The preservation of $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ in carbonate-associated sulfate during marine diagenesis: A 25 Myr test case using marine sediments

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A B S T R A C T

A 25 million year record of the sulfur and oxygen isotope composition of marine carbonate-associated sulfate (CAS) was constructed from 55 nannofossil ooze samples at three different locations. We tested the impact of early marine diagenesis on CAS by comparing the CAS extractions to the sulfur and oxygen isotope composition of the associated pore fluid sulfate, to determine the degree of pore fluid incorporation during carbonate recrystallization. Neither the sulfur nor the oxygen isotope composition of CAS are completely overprinted by incorporation of pore fluid sulfate. We compare our record to the sulfur and oxygen isotope records of coeval barite. The sulfur isotope record is in agreement with the barite record within $\pm 2\%$, except where young (<2 Ma) sediments are in the presence of highly evolved pore fluid sulfate ($\delta^{34}\text{S} = 70\%$). A simple recrystallization model is used to illustrate the sensitivity of CAS $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ to sedimentation rate, and to emphasize that careful sample selection, along with an analysis of early diagenetic environmental conditions is crucial when interpreting CAS sulfur isotopes. Oxygen isotopes in CAS are more complex and do not reproduce similar values to those of coeval barite. We conclude that oxygen isotopes in sulfate may remain a useful proxy but merit closer attention in the future.

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1. Introduction

The marine biogeochemical sulfur cycle has played a critical role in the evolution of Earth’s surface environment (Holland, 1984). The concentration of sulfate in the ocean reflects the balance between the terrestrial weathering of sulfur-bearing minerals and the burial of sulfur as evaporites and sedimentary sulfides in the oceans (Holser et al., 1988; Berner and Canfield, 1989). Sulfate reduction to sulfide occurs principally through bacterial sulfate reduction, which comprises a significant portion of anaerobic carbon oxidation in marine sediments (Kasten and Jorgensen, 2000). The subsequent burial of sulfide as pyrite is further understood to be an indirect source of oxygen to the atmosphere (Berner, 1987). Thus, reconstructing the relative fluxes of weathering versus burial within the marine sulfur cycle may yield critical insight into the evolution of both the carbon cycle and the oxidation state of Earth’s surface (Berner, 1987; Canfield, 2005).

The sulfur and, more recently, oxygen isotope composition of sulfur-bearing minerals precipitated in the ocean ($\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$, respectively) are the primary tools used for reconstructing the various fluxes within the marine sulfur cycle over geological time (Claypool et al., 1980; Canfield, 1998; Paytan et al., 1998, 2004; Newton et al., 2004). While traditionally the $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ have been measured in evaporite minerals and barium sulfate (barite), over the last 20 years a new mineral proxy for the sulfur cycle has been increasingly used: carbonate-associated sulfate (CAS) (e.g. Burdett et al., 1989; Kampschulthe et al., 2001; Hurgen et al., 2002; Kah et al., 2004; Kampschulthe and Strauss, 2004; Newton et al., 2004; Gellatly and Lyons, 2005; Gill et al., 2005, 2007; Fike and Grotzinger, 2008). CAS is sulfate that has been incorporated into carbonate minerals upon precipitation, substituting for a carbonate ion in the mineral lattice (Takano, 1985; Pingitore et al., 1995). Whilst questions remain as to the mechanism of sulfate incorporation into carbonate minerals, CAS has been shown to record the isotopic composition of sulfate of the coeval seawater with no apparent fractionation for either $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SO}_4}$ (Cortecci and Longinelli, 1971; Newton et al., 2004) or $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{SO}_4}$ (Burdett et al., 1989; Kampschulthe et al., 2001; Kampschulthe and Strauss, 2004).

Palaeoproxies extracted from carbonate minerals and rocks have significant advantages over other mineral proxies, namely the almost ubiquitous presence of carbonate rocks over geological time, and with it the potential for high temporal resolution. This continuity of the carbonate rock record is in contrast to...
the discontinuous evaporite record, and the marine barite record, which is limited to the last ~130 Ma. However, the use of carbonate minerals as paleoproxies for seawater chemistry is limited by their susceptibility to recrystallization during marine diagenesis, broadly termed ‘diagenetic overprinting’ (e.g. Fantle et al., 2010). This diagenetic overprinting refers to the rapid dissolution and reprecipitation of carbonate minerals in the youngest, uppermost sediments, and the possibility that during this recrystallization, the primary geochemical signatures of the carbonates are either modified or lost.

