

Explaining the Structure of the Archean Mass-Independent Sulfur Isotope Record

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Sulfur isotopes in ancient sediments provide a record of past environmental conditions. The long-timescale variability and apparent asymmetry in the magnitude of minor sulfur isotope fractionation in Archean sediments remain unexplained. Using an integrated biogeochemical model of the Archean sulfur cycle, we find that the preservation of mass-independent sulfur is influenced by a variety of extra-atmospheric mechanisms including biological activity and continental crust formation. Preservation of atmospherically produced mass-independent sulfur implies limited metabolic sulfur cycling prior to ~2500 Ma; the asymmetry in the record requires that bacterial sulfate reduction was geochemically unimportant at this time. Our results suggest that the large-scale structure of the record reflects variability in the oxidation state of volcanic sulfur volatiles.

Most natural processes fractionate sulfur in proportion to the mass difference between the isotopes (*I*). Ultraviolet photolysis of atmospheric SO₂, however, produces a mass-independent fractionation (MIF), which is delivered to the surface only if atmospheric O₂ levels are very low (2–7). The presence of MIF in sedimentary sulfides and sulfates older than 2450 Ma, and its absence from later sediments has led to the accepted view that atmospheric O₂ levels crossed a threshold value near the Archean–Proterozoic boundary (2–6). Beyond simply recording MIF, the Archean sulfur isotope record appears to carry a discernable temporal structure: moderate (<4‰) early Archean Δ³³S anomalies followed by a mid-Archean minimum (<2‰), and a late Archean explosion in the magnitude of MIF (<12‰ in Δ³³S). Previous studies attribute this variability to changes in the composition and oxidation state of the atmosphere, and the associated evolution of photochemical pathways (7–9). In addition, an asymmetry in the record, with strongly positive but only weakly negative isotopic anomalies, remains without a quantitative explanation.

Here we explore the effect of a variety of extra-atmospheric processes on the characteristics and preservation of MIF. We present an integrated model of the full surface sulfur cycle, accounting for the production and translation of atmospherically derived MIF through a marine reservoir and

its preservation in the geologic record (*I0*). We use recent measurements and theoretical calculations of ^{3x}SO₂ (*x* = 2,3,4,6) UV absorption cross-sections to constrain atmospheric MIF production (*I0–I2*). Solving mass-balance equations for the steady state reservoir sizes and isotopic compositions of four different oxidation states of sulfur: S⁶⁺ (sulfate), S⁴⁺ (sulfite, SO₂), S⁰ (elemental sulfur), and S²⁻ (sulfide, H₂S), we track MIF from production to lithification.

Rates of volcanic supply, photolytic destruction, gas-phase reactions and net deposition to the surface govern the atmospheric lifetime of SO₂. Any process that destroys atmospheric SO₂ at the expense of photolysis reduces the production, by mass, of MIF (e.g., atmospheric oxidation, Fig. 1A), but as long as photolysis rates are non-negligible relative to the other atmospheric SO₂ sinks, MIF is produced (though not necessarily preserved). In addition to non-photolytic atmospheric sinks, which attenuate MIF by decreasing production, homogenization reduces MIF by remixing anomalous compositions back toward the original SO₂ value. Whereas atmospheric oxidation to sulfate has been discussed in this context (6), microbial processes, which can perform a similar function, have not been rigorously investigated (Fig. 1B). Given a quantitatively significant flux of MIF from SO₂ photolysis, cycling between the sulfur reservoirs (e.g., microbial activity) or transformation to one oxidation state (e.g., quantitative reduction to sulfide) must be minor, as not to erase the anomaly. An immediate implication is that low atmospheric O₂ is necessary but insufficient for preservation of MIF in the geologic record.

