Lempart et 236 al., 2018), talc (Čavajda et al., 2015), and muscovite (Mazzucato et al., 1999). The two-step 237 (for chloritites) and one-step (for talc) rapid mass loss between 500 and 1000 °C is due to the 238 dehydroxylation. The recorded total mass losses differed among all tested samples, resulting 239 from different proportions of chlorite, talc, and muscovite (minerals that contributed to the 240 weight loss on TG curves) and quartz. For the samples mainly containing chlorite: #CH4, 241 #CH6, and #PORT7, the total mass losses range between 11.2 and 11.9 %, which are values 242 close to the theoretical mass loss due to dehydroxylation of clinochlore ($H_2O(+)$, 12-13 wt%; 243 Lempart et al., 2018). The total mass losses are much lower for the other samples, and thermal 244 events do not seem to be completed at 1000°C. The dehydroxylation of talc-dominated samples, 245 #CH8 and #TLC1, is represented by one DTG peak that is not completed up to 1000 °C, which 246 is a common feature of talc (Čavajda et al., 2015). The complete dehydroxylation of talc 247 requires a higher temperature, up to 1350 °C (Zhang et al. 2006). Chlorite-dominated samples 248 (Fig. 4a, b, d, e, f) display two DTG peaks of mass loss with the maxima at ~600 °C and ~800 249 °C, which correspond to the dehydroxylation of the two octahedral sheets. The first peak is 250 related to an interlayer (brucite) sheet, and the second to the octahedral sheet of the 2:1 layer 251 (Lempart et al., 2020). Talc contributes to the latter thermal event due to its structural and 252 chemical similarity and the 2:1 layer of clinochlore.

253

254 **3.4** Thermal treatment

255 3.4.1 Stable isotope composition of interstitial/adsorbed water

As described in section 2.3, interstitial/adsorbed water is mainly released at a temperature lower than 300 °C. It is immediately condensed in a liquid nitrogen trap to avoid any exchange with H_2 released at a higher temperature. The released water was analyzed for its hydrogen and oxygen stable isotopic composition. Data reported in Table 2 fall on, or very close to, the Meteoric Global Water Line (Fig. 5). Only one water sample (#CH10) displays a slightly lower isotopic composition in oxygen and hydrogen, suggesting that this sample preserved meteoric water from another area (e.g. sampling area *vs* storage area).

263

264 3.4.2 Quantification and stable isotopic composition of released H₂ and CO

265 The quantities of H_2 and CO released during heating and the hydrogen stable isotopic 266 compositions of H₂ are correlated to the mineralogy of rock samples (Fig. 6a and 7a; Table 2). 267 The highest quantity of H_2 and CO are released from chloritite-P samples (4.7 to 7.4 ppm and 268 11.1 to 35.3 ppm, respectively), which are dominated by chlorite (> 85 %) with little talc (< 11 269 %) and few amounts of quartz (< 7 %). The lowest quantities of H_2 and CO are released from 270 the pure talc sample (> 98 % of talc): 0.7 ppm and 3.8 ppm, respectively. The amounts of H_2 271 and CO released from chloritite-M samples, constituted by ~10 to 50 % of chlorite, are 272 intermediate (0.5 to 1.7 ppm and 3 to 7 ppm, respectively). For H_2 , a correlation between the 273 quantity of gas released, the nature of the sample, and the hydrogen isotopic composition is 274 observed (Fig. 6b). The lowest δD values (-258 ‰ to -224 ‰) are documented for chloritite-P 275 and the highest for talc (-140 %). The δD values of H₂ from chloritite-M are intermediate with -183 ‰ and -160 ‰. For CO, δ^{13} C values are very homogeneous, ranging between -27.4 ‰ 276 277 and -25.7 ‰ with no apparent correlation to the quantity of gas released (Fig. 7b). For CO and 278 H₂, no correlation is identified between the amount of gas released and the total iron content of 279 samples (Fig. 6c and 7c). However, a linear correlation is identified for chloritite-P (Fig. 6c). 280 Amounts of CO and H₂ released during experiments are not correlated between them (Fig. 7d).