Early diagenetic overprinting in marine sediments may be a significant obstacle for CAS as a proxy for the marine sulfur cycle. When carbonate minerals recrystallize within marine sediments, they do so in contact with pore fluids that may have a significantly different sulfur and oxygen isotope composition of sulfate than seawater (e.g. Fritz et al., 1989; Wortmann et al., 2007). Bacterial sulfate reduction in sediments results in the pore fluid sulfate becoming enriched in $^{34}$S and $^{18}$O (e.g. Mizutani and Rafter, 1973; Brunner et al., 2005; Wortmann et al., 2007). The recrystallization of sedimentary carbonate under these conditions could result in the incorporation of isotopically distinct sulfate into the recrystallized carbonate, which would potentially overprint the primary (seawater) $^{34}$SO$_4$ and $^{34}$SO$_4$. In carbonates with high original sulfate concentrations, CAS $^{34}$SO$_4$ and $^{34}$SO$_4$ may be likely buffered against significant diagenetic overprinting. This is particularly the case where the diagenetic fluid has very low sulfate concentrations, such as meteoric fluids (Gill et al., 2008), but CAS $^{34}$SO$_4$ may also be unaffected by diagenesis in contact with sulfate-rich fluids. For example, Lyons et al. (2004) demonstrated that CAS $^{34}$SO$_4$ remained unchanged in carbonate-rich sediments of the Florida Keys, despite extensive authigenic carbonate precipitation in the presence of bacterial sulfate reduction. The high sulfate concentrations in the original carbonate, in this case lime muds (2400–4200 ppm CAS), likely ‘buffered’ the CAS to any diagenetic overprinting (analogous to strontium isotopes, which are also considered to be buffered during carbonate recrystallization – e.g. Baker et al., 1982; Richter and DePaolo, 1987). The Florida Keys sediments, however, may not be representative of the full suite of carbonates rocks often used for CAS extraction. The range of CAS concentrations in biogenic carbonate can be as high as 20,000 ppm, but in foraminifera and coccoliths CAS concentrations are typically lower than 1000 ppm, and commonly as low as 600 ppm (Staudt and Schoonen, 1995). Furthermore, while the Florida Keys sediments had significant authigenic, or in situ carbonate precipitation, it is unknown how they would evolve on timescales of a few million years while undergoing carbonate recrystallization (dissolution and reprecipitation).

In this paper, we investigate the effect of early marine diagenesis on carbonate sediments by comparing isotope data from coexisting pore fluids and minerals for both $^{34}$SO$_4$ and $^{34}$SO$_4$. We present data from three carbonate-rich sediments collected during the Ocean Drilling Program, chosen for their range of bacterial sulfate reduction and sedimentation rates. The sediment ages span 0–25 Ma, which encompasses the critical timescale over which maximum recrystallization is expected to occur (carbonate recrystallization rates in near surface sediments can be as much as a few percent per million years, and much higher in the very youngest sediment – Maher et al., 2004, 2006; Fantle and DePaolo, 2007). Our results are directly compared with the coeval barite $^{34}$SO$_4$ and $^{34}$SO$_4$ records, to assess the viability of CAS as a proxy for both $^{34}$SO$_4$ and $^{34}$SO$_4$. We use a simple model to pinpoint the conditions in which recrystallization may overprint CAS. We then apply the model to two of the sites to obtain rough estimates of recrystallization rates. We discuss the implications of our findings for the use of CAS in the geological record.

2. Sample sites

All three studied sites (Fig. 1) are carbonate rich and show varying degrees of bacterial sulfate reduction. Site 807 (Ontong-Java Plateau) is the deepest site, at a water depth of 2815 m. The sediment is ~90 wt% carbonate, comprising nanofossil and foraminiferal ooze, which overlies nanofossil chalk at 293 m below sea floor (mbsf). Total organic carbon varies between 0.02 and 0.6%. The sediment pile is estimated to be ~1380 m thick, overlying a 40 km thick ocean crust. Sedimentation rates in the uppermost 600 m are on average 15 m Myr$^{-1}$, except in the late Miocene (8–5 Ma, ~175 mbsf) where they increase to 40 m Myr$^{-1}$. Pore fluid sulfate concentrations drop from seawater values (28 mM) to 22 mM in the top 100 m (Shipboard Scientific Party, 1991a). Carbonate recrystallization rates at Site 807 have been extensively studied using strontium, calcium, and magnesium concentrations and isotopes (Fantle and DePaolo, 2006, 2007; Higgins and Schrag, 2012).

