

Graphite paradox in Baikal geysers paleovalley, Russia

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ABSTRACT

Natural graphite, a polygenic mineral, is a product of regional, contact, impact metamorphism, and magmatic or fluid deposition. In fluid-deposited graphite, aqueous C–O–H systems play a special role in determining the characteristics of hydrothermal products by shifting the chemical equilibrium. From this viewpoint, the recently discovered carboniferous mineralization in the Baikal hydrothermalites has attracted increasing interest with regard to graphite crystallization under the influence of low-pressure low-temperature (LPLT) carboniferous H₂O-rich fluids. Herein, we studied graphite mineralization in the geysers and travertines of the Baikal geysers paleovalley (Eastern Siberia, Russia) by applying a multitude

22 of mineralogical studies. Optical, scanning, transmission electron, and atomic force microscopy,
23 energy dispersive spectroscopy, Raman spectroscopy, and carbon isotopic composition analyses
24 of graphite, carbonate carbon, and oxygen in both the hydrothermalites and host rocks were
25 conducted. The obtained results revealed a number of peculiar features regarding the graphite in
26 geysers and travertines. We found that Baikal graphite, earlier predicted to be a product of
27 hydrothermalites, generally occurs as a relict graphite of the host metamorphic rocks with partial
28 in situ redeposition. The newly formed LPLT fluid-deposited graphite is characterized by
29 micrometer- and submicrometer-sized idiomorphic crystallites overgrown on the relict
30 metamorphic graphite seeds and between calcite sinter zones during the last stage of travertine
31 formation. The results present additional valuable data for understanding the mechanism, range
32 of the formation conditions, and typomorphism of fluid-deposited graphite with probable
33 crystallization from carbon solution in the C–O–H system at LPLT conditions.

34 **Keywords:** graphite; geysers; travertine; hydrothermal conditions; C–O–H fluid; fluid
35 deposition; paleovalley; Baikal rift zone

36 INTRODUCTION

37 Natural graphite is formed either from organic matter during metamorphic processes
38 (regional, contact, and impact metamorphism) or from fluid mineralization resulting from
39 carbon containing fluids (Beyssac et al., 2002, 2003; Luque et al., 2011; Jaszczak et al., 2003,
40 2007; Pasteris and Wopenka, 1991; Shumilova et al., 2003; Shumilova et al., 2018; Wopenka

41 and Pasteris, 1993 and others). Metamorphic graphite is characterized by a wide range of
42 crystallinity levels (from poorly crystalline to high ordered crystalline structures) resulting from
43 a multitude of metamorphic grades, and can be used for thermodynamic calculations (Beysac et
44 al., 2002, 2003; Wopenka and Pasteris, 1993). Fluid-deposited graphite, regardless of its
45 formation conditions, differs from the metamorphic graphite by a universal high crystalline
46 structure and has different well-shaped crystalline habits (Luque et al., 1998; Luque et al., 2009a;
47 Luque and Rodas, 1999; Jaszczak et al., 2003, 2007; Pasteris, 1999), in contrast to the preferable
48 colloform, cryptocrystalline, and flaky graphite crystals found in metamorphic rocks. Some
49 studies have stated that metamorphic and fluid-deposited varieties can occur simultaneously in
50 the same geological object, and sometimes, fluid-deposited graphite can overgrow the earlier
51 formed metamorphic graphite (Luque et al, 2011). The nature of a certain graphite variety can be
52 identified via isotopic studies, which utilize a series of geological data to recognize the different
53 carbon sources of magmatic and sedimentary carbonates, organic matter assimilation, and
54 devolatilization origin and mixture of different graphite carbon sources (Luque et al., 2011).
55 Fluid-deposited graphite is a result of carbon bearing CO_2 , $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_4$, $\text{CO}_2\text{--CH}_4\text{--H}_2\text{O}$, and CH_4
56 fluids, where H_2O plays an important role in both graphite initial deposition and precipitation
57 (Duke and Rumble, 1986). Open C–O–H systems with H_2O -rich fluid are of increasing interest
58 for understanding fluid-deposited graphite formation. Thus, the graphite occurrences in the Late
59 Quaternary hydrothermalites formed from the aqueous fluid (travertines and geyserites) of the

60 Baikal rift zone (Danilova et al. 2016; Shumilova et al. 2009, 2011; Sklyarov et al, 2014) are of
61 special interest.

62 Hydrothermal sources are also the subjects of intensive research and use (Altunel and
63 Hancock 1993; Pentecost and Viles 1994; Pentecost 1995; Minissale et al. 2002; Jones and
64 Renaut 2003; Lund et al. 2005; Omelon et al. 2006; Renaut et al. 2008; Crossey et al. 2009;
65 Gibert et al. 2009; Shumilova et al. 2018 and others). As these sources are widespread, several
66 of these are a part of active tourism and health resorts; examples include: Pamukkale in Turkey
67 (Dilsiz et al. 2004; Pentecost 2005), Italy hot springs (Cascate del Mulino, Saturina, terme di San
68 Filippo et al.), the Kamchatka valley (Naboko et al. 1999), the Mammoth Hot Springs at
69 Yellowstone in the USA (Fouke 2000), and the Iceland hot springs (Fraedrich and Heidari
70 2019). Furthermore, hot springs are useful as hydrothermal energy sources. In some cases, hot
71 springs form large travertine deposits that are used as construction and ornamental materials
72 (Dilsiz et al. 2004; Lund et al. 2005). The other type of the hot springs deposits are geysers
73 which have been studied intensively with respect to active volcanism and post volcanic
74 hydrothermal activity as well as in connection with the vital activities of organisms under
75 extreme conditions and microfossils; evidence of the first manifestations of life on land has been
76 discovered in hot spring deposits (Tatarinov et al. 2006; Van Kranendonk 2006; Harris et al.
77 2009; Campbell et al. 2015; Djokic et al. 2017; Zhegallo et al. 2018).

78 The formation of the majority of the current surface hydrotherms is associated with
79 relatively low temperatures, approximately 20–70 °C. Under these conditions thermal waters
80 among carbonate sediments precipitate travertine deposits. However, there are instances of

81 travertine formation at slightly higher temperatures, reaching 97.5 °C (Renaut et al. 2013).

82 Siliceous geysers form at moderately high temperatures, generally up to 100 °C.

83 From this viewpoint, the Late Quaternary graphite geysers and travertines of the Ol'khon
84 area and northern tip of Ol'khon Island on Lake Baikal (Eastern Siberia, Russia) are unique
85 geological and petrological objects, as detailed by Sklyarov et al. (2014), as their formation
86 proceeded at a minimum temperature of 400 °C. Conclusions regarding the high-temperature
87 formation of these geysers are mainly based on carbon phases, such as newly formed graphite
88 and carbyne (Shumilova et al. 2009, 2011), which are shown to form with the participation of
89 carbonaceous fluid (Danilova et al. 2016).

90 However, a detailed study on the typomorphic features of graphite in geysers and
91 travertines of the Baikal Paleovalley indicated a more complex developmental history, which is
92 based on metamorphic graphite dissolution and in situ redeposition. Note that despite the known
93 graphite occurrences deposited from C–O–H fluids, objects that coexist with free H₂O and
94 graphite in low-pressure low-temperature (LPLT) hydrothermalites have not been found
95 elsewhere. Therefore, these findings involve unique objects of mineralogical and geological
96 significance.

97 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

98 Samples for this study were provided by E.V. Sklyarov. The travertine and geysers
99 samples were from the natural outcrops described in Sklyarov et al. (2004; 2007; 2014). Herein,
100 we used large square polished sections (up to 5–10 cm in size) and petrographic polished
101 sections. Note that some of the analytical analyses were conducted directly “in situ,” and the
102 graphite concentrates were chemically separated from rocks for use in the bulk structural,
103 isotopic, and micromorphological studies. For detailed isotopic studies, individual particles of

104 graphite were separated “grain-by-grain” with a needle and processed with dilute hydrochloric
105 acid to remove the host carbonate matrix. Most of the mineralogical analyses were conducted at
106 the CCU Geoscience (IG Komi SC UB RAS, Syktyvkar).

107 The carbon isotope composition of the graphite was measured using an analytical complex
108 Flash EA instrument connected with a mass spectrometer Delta V Advantage (Thermo Fisher
109 Scientific, Germany). The carbonate decomposition and carbon and oxygen isotopic
110 measurements were conducted using an analytical complex Gas Bench II with a
111 mass-spectrometer Delta V Advantage. The measurement errors for carbon, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (PDB), and
112 oxygen, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (SMOW), for the carbonates were ± 0.01 ‰ and 0.02 ‰ respectively (1σ), for the
113 carbon of graphites ± 0.15 ‰ (1σ) (PDB). These studies were performed at the IG Komi SC UB
114 RAS (Syktyvkar) and UIGGM SB RAS (Novosibirsk). Lab preparations and measurements
115 were used to avoid contamination from any kind of environmental carbon (any carbon source
116 present in the laboratory, e.g., grease from skin), only chemically pure acids and gases were used
117 for preparations and analytical methods.

118 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM; VEGA 3 TESCAN, Tescan, Czech Republic) and
119 energy dispersive spectroscopy (using an energy dispersive detector; VEGA 3LMN, INCA
120 ENERGY 450) analyses were conducted on polished thin sections to determine the chemical
121 composition. Morphological details at the IG Komi SC UB RAS (Syktyvkar, Russia) and the
122 fine morphology of nanocrystallites were studied using MIRA3 TESCAN (Tescan, Czech
123 Republic) at the Syktyvkar State University (Syktyvkar, Russia).

124 The Raman spectra of graphite and related mineral phases were obtained with a
125 high-resolution Raman spectrometer (HR800; Horiba Jobin Yvon, France) at 20°C with a
126 spectral and spatial resolution of approximately 1 cm^{-1} and $1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, respectively. For this study,
127 graphite particles from concentrates were used. In situ measurements were conducted on thin

128 polished sections without glass coverings and in cut plates on fresh crashed surfaces of rough
129 samples.

130 The micro- and nanomorphology analyses were performed using an atomic force
131 microscope (AFM; Burleigh ARIS-3300AFM, Germany). Fresh surfaces, obtained by removing
132 the upper layers of graphite with adhesive tape, were studied. The analysis was conducted in
133 standard air atmosphere at 20 °C immediately after the graphite layers were removed.

134 Preliminary studies using transmission electron microscopy (TEM; Tesla BS-500, Czech
135 Republic) were conducted at the Institute of Geology, Komi SC UB RAS (Syktyvkar, Russia) at
136 accelerating voltages of 60 kV and 90 kV. Herein, we used powder specimens prepared by
137 applying ultrasound-treated powder suspensions of chemically separated and ground particles of
138 the carbon substance on perforated carbon films. Further studies were performed at the Central
139 Facility for Electron Microscopy of RWTH Aachen University (Aachen, Germany) with the
140 JEM 2000 FX II (JEOL, Japan), operating at a voltage of 200 kV.

141 **GEOLOGICAL POSITION OF GEYSERITES AND TRAVERTINES**

142 The studied objects belong to the Ol'khon terrane (Gladkochub et al. 2010), which
143 occupies a part of the western coast of Lake Baikal (the Ol'khon area) and Ol'khon Island. The
144 basement of the Ol'khon terrane is characterized by a metamorphic complex comprising
145 gneisses with silicate and silicate-carbonate compositions, crystalline schists of basic
146 composition, amphibolites with relics of primary magmatic structures, quartzites, marbles,
147 gabbroids, ultramafites, subalkaline and volcanogenic-intrusive series (from monzogabbro to
148 rhyodacite), and rare migmatites and granitoides (Rozen and Fedorovsky 2001). These rocks are

149 composed of diopside, two-pyroxene-hornblende, hornblende-diopside-plagioclase schists, are
150 often garnet-containing, and have plagiogneisses in alternation with quartzites and marbles.
151 High-temperature and post-magmatic metasomatites are widely spread, while metaultramafites
152 and granitoids are less common.

153 The rocks of the complex are characterized by widely varying levels of metamorphism,
154 from green schist to granulite facies. The maximum degree of metamorphism corresponds to the
155 granulite facies, which exist under an estimated pressure range of 7–8 kbar and temperatures of
156 700–850 °C (Petrova and Levitsky 1984). Granulite metamorphism at the Ol`khon terrane
157 occurred in the Early Paleozoic as U-Pb data obtained from zircons from the granulites
158 correspond to 485 ± 5 Ma (Bibikova et al. 1990; Letnikov et al. 1995). The final endogenous
159 events of the Ol`khon terrane include the formation of migmatites and the introduction of
160 syntectonic granite intrusions. Rb-Sr dating of granites showed the age of 449 ± 22 Ma
161 (Serebryansky et al. 1998), which can be considered close to the age of metamorphism and
162 folding (490 ± 10 Ma), although they do not overlap within error.

163 Currently, within the Baikal rift zone (Fig. 1), more than 100 outcrops of Late Quaternary
164 geysers are known (Sklyarov et al. 2004; 2007; 2014). Further, within the Ol`khon area and
165 Ol`khon Island, travertines are more rare as compared to geysers. Only two occurrences of
166 travertines have been found (Sklyarov et al. 2007; 2014), appearing as irregularly shaped small
167 bodies among the geysers of the Krasnaya Gorka area; a travertine vein is exposed in the
168 rocky cliff of the northern tip of Ol`khon Island.

169 The relationships between hydrothermalites and their host rocks were studied and described
170 earlier by Sklyarov et al. (2004, 2007, 2014). The geysers are represented by eluvial
171 disintegrated blocks (approximately 2 m³) and less often by bedrock subhorizontal exposures.
172 The bedrock is composed of gneiss, marble, quartzite, amphibolite, granite, ultramafic rocks,
173 and loose Quaternary rocks. The hosting silicate rocks have been found to be completely
174 replaced by the siliceous material of geysers (Sklyarov et al. 2014).

175 Travertines were not observed to be in original contact with the geysers, however, the
176 occurrence of their blocks in close proximity to each other has been described (Sklyarov et al.
177 2014).

178 Bedrock outcrops and eluvial disintegrated blocks generally tend to occur in
179 north-northeast-striking faults (which is consistent with the basic structural plan of the region)
180 and are expressed by thick zones of high-temperature milonites and blastomylonites. The
181 formation of these faults is associated with the final stages of Early Paleozoic geological
182 development of the Ol'khon area and Ol'khon Island (Dobrzhinetskaya et al. 1992; Fedorovsky
183 et al. 2005; Gladkochub et al. 2008). During the onset and further development of the Baikal rift
184 zone, the inherited strike-slip faults were periodically repeated, and cases of hydrothermal
185 activity were seemingly associated with them (Sklyarov et al. 2007, 2014).

186 According to radiocarbon measurements (Sklyarov et al. 2007), the age of graphite
187 mineralization within the Ol'khon geysers vein in the host marble is 23720 ± 425 years
188 (Sklyarov et al. 2007, 2014), and the formation of travertines by calcite radiocarbon exists within
189 the range from 23420 ± 425 to 19550 ± 300 years (radiocarbon calcite dating; Sklyarov et al.
190 2007). Meanwhile, it is necessary to note that graphite mineralization has been previously

191 described in the Early Paleozoic igneous and metamorphic formations of the Ol'khon area, as
192 well as in the later products of tectonic and metasomatic transformation. The latter circumstance
193 requires the consideration of the presence of graphite in the rocks that contain geysersites and
194 travertines when assessing the formation of graphite in the Ol'khon hydrothermalites and its use
195 in genetic reconstruction.

196 **MICROSCOPIC STUDIES**

197 **Graphite from geysersite**

198 Geysersites are fine-grained siliceous (opal-like) rocks. Their porous structure is
199 complicated by spherulitic, globular, microlayer, fibrous, fluidic, looped, and breccia textures
200 (Fig. 2). The carbon content in graphite-containing geysersites varies from 0.01 wt.% to 1 wt.%.
201 Graphite is a prevailing native carbon phase of geysersites. Geysersites contain inclusions of
202 tremolite and fuchsite in equilibrium with the chalcedony matrix (Sklyarov et al. 2014), and are
203 enriched by iron oxides and hydroxides, such as magnetite, hematite, and goethite, as supported
204 by Raman spectroscopy (Figs. 2–4).