Our model results illustrate the sensitivity of MIF to a few key properties of the ocean-atmosphere system, and its relative insensitivity to several others. Atmospheric deposition of SO₂ leads to its speciation in seawater [SO₂ (aq) ⇌ HSO₃⁻ + H⁺ ⇌ SO₃²⁻ + H⁺], where subsequent oxidation by Fe³⁺ (13–15) leaves other aqueous oxidation pathways less important (e.g., Fe²⁺-catalyzed oxidation by aqueous O₂ or by atmospherically produced H₂O₂). This leaves vanishingly little marine S⁴⁺ (~10⁻³ μM), and only modest sulfate concentrations (~10² μM). Given these oxidation rates, the absolute magnitude of MIF is only moderately sensitive to the adopted rate of S⁴⁺

disproportionation (Fig. 1D) (10), although the symmetry of the sulfate–elemental sulfur MIF is rate sensitive. This is because the isotopic composition of SO₂ propagates to both sulfate and elemental sulfur when disproportionation is rapid, but only to sulfate when oxidation dominates. The asymmetry of the MIF record (Fig. 3) suggests that oxidation, not disproportionation, was the dominant aqueous S⁴⁺ sink. Hydrated formaldehyde complexes S⁴⁺, preventing its oxidation and disproportionation; however, this only affects MIF preservation at concentrations higher than those likely in an Archean ocean (Fig. 1E) (16).

The magnitude of MIF in pyrite, but not in sulfates, is very sensitive to the SO₂:H₂S ratio in volcanic volatiles (Fig. 1C). This is because the elemental sulfur that ends up in pyrite originates from both atmospheric SO₂ and H₂S, but H₂S photoreactions do not generate MIF. When the outgassing rate of SO₂ increases relative to that of H₂S, more of the elemental sulfur budget comes from SO₂ photolysis and, as a result, is anomalously fractionated. Sulfate, on the other hand, is produced almost entirely from oxidation and photolysis of SO₂, and so its isotopic composition is insensitive to changes in the relative abundance of SO₂ and H₂S. Changes in the total sulfur (SO₂ + H₂S) outgassing rate with constant SO₂:H₂S produce no change in MIF magnitudes (Fig. 1F), but this may be due to the simplified nature of our atmospheric model; S₈ production in more detailed atmospheric models is sensitive to the total sulfur outgassing rate (7, 17). We note, however, that more rapid S₈ production does not necessarily translate into stronger MIF if the S₈ is H₂S-derived.

MIF depends critically on the partial pressure of CO₂ (*p*CO₂); increased *p*CO₂ results in stronger scattering and UV absorption, decreasing SO₂ photolysis rates (Fig. 2A), and in more detailed atmospheric models, the relative abundances of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ also influence SO₂ oxidation rates and the efficacy of MIF export (6, 7, 17). Our model highlights that with a more acidic ocean (at high *p*CO₂) the degree of pyrite saturation decreases, and H₂S partitions more strongly into the atmosphere. As the importance of H₂S photolysis relative to pyrite precipitation increases, more S⁰ is H₂S-derived. This does not affect the Δ³³S of sulfate (Δ³³S_{sulfate}) but decreases the Δ³³S of pyrite (Δ³³S_{pyr}; Fig. 2B, dotted lines) and influences the symmetry of the Δ³³S signal.

Four properties emerge as important for the preserved magnitude and symmetry of Archean MIF: atmospheric SO₂ oxidation rates, redox transformations (including microbial cycling rates), SO₂:H₂S in volcanic gases, and *p*CO₂. The very presence of MIF in the rock record points to low oxidant availability, suggesting that atmospheric oxidation was not the dominant SO₂ sink (6, 7). With constraints from the geologic record on the remaining three properties, we explore their potential to explain the structure in the Archean MIF record using two quantities: Δ³³S_{pyr} and R_{asym}, a measure of

the absolute asymmetry $\left(\left| \Delta^{33}\text{S}_{\text{pyr}} / \Delta^{33}\text{S}_{\text{sulfate}} \right| \right)$. A

successful explanation of the record must account for early Archean Δ³³S_{pyr} ≈ 4‰ and R_{asym} ≈ 2, mid-Archean Δ³³S_{pyr} ≈ 2‰ and R_{asym} ≈ 1, and latest Archean Δ³³S_{pyr} ≈ 11‰ and R_{asym} > 5.