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4. The origin(s) of H₂ release during thermal treatment of samples

As presented in Figure 8, several processes can lead to the release of H₂ upon heating of phyllosilicates. The question is whether the released H₂ was initially entrapped in our samples or produced during the experiments.

286

4.1 H₂ entrapped in minerals

288 Recent studies demonstrated that physisorption of H_2 on phyllosilicates is possible 289 (Didier et al., 2012; Edge et al., 2014; Gil et al., 2009; Mondelli et al., 2015). However, all 290 these studies were performed under particular conditions (including low to cryogenic temperatures, dry condition, pre-exposure to high H₂ pressure), making them difficult to
extrapolate to the natural system. Truche et al. (2018) showed that H₂ is entrapped in clay-rich
rocks naturally exposed to radiogenic H₂. In the alteration halo of the Cigar Lake U-deposit, H₂
produced by water radiolysis when in contact with U-minerals was trapped on clay minerals.
The mechanism may be comparable to methane adsorption on shale.

296 For our study, the release of H_2 initially entrapped in the natural rock samples is 297 unlikely. The main argument is related to the lack of H_2 release during progressive heating of 298 the samples before reaching the stationary temperature of 300 °C for chloritite and 500 °C for talc (section 2.3). When reaching these temperatures, H₂ was not released abruptly but 299 300 progressively. Compared to the release of H_2 documented by Truche et al. (2018) between 80 301 $^{\circ}$ C and 300 $^{\circ}$ C with a maximum flux of H₂ at ~200 $^{\circ}$ C, it is difficult to argue that H₂ released 302 during our experiments was initially entrapped in the studied samples. The amount of H_2 303 released is also very different between the Truche et al. (2018) study and the present one: up to 304 500 ppm and 8 ppm, respectively. Moreover, our samples have been exposed to active pumping 305 before heating for less than 1 min to reach vacuum condition in the extraction line (section 2.3), 306 which could have extracted the hypothetical entrapped/adsorbed H₂.

307

308 4.2 Reduction of H₂O by Fe(II) oxidation

309 One can envision that H_2 production resulted from the reduction of adsorbed/interstitial 310 H_2O , initially contained in the rock samples, associated with Fe(II) oxidation contained in 311 chlorite. Alternatively, the production of H_2 could have been formed by the same process, but 312 from H_2O formed at higher temperatures during the dehydroxylation stage of the rock (Villiéras 313 et al., 1992). The generalized reaction can be represented according to:

314

315

$$2\text{FeO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{H}_2 \tag{1}$$

316 317 The first hypothesis, involving the reduction of H_2O initially entrapped in the rock 318 samples, is very unlikely for the following reasons. A time/temperature gap exists between the 319 release of adsorbed/interstitial H₂O occurring at T < 300 °C and the subsequent H₂ release 320 occurring at 300 °C (for chloritite) and 500 °C (for talc). Moreover, the experiments were 321 performed under vacuum conditions, and a liquid nitrogen trap was emplaced since the 322 beginning of the experiments to remove the adsorbed/interstitial H₂O upon heating (Fig. 3). 323 The low-temperature release, combined with the quick transfer and trapping of H₂O, makes 324 very unlikely the possibility to reduce water by oxidizing structural Fe(II). In comparison, H_2 325 production related to experimental serpentinization of olivine grains is kinetically hindered at T<300 °C. Several hundreds of hours are required to produce detectable amount of H₂ at T > 326 327 200°C (McCollom et al., 2016). Finally, the stable isotopic compositions (O and H) of retrieved

waterfall lie perfectly on the GMWL (Fig. 5). If H₂ release would be related to the reduction of H₂O, their isotopic compositions should be in isotopic equilibrium. For δD_{H2O} values between -100 ‰ and -60 ‰ (Table 2, Fig. 5), the hydrogen isotopic composition of H₂ should be between ~ -615 ‰ and -575 ‰ at 300 °C and between -420 ‰ and -380 ‰ at 500 °C (Bottinga, 1969).