205 The graphite in geysersites appears as isolated flakes or is concentrated in aggregates that are
206 several millimeters in size. The carbonaceous matter in the rocks is unevenly distributed,
207 suggesting that the outer zones of globules, spherulites, and surface crusts are the most enriched
208 in particles and clusters of graphite, and spatial conjugation with chalcedonic sites is observed.
209 Graphite particles fill the leaching porous space between inclusions of chalcedony and radially
210 fibrous quartz. An unusual feature of geysersite graphite is the strong splitting at the terminal
211 edges of the plates in cross-section; such formations look like shiefs (Figs. 3–4). Lateral
212 fragmentation has also been observed. Particles of Fe and Mn oxides occur within the nodules

213 (Fig. 4) where the oxides and graphite co-exist, which usually form at different fO_2 conditions.
214 With reference to the elemental map (Fig. 4b), it is clear that the graphite and the metal oxides
215 belong to different nodule zones indicating different oxygen fugacity during hydrothermalite
216 formation, wherein the highly reductive conditions marked by graphite belong to the central
217 parts of the nodules. Simultaneously, it can be observed that the matrix of silica nodules is clear
218 of impurities in contrast to the general matrix of geyselite, which is strongly enriched in Fe (Figs.
219 4 g-i); this supports the optical observations shown in Fig. 2c.

220 Previously, we used an X-ray phase analysis to characterize the graphite of geyselites; it was
221 found to have a high degree of crystallinity (Danilova et al. 2016). The Raman data produced
222 completely analogous results to the spectral characteristics of the reference Ceylon graphite.
223 According to thermal analysis, the temperatures at the onset of the exothermic effect for
224 graphites from geyselites were within 570–710 °C.

225 Our study of the monomineral fractions of graphite showed that the graphite particles from
226 geyselite were characterized by a pinacoidal habit, which often occurs in rounded and hexagonal
227 forms, and have an irregular flattened shape with sizes from few tenths to a few millimeters.

228 On the surface of a number of flat-faced graphite particles (approximately 10–15% of the
229 particles studied), we observed very unusual submicrometer-sized crystallites with
230 hexagonal-pyramidal, hexagonal-prismatic habitus, as well as subtrigonal nanocrystallites via
231 SEM (Fig. 5). The size of the crystallites ranged from 50 nm to 1 μ m. The layers of
232 submicrometer crystals were parallel or slightly disoriented as they were set close to dissolution
233 zones (Fig. 5c).

234 Using TEM to achieve a higher resolution, we found that the graphite from geyselites has
235 numerous nanoscale formations with a rounded shape (Fig. 6c), as well as previously described
236 pseudosuperstructures and nanofibers (Danilova et al., 2016). Most often, the graphite particles

237 in geysers have rather large regions with a monocrystalline structure (Figs. 6 a–b). Note that
238 the graphite layers did not just shift relative to each other, but collapsed into folds resulting in
239 peculiar wrinkles as well as Moire patterns (Fig. 6 a). This is most likely caused by an
240 exceptionally weak bond between the graphite layers.

241

242 **Graphite from travertine**

243 Having studied graphite from the natural travertine outcrop at the northern tip of Ol'khon
244 Island, we further investigated the travertines in the outcrop, which exist as a subvertical vein
245 with a thickness of approximately 30 cm in Early Paleozoic gneisses.

246 According to the description by Sklyarov et al. (2007), travertines are characterized by three
247 consecutive formation phases. The first phase is represented by highly iron-rich
248 cryptocrystalline carbonates of brown color. They are confined to the boundary regions of the
249 vein and are observed as inclusions of irregular shape in the travertines of the second phase,
250 composed of light brownish-yellow fine-crystalline carbonates. The travertines of the first phase
251 contain fragments of silicate rocks, ranging in size from a few millimeters to a few centimeters.
252 They consist mainly of quartz and plagioclase with relatively minor quantities of pyroxene,
253 biotite, apatite, and titanite. The second phase also contains fragments of graphite-containing
254 gneisses and often very highly enriched in graphite with individual grains of quartz and
255 plagioclase; however, the grain sizes do not exceed 1 mm. The third phase, composed of
256 translucent calcite and white and light gray dolomite, is characterized by flow "agate" textures.
257 Herein, travertines contain xenoliths of enclosing silicate rocks with graphite, as well as
258 fragments of the travertines of the first and second phases. This phase fills the cracks in the rocks
259 crossing the travertines of the first and second phases.

260 Through optical microscopy (Fig. 7) and SEM, we determined that the Ol'khon travertines
261 had not three, but at least five generations (Fig. 8a, Table 1). However, the number of macro- and
262 micro-observations do not correspond well (Table 1). We think that the travertines observed by
263 Sklyarov et al. (2007) are attributed to the aforementioned phases; however, herein, a more
264 detailed portion of travertine formation was observed, allowing us to propose different
265 generations. In general, travertine's variety demonstrates the complicated multiple generations
266 of travertines, attributed to the periodical tectonic activation of the Baikal geysersite paleovalley
267 during the Late Quaternary period. Therefore, it is possible to propose that the earliest travertines
268 generations are iron-free rocks with preferably cryptocrystalline structures without silicate rock
269 fragments and graphite (similar to those in this work). This is followed by the multiple deposited
270 middle stage of iron-rich cryptocrystalline or fine-crystalline travertine abundant in silicate rock
271 fragments and minerals, including graphite, in which multiple fragments of different travertines
272 phases occur (Sklyarov et al., 2007 and this work). The latest carbonate generation is represented
273 by Fe-free calcite with 2 wt.% of MgO (this work), which is characterized by a sinter texture. In
274 this study, we did not recognize dolomite as the last portion of carbonate as was reported by
275 Sklyarov et al. (2007).

276 The elemental carbon content in the travertines was approximately 0.1 wt.%. The carbon
277 phases found in these rocks were mainly represented by graphite and, to a lesser extent, by finely
278 dispersed amorphous carbon matter (Danilova et al., 2016). The graphite in travertines is mainly
279 represented by flattened particles of irregular and often elongated shape with sizes ranging from
280 a few micrometers to a few millimeters (Fig. 8 b). These relatively large flattened particles can
281 be bent across the surfaces and are characterized by a large number of overgrowths, which form
282 serrate surfaces in the cross-section, which is similar to the aforementioned geysersite graphite.

283 The graphite particles are distributed in the travertines in an extremely irregular fashion
284 (Figs. 7, 8). Graphite is observed as separate, rather large (> 1 mm), individual particles, as well
285 as in the form of fine-crystalline aggregates filling voids in the travertines of the first and second
286 phases (Fig. 7). The individual graphite particles are confined to xenoliths of enclosing silicate
287 rocks (Fig. 7d) wherein, the travertine matrix contains many graphite particles, most of which
288 are moderately or strongly fragmented.

289 The smallest isolates of amorphous carbon matter are confined to the travertine of the last
290 stage formation, and are represented by flowing zonal crusts, which are shapeless particles that
291 correspond to the spread of the crystallization front of calcite. The abrupt change of carbon-free
292 zones with periodic occurrences of areas substantially enriched in carbon indicates a rapid
293 change in the composition of feeding solutions, which in some cases is manifested by alternating
294 calcite-dolomite zones.

295 In some scenarios, submicrometer crystals are observed on the surface of the isolated
296 graphite particles and have a flat-faced or curved-faced hexagonal-pyramidal and
297 hexagonal-pyramidal-pinacoidal habit (Fig. 9). The size of the crystallites can vary from 50 nm
298 to 1 μ m. However, crystallites are more common with sizes between 200 nm and 500 nm along
299 the {002} plane. Upon closer examination, the identified submicrometer crystals, as well as the
300 surface of the substrate on which they are located, exhibit a nanoglobular/blocky character,
301 which can be clearly seen in Figs. 9 b and d where the size scale is approximately 20–30 nm. In
302 addition to the visible hexagonal crystallites, neo formations with non-crystalline forms, which
303 are formed by the fusion of globular-like particles, are observed on the surface of the substrate
304 graphite (Fig. 9a).

305 Although graphite submicrometer crystals have a preferential orientation, some
306 misorientation with respect to each other is still noticeable, especially in the upper parts of the

307 crystallites. Further, many hexagonal subpyramidal submicrometer crystals have peculiar “caps”
308 that also consist of carbon nanoblocks.

309 In addition to the morphology studies from the surface, we also needed to understand the
310 internal structure of the graphite particles. In this regard we have studied the fresh chips of
311 graphite along (002) plane, on which peculiar microscale rounded morphostructures were found
312 (Fig. 10). On the chips of graphite from the geysers and travertines, we observed a
313 combination of almost perfectly round negative relief forms, with the diameter of the cavities
314 ranging from 100 nm to a few micrometers. Note that sometimes they were co-located so
315 frequently that they formed a peculiar spongy morphostructure (Fig. 10 b) In such areas, the
316 edges of the cavities had irregular outlines. Moreover, the diameters of these relief forms were
317 proportional to the bases of the submicrometer crystals on the surface of the graphite particles of
318 geysers and travertines.

319 We have never before observed such microstructures in any other type of graphite, including
320 metamorphic, metasomatic, pneumatolytic, and magmatic (Shumilova 2003). These
321 morphostructures occur alongside ideally smooth chips and determine the features of the internal
322 structure of graphite under redeposition conditions during the formation of travertine.

323 **ISOTOPIC STUDIES**

324 Analyses of stable carbon and oxygen isotopes were conducted in samples of
325 graphite-containing geysers, travertines, and the hydrothermalite-enclosing rocks of the
326 Ol'khon area and the northern edge of Ol'khon Island (Figs. 11, 12, and Table 2). Herein, we
327 evaluated both the gross composition of graphite via chemically isolated concentrates, and the
328 individual particles of graphite extracted directly from some areas of hydrothermalites.

329 Based on our studies on the concentrate, in general, the geyselite graphite had heavy isotope
330 values $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$. The graphite from the remnant of geyselites in gneisses was isotopically the
331 heaviest of all the analyzed samples $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$ (-2.1 to -2.5‰) (Fig. 11, Table 2). Further, the
332 graphite from the geyselite body in marbles was slightly less enriched in heavy isotope $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$
333 (-3.8 to -8.7‰). The values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$ in graphite marbles in contact with geyselites were
334 similar (-5.1 to -5.7‰). The measured isotope composition of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ carbonate carbon and
335 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ oxygen was -2.1 to -2.2‰ and -11.0 to -11.6‰, respectively. Meanwhile,
336 graphite-containing marbles, exposed at some distance from the geyselite outcrop (5 km), were
337 characterized by typical values of the Ol'khon region rocks for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$ (-1.6 to -2.3‰),
338 carbonate carbon composition - $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ (1.5–1.6‰), and carbonate oxygen composition -
339 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ (-7.1 to -8.8‰). For graphite gneisses and quartzite graphite, the values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$
340 ranged from -14.9 to -18.9 ‰ and -10.9 to -12.6 ‰, respectively. The isotopic composition of
341 the individual graphite particles from geyselite lies within the range of -3.8–8.7‰ (Table 2);
342 thus, it can be inferred that the graphite isotope in geyselite is determined by locally differing
343 values.

344 The study of carbon isotopic composition in the graphite of carbon travertine and calcite
345 oxygen showed that the graphite from travertine had a gross isotope-light composition $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}}$
346 (-24.3 to -25.7‰), while the carbonate component of the travertines was characterized by a
347 carbon isotopic composition $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ within -1.1 to -1.9‰ (Fig. 12, Table 2). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values
348 fall between -11.3 to -13.5‰. Meanwhile, the grain analysis showed that graphite from
349 travertines was very similar to the graphite from gneisses, with a definite tendency toward
350 isotopic composition, which could be associated with the participation of isotopically light
351 hydrocarbons in the process of graphite formation.

352

RAMAN SPECTROSCOPY

353 Raman spectroscopy was conducted on the extracted particles of graphite as well as
354 directly “in situ” on the hydrothermalites. The latter turned out to be more informative and
355 allowed us to exclude the possibility of distortion of the structural state of carbonaceous matter
356 that could occur during the chemical extraction of graphite concentrates.

357 Based on the spectroscopic observations of graphite cross-sections, we revealed not only
358 the characteristics of graphite but also its important paragenetic relationship with the mineral
359 phases. We found micro-inclusions of calcite and chalcedony in geyselite graphite (Fig. 13).
360 Micro-inclusions of quartz and biotite were detected in the travertine graphite, and the presence
361 of hydrocarbons can be assumed owing to a specifically high level of luminescence observed
362 (Fig. 14). The presence of bitumen was confirmed through chemical reactions conducted by
363 chloroform extraction techniques and UV luminescence as described in Danilova et al. (2016).

364 The Raman spectra indicate that the graphite in both geyselites and travertines is
365 characterized rather by a high degree of crystallinity (French 1964; Tuinstra and Koenig 1970;
366 Wopenka and Pasteris 1993; Tan et al. 2004; Ferrari 2007). In this study, the Raman active
367 $2E_{2g}$ graphite mode, also called the G band, has a position at 1582 cm^{-1} , which corresponds to
368 the standard position of well-ordered graphite. Note that the full-width half-maximum of the
369 G-band has a value of $16\text{--}19\text{ cm}^{-1}$. We did not analyze the characteristics of the D band; this
370 analysis was not useful here because of the significant dependence of a Raman spectrum
371 relative to the crystal orientation in highly ordered graphites. Although, at a qualitative level,
372 note, that while our analyzes have been conducted on the cross sections of graphite plates, i.e.,
373 perpendicular to the (002) plane of graphite, the relative intensity of the D band is very
374 insignificant, indirectly indicating a high degree of graphite order in geyselites and travertines.

375 However, in addition to the highly ordered graphite variety in travertines, amorphous
376 carbonaceous matter as fine inclusions was also observed in the travertine of the last generation
377 (Figs. 7 e, f; 14 b).

378

379

DISCUSSION

380 Our studies of the graphite in geysers and travertines of the Ol'khon Paleovalley and
381 Ol'khon Island on Lake Baikal (Eastern Siberia) have provided new mineralogical information,
382 increasing our understanding of the genetic thermal paleoreconstruction of hydrothermalites in
383 the Baikal rift zone as well as other hydrothermal objects through graphite mineralization.

384 Herein, the comparison of hydrothermalite graphite to the carbon mineralization of host
385 rocks was specifically considered; the rocks included gneisses, quartzites, and marbles, that
386 showed graphite mineralization in various degrees. The most useful information was obtained
387 from the isotopic analyses, which showed a correlation between the isotopic composition of
388 geysersite graphite and the graphite of the enclosing marbles, as well as the relationship between
389 travertine graphite and the graphite of the enclosing gneisses. Grain-by-grain analysis revealed a
390 local differentiation of the carbon isotopic composition in graphite that resulted from its initial
391 metamorphic origin, dissolution, and redeposition, with possible isotopic influence from the host
392 carbonates (which displayed different composition in individual particles).

393 Further, we found substantial fragmentation and alteration of the graphite in both geysersites
394 and travertines, which was accompanied by splitting, dissolution, and the appearance of growths
395 on the basal planes and plate edges. Zones of dissolution and growth were clearly observed in
396 optical microscopy observations of thin sections using electron microscopy (Figs. 5, 8, 9). To a
397 certain extent, similar microstructures have been described in Glad et al. (2014), wherein the
398 microstructures were observed on the surface of synthesized graphite produced from gas phase

399 by plasma at low pressure and at the temperature approximately 650 °C, and were observed in
400 natural graphite from Tanzania with crystallite sizes from 50 nm to 800 nm across and up to 1
401 µm along the c-axis. However, the submicrometer crystals found in our study consisted of
402 smaller blocks, approximately 20–30 nm in size, which have never been described before.

403 Although the bulk of graphite from the travertines and geysersites is characterized by a high
404 degree of ordering and belongs to the full-crystal variety after French classification (French
405 1964), we also found amorphous carbon and bitumen among the microscopic carboniferous
406 particles, indicating the heterogeneity of formation conditions of the carbonaceous matter. This
407 could be due to the non-equilibrium conditions of carbon condensation and/or the imposition of
408 carbonaceous mineralization of different origins in hydrothermalites.

409 In addition, bitumen (a hydrocarbon) was detected using Raman spectroscopy, and was
410 found to exist directly in aggregate with graphite (Fig. 14 a), indicating the possible participation
411 of hydrocarbons in hydrothermalite formation. The presence of hydrocarbons could also be the
412 cause of a sharp change in the redox situation, which was observed in the periodical formation of
413 carbon mineralization in the last stage travertines (Figs. 7e, f). This mineralization could be a
414 result of changes in fluid temperature and the corresponding chemical activity in the host
415 metamorphic and sedimentary rocks. Further, possible methane emissions that were described
416 for the different stages of the travertine formation (Lein et al. 2006; Luque et al. 2012) cannot be
417 excluded.

418 In previous works, we have described the presence of single crystalline α -carbyne among
419 native carbons within geysersites (Shumilova et al. 2011; Danilova et al. 2016). This finding was
420 used by Sklyarov et al. for paleothermal reconstruction of the Baikal hydrothermalites (Sklyarov
421 et al. 2014). Following the previously published carbyne data, we suppose that this phase cannot

422 be used as a proven indicator for high temperatures as phases have not been studied in detail and
423 the carbyne position on carbon diagrams (Bundy et al. 1996) is not entirely clear.