Site 1003 is on the Bahama Bank in the Atlantic, with a water depth of 490 m. Coring recovered a full Neogene-Recent sequence, comprising 1300 m of sediment. The uppermost 200 m of sediments recovered at this Site are Pliocene-Recent in age, and are 90 wt% carbonate, from both mixed pelagic and bank-derived carbonates. The sediment is predominantly unlithified packstones, with abundant Halimeda debris, intercalated with unlithified and bioturbated mudstones. Sedimentation is thought to be continuous.
in this upper 200 m, but rates increase at ~110 mbsf (corresponding with the Plio-Pleistocene transition) from 25 m Myr⁻¹ to ~100 m Myr⁻¹. The carbonate mineralogy is dominated by high magnesium calcite and dolomite at 100–200 mbsf, and by aragonite and high magnesium calcite above 100 mbsf. Total organic carbon is <1%, except for one horizon of 2 wt% organic carbon at 100 m depth. Pore fluid sulfate concentrations remain near seawater values for the top 50 m, where they then decrease to 15 M by 100 mbsf (Shipboard Scientific Party, 1997).

Site 821 is the shallowest of the three studied sites. It is situated on the Eastern Australian continental slope with a water depth of 212 m. The sediment at this Site is composed of siliciclastic sands and muds, interbedded with calcareous clays (40–70% carbonate), and total organic carbon in the sediment varies between 0.15 and 0.45%. Four hundred metres of sediment were recovered at this site, spanning the last 2 Ma. The sediment column is comprised of three progradational packets, overlain by two aggradational sedimentary sequences, with one hypothesised hiatus between the uppermost two sequences. The base of the sediment column was not reached during coring, but the sediment packet is estimated to be ~1000 m thick in total, from previous seismic surveys (Symonds et al., 1983). Sedimentation rates in the recovered section are high compared to the other sites in this study – varying between 100 m Myr⁻¹ (at the very top of the sediment column) to 500 m Myr⁻¹ at 80 m depth, with an average sedimentation rate of ~200 m Myr⁻¹. Pore fluid sulfate concentrations at Site 821 drop steadily from seawater values to 1 mM over the top 150 m.

3. Methods

3.1. Pore fluid sulfate extraction

Pore fluid sulfate was precipitated as barite by addition of a saturated BaCl₂ solution. The resulting BaSO₄ was cleaned of possible BaCO₃ contamination by addition of 2 ml 6 M HCl. Samples were agitated and then left in acid for a few hours before removing the supernatant, and rinsing twice in 18 M HCl, followed by two rinses in 18 M HCl, then dried and prepared for analysis of δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄.

3.2. Carbonate-associated sulfate

Ten–twenty grams of sediment were analysed for carbonate-associated sulfate using a method adapted from Burdett et al., 1989. Samples were homogenized and rinsed for 24 hr in 30% NaCl solution to remove any soluble sulfates. This was followed by a further 24 hr in 5% NaOCl in order to oxidise and remove any organic-bound sulfur, and easily oxidised sulfides. Samples were then dissolved by dropwise addition of a stoichiometric volume of 3 M HCl and 20% SnCl₂. The addition of stannous chloride was to prevent the precipitation of tin oxides, followed by the addition of an excess of saturated BaCl₂ solution. The resulting BaSO₄ precipitate was removed by vacuum filtration. The dry solid was then cleaned as the pore fluid samples by addition of 2 ml 6 M HCl, followed by two rinses in 18 M HCl, then dried and prepared for analysis of δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄ of pore fluid sulfate. This was followed by two rinses in 18 M HCl, then dried and prepared for analysis of δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄.

3.3. Sulfur isotope analyses

Barite samples of 390–460 μg were weighed with excess V₂O₅ in tin and then combusted in a Thermo HT1112 Elemental Analyzer, and introduced into a Delta V Plus gas source mass spectrometer as SO₂. Elemental Analyzer settings for the furnace and GC were 1030 °C, and 110 °C respectively, and carrier flow rates were 85 ml/min. Each run was preceded by two international standards (NBS-127, δ³⁴S = 20.3% and IAEA-SO-6, δ³⁴S = −34.1%) and an internal barite standard (13%). Samples were run in groups of 20 with 3 bracketing NBS-127, for which σ < 0.3%. Results are reported in standard delta notation (δ³⁴S) relative to Vienna Canyon Diabolo Troilite (VCDT).

