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Formation temperatures of thermogenic and biogenic methane — [Source link](#)

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24 *temperatures distinguish among and allow for independent tests of possible gas formation*
25 *models.*

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27

28 **Main Text:** The environmental conditions, rates, and mechanisms of methane formation
29 are critical to understanding the carbon cycle and for predicting where economically substantial
30 amounts of methane form. Conventional models of thermogenic methane formation predict that:
31 (i) gas formation is kinetically controlled by time, temperature, and organic matter composition
32 (1); (ii) gases co-generated with oil form below ~150-160°C (2-4); and (iii) gases created from
33 the breakdown (cracking) of oil or refractory kerogen form above ~150-160°C (2-4). Microbially
34 produced (biogenic) methane in nature is thought to form mostly below ~80°C (5, 6).

35 Our understanding of the kinetics of thermogenic methane formation is dominantly
36 constrained by extrapolating kinetic parameters from high-temperature (~>300°C) laboratory
37 experiments to lower temperature (~100-200°C), geologically relevant conditions (7). These
38 experiments are sensitive to heating rates (7) and the activity of water (1, 7-10), minerals (1), and
39 transition metals (11); the observed range of derived kinetic parameters can result in divergent
40 predictions for natural methane formation temperatures (1, 10). Additionally, many thermogenic
41 gases have migrated from their source to a reservoir (3, 12-14). Although these migrated gases
42 dominate the datasets used to calibrate empirical models of thermogenic methane formation (3,
43 13-15), the ability to understand their thermal histories, and thus accurately calibrate models, is
44 hampered by: (i) a lack of independent constraints on the thermal histories of the source and
45 reservoir rocks and the timing of gas migration, and (ii) the possibility that a reservoir contains a
46 mixture of gases from different sources. Finally, biogenic gases are produced ubiquitously in

47 near-surface sedimentary environments (6, 16) and can co-mingle with thermogenic gases (17).
48 Despite the many empirical tools used to distinguish biogenic from thermogenic gases (18),
49 identifying the sources and quantifying relative contributions of biogenic and thermogenic gases
50 in nature remains challenging (17).

51 We measured multiply substituted ('clumped') isotope temperatures of methane (19)
52 generated via the experimental pyrolysis of larger organic molecules and sampled from natural
53 thermogenic deposits of the Haynesville Shale (USA), Marcellus Shale (USA) and Potiguar
54 Basin (Brazil) (20), and from natural systems with methanogens from the Gulf of Mexico and
55 Antrim Shale (USA). We quantified the abundance of both $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{D}$ and $^{12}\text{CH}_2\text{D}_2$, two clumped
56 isotopologues of methane, relative to a random isotopic distribution via the parameter Δ_{18} (20).
57 For isotopically equilibrated systems, Δ_{18} values are a function of temperature, dependent only
58 on the isotopic composition of methane, and thus can be used to calculate methane formation
59 temperatures (Fig. 1A; 19, 20, 21). It was not obvious prior to this work what Δ_{18} -based
60 temperatures of natural samples would mean, in part because conventional models assume that
61 methane forms via kinetically (as opposed to equilibrium) controlled reactions (1-3, 8, 22-24).

62 We generated methane from larger hydrocarbon molecules at constant temperatures in
63 two experiments: pyrolysis of propane at 600°C (20) and closed-system hydrous pyrolysis (7, 9)
64 of organic matter at 360°C (20). For both, Δ_{18} temperatures are within 2σ of experimental
65 temperatures (Fig. 1A; Table S1). This supports the suggestion in (19) that measured Δ_{18} -based
66 temperatures of thermogenic methane could record formation temperatures.

67 We next examined thermogenic shale gases from the Haynesville Shale (25). In shale-gas
68 systems, the shale is both the source and reservoir for generated hydrocarbons (26), thus
69 minimizing complications associated with gas migration for our interpretations. Geological