The second hypothesis considers the reduction of H₂O formed during dehydroxylation of the rock by oxidizing Fe(II) contained in chlorite. Dehydroxylation is a high-temperature process occurring in a broad range of temperatures for trioctahedral phyllosilicates (Fig. 8), from 400 to 850 °C for chlorites (Lempart et al., 2018) and from 750 to 1100 °C for talc (Zhang et al., 2006). This process consists of a reaction between hydroxyl groups (OH) forming water molecules (Drits et al., 1995; Drits et al., 2012a; Drits et al., 2012b; Guggenheim et al., 1987; Vedder and Wilkins, 1969):

340

$$(OH)_{2n} \rightarrow nH_2O + nO_r \tag{2}$$

341

342 where O_r is the residual oxygen in the structure.

343 The newly formed H_2O could oxidize structural Fe(II) and form H_2 by reducing H_2O following 344 the equation (1) as proposed by Villiéras et al. (1992) to explain the release of H_2 during heating 345 of talc and chloritite from Trimouns. In this latter study, the authors also followed the method 346 of Zimmermann et al. (1988) to recover and separate the different gases released at various 347 temperature steps (talc: from 200 to 1100 °C; chloritite from pegmatite: from 280 to 1100 °C; 348 chloritite from micaschist: from 300 to 1080 °C). The authors documented H₂ release, between 349 0.01 and 0.8 ppm, at low temperature (between 200 and 300 °C) for chloritite and talc. The 350 release of H₂ reached a maximum at 600 °C and 850 °C for chloritite and talc, respectively, 351 with values of several tens of ppm. The main conclusion of Villiéras et al. (1992) was that H_2 352 was formed by reduction of H_2O , released during dehydroxylation, and concomitant oxidation 353 of Fe(II) to Fe(III) contained in the minerals following the equations (1). However, this 354 conclusion only explains the significant release of H_2 at a temperature above 450 °C and 750 355 $^{\circ}$ C (Fig. 8) for chloritite and talc, respectively. Thus, the question of the origin of H₂ released 356 at a temperature lower than 450 °C remains open.

Here, the experiments have been performed at temperatures significantly lower than
those expected to initiate dehydroxylation (see section 3.2). Consequently, it is improbable to
explain the release of H₂ by reducing H₂O formed during dehydroxylation on structural Fe(II).

360

361 4.3 H₂ produced by dehydrogenation and significance of δD_{H2} values

362 Dehydroxylation and dehydrogenation are competitive processes that can co-occur in
363 a similar range of temperatures and produce H₂O and H₂ gas independently (Lempart et al.,
364 2018; Lempart et al., 2020).

365 Dehydrogenation is a thermally induced reaction overlapping with dehydroxylation.
366 One proposed reaction mechanism proceeds by a release of one hydroxyl hydrogen atom per
367 one oxidized Fe(II) atom octahedrally coordinated with OH groups, leading to the generation
368 of H₂ (Brindley and Youell 1952; MacKenzie and Berezowski 1984):

369

$$Fe(II) + OH \rightarrow Fe(III) + O^{2}r + H^{\dagger} \uparrow$$
(3)

370 The dehydrogenation process was observed for all Fe(II)-containing phyllosilicates and 371 was thoroughly described for biotites, amphibolites (Vedder and Wilkins 1969; Rouxhet et al. 372 1972; Sanz et al. 1983), and/or chlorites (Borggaard et al. 1982; Steudel et al. 2016; Lempart 373 et al. 2018). The dehydrogenation occurs under an inert and oxidizing gas atmosphere or 374 vacuum conditions and prefers long-term heating over fast ramp heating conditions (Lempart 375 et al., 2018; Rouxhet et al., 1972; Sanz et al., 1983; Vedder and Wilkins, 1969). For chamosite, 376 dehydrogenation was observed at a temperature as low as 350°C during isothermal heating, 377 whereas for Fe(II)-poor clinochlore temperature of dehydrogenation was between 400-450 °C 378 (Lempart et al., 2018; Lempart et al., 2020) (Fig. 8). However, such results were tested by using 379 an inert carrier gas during thermogravimetry analysis that only allows tracking relatively high 380 mass loss, mostly related to dehydroxylation. Hence, traces of hydrogen released at lower 381 temperatures are not detectable by that method.