424 The graphite in geysers and travertines is comparable in its degree of structural ordering
425 to graphite from the rocks of the amphibolite facies of metamorphism. The onset temperatures of
426 the exothermic effect for the graphites from geysers and travertines range between 570–710
427 °C (Danilova et al. 2016), which is a characteristic of graphites from the green shale and
428 epidote-amphibolite facies of regional metamorphism (Ivanova et al. 1974). According to
429 Yardley (1991), this upper limit temperature corresponds to graphite from the amphibolite
430 facies. Such temperature conditions are especially unusual for travertines, for which the
431 temperature regime of formation, as a rule, lies within the range of 20–70 °C (Bargar 1978;
432 Pisarsky 1987; Fouke et al. 2000; Pentecost et al., 2011; Campbell et al., 2015 and others).
433 Sklyarov et al. (2014) used the presence of graphite and carbyne as a justification for the
434 high-temperature nature of the Ol'khon hydrothermalites, estimating a temperature of at least 400
435 °C. However, the features of the studied graphite from travertine and geysers herein clearly
436 indicate graphite's original genetic relationship with the host rocks, e.g., graphite-containing
437 gneisses and marbles. Therefore, the graphite cannot be used as an unambiguous
438 geothermometer to determine the specifics of the hydrothermalites formation.

439 The mineralogical characteristics of graphite indicate that the travertines and geysers
440 from the Ol'khon area and Ol'khon Island contain carbonaceous minerals of different origins.
441 The primary graphite in the host rocks during the chemically aggressive hydrothermal
442 processing of gneisses and marbles underwent significant changes associated with
443 defragmentation, partial dissolution, and in situ redeposition that occurred directly on the relict
444 substrates of the primary metamorphic graphite. At the same time, the graphite from travertines
445 and geysers has very specific characteristics as observed via optical microscopy (Fig. 7b),

446 SEM, TEM, and AFM images (Figs. 5, 6, 8-10); these observations support the presence of
447 newly formed graphite by micro- and submicrometer crystals and unusual micro- and
448 nanostructural features on the surface (Figs. 5, 8, 9), and within the host metamorphic graphite
449 (Figs. 6c, 10).

450 The above presented data explain well the difference between the predominant isotopic
451 composition of graphitic carbon in geysers and travertines evidenced by the enrichment of a
452 heavy carbon isotope in the geysers graphite due to the presence of isotopically heavy graphite
453 of marbles and lighter carbon from gneisses associated with travertines (Table 2, Fig. 12). Thus,
454 the travertines and geysers inherit not only the geochemical features of their host rocks, as
455 indicated in Sklyarov et al. (2007), but also the relict graphite, which generally preserves its
456 initial isotopic composition.

457 In geysers, a stable silicate framework enables a relatively good preservation of isotopic
458 ratios of graphite (Wada and Suzuki 1983; Dunn and Valley 1992). During the formation of the
459 travertine, isotopic exchange occurred between the graphite of the clastic material in the host
460 rocks and carbon dioxide. Most likely, hydrothermalite graphite has been repeatedly subjected to
461 intense chemical treatment by aggressive hot hydrotherms, possibly with some participation of
462 hydrocarbons, which cause a drastic change in the oxidation-reduction conditions. For example,
463 in the Angel terrace hot springs, Fouke et al (2000) identified five travertine deposition facies
464 that varied in deposition temperature, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ isotope compositions (Mammoth Hot
465 Springs, Yellowstone National Park, USA). Further, methane emissions could contribute to the
466 prominent depletion of ^{13}C isotope at different stages of travertine formation (Lein et al. 2006;
467 Luque et al. 2012).

468 Moreover, the redox conditions of graphite alteration in the geysers and travertines could
469 be affected by seasonal temperature fluctuations and spring melt waters, which have a significant

470 influence on the growth and dissolution of calcite during the formation of travertines (Turi 1986;
471 Naboko et al. 1999; Dilsiz et al. 2004).

472 The established features of the nanoblock nature of new formations and the fusion of
473 graphite microcrystallites on the surface of graphite particles in the geysirites and travertines
474 indicate a probable mechanism for the coalescence of islands according to Kukushkin and
475 Osipov (1998) under the conditions of free growth from supersaturated solutions and/or from the
476 gas phase. However, the discussion regarding the high-temperature formation of travertines
477 entertained in literature (Sklyarov et al. 2014) cannot be proven with the presence of high
478 crystalline graphite in the samples herein, as they appear, generally, as relict fragments from the
479 host graphite-bearing rocks. Additionally, we must consider the wide range of graphite
480 crystallization temperatures, which reach as low as 98 °C (Dunin-Borkovsky et al. 2000). Thus,
481 these data allow us to conclude that the newly formed redeposited graphite cannot be used as an
482 indicator of high temperature.

483 Therefore, according to the detailed research on the graphite from the Baikal
484 hydrothermalites paleovalley, we observe a paradox in the graphite nature. After intensive
485 hydrothermal changes of the host metamorphic rocks, only graphite is preserved, thus, the
486 graphite looks to have a hydrothermal nature. Only the provided detailed graphite studies
487 recognize this graphite and understand its deceptive nature. At the same time the real
488 fluid-deposited graphite is represented just by redeposited in situ submicrometer crystallites that
489 overgrow on the surface of the relict metamorphic graphite and between the calcite zones of the
490 last travertine generation. Currently, the fluid deposition of graphite in C–O–H systems occurs at
491 a known high temperature, which is higher than 400 °C with a pressure 2 kbar or greater (Luque
492 et al., 1998; 2009; 2012; Luque and Rodas, 1999). The process of the graphite deposition from
493 C–O–H fluids is completed by the chemical reactions from CO₂-CH₄-H₂O mixtures, such as CO₂

494 $\rightarrow C + O_2$ and $CH_4 + O_2 \rightarrow C + 2H_2O$ (Luque et al., 2012; Ortega et al., 2010). Note that the data
495 complex on the Baikal fluid-deposited graphite formation look different.

496 Considering the surface and subsurface travertine and geyserite formation at atmospheric
497 pressure, it is hard to explain the reason for the thermal conditions for their hot springs being
498 higher than 100 °C, which is the boiling point of water at the atmospheric pressure. Among hot
499 springs, warm (20–40 °C), mesothermal (40–75 °C), and hyperthermal (> 75 °C) varieties are
500 recognized (Pentecost et al., 2003; Renaut and Jone, 2000). Further, travertines are said to
501 deposit at lower temperature conditions, generally below 75 °C, while geyserites more
502 commonly occur at higher temperature conditions (Sklyarov et al, 2014). Thus, we can
503 approximate that the Baikal hydrothermalites (as well as the corresponding graphite
504 redeposition) were formed at atmospheric pressure with a thermal range below 100 °C. For such
505 LPLT-conditions with a large variation from typical C–O–H graphite deposition, the evidence of
506 dissolution and redeposition of the free carbon (relict metamorphic graphite/redeposited
507 graphite) within the C–O–H system indicate that there was a different mechanism involved in the
508 Baikal fluid-deposited graphite formation that did not involve the classic crystallization from a
509 carbon water solution as it has been previously proposed (Dunin-Borkovsky et al. 2000). This
510 novel mechanism put forth herein should be analyzed in detail in a future work. By this work we
511 demonstrate that the PT-conditions for graphite formation within the C–O–H system continue to
512 expand and reveal new information.

513

514

IMPLICATIONS

515 In this study, we evaluated the paradox graphite mineralization from the Late Quaternary
516 geyserites and travertines of the Ol'khon area and Ol'khon Island to clarify the genetic value of
517 graphite for hydrothermalite paleoreconstruction. Herein, we demonstrated that the primary

518 source of graphite in geysirites was enclosing marble, whereas for travertines, it was enclosing
519 gneiss. Metamorphic graphite under the influence of aggressive hydrotherms was forced to
520 partially dissolve and in situ redeposition occurred on the surface of relict graphite particles. The
521 obtained isotope-characteristics and presence of bitumen in our samples indicate
522 non-equilibrium redox conditions of graphite alteration with possible influence from
523 temperature fluctuation and variation in the geochemical nature of the environment with the
524 participation of hydrocarbons. Several mineralogical characteristics, including the micro- and
525 nanostructured features of graphite, can be considered typomorphic for hydrothermalites. Hence,
526 the revealed genetic specifics of graphite crystallized within H₂O-rich LPLT fluid have
527 broadened the established ideas (Luque et al. 1998, 2012; Jaszczak et al. 2007) on typomorphism
528 and diversity of carbon mineralization in connection with fluidogenic objects. The redeposition
529 of the graphite within the Baikal Quaternary geysirites and travertines supported by earlier
530 experimental LPLT synthesis in aqueous solutions allow for the consideration of a new natural
531 mechanism of LPLT graphite formation in a C–O–H system, that is, crystallization from carbon
532 water solution, which should be further detailed in future studies.

533

534

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542

543 **Author Contributions:** Tatyana Shumilova provided the idea for the study, conducted all
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FIGURE CAPTIONS

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FIGURE 1. Geographic position of Lake Baikal and the Ol'khon Island (Russia) (b) on the Google map (a); fragment of the Baikal rift zone on the geological scheme (c). Legend: 1 – Siberian craton; 2 – the Ol'khon Area and the Island Ol'khon system of shear plates formed igneous and metamorphic complexes; 3 – faults (3a) the boundary of the Siberian craton and the Ol'khon Area, (3b) the main shift zone of the region; 4 – outcrops with (4a) geyserrite and (4b) travertine; 5 – corresponding geyserrites (5a) and travertine (5b) objects with graphite (sampling sites).

FIGURE 2. Graphite particles in different areas of geyserrites of a polished section: (a, b) Graphite aggregates in chalcedony nodules. (a) overview of a nodule with graphite inclusion. (b) Magnified view of the section demarcated by the rectangle in (a). (c) Graphite in general geyserrite matrix. (d) A graphite aggregate inclusion inside a closed chalcedony nodule.

FIGURE 3. Morphological features of graphite aggregates and iron hydroxide particles in geyserrite. (a) Aggregate of graphite plates in cross-section (center), where hydroxides in the main microglobular matrix of the geyserrite fill the gaps between microglobules (brown). (b) Particles of hematite (indicated by arrows) surrounded by a halo of iron hydroxides. (c, d) Sheaf-like graphite particles. (e, f) fragmented graphite particles in geyserrite. Note: (a – c, e) are the optical images in transmitted light, with parallel polarizers and (d, f) are the optical images in transmitted light, with crossed polarizers.

FIGURE 4. Electron microscopy images of graphite-containing geyserrite. (a–f) Chalcedony nodule with graphite-containing core. (g–i) general geyserrite matrix. Note that (a) is a BSE image; (b–i) are the elemental maps wherein (b, g) are the multi-element maps and (c–f, h, i) are the individual element maps.

747 **FIGURE 5.** Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images (in the secondary electron mode
748 (SE)) of graphite from geyselite showing dissolution and new-growth regions. (a) Graphite
749 particle overview; the area demarcated by the square is the region considered for detailed study
750 (b–d are the magnified images of the area demarcated in (a)). (b) The region with newly formed
751 hexagonal subprismatic and tiny pyramidal graphite crystallites. (c) The region with graphite
752 dissolution. (d) Subtrigonal and smooth pyramidal graphite crystals, micro- and submicrometer
753 in size.

754 **FIGURE 6.** Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) data of graphite from (a–b)
755 geyselite and (d–f) and travertine. (a) Bright field image (BF) of single crystalline graphite
756 particle with layer wrinkles (white arrows) and Moire fringes (black arrows). (b) Electron
757 diffraction pattern (ED) of the graphite in (a). (c) Rounded graphitic nanosized nuclear particles
758 of newly-forming graphite. (d) Typical shapes of crushed graphite particles with rounded
759 fragments in chips. (e) A fragment of oriented growth of graphite nanocrystals in (002) direction
760 and the corresponding ED pattern. (f) The BF images of (a, c, d, and e).

761 **FIGURE 7.** Optical images of graphite-containing travertine in (a, c) reflected (skew
762 angle) and (b, d–f) transparent light. (a) Travertine overview with different travertine
763 generations. (b) Cross-section of a graphite particle within travertine matrix (tooth-like surface,
764 with overgrowths). (c) Boundary between the latest Fe-free travertine generation and an earlier
765 travertine. (d) The fragment of graphite-rich gneiss within travertine. (e) The carbonate of the
766 last generation with microcrystalline graphite. (f) Magnified image of (e).

767 **FIGURE 8.** SEM images of travertine and graphite particles chemically extracted from
768 the host travertine. Travertine of several generations (I–V), graphite inclusions are indicated with
769 arrows (a). (a) BS mode and (b–g) secondary electron (SE) mode where (b) shows shape of
770 graphite particles, (c) shows an individual particle with the studied region demarcated with a

771 square, (d) magnified view of the region demarcated (c). (e) Regions with dissolution (indicated
772 with arrows) and newly formed graphite crystallites on the {002} planes. (f) Newly formed
773 graphite crystallites on the {002} plane edges and regions with dissolution (indicated with
774 arrows). (g) Newly formed graphite crystallites on the {002} plane, regions with dissolution, and
775 {002} plane relics (indicated with arrows).

776 **FIGURE 9.** SEM images in the SE mode. (a) Micro- and submicrometer features of newly
777 formed graphite from travertine at the edge of the seed graphite plate. (b) Growth of nanoblock
778 sub-hexagonal micro- and submicrometer crystals on the surface of the graphite seed plate. (c)
779 Tight growth of nanoblock micro- and submicrometer crystals along the seed graphite plate
780 edge. (d) Nanoblock sub-hexagonal microcrystallite.

781 **FIGURE 10.** Atomic force microscope (AFM) data of fresh crushed surfaces of graphite
782 from (a, b) geyselite and (c, d) travertine. (a, c, d) have rounded morphology while (b) has a
783 sponge-like morphology.

784 **FIGURE 11.** Isotope composition of graphite and carbonates in geyselites, travertines,
785 and their host rocks.

786 **FIGURE 12.** Carbon and oxygen isotopic composition of carbonates in hydrothermalites
787 and their host rocks.

788 **FIGURE 13.** Raman spectra of graphite “in situ” in geyselite in perpendicular direction to
789 {002} of (a) pure graphite, (b) graphite with calcite inclusion (156 cm^{-1} , 281 cm^{-1} , and 1087
790 cm^{-1}), and (c) graphite with chalcedony inclusion (130 cm^{-1} , 210 cm^{-1} , 465 cm^{-1} , and 503 cm^{-1}).

791 **FIGURE 14.** Raman spectra of graphite “in situ” in travertine in crosscut direction to
792 {002} of the graphite particle where (a) is the spectrum from hydrocarbon (luminescence) and
793 quartz (464 cm^{-1}) impurities within graphite, (b) is graphite with biotite inclusion (194 , 558 , 962
794 cm^{-1}), probably with hydrocarbon (luminescence), and (c) is pure graphite.

Table 1 General characteristics of travertines generations

Generations of travertines at micro-observations (this work, corresponding to the Fig. 8a)	Macro-view generations (phases) of travertines (Sklyarov et al., 2007)
I generation - cryptocrystalline carbonate, free of fragments of silicate rocks and minerals, free of graphite	I phase is presented with very iron-rich cryptocrystalline carbonates of brown color;
II generation – fine-crystalline carbonate, rich by fragments of silicate rocks and minerals, includes graphite particles	contains fragments of silicate rocks and minerals.
III generation - iron-rich fine-crystalline carbonates of brown color, with minerals fragments, without fragments of silicate rocks and graphite; includes fragments of the generation I and II.	
IV generation - light brownish-yellow fine crystalline carbonates, contain fragments of the III generation, numerous fragments of graphite-containing gneisses, enriched in graphite, and individual grains of quartz and plagioclase	II phase consists of light brownish-yellow fine crystalline carbonates; contain fragments of the phase I, graphite-containing gneisses, graphite, individual grains of quartz and plagioclase.
V generation is characterized with white calcite with sinter ("agate") texture, free of any rock and mineral inclusions, sometimes graphite micro-inclusions between calcite zones.	III phase composed of translucent calcite, white and light gray dolomite, has "agate" textures; contain fragments of silicate rocks with graphite, fragments of the travertine I and II phases; fill cracks crossing the travertines of the first and second phases.