When imposed on a purely abiological early Archean sulfur cycle, metabolic cycling between the different sulfur pools can potentially explain portions of the Archean MIF record (Fig. 1B). Both microbial S⁰ disproportionation and dissimilatory sulfate reduction may have existed since ~3500 Ma (18, 19). Adopting for the moment a scenario in which biological sulfur cycling is not important prior to ~3500 Ma, an increase in the role of microorganisms equivalent to ~10% modern cycling rates could drive a change in Δ³³S_{pyr} and R_{asym} similar to that observed from the early to mid-Archean (Fig. 3B, *i*→*ii'*). Difficulty arises, however, when microorganisms persist into the late Archean. Given that sulfate reduction delivers Δ³³S < 0 to sulfide, a greater degree of symmetry (and even reversed asymmetry, R_{asym} < 1) would be expected for the late Archean; this is a marked contrast from the observed R_{asym} of 5–6 and suggests that dissimilatory sulfate reduction only rises to geochemical significance between 2400 and 2500 Ma, when high MIF magnitudes and large asymmetry are no longer observed. A late Archean or early Paleoproterozoic onset of sulfate reduction is consistent with a reanalysis of δ³⁴S records (10), and suggests an explanation for the persistence of nonzero and relatively symmetric MIF for 10 to 100 Myr post-dating the major loss of MIF at ~2500 Ma in some locations (5), but not in others (20).

In the absence of biological sulfur cycling, we find that with constant volcanic SO₂:H₂S, climatically reasonable changes in *p*CO₂ (21–23) cannot alone produce the observed MIF history (Fig. 3A). If we adopt instead an evolving value for Archean *p*CO₂, calculated to offset changes in solar luminosity and to maintain liquid water [together with ~10 ppmv atmospheric methane maintained by about twice modern seafloor serpentinization rates; (21–24)], changes in volcanic SO₂:H₂S well within observed values (25, 26) easily account for the histories of both Δ³³S_{pyr} and R_{asym} (Fig. 3A, *i*→*ii*→*iii*). This result does not preclude further changes in *p*CO₂ affecting the MIF signal [e.g., through the effect of methanogens on *p*CO₂ and *p*CH₄ (21, 23)], though the asymmetry in the latest Archean almost by necessity indicates a significant increase in volcanic SO₂:H₂S. Such an increase may be related to a major shift in the style of large igneous province eruption from submarine to subaerial in the late Archean (2700 to 2500 Ma), also suggested to have been the cause for the rise in atmospheric O₂ and the loss of MIF (25). Consistent with the sulfur isotope record, our results suggest that this loss would be preceded by a MIF spike due to the elevated volcanic SO₂:H₂S. A small clustering of plume

events during the early Archean [3500 to 3300 Ma (27)] may suggest an attendant increase in SO₂:H₂S, explaining the earliest MIF record, though it is not clear that these events were subaerial. The eruption rate required to raise global volcanic SO₂:H₂S from ~1.5 to ~8 (as in Fig. 3A, *ii*→*iii*) is only about half to twice that of the Hawaiian plume (28), if the magma composition and SO₂:H₂S are comparable to those of Hawaii [1000 to 1500 ppm sulfur, SO₂:H₂S of 50 to 100 (26)]. Given the plausibility of these changes, the structure of the Δ³³S record may speak to large-scale crustal processes, superimposed onto and participating with low-O₂ atmospheric chemistry.

Despite oceanic anoxia, rapid oxidation of SO₂ by Fe³⁺ in the surface ocean suggests that, like the present, deposition into the Archean ocean was a terminal sink for atmospheric SO₂ with a characteristic timescale of a few days. This implies that atmospheric SO₂ was not well mixed and that spatio-temporal variability in its concentration is expected. Considering the demonstrated sensitivity of MIF to the relative abundance of SO₂, this translates into the potential for large variability in pyrite Δ³³S, with a much more muted signal in the Δ³³S of sulfate minerals (Fig. 3). Additional variability in pyrite Δ³³S is expected as a result of small-scale processes occurring in sediment pore water, given the possibility for sedimentary sulfides to adopt MIF from a variety of sources [dissolved sulfide, elemental sulfur, sulfite or sulfate (17, 29)]. An aqueous oxidation origin for most of the oceanic sulfate may also explain the lack of correlation between Δ¹⁷O and Δ³³S in early Archean barite (30).