382 Although the formation of H₂ upon heating of Fe(II)-rich phyllosilicates is indisputable, 383 it is also documented in some studies concerning iron-poor minerals. Several studies showed 384 that the release of hydrogen upon heating in vacuo of kaolinite occurs only in the course of, or 385 after, dehydroxylation (Heide and Földvari, 2006; Heller-Kallai, 1997). Detailed mechanisms 386 remain, however, obscure. Some authors suggested that H_2 production depends on structural 387 properties, such as the specific arrangement of OH-ions and formation of lattice vacancies, 388 making possible the reaction between residual OH- groups as follow (Heide and Földvari, 2006; 389 Heller-Kallai, 1997):

390

$$OH^- + OH^- \rightarrow 2O^- + H_2 \tag{4}$$

391

However, the conclusions proposed by Heide and Földvari (2006) and Heller-Kallai
(1997) were also partially questioned by the study of Lempart et al. (2020) where H₂ release
was attributed only to oxidative dehydrogenation. Lempart et al. (2020) also challenged these

conclusions by showing the absence of H_2 generation during the heating of the same kaolinite as tested by Heide and Földvari (2006) and Heller-Kallai (1997) in an inert gas atmosphere.

397 In the present study, H_2 release is documented at a temperature significantly lower than 398 those required to reach dihydroxylation, but dehydrogenation has also been reported at lower 399 temperatures, between 350 °C and 450 °C, even for clinochlore (Lempart and Derkowski, 2019; 400 Lempart et al., 2018; Lempart et al., 2020). The samples used in this work are relatively iron-401 poor clinochlore, but the few ppm of H_2 released may be consistent with structural Fe(II) 402 oxidation. Indeed, precisely for chloritite-P, the purest chloritite samples, a correlation between 403 the quantities of H_2 released and the total iron content is observed (Fig. 6c). Thus, these results 404 suggest that the dehydrogenation probably produced H₂ during our experiments.

From an isotopic point of view, δD_{H2} values are significantly lower than the very homogeneous δD values around -45 ‰ for chloritite and talc whole-rock samples (Table 2). These values could suggest that large hydrogen isotope fractionations occur during the formation of H₂ by dehydrogenation. The correlation between the quantity of H₂ released during the experiments and the δD_{H2} values could suggest that this fractionation evolves with the intensity of dehydrogenation and the mineralogy of the starting material (Fig. 6b).

411 This hydrogen isotope fractionation associated with dehydrogenation has also been 412 documented by Feeley and Sharp (1996) who have shown that biotite having experienced 413 dehydrogenation have high δD values compared to the initial material. The released H₂ is 414 consequently supposed to have low δD values compared to the starting material. These 415 conclusions are consistent with our observations and should deserve additional investigation to 416 determine the effect of the nature of the mineral, the temperature, and the rates of 417 dehydrogenation on the hydrogen isotope fractionation between OH-rich minerals and released 418 H₂.

419

420 5. The origin of CO

421

422 As for H_2 , CO could have been initially entrapped in the natural rock or produced 423 during experiments. However, it is unlikely that CO could have been initially entrapped in our 424 samples for the same reasons as H_2 (active pumping before heating and lack of CO during 425 progressive heating). Carbon monoxide formed by reducing adsorbed/interstitial CO₂ on 426 structural Fe(II) following the equation (5) is also unlikely.

(5)

427

428 $2FeO + CO_2 \rightarrow Fe_2O_3 + CO$

As for H₂O, the low-temperature release of CO_2 and its quick transfer and trapping in a liquid nitrogen trap make very unlikely the possibility to reduce CO_2 by oxidizing structural Fe(II) (see section 4.2). An alternative hypothesis could consist in reducing CO_2 formed by decarbonation of samples as proposed by Villiéras et al. (1992) for similar talc and chloritite samples from the Trimouns deposit. However, decarbonation is a high-temperature process that consists of the thermal decomposition of carbonate at a temperature above 600°C (Sharp et al., 2003), significantly higher than the temperature of our experiments.