Table 2 Isotope composition of carbon and oxygen in host geysers and travertines and graphite carbon

No	Specimen	Specimen type	Specimen characteristic	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{graph}},\text{‰}$ (PDB)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}},\text{‰}$ (PDB)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}},\text{‰}$ (PDB)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}},\text{‰}$ (SMOW)
Geysers and host rocks							
1	57/05-01	Chemical concentrate	Geyserite with graphite in gneisses	-2.1			
2	57/05-02	—		-2.5			
3	57/05	—		-4.5			
4	Sk105-gn	—	Geyserite with graphite in marbles	-8.7			
5	Sk105-g1	—		-7.3			
6	Sk105-g2	—		-3.8			
7	Sk105	—		-6.0			
8	65/06-m1	—	Marble with graphite, on the contact with geysers	-5.7	-2.2	-11.0	19.5
9	65/06-m2	—		-5.1	-2.1	-11.6	18.5
10	65/06-1	Grain	Graphite from marble enclosing geysers	-7.91			
11	65/06-2	—	—	-8.39			
12	65/06-3	—	—	-7.97			
13	65/06-4	—	—	-7.28			
14	65/06-5	—	—	-6.82			
15	1124/94	Chemical concentrate	Marble with graphite	-2.3	1.5	-8.8	21.8
16	1126/94	—		-1.6	1.6	-7.1	23.5
17	66/06	—	Quartzite with graphite	-12.6			
Travertines and host rocks							
18	B-1	Chemical concentrate	Quartzite with graphite	-10.9			
19	G2-1	—	Travertine with graphite	-24.3	-1.1	-11.3	19.2
20	G2-1k	—	Travertine	-	-1.9	-13.5	17.3
21	G2-2	—	Travertine with graphite	-25.7	-1.8	-12.7	17.4
22	G2-1-6	Grain	Graphite from gneiss fragment in travertine	-7.69			
23	G2-1-7	—	—	-9.12			
24	G2-1-8	—	—	-12.08			
25	G2-1-9	—	—	-10.67			
26	G2-1-10	—	—	-17.03			

27	G2-1-11	Grain	Graphite from travertine matrix	-10.08
28	G2-1-12	--	--	-11.04
29	G2-1-13	--	--	-15.04
30	G2-1-14	--	--	-16.77
31	G2-1-15	--	--	-18.66

* Conducted at IG FRC Komi SC UB RAS, Syktyvkar, analyst I.V. Smoleva. ** Conducted at UIGGM SB RAS, Novosibirsk, V.A. Ponomarchuk.

Figure 1

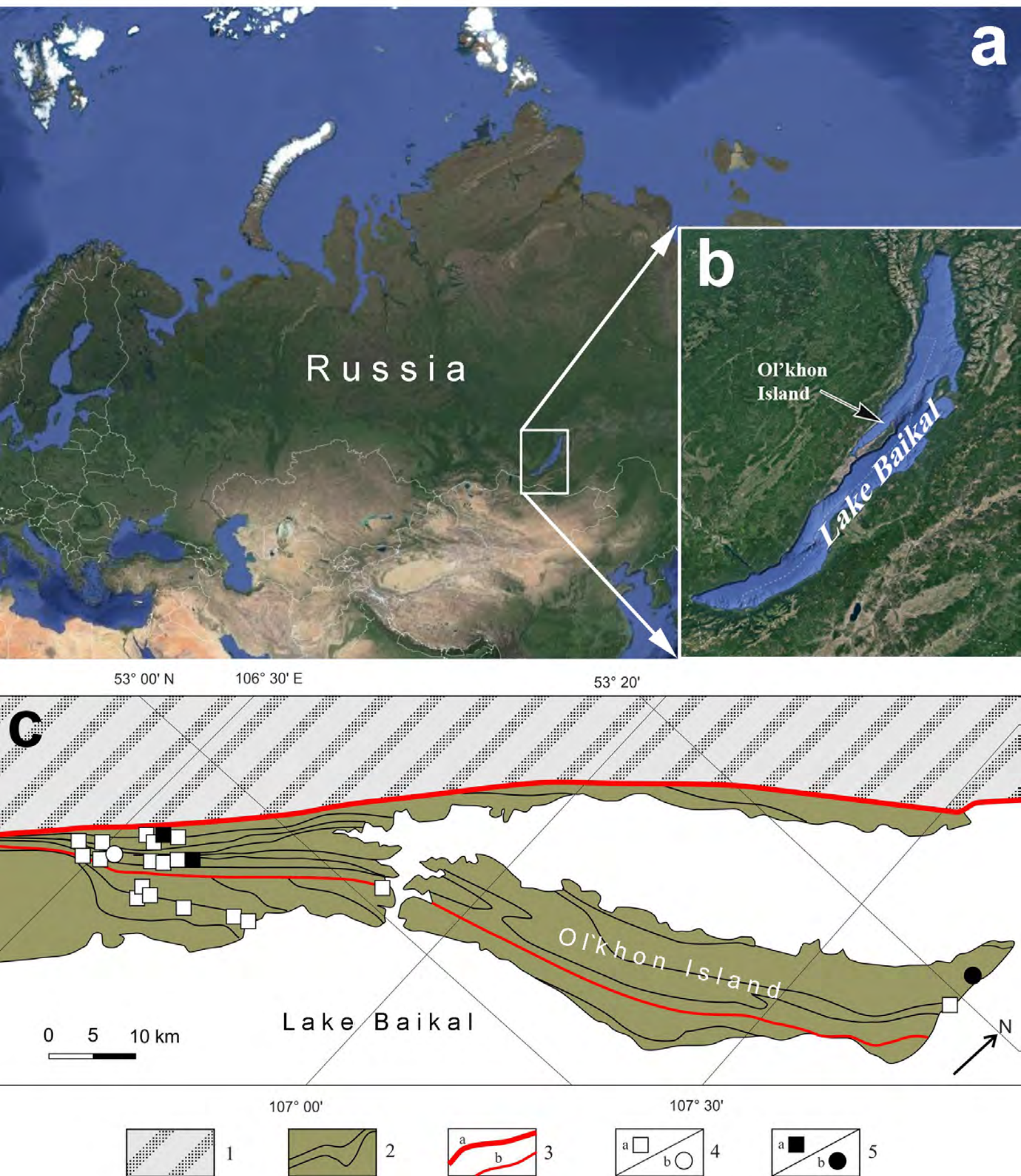


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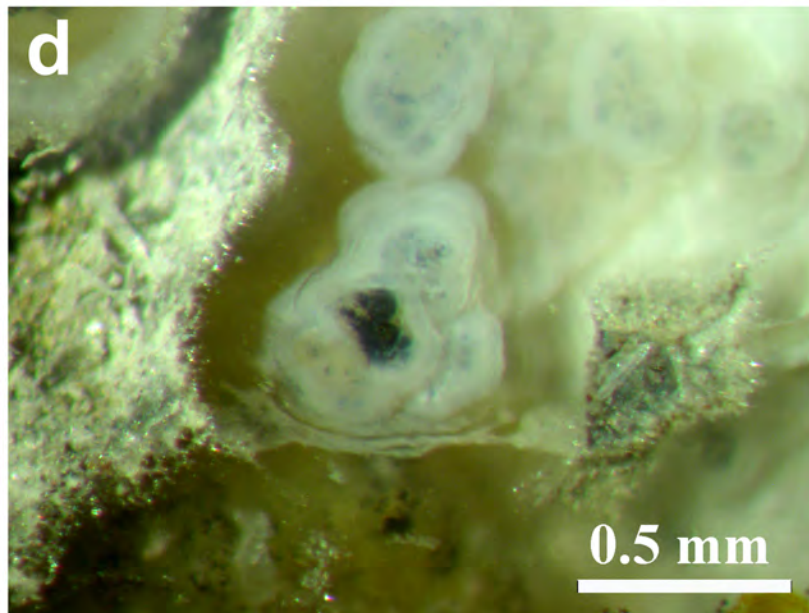
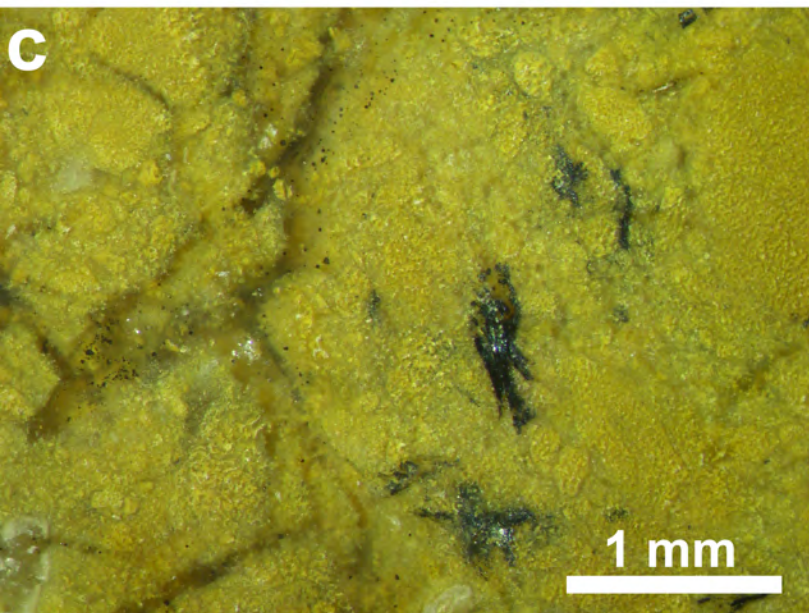
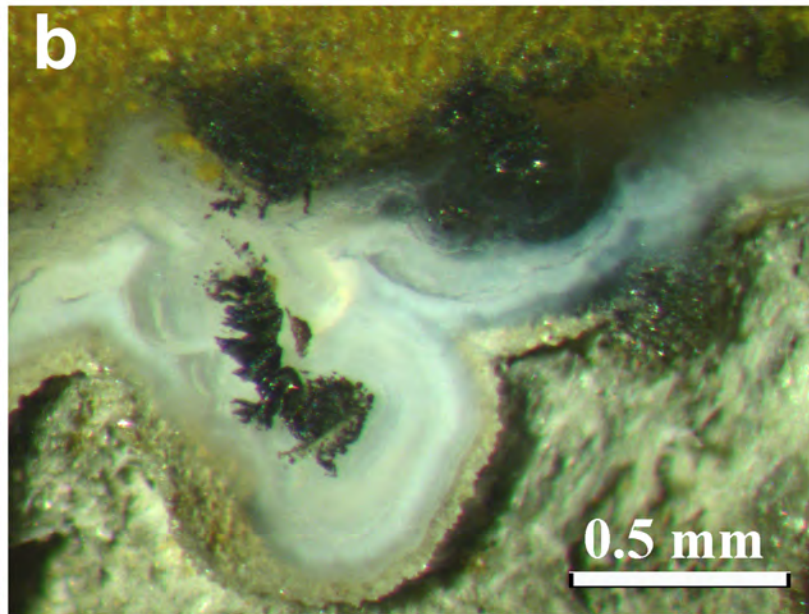
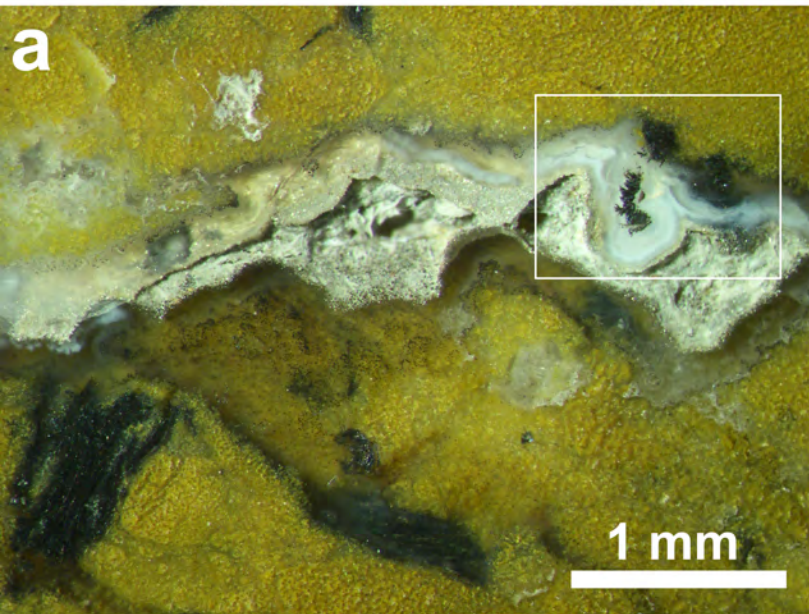