70 constraints indicate that the Haynesville Shale has undergone minimal uplift ($\sim < 0.5$ km; 20)
71 since reaching maximum burial temperatures (modeled to currently be within 5-17°C of
72 maximum burial temperatures; Tables S2,3; 20). Measured Δ_{18} temperatures range from 169-
73 207°C, overlapping, within uncertainty, current reservoir temperatures (163-190°C; Fig. 1A,B;
74 Table S2). We also compared the Δ_{18} temperatures to independently calculated gas-formation
75 temperatures using the generation kinetics of Burnham (20, 27). Modeled average gas-formation
76 temperatures from secondary oil breakdown range from 168-175°C (Table S3; 20). The modeled
77 temperatures are lower than, but within uncertainty of, measured Δ_{18} temperatures (Table S2).
78 This difference likely reflects the fact that the model calculates an average formation temperature
79 that includes all hydrocarbon gases (i.e., C₁₋₅ alkanes), but the types of experiments used to
80 calibrate the model generate methane at a higher average temperature than other hydrocarbon
81 gases (28). Thus, average methane formation temperatures should be higher than those modeled
82 for average hydrocarbon gas-formation temperatures. Consequently, Δ_{18} temperatures are
83 consistent with expected methane formation temperatures. However, in this case, it is also
84 possible that methane re-equilibrated from some other, initial Δ_{18} value to one consistent with its
85 subsequent storage temperatures.

86 Next, we considered shale gases from uplifted rocks (> 3 km of uplift after maximum
87 burial; 20) in the Marcellus Shale (29), which reached modeled maximum burial temperatures of
88 183-219°C, but today are 60-70°C (Tables S2,3; 20). This system allows us to examine the
89 effects of gradual cooling and long-term storage at temperatures colder than methane formation
90 temperatures on Δ_{18} values. Samples yield Δ_{18} temperatures from 179-207°C, overlapping those
91 for the Haynesville Shale and hotter than current reservoir temperatures (Fig. 1B). Modeled
92 formation temperatures (using the Burnham kinetics as above; 27) are 171-173°C (Table S3) –

93 the modeled temperatures are again slightly lower than the measured Δ_{18} temperatures (for
94 reasons discussed above), but the two are within analytical uncertainty (Table S2). We conclude
95 that Δ_{18} temperatures of Marcellus Shale methane are indistinguishable from independent
96 expectations regarding methane formation temperatures and were not noticeably influenced by
97 later cooling.

98 We also examined thermogenic gases from the southwestern sector of the Potiguar Basin
99 (30) that migrated from deeper sources to shallower reservoirs (31). Here, measured Δ_{18}
100 temperatures range from 157-221°C and exceed current reservoir temperatures (66-106°C; Table
101 S2). This is consistent with vertical migration of gases from hotter sources to cooler reservoirs
102 (3). We note that some source rocks in the Potiguar Basin near where samples were collected
103 have experienced sufficient burial temperatures to reach a vitrinite reflectance of 2.7%, within
104 the range observed for the Haynesville and Marcellus shale gas source rocks (1.7-3.1%; Table
105 S3) and consistent with the high-temperature (>150-160°C; 2-4) 'dry gas zone' in which oil is
106 hypothesized to crack to gas (3). Thus, the Δ_{18} temperatures from Potiguar Basin methane (157-
107 221°C) are compatible with the thermal history of some source rocks in the region. Additionally,
108 a positive correlation exists between the Δ_{18} temperatures and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (32) of Potiguar Basin
109 gases (Fig. 2; p -value=0.008) with a slope, 5.3°C/‰ (± 2.2 ; 1σ), within error of some theoretical
110 estimates, 8.8°C/‰ (20, 22) and 9.4°C/‰ (20, 23). This relationship is expected because earlier-
111 generated methane is thought to form at lower temperatures with lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values than methane
112 formed later at higher temperatures (2, 3, 15, 23). The Potiguar Basin samples raise the issue that
113 mixing of gases with differing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD values can result in Δ_{18} values that are not simply
114 weighted averages of the endmembers (19, 20). However, in this specific case (and for the shale
115 gases), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD values do not span a sufficiently large range for mixing between samples to

116 result in Δ_{18} -based temperatures different (within analytical uncertainty) from the actual average
117 formation temperatures of the mixtures (Fig. S2; 20).