Even if the origin of CO released at 300 °C remains enigmatic, we suggest that CO could be derived from a process involving the graphite contained in few amounts in talc and chlorite samples from the deposit (Table.1, Parseval (de), 1992). Indeed, the carbon isotope compositions of CO released in this study are exceptionally homogeneous between -27.4 ‰ to -25.7 ‰ (Table 2) and very close to the $\delta^{13}C_{Graphite}$ value of -24.4 ‰ documented from whole rock analysis of Chlorite-P (Parseval (de), 1992).

443

444

6. Conclusion and perspectives

445 In this study, we document H_2 and CO release during heating of talc and chloritite from the 446 Trimouns deposit at 300 and 500°C, respectively. If the origin of CO remains enigmatic but 447 could be linked to reaction with graphite, we propose that H_2 has been produced during the 448 experiments by dehydrogenation of the starting material. Very low δD_{H2} values compared to 449 the initial δD values of sampled material are documented and question the isotopic 450 fractionations that dehydrogenation could induce. This extensive hydrogen isotopic 451 fractionation between OH-rich minerals and produced H₂ during dehydrogenation would 452 deserve further investigations to fully understand the effects of mineral composition, 453 temperature, and the rates of dehydrogenation. An important recommendation from this work 454 is that thermal degassing of rocks must be performed at a temperature lower than 300 °C to 455 ensure the absence of dehydrogenation of clays and in situ generations of H_2 and CO. Finally, 456 dehydrogenation may occur in various magmatic-metamorphic-hydrothermal environments and should be accounted for as a potential H₂ source term in the hydrogen geochemical cycle. 457 458 The isotopic signature of H_2 produced by dehydrogenation has to be better constrained to 459 evaluate the geological significance of this process.

460

461

462 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

463 Aurélien Randi, Catherine Lorgeoux and, Gilles Bessaque are warmly thanked for their
464 precious technical help during the first steps of the study. Alexandre Boutin, Michel de Saint
465 Blanquat, and Philippe de Parseval are thanked for their support in the fieldwork as experts of

the area. This work was conducted under the framework of a CREGU contract, the "Fluids"
program on Pyrenees, financed by the TotalEnergies company. L. Truche acknowledges
support from the Institut Universitaire de France



472 Figure 1 Simplified geological map of the Saint Barthelemy Massif modified after Boutin et
473 al. (2016) and Saint Blanquat (de) (1989)



476 Figure 2 Photos of the three types of samples studied in this work. A, B: samples #CH10 and

477 #CH4, chloritite-P with their typical light green color; C: sample #TLC1, talc with its

478 characteristic white color; D: sample #CH5, chloritite-M with its dark green-black color



481 Figure 3 Schematic diagram of the extraction and separation line inspired from Zimmermann482 et al. (1988)





486 Figure 4 Thermogravimetric (TG) pattern of studied samples ramp heated with a 10 °C/min
487 rate to 1000 °C under N₂ gas.



495 Figure 5 Oxygen and hydrogen isotope compositions of adsorbed/entrapped water released 496 from chloritite-P and chloritite-M samples during the first heating steps. Meteoric Global Water 497 Line (MGWL) has been drawn using the following equation: $\delta D = 8 \times \delta^{18} O + 10$



499 500 Figure 6 A: Quantity of H₂ released during experiments as a function of the mineralogy of 501 the sample. The chlorite amount is given in Table 2, based on XRD analyses of rock samples. 502 B: Hydrogen isotopic composition of H₂ as a function of the quantity of H₂ released during experiments. C: Quantity of H₂ released during experiments as a function of the total iron 503 504 content of the sample.



Figure 7 A: Quantity of CO released during experiments as a function of the mineralogy of the sample. The chlorite proportions are given in Table 2 based on XRD analyses of rock samples.
B: Carbon isotopic composition of CO as a function of the quantity of CO released during experiments. C: Quantity of CO as a function of the total iron content of the sample. D: Quantity of CO as a function of the quantity of H₂ released during experiments.

- 512
- 513



515 Figure 8 Sketch summarizing the range of temperatures in which various gas producer 516 processes are likely to occur. See text for details.