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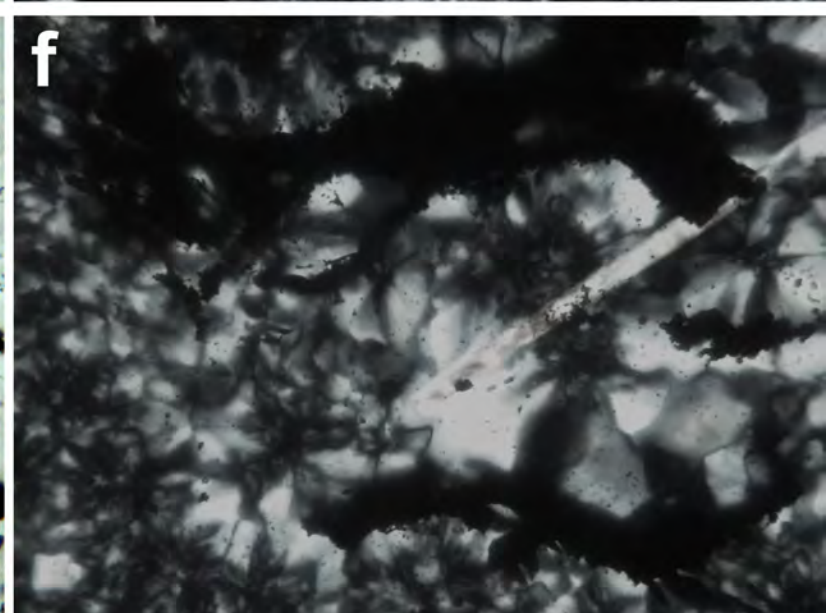
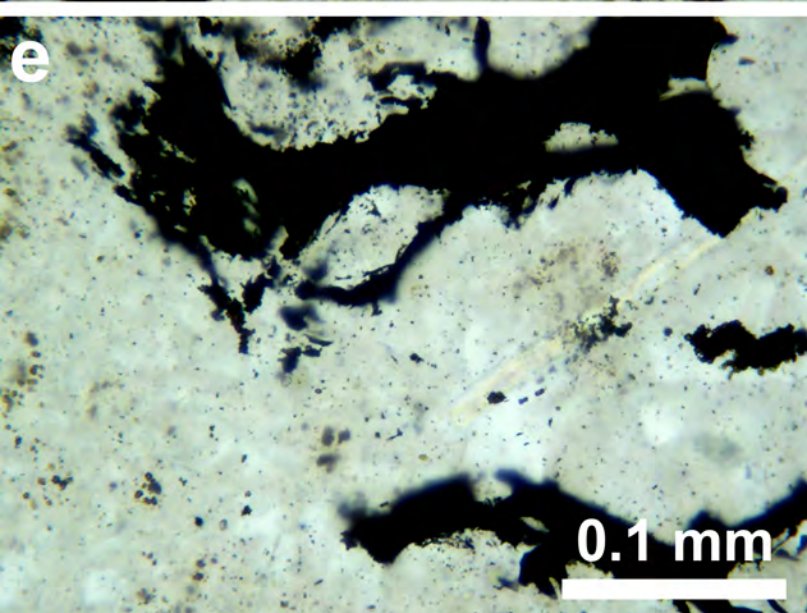
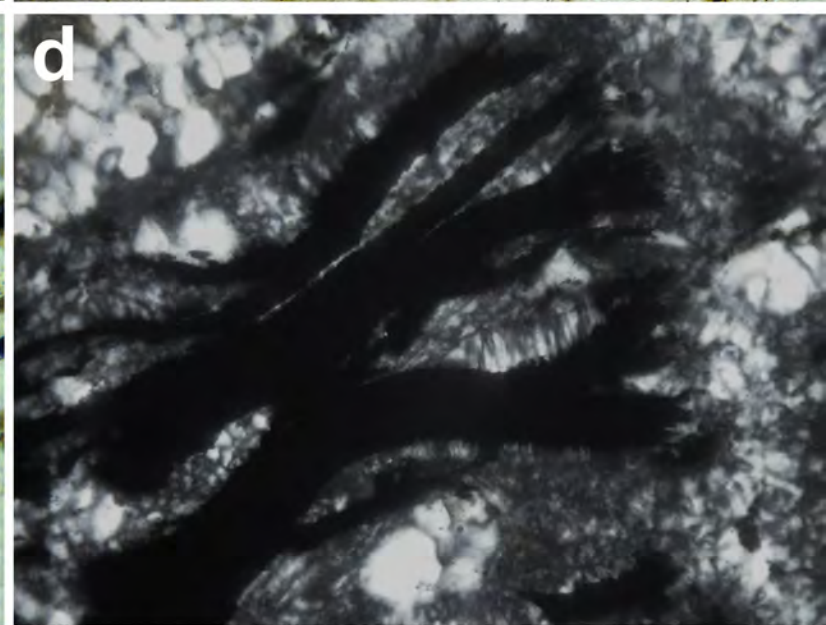
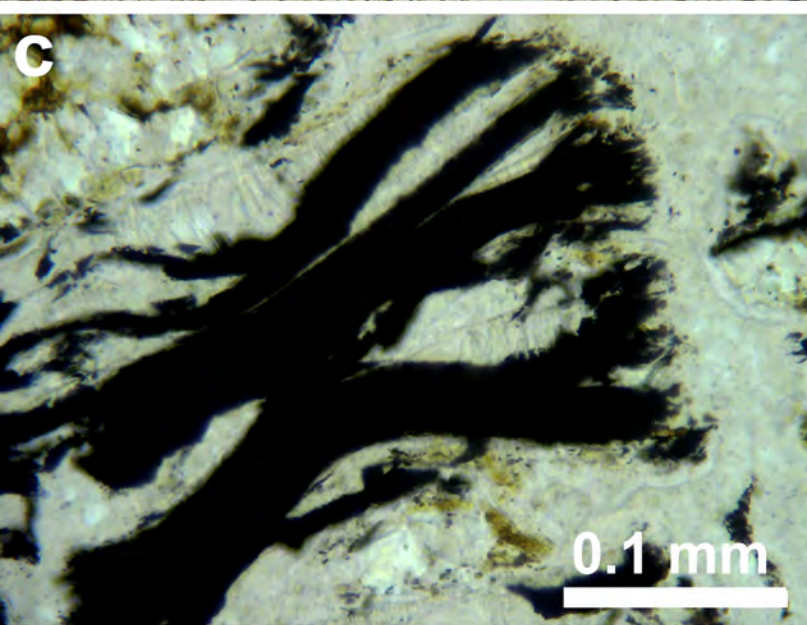
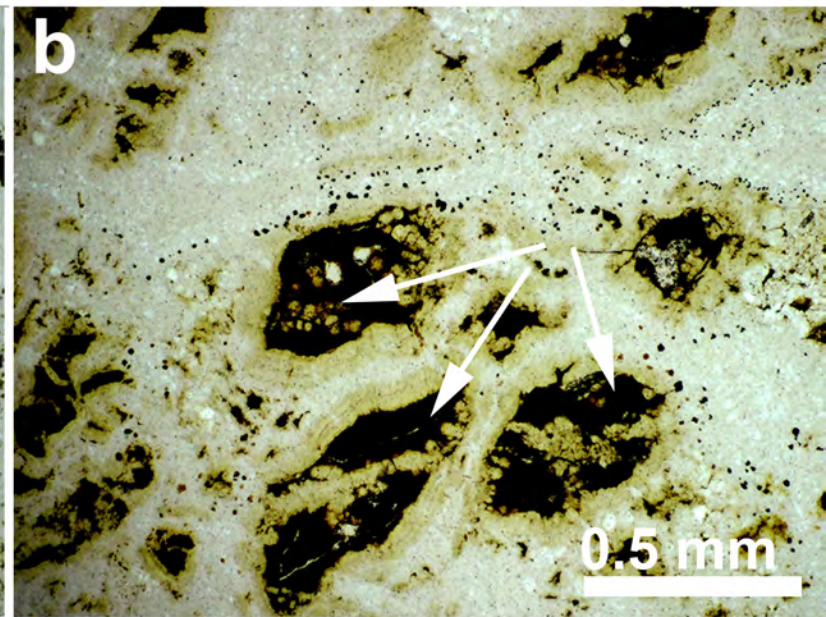
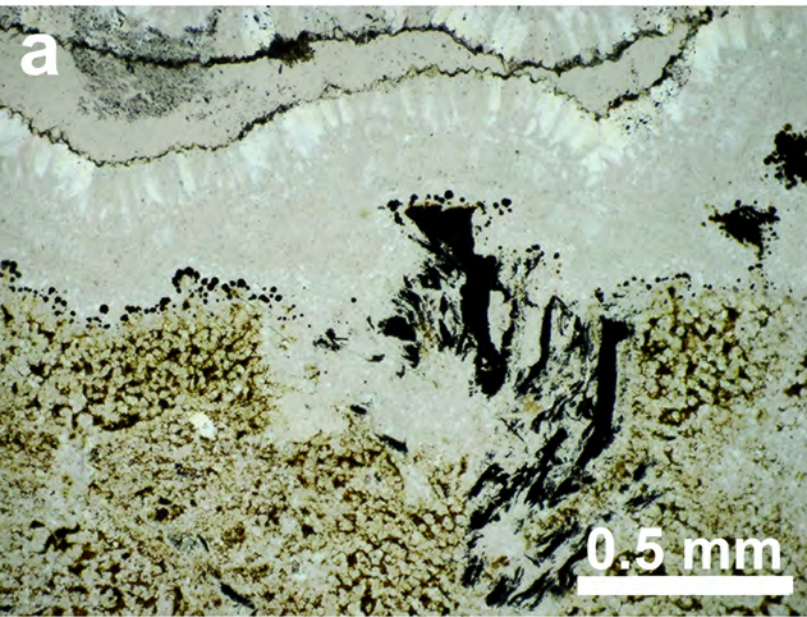


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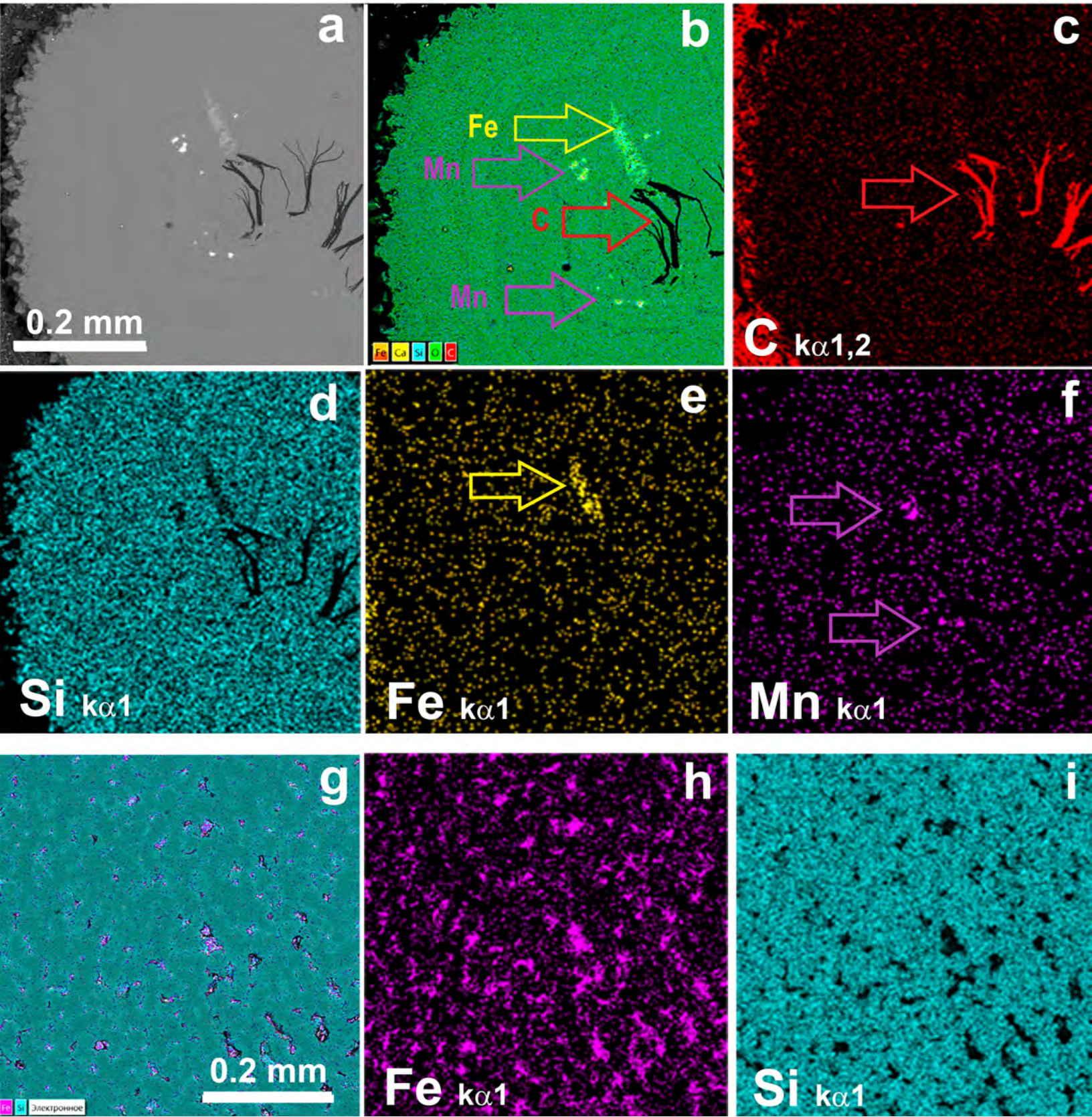


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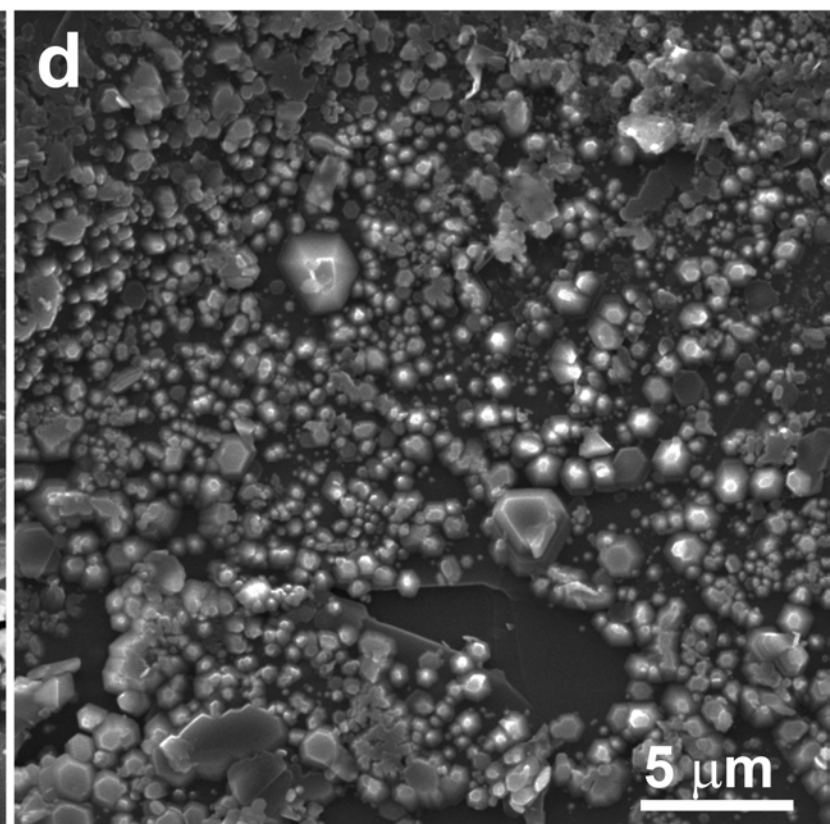
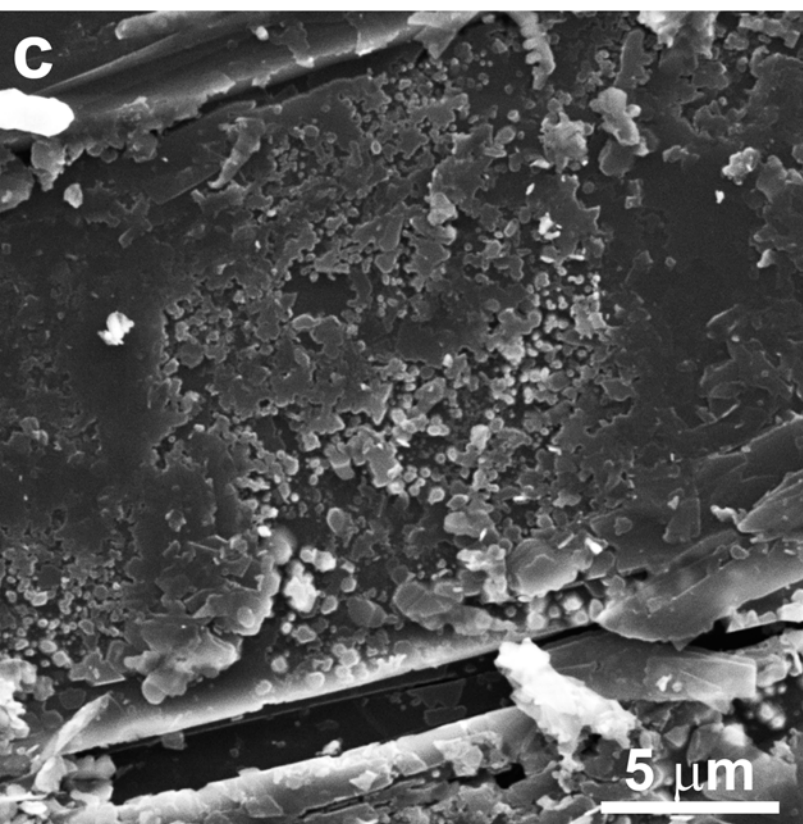
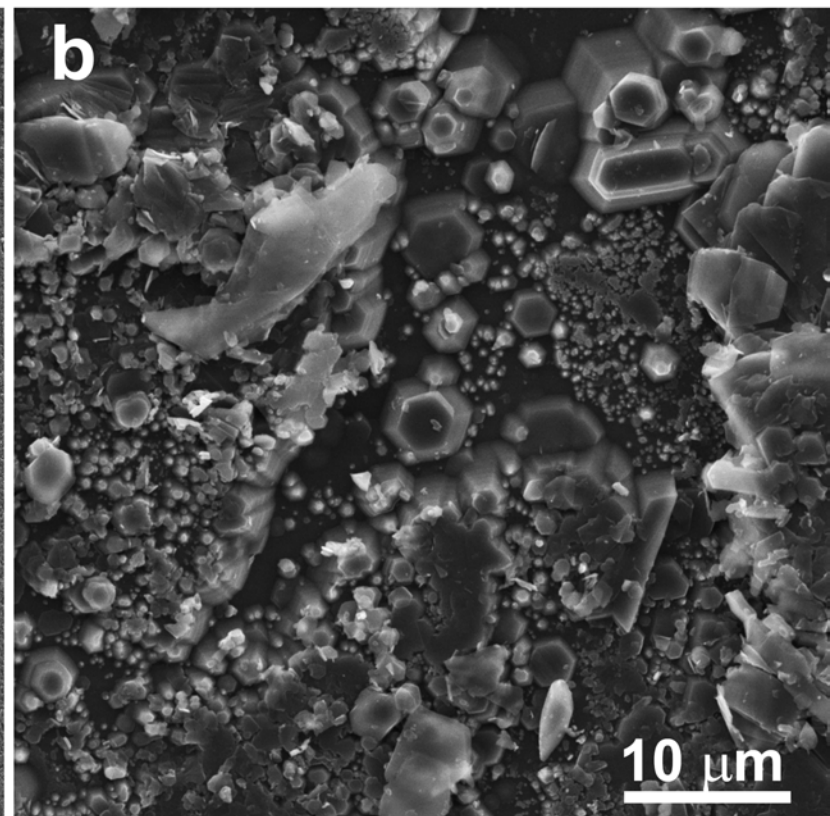
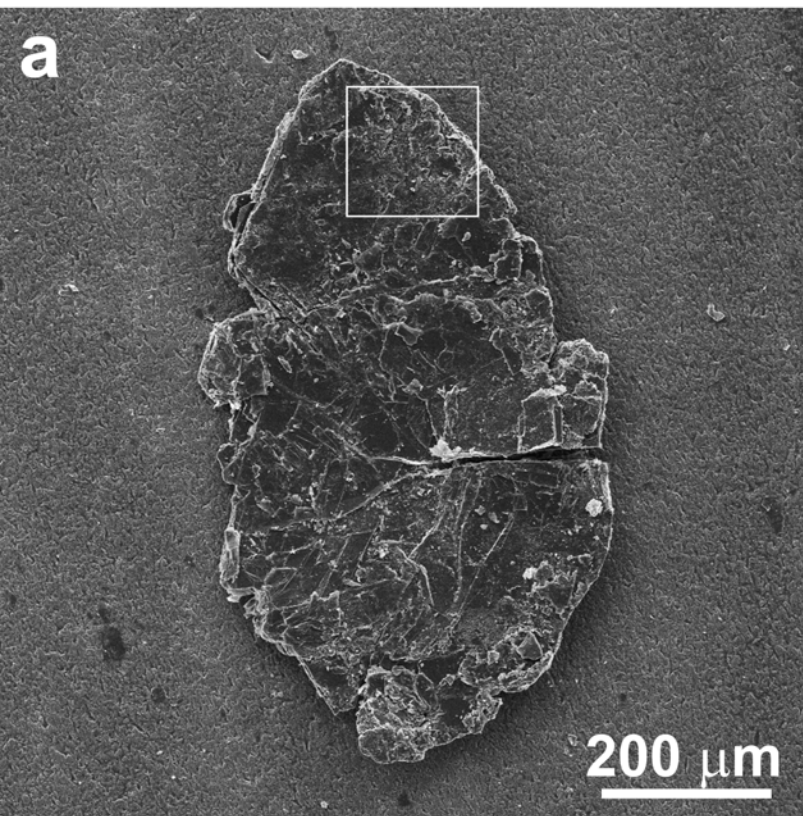