Changes in atmospheric composition and chemistry likely explain a fraction of the variability in the Archean MIF record. In addition, we highlight the importance of variability in volcanic SO₂:H₂S, which may have caused the spike in MIF magnitudes around 2700 Ma, immediately preceding the ultimate loss of MIF brought about by the rise of atmospheric O₂. In the absence of atmospheric O₂ and a complex biosphere, it may have been the interactions between the solid Earth (mantle-crust) and fluid Earth (ocean-atmosphere) that drove the sedimentary record of Δ³³S.

References and Notes

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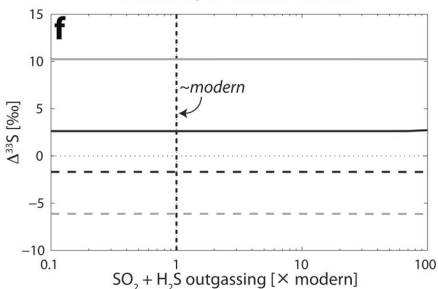
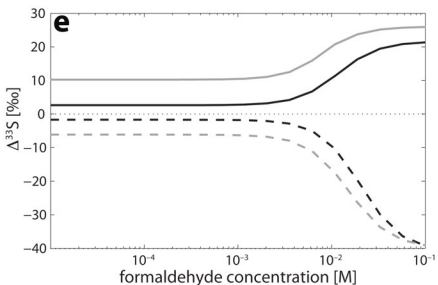
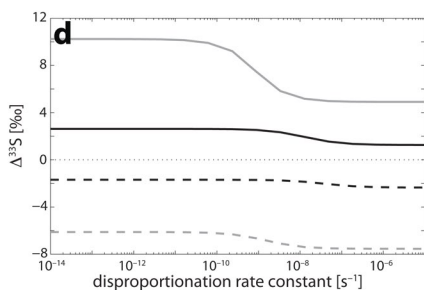
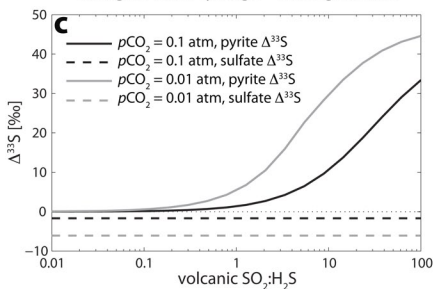
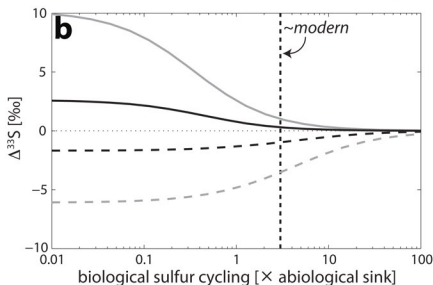
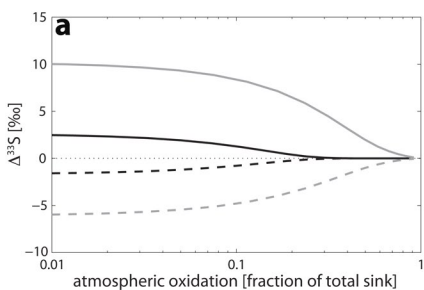
Supporting Online Material

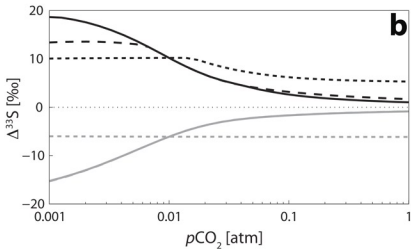
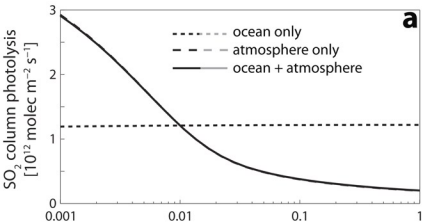
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 References