118 The data discussed above are consistent with the interpretation that Δ_{18} values of
119 thermogenic methane reflect isotopic equilibrium at the temperature of methane formation and
120 that the 'closure temperature' above which Δ_{18} values can freely re-equilibrate is $\sim >200^\circ\text{C}$ in
121 geological environments because: (i) Experimentally generated methane yields Δ_{18} values within
122 error of formation temperatures (Fig. 1A). (ii) All Δ_{18} temperatures from natural samples are
123 geologically reasonable formation temperatures (1-4, 10). (iii) Haynesville Shale Δ_{18}
124 temperatures are within uncertainty of current and modeled maximum burial temperatures (Fig.
125 1A,B). (iv) Haynesville and Marcellus Shale Δ_{18} temperatures are within error of independently
126 modeled gas-formation temperatures. (v) Haynesville and Marcellus Shale Δ_{18} temperatures
127 overlap despite the differing thermal histories of each system (the Marcellus Shale cooled by
128 $>100^\circ\text{C}$ after gas generation). This would not be expected if Δ_{18} temperatures represent closure
129 temperatures and thus reset during cooling of the host rocks. And (vi), Potiguar Basin Δ_{18}
130 temperatures and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are positively correlated (Fig. 2), with a slope within error of
131 theoretical predictions.

132 The agreement between the Haynesville and Marcellus Shale methane Δ_{18} temperatures
133 and modeled formation temperatures demonstrates that relatively simple gas generation models
134 are accurate when the thermal histories of the source rocks are constrained. The formation
135 temperatures of the Potiguar Basin gases are challenging to constrain with such models due to
136 gas migration, which obscures the location and timing of gas formation. Previously, these gases
137 were interpreted to have been co-generated with oils (30) and thus below $\sim 160^\circ\text{C}$ (2-4). This
138 disagreement between our data and published interpretations inspired us to examine a range of

139 gas-formation models (20) for the Potiguar Basin samples (Fig. 3). All models presented are in
140 common use and constrained by similar gas chemistry data (20); however many disagree with
141 each other and together predict a range of over 170°C for gas formation (Fig. 3). The Δ_{18}
142 temperatures allow these models to be independently evaluated, rejecting some (e.g., low-
143 temperature gas generation solely from kerogen) and narrowing the permitted interpretations.
144 Specifically, methane in the Potiguar Basin could have formed via the mixing of gases produced
145 by low-temperature ($\sim <150-180^\circ\text{C}$) kerogen breakdown with gases generated from higher-
146 temperature ($\sim >150-160^\circ\text{C}$) oil breakdown, consistent with the models of (23) and (27). This
147 scenario requires a specific set of mixing components to generate the observed formation
148 temperatures, $C_1/\Sigma C_{1-5}$ values (Table S2), and correlation between Δ_{18} temperatures and methane
149 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. Alternatively, the model of (10), which is the only model presented to incorporate
150 the importance of water in gas formation, is consistent with the Δ_{18} temperatures and $C_1/\Sigma C_{1-5}$
151 values ($<85\%$; Table S2) for the Potiguar Basin gases. This may indicate that water should be
152 considered in models of methane formation. Although the gas generation temperatures derived
153 from the breakdown of refractory kerogen, as in the model of (27), appear compatible with the
154 Δ_{18} temperatures (Fig. 3), this organic source dominantly generates methane (27) and thus cannot
155 be the sole source of gas to the system due to the high concentration of C_{2-5} alkanes in the gases
156 ($<85\% C_1/\Sigma C_{1-5}$; Table S2).

157 Thus, while the addition of Δ_{18} temperatures does not provide a unique interpretation of
158 the origin of the Potiguar Basin gases, it rules out several otherwise plausible interpretations and
159 places specific constraints on the remaining models. Importantly, our results for the Potiguar
160 Basin indicate that the formation environments for methane extend to higher temperatures (and
161 presumably depths) in this system than many models of petroleum genesis predicted (Fig. 3), and

162 supports experimental evidence that significant quantities of methane can be generated at higher
163 temperatures than sometimes appreciated (33). This requires that this basin possesses a
164 previously unsuspected ‘root’ that reached high temperatures at some point in its history,
165 generating high-temperature methane that ascended into shallower reservoirs. Thus, Δ_{18}
166 temperatures not only constrain the conditions and mechanisms of methane formation, but also
167 provide a window into the geological and thermal histories of basins in which methane forms.