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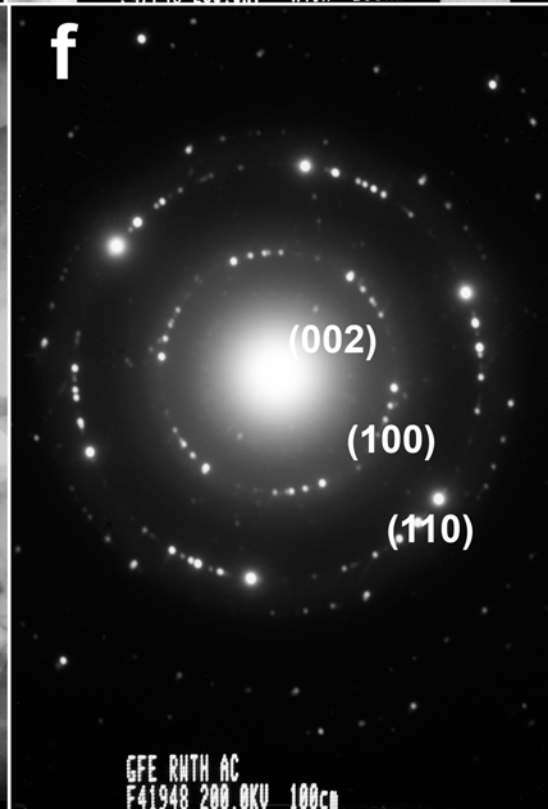
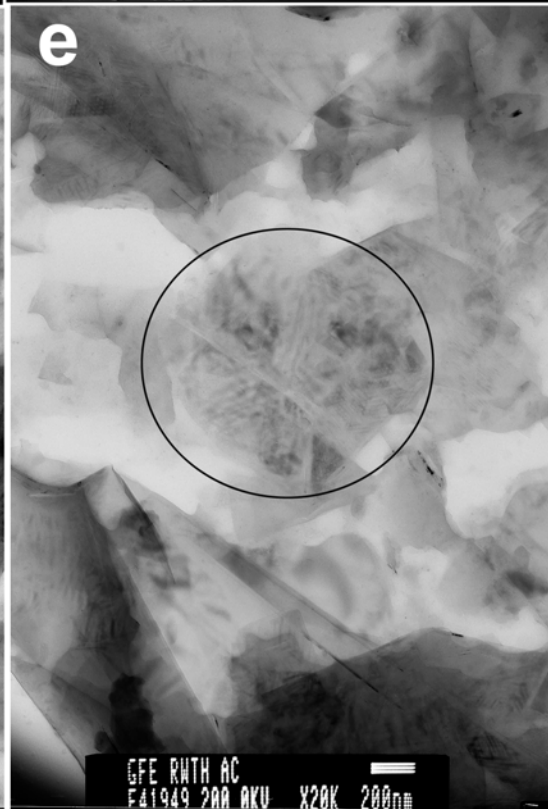
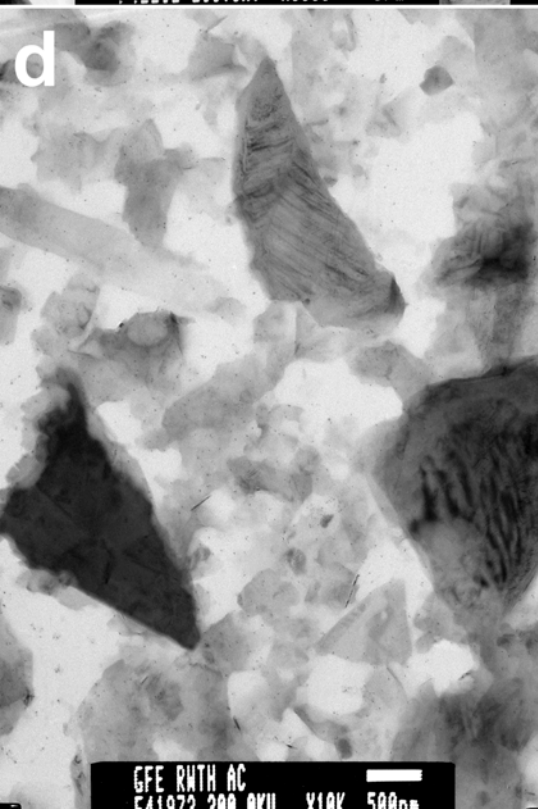
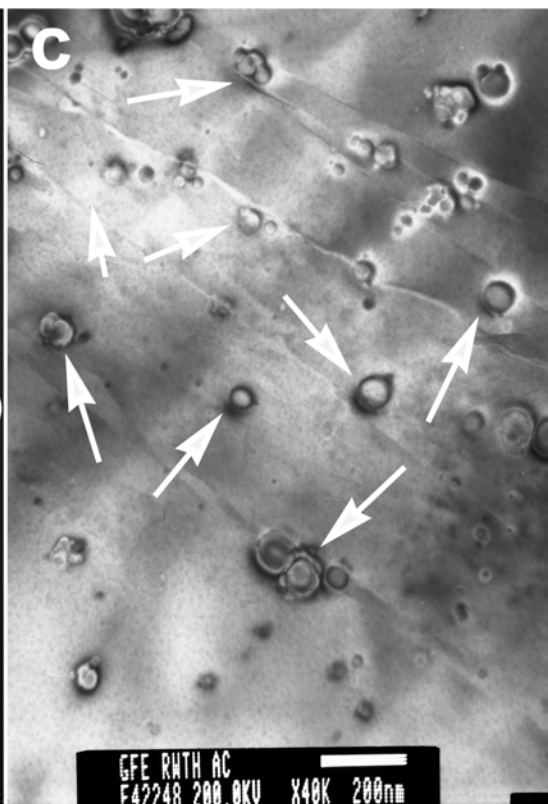
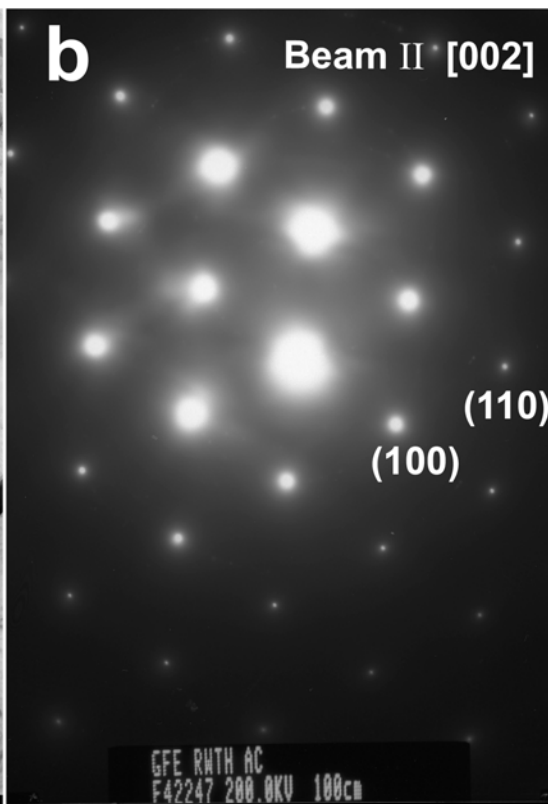
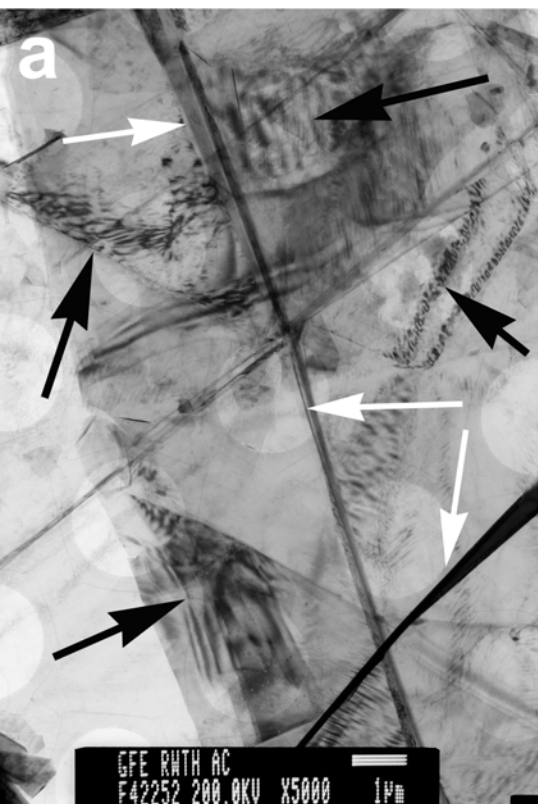


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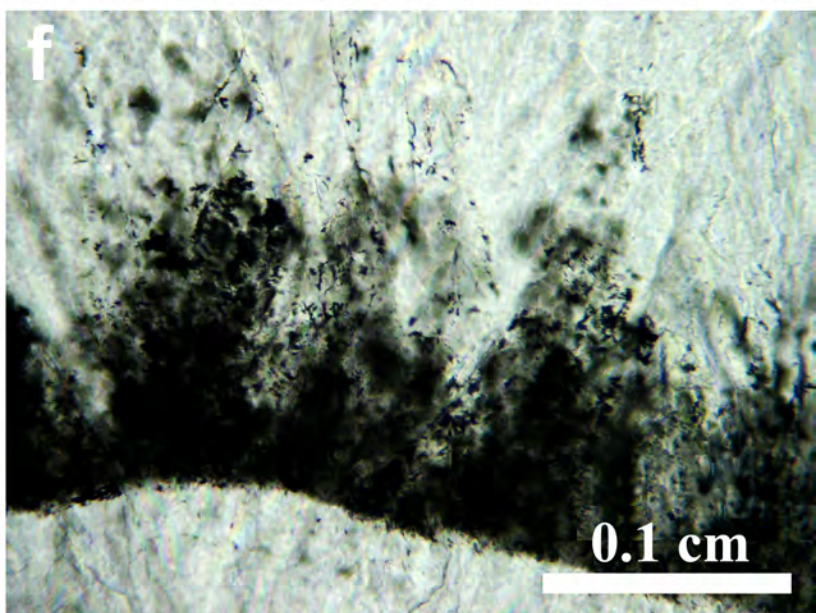
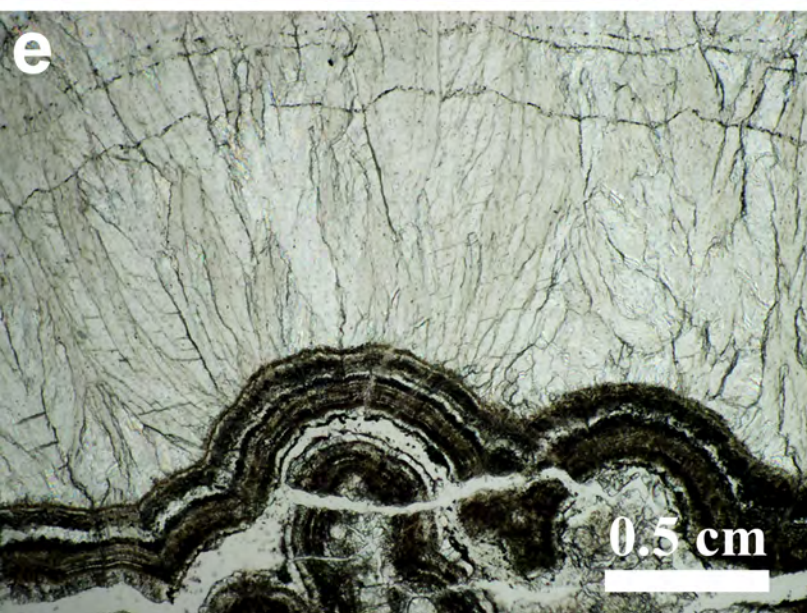
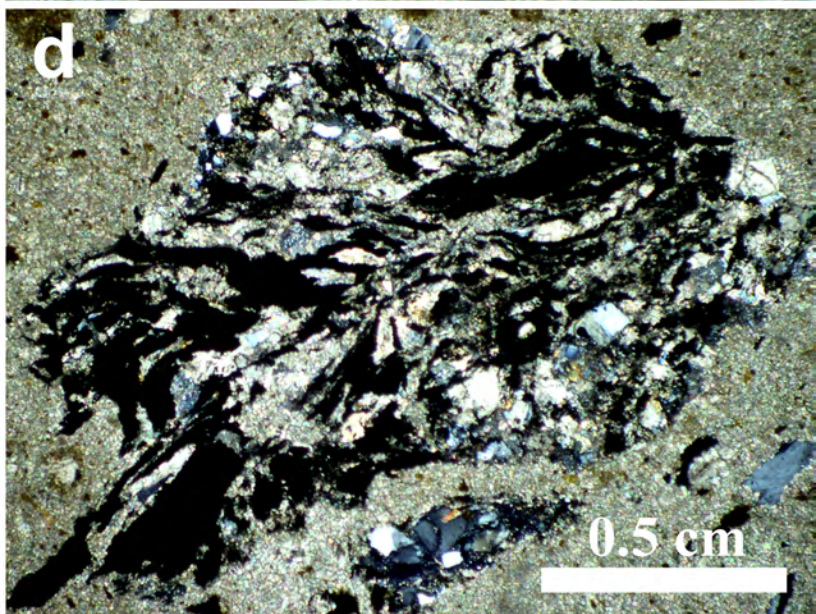
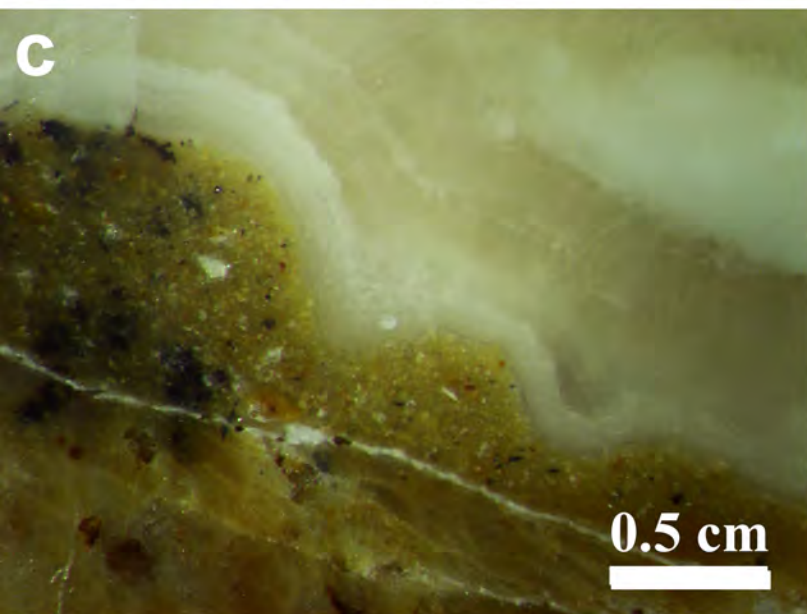
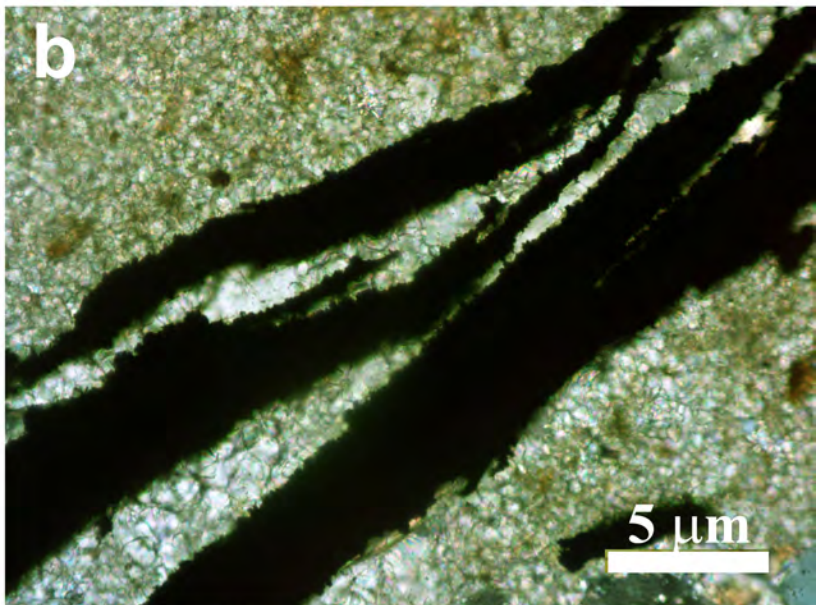
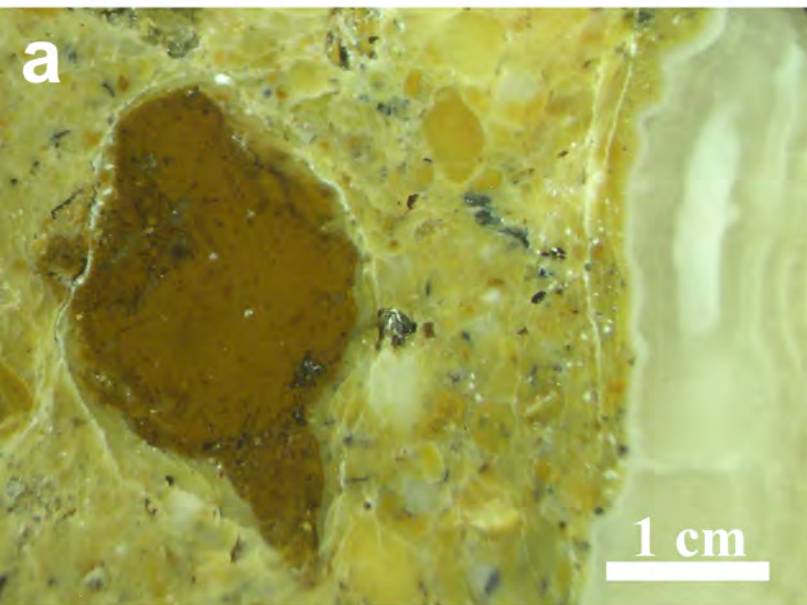