Sample		 #CH3	#CH5	#CH8	#CH4	#CH6	#CH10	#PORT-7	#TLC1
		Chloritite-	Chloritite-	Chloritite-	Chloritite-P	Chloritite-P	Chloritite-P	Chloritite-P	Talc
Lithology		М	М	М	cillottute 1				Ture
SiO ₂	%	42.53	38.36	54.45	33.28	34.28	33.64	31.72	62.00
Al ₂ O ₃	%	17.26	14.26	3.68	18.53	16.71	17.25	18.12	0.23
Fe ₂ O ₃	%	7.41	1.99	2.31	2.08	1.43	1.46	3.17	0.42
MnO	%	0.05	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	0.02	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	0.02	B.D.L.
MgO	%	21.91	32.86	29.89	32.94	33.44	33.59	33.38	31.69
CaO	%	0.09	0.23	1.01	0.56	1.02	1.15	0.36	0.20
Na ₂ O	%	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
K_2O	%	0.17	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
TiO ₂	%	0.78	0.84	0.11	0.07	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	0.03	B.D.L.
P_2O_5	%	B.D.L.	0.16	0.79	0.43	0.77	0.87	0.26	B.D.L.
LOI	%	9.41	10.97	7.56	12.16	11.99	12.20	12.94	5.31
Total	%	99.60	99.67	99.80	100.07	99.64	100.16	100.00	99.85
CO ₂ total	%	0.56	0.23	4.99	0.02	0.07	0.13	0.04	0.14
Čora	%	0.13	0.06	1.37	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.01
FeO	%	6.16*	1.68*	1.72*	1.67*	1.18*	1.19	2.45	0.32
S total	%	< 0.01	0.03	0.03	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01
As	ppm	0.84	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Ba	ppm	25.08	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Be	ppm	1.35	2.62	0.43	1.89	2.13	2.30	2.24	0.17
Bi	ppm	B.D.L.	0.07	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Cd	ppm	B.D.L.	0.03	B.D.L.	0.03	0.08	0.15	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Ce	ppm	61.57	0.91	1.72	9.25	2.51	2.31	1.49	0.08
Co	ppm	11.52	1.94	2.96	1.57	0.80	1.90	3.61	0.70
Cr C-	ppm	8/.08	68.60	30.04	0.73	B.D.L.	0.67	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Cu	ppm	1.88 P.D.I	1.05 P.D.I	0.57 P.D.I	1.00 P.D.I	2.02	1.79	2.00	0.20 P.D.I
Dv	ppm	2.64	0.37	0.57	1 41	2.03	2.30 5.49	0.85	0.02
Er	ppm	1.46	0.32	0.24	0.69	4.04	3.01	0.43	0.02
Eu	ppm	0.31	0.02	0.08	0.08	0.46	0.30	0.05	B.D.L.
Ga	ppm	22.37	20.37	5.60	22.18	21.30	21.70	25.18	0.34
Gd	ppm	3.30	0.27	0.62	1.17	4.12	2.78	0.56	0.01
Ge	ppm	1.30	0.87	2.01	1.04	0.87	0.82	0.77	1.54
Hf	ppm	4.08	6.54	0.51	1.75	1.59	1.24	1.96	B.D.L.
Ho	ppm	0.53	0.10	0.11	0.27	1.61	1.18	0.17	0.00
In	ppm	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
La	ppm	30.65	0.39	0.71	4.38	0.79	0.78	0.55	0.04
Lu Mo	ppm	0.24 P.D.I	0.10 P.D.I	0.02		0.30 P.D.I	0.24 PDI	0.05 P.D.I	0.00 P.D.I
Nb	ppm	D.D.L. 12.83	Б.D.L. 14.00	29.45	Б.D.L. 15.01	Б.D.L. 69.44	Б.D.L. 40.83	Б.D.L. 16.16	D.D.L. 0.09
Nd	ppm	25.61	0.59	1.61	4.49	3.25	2.36	1.23	0.05
Ni	ppm	43.88	20.19	19.33	6.13	5.63	6.09	7.88	6.47
Pb	ppm	0.49	B.D.L.	1.06	B.D.L.	1.68	1.94	1.24	B.D.L.
Pr	ppm	7.05	0.13	0.31	1.15	0.50	0.40	0.24	0.01
Rb	ppm	5.23	0.94	0.34	0.91	1.26	1.71	0.74	0.30
Sc	ppm	14.96	12.54	2.11	5.53	3.01	3.09	3.73	B.D.L.
Sb	ppm	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	0.08	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Sm	ppm	4.60	0.21	0.54	1.20	2.41	1.59	0.46	0.01
Sn	ppm	5.91	20.31	1.65	2.31	6.47	6.63	8.94	0.32
Sr Te	ppm	1.29	1.19	3.02	1.67	3.75	4.07	1.40	B.D.L.
ra Th	ppm	0.45	1.25	0.94	4.49	100.27	45.70	0.12	0.12
Th	ppm	15 07	13 19	2.68	1.58	0.73	0.74	0.12	0.00
Tm	ppm	0.22	0.06	0.03	0.11	0.52	0.39	0.06	0.00
U	ppm	2.91	3.11	20.05	5.98	42.56	43.03	3.69	0.02
V	ppm	98.14	85.79	47.80	2.69	7.67	7.84	15.35	1.38
W	ppm	27.64	22.31	7.57	2.78	12.35	4.83	B.D.L.	B.D.L.
Y	ppm	13.60	2.61	2.86	6.70	25.82	19.22	2.94	0.11
Yb	ppm	1.51	0.50	0.17	0.77	2.76	2.18	0.37	0.01
Zn	ppm	51.10	B.D.L.	24.97	12.59	B.D.L.	B.D.L.	11.65	B.D.L.
Zr	ppm	148.19	252.95	20.13	39.27	18.23	14.69	32.62	B.D.L.