Fig. 1. The sensitivity of MIF in pyrite and sulfate, for $p\text{CO}_2$ of 0.01 and 0.1 atm, plotted as a function of (A) the fraction of outgassed SO_2 that is oxidized in the atmosphere, (B) microbial cycling, represented as a multiple of the sum of nonbiological sinks, (C) $\text{SO}_2\text{:H}_2\text{S}$ in volcanic gases, (D) the disproportionation rate constant, (E) the hydrated formaldehyde concentration, and (F) the total sulfur ($\text{SO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{S}$) outgassing rate. Metabolisms included in (C) are sulfate reduction, elemental sulfur oxidation, disproportionation and reduction, and sulfide oxidation. Also shown are estimates of modern biological sulfur cycling, and volcanic outgassing.

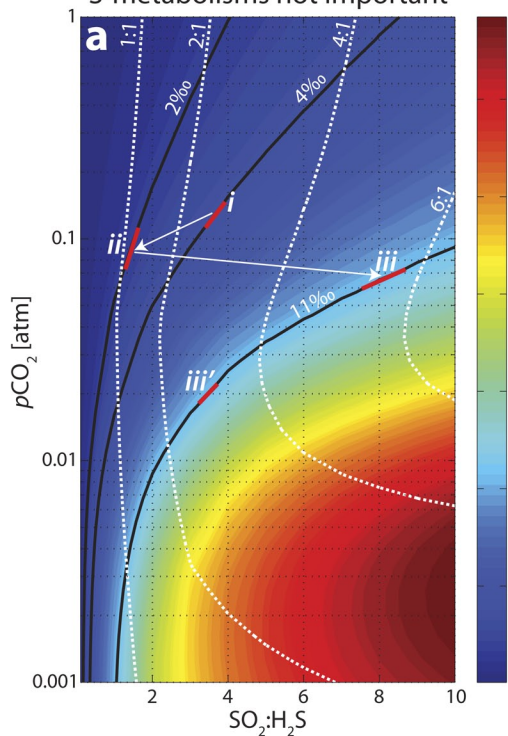
Fig. 2. The sensitivity of (A) the SO_2 column photolysis rate, and (B) MIF in pyrite (black) and in sulfates (gray) to $p\text{CO}_2$. Dashed lines represent the response of MIF to changes in atmospheric opacity due to increased molecular absorption and scattering by CO_2 , with $p\text{CO}_2$ held constant at 0.01 atm in the ocean. Dotted lines represent the response to changes in the ocean (pH, Fe^{3+} concentration, etc.), with $p\text{CO}_2$ held constant at 0.01 atm in the atmosphere. Solid lines show the combined effect.

Fig. 3. The dependence of preserved MIF on $p\text{CO}_2$, volcanic $\text{SO}_2\text{:H}_2\text{S}$, and biological activity. (A) Color contours of pyrite $\Delta^{33}\text{S}$ ($\Delta^{33}\text{S}_{\text{pyr}}$) with no biological sulfur cycling, highlighting values relevant to the early, middle and late Archean (solid black lines). Also shown are contours of the absolute value of the ratio of pyrite to sulfate $\Delta^{33}\text{S}$ (R_{asym} , dotted white lines). (B) Same as (A), but with biological cycling between sulfate, sulfur and sulfide at $\sim 10\%$ modern values. (C) A section ($i \rightarrow ii \rightarrow iii$) through the phase space plotted in (A), with gradually evolving $p\text{CO}_2$ (red line), and the value of volcanic $\text{SO}_2\text{:H}_2\text{S}$ required to reproduce the observed $\Delta^{33}\text{S}_{\text{pyr}}$ and R_{asym} (thick gray line). The modeled $\Delta^{33}\text{S}$ of pyrite (thick solid black line) and sulfate minerals (thick dashed black line) is compared with the observed record (gray circles) in the lower half of (C). Regions iii' in (A) and ii' in (B) illustrate the effect on $p\text{CO}_2$ of biological methanogenesis, and on $\Delta^{33}\text{S}_{\text{pyr}}$ of microbial sulfur cycling, respectively.





S-metabolisms not important



S-metabolisms important