Figure 8

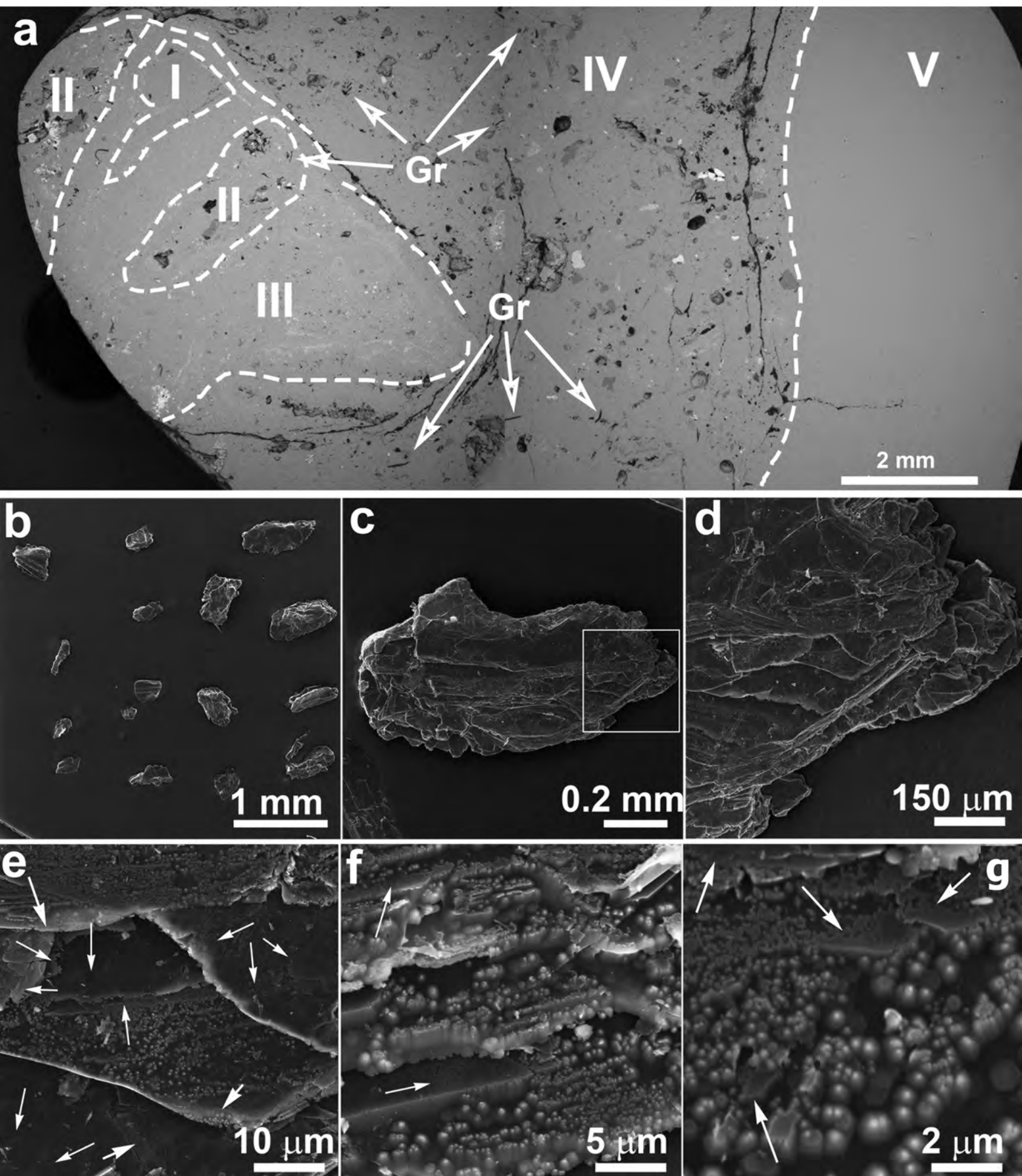


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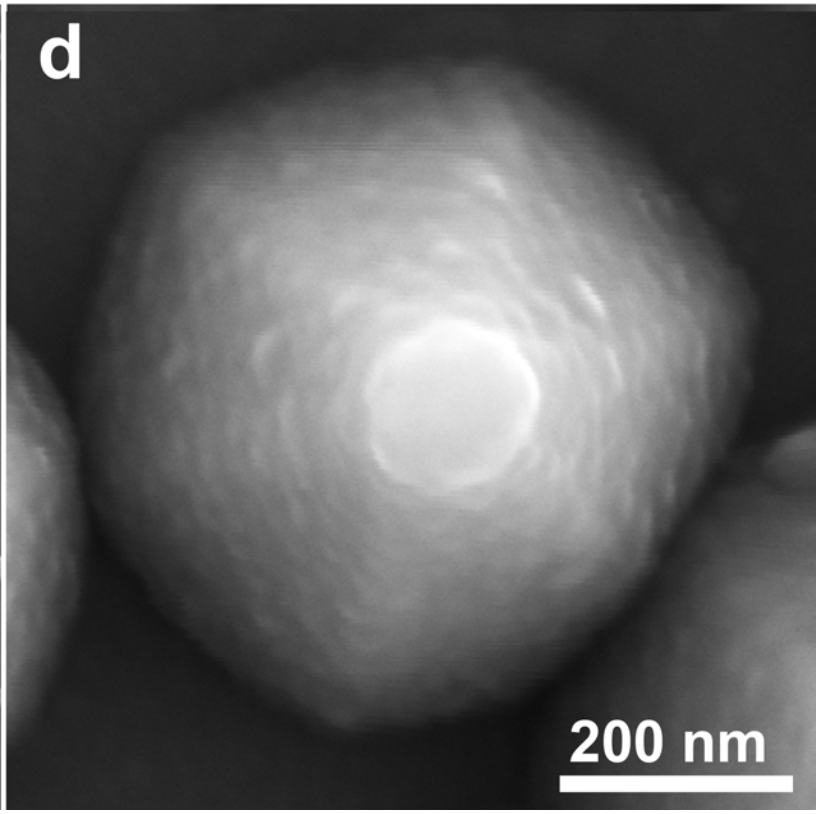
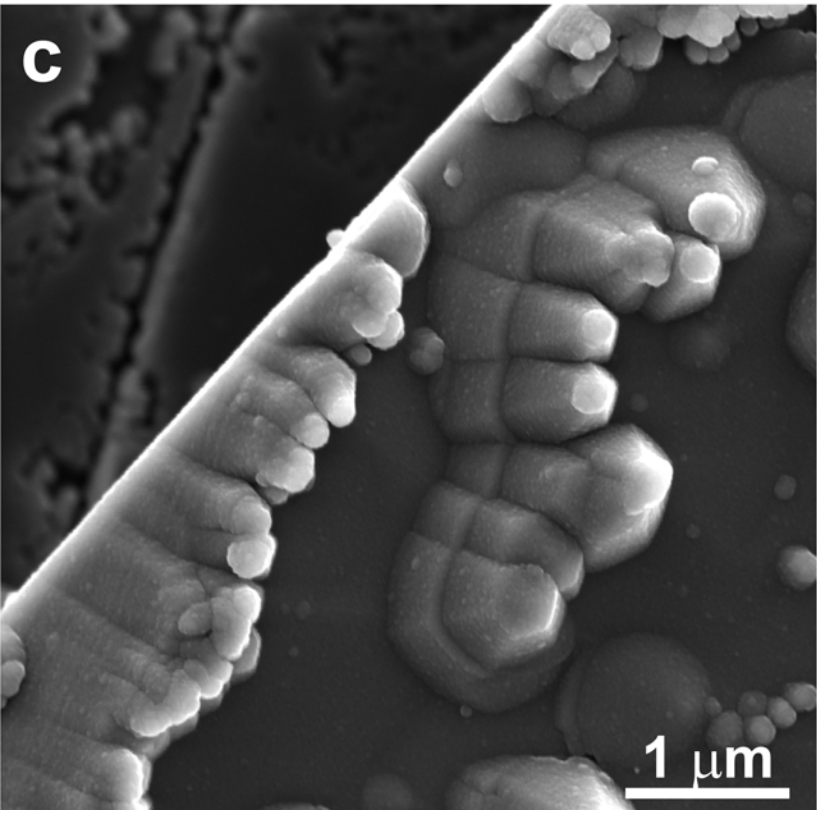
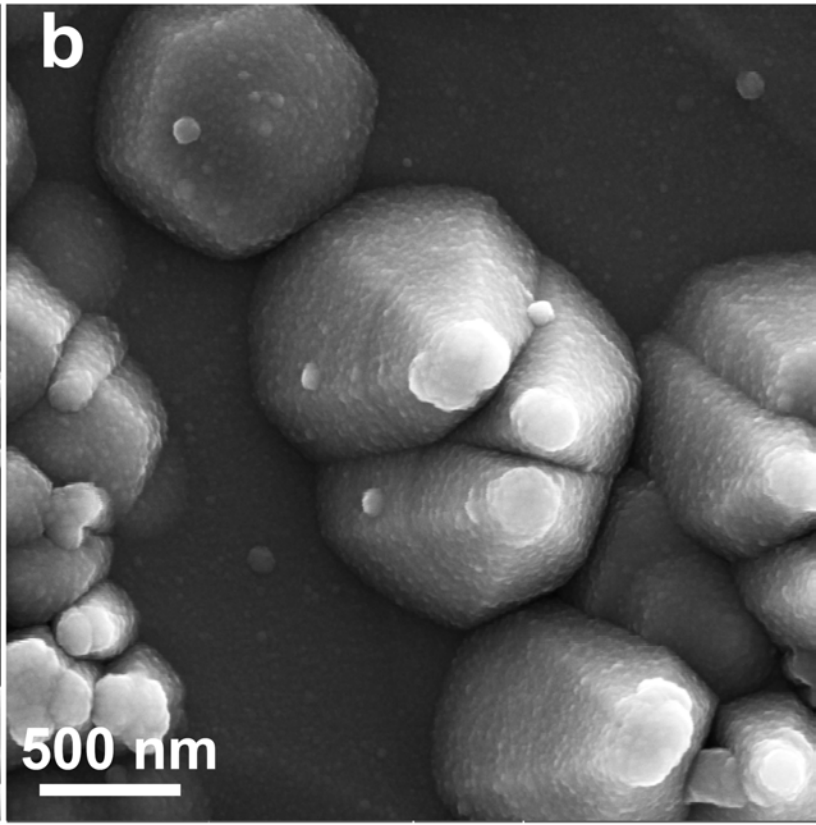
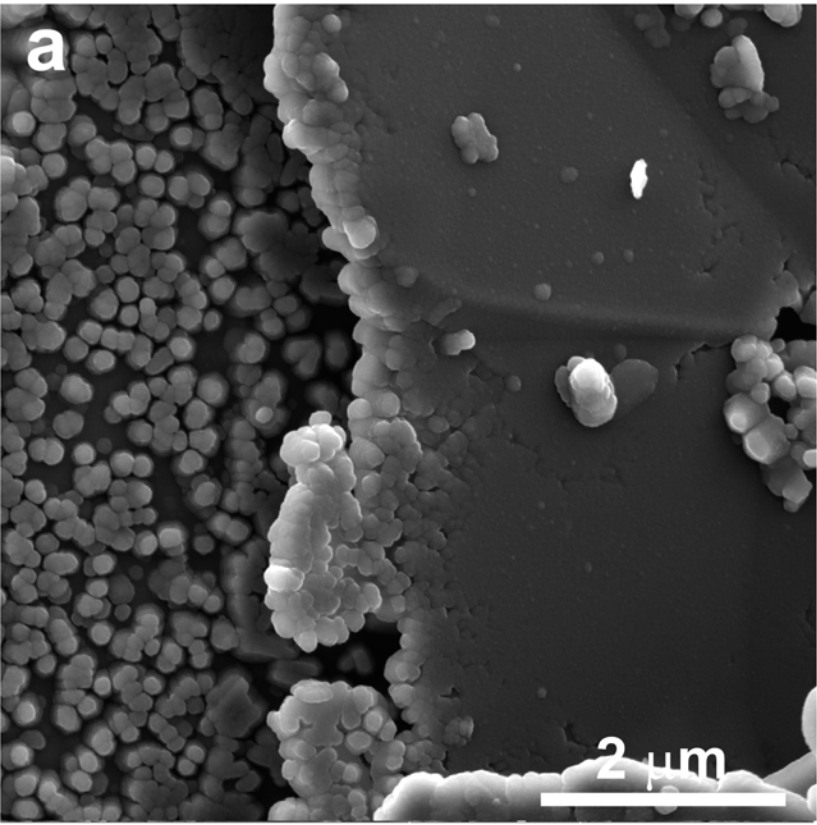