168 To examine Δ_{18} -based temperatures from known low-temperature sources of methane, we
169 measured Δ_{18} values from two sources of biogenic gases produced from the biodegradation of oil
170 (Gulf of Mexico). They return Δ_{18} temperatures (34 ± 8 and $48 \pm 8^\circ\text{C}$) within error of their
171 current reservoir temperatures (42 and 48°C , respectively; Fig 1A,B; Table S2). We further
172 measured two gases from the Antrim Shale, which has been interpreted as containing a mixture
173 of biogenic gases higher in $\text{C}_1/\Sigma\text{C}_{1-5}$ and thermogenic gases lower in $\text{C}_1/\Sigma\text{C}_{1-5}$ (17). The sample
174 closer to the biogenic endmember (99.99% $\text{C}_1/\Sigma\text{C}_{1-5}$) returns a Δ_{18} temperature of 40°C (± 10 ;
175 1σ), whereas the sample interpreted here to be closer to a thermogenic endmember (88.9%
176 $\text{C}_1/\Sigma\text{C}_{1-5}$) returns a higher temperature of 115°C ($\pm 12^\circ\text{C}$; 1σ). Thus, the natural biogenic gases
177 have Δ_{18} temperatures consistent with their expected formation temperatures, both as pure
178 endmembers and as dominant components of mixtures. We note that preliminary results for
179 methanogens grown in pure culture (34) indicate that they can produce methane out of internal
180 isotopic equilibrium. Nevertheless, our measurements of natural biogenic methane indicate that
181 natural environments (at least those investigated to date) permit the attainment of local
182 equilibrium.

183 These results indicate that Δ_{18} values can be used to calculate formation temperatures of
184 methane from both pure and mixed thermogenic and biogenic gas deposits and interrogate

185 models of gas formation and geological histories of basins. Additionally, if the interpretation of
186 Δ_{18} -based temperatures as formation temperatures is correct, it has implications for our
187 understanding of the chemistry of thermogenic and biogenic methane formation. Specifically, it
188 requires a heretofore unrecognized step for both processes that allows C-H bonds to equilibrate
189 during methane formation. This interpretation is unexpected because $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of thermogenic
190 and biogenic methane are almost universally considered to be controlled by kinetic-isotope
191 effects rather than equilibrium-thermodynamic effects (2, 16, 22-24, 35). This apparent
192 contradiction can be reconciled if reacting methane precursors (e.g., methyl groups) undergo
193 local hydrogen exchange faster than the rate of net methane generation. For thermogenic gases,
194 this could occur via exchange reactions with water (36) or catalytic hydrogen exchange on
195 organic macromolecules, mineral surfaces, or transition metals (11, 37). For biogenic methane,
196 reversible hydrogen exchange could occur on methane or methane precursors if the pathway for
197 methane formation is partially reversible (35, 38). Thus, Δ_{18} measurements may also elucidate
198 chemical and biochemical mechanisms of methane formation.

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261 Potiguar Basin, Brazil. *AAPG Bulletin* **76**, 1903 (1992).
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336 data used to support the conclusions in this manuscript are provided in the Supplementary
337 Materials.

338

339 **Figures:**

340 Fig. 1: Comparisons of Δ_{18} temperatures to environmental/formation temperatures. A)
341 Formation/reservoir temperatures vs. Δ_{18} values. The dashed line is the theoretical dependence of
342 Δ_{18} on temperature (19). Equilibrated gas data are from (19). Temperatures are
343 formation/equilibration temperatures for the pyrolysis and equilibrated samples and current
344 reservoir temperatures for the Haynesville Shale and Gulf of Mexico samples. B) Current
345 reservoir temperatures vs. Δ_{18} temperatures for all natural samples investigated except the
346 Antrim Shale samples, which are excluded because they are a mixture of thermogenic and
347 biogenic gases. The dotted line is a 1:1 line. Uncertainty for well temperatures is estimated to be
348 $\sim\pm 10^\circ\text{C}$. Error bars are 1σ .

349

350 Fig. 2: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values vs. Δ_{18} temperatures for methane from the Potiguar Basin. A positive
351 correlation (p -value=0.008) is observed. The gray band is the 95% confidence interval for the
352 linear regression through the data. Error bars are 1σ .

353

354 Fig. 3: Comparison of modeled methane formation temperatures for the Potiguar Basin samples
355 (10, 15, 20, 23, 27, 39, 40) to Δ_{18} temperatures. Blue lines indicate gases generated from kerogen
356 breakdown, purple from oil breakdown, red from bitumen breakdown, and green the measured
357 range of Δ_{18} temperatures from the Potiguar Basin.

358

359 **Supplementary Materials**

360 Materials and Methods

361 Supplementary Text

362 Figs. S1 to S5

363 Tables S1 to S6

364 References (41-63)