 \ast Incomplete dissolution, indicative value of FeO content Table 1 Major and trace element concentrations of studied samples 519 520

Sample	#CH3	#CH5	#CH8	#CH4	#CH6	#CH10	#PORT-7	#TLC1
Lithology	Chloritite-M	Chloritite-M	Chloritite-M	Chloritite-P	Chloritite-P	Chloritite-P	Chloritite-P	Talc
H ₂ (ppm)	0.5	1.1	1.7	6.1	4.7	4.7	7.4	0.7
S		0.1	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.0
n	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
δD _{H2} vs. vSMOW								
(‰)	n/a	-160	-183	-258	-232	-224	-242	-140
S		11	13	3	3	5		
n		2	2	2	2	2	1	1
CO (ppm)	4.1	3	7	11.1	22.1	35.3	11.2	3.8
S		0.2	1.6	0	3.7	0.2	0.4	0.7
n	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
δ^{13} C CO vs. vSMOW								
(‰)	-26.5	-26.7	-25.7	-27.3	-27.4	-27.4	-27.6	-27.3
s		0.6	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0
n	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
δD _{H2O} vs. vSMOW								
(‰)	n/a	-62	-71	-63	-57	-102	-61	n/a
S		0		4		4	5	
$\delta^{18}O_{H20}vs.$ vSMOW								
(‰)	n/a	-8.9	-9.1	-9.1	-7.4	-14.3	-9.6	n/a
S		0.0		0.5		0.3	0.7	
n		2	1	2	1	2	2	
δD _{WR} vs. vSMOW								
(‰)	-48	-45	-47	-48	-46	-44	-45	-43
Chlorite (%)	43	52	11	85	94	n/a	87	<2
Talc (%)	2	44	85	11	5	n/a	6	98
Quartz (%)	35	4	<2	4	<2	n/a	7	
Auscovite (%	20							

523 Table 2 Amounts of H₂ and CO released during experiments, and stable isotope compositions

524 of H₂ (δD_{H2}), interstitial/adsorbed H₂O (δD_{H2O} , $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$), CO ($\delta^{13}C_{CO}$). Hydrogen isotope 525 compositions of whole-rock chloritite and talc samples (δD_{WR}). XRD quantitative estimation 526 of mineral compositions of whole-rock samples. n: number of replicates; σ : Difference

527 between the average and the replicates; n/a: not available.

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