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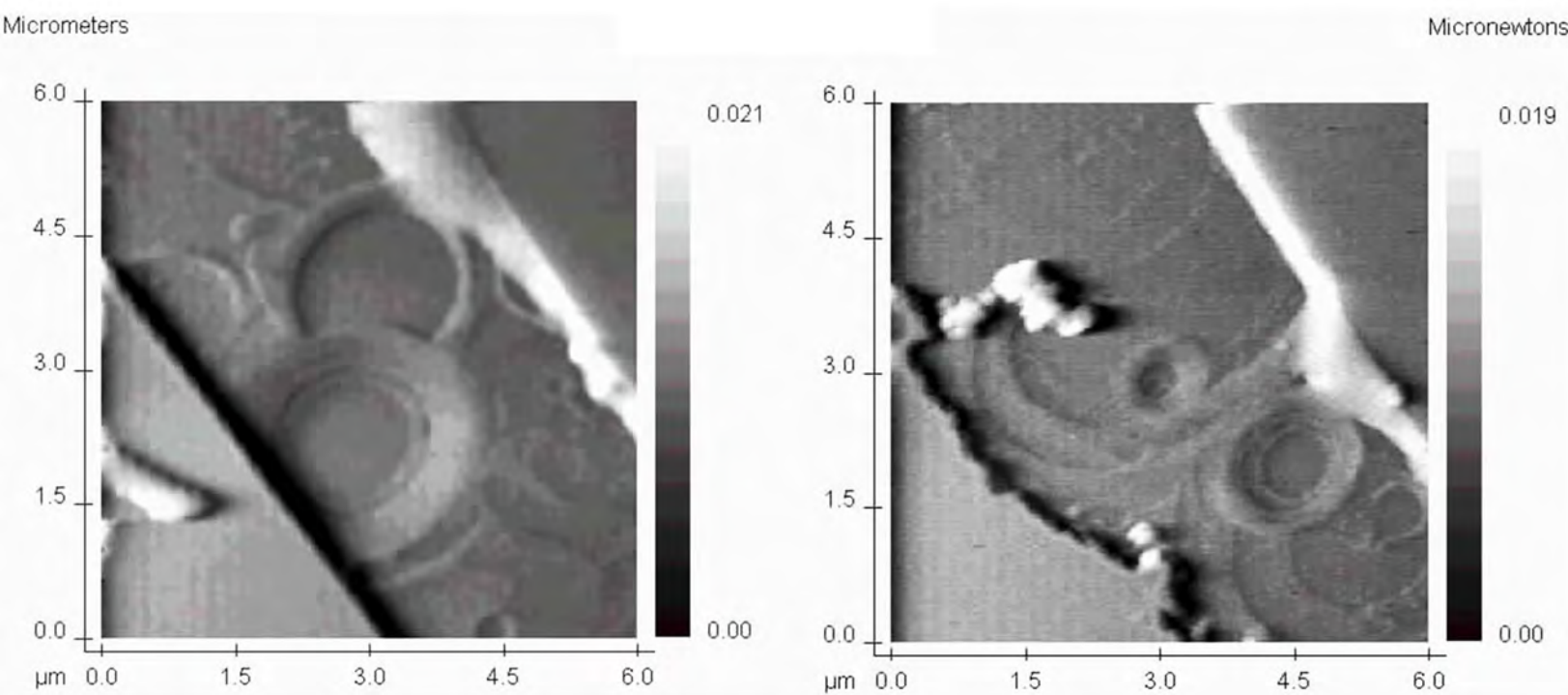
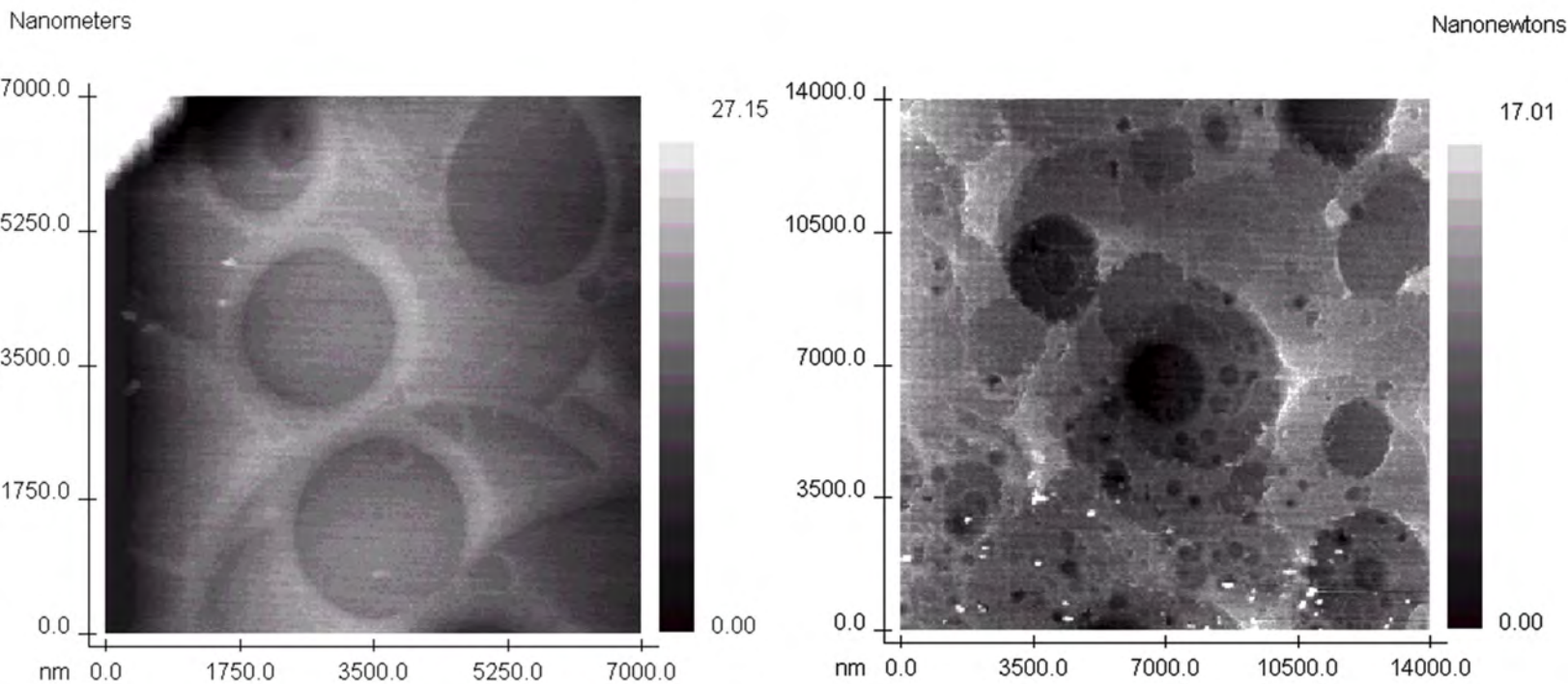


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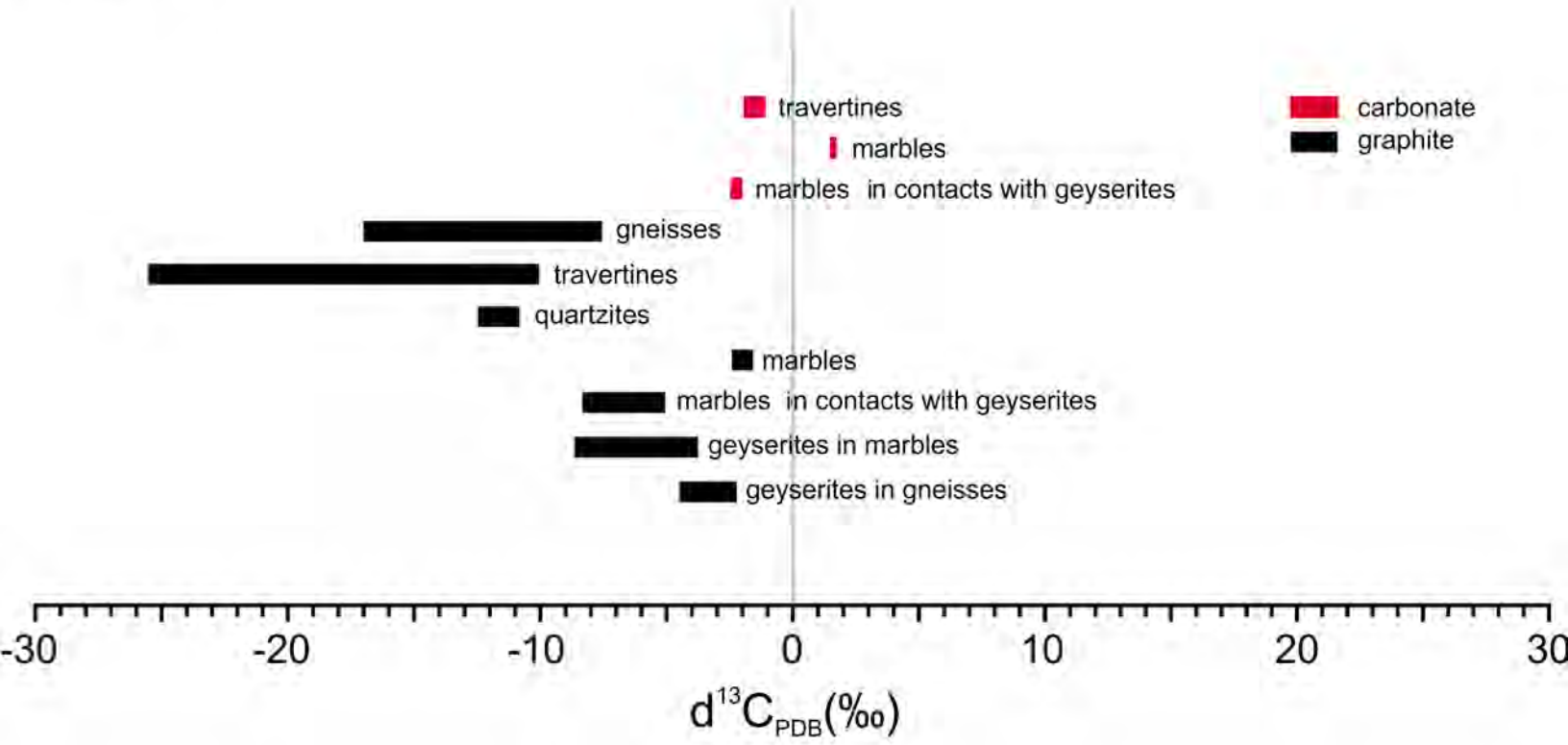


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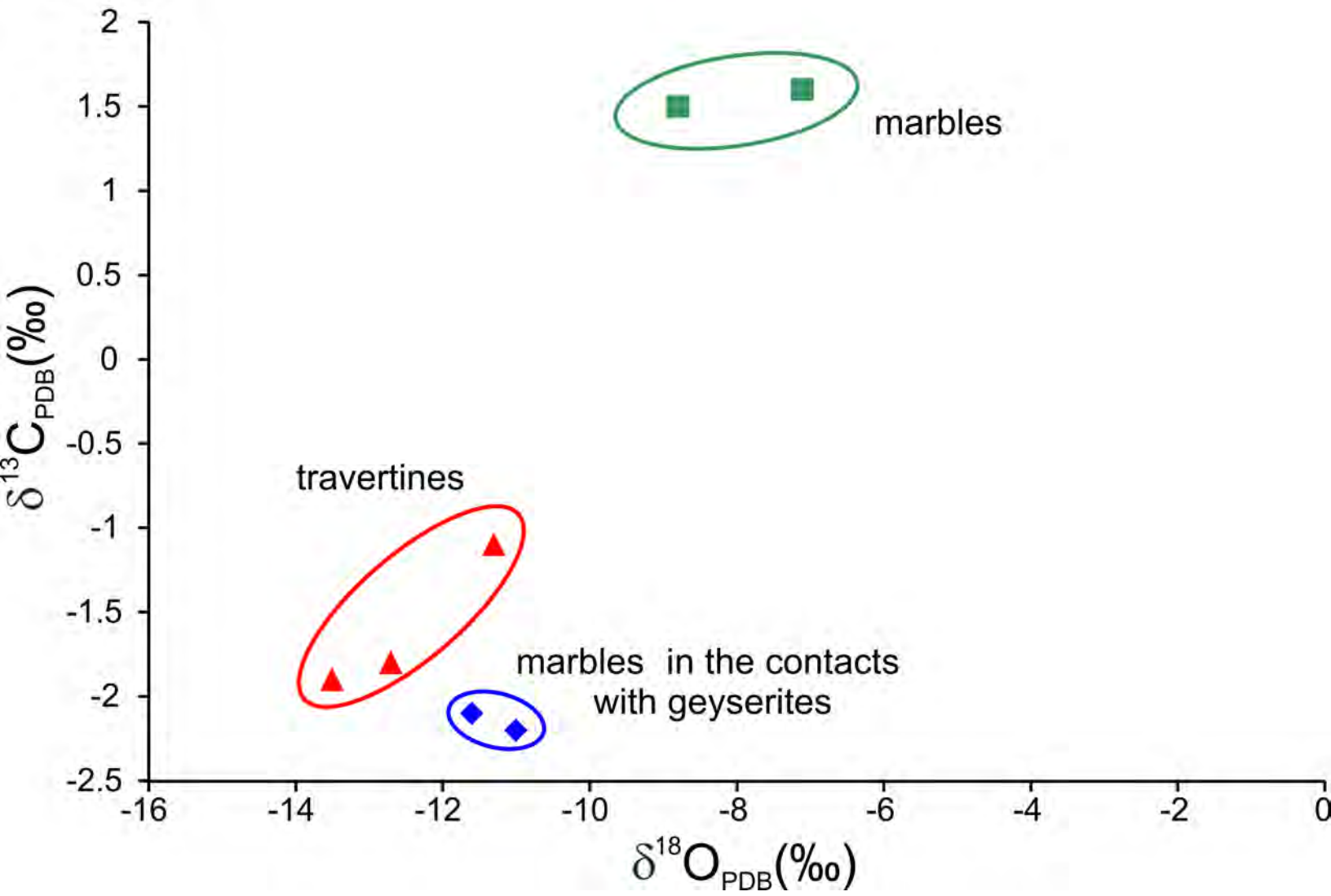


Figure 13

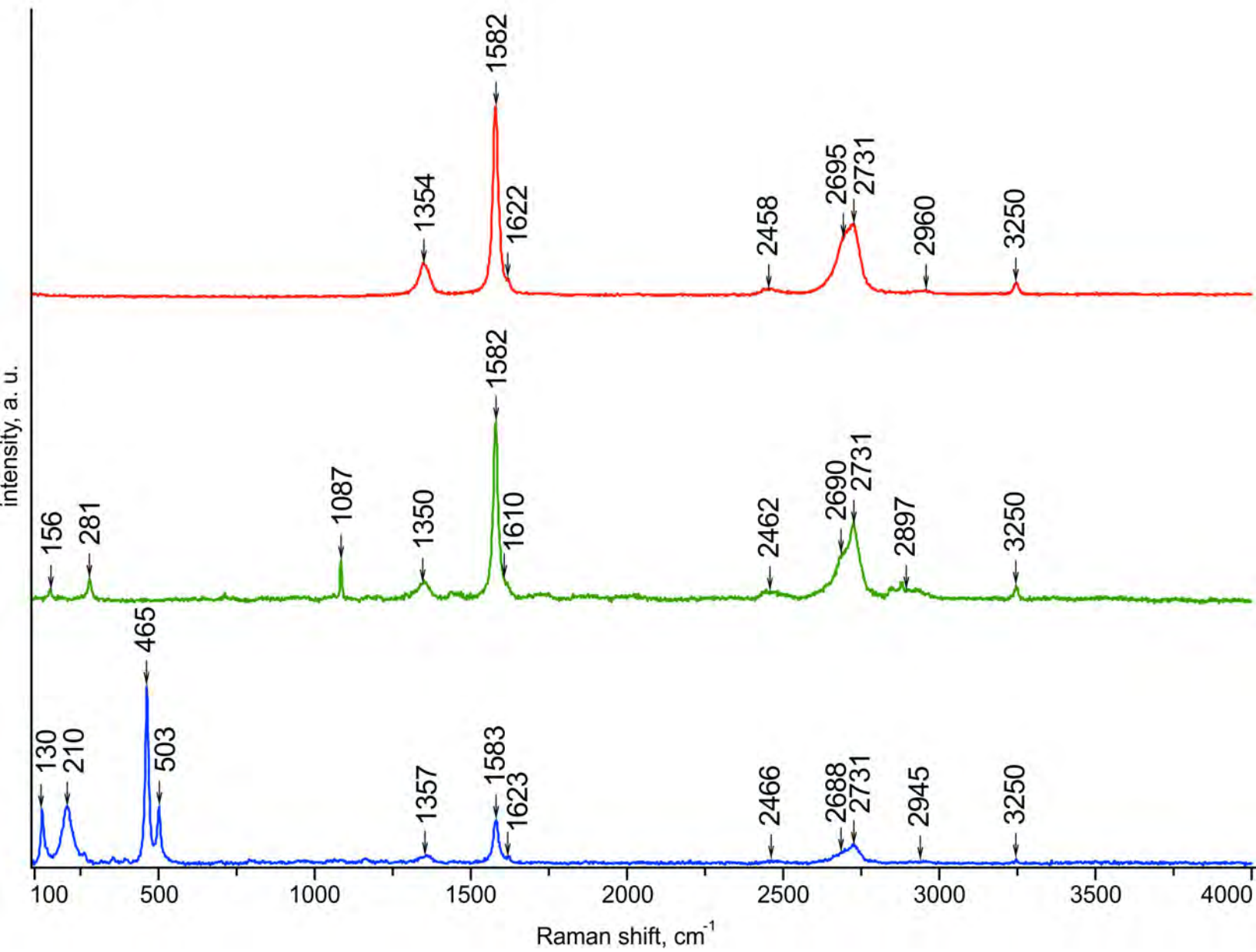


Figure 14