3.4. Oxygen isotope analyses

Pore fluid δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄ and the CAS δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄ are shown in Table 1, and in Fig. 2, plotted with previously published ODP shipboard pore fluid sulfate concentrations (Shipboard Scientific Party, 1991a, 1991b, 1997). The δ³⁴SSO₄ of pore fluid sulfate increases at all sites as sulfate concentrations decrease (Fig. 2c). Sulfur isotopes in the pore fluid reach a maximum of 77% at 100 m in Site 821, 30% at 200 m in Site 807, and 51% at 100 m in Site 1003 (Fig. 2a). The δ¹⁸OSO₄ in the pore fluid reaches 24% at all sites, initially coevolving with the pore fluid δ³⁴SSO₄ but ultimately reaching a constant isotopic value, as if reaching equilibrium with water (Fig. 2b) – this behaviour of the oxygen isotopes in sulfate to reach an “apparent equilibrium” with water is a function of cell-internal sulfur cycling. The term “apparent equilibrium” comes from Wortmann et al., 2007). In all cores there is no correlation between the sulfur and oxygen isotope composition of CAS and the sulfur or oxygen isotopic composition of the pore fluid sulfate.

We compare our CAS δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄ results to previously published δ¹⁸OSO₄ and δ³⁴SSO₄ values from pelagic barite of the same age (Paytan et al., 2004; Turchyn and Schrag, 2006) by calculating ages of samples using the best available age models (usually shipboard biostratigraphic data – Fig. 3). We have reinterpreted the data from Turchyn and Schrag (2006) to the community-revised NBS 127 barite standard of 8.6% (Brand et al., 2009). Our data span the last 25 million years when there is little variability in the δ³⁴SSO₄ of marine barite, allowing us to explore positive and negative deviations of CAS δ³⁴SSO₄ from barite δ³⁴SSO₄. Over this timescale, the CAS δ³⁴SSO₄ is within ±2% of coeval barite at
The CAS $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ records in all sites do not show similar trends to the barite $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ record, and have values that are at times as high as 6% in the first 120 m of the section. The CAS $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ results. All three CAS records are in good agreement with each other for the first 0.5 Ma, where they are consistently 2.4% higher than modern seawater (seawater $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ is 8.6 ± 0.4‰ (Brand et al., 2009) while CAS $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ is 11 ± 0.4‰) and 3% higher than marine core top barite (Fig. 3b). There is one peak of similar magnitude and duration in Site 807 CAS $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ and barite $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$, however these are 5 Ma offset from each other, and none of the published age models for Site 807 (Kroenke et al., 1991; Lyle et al., 1993; Schrag et al., 1995; Martin and Scher, 2004) change the record sufficiently to reconcile the two peaks.

5. Discussion

Our results show that CAS $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ and $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ are isotopically distinct from pore fluid sulfate — in other words the incorporation of porefluid sulfate during carbonate diagenesis has not been sufficient to render CAS $^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ and $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ values that are isotopically deviated towards the pore fluid sulfate (Fig. 2). Moreover, there is good agreement between CAS $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ and coeval barite $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ in two core sites (807 and 1003), although CAS $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ is elevated above barite $^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ in the first half of Site 821.
Fig. 2. The data for the three study sites. (a) Results of $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ for pore fluid sulfate ($\times$ black line), and CAS ($\blacksquare$ grey line). (b) $\delta^{18}O_{SO_4}$ for pore fluid sulfate (+) and CAS $\delta^{18}O_{SO_4}$ (©) and (c) shipboard measurements of pore fluid sulfate concentrations (black line, top axis), calcium concentrations (dashed grey line, top axis) and strontium concentrations (grey line, bottom axis).

In contrast, CAS $\delta^{18}O_{SO_4}$ and barite $\delta^{18}O_{SO_4}$ do not have similar records for the whole of the studied interval.

5.1. Sulfur isotopes in carbonate associated sulfate

There are several factors that will determine whether marine diagenesis will impact the measured CAS $\delta^{34}S$. These include the amount of pore fluid sulfate that is incorporated into the precipitated carbonate (i.e. the partition coefficient of sulfate into recrystallizing carbonate – $K_{SO_4}$), the rate and extent of carbonate recrystallization, the original concentration of sulfate in the CAS, and the relative sulfur isotope difference between the original CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ and the $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ of pore fluid sulfate. Additionally, although sulfate incorporation into biogenic carbonates has negligible sulfur isotope fractionation (Burdett et al., 1989), it is not known whether any sulfur isotope fractionation exists for sulfate incorporation into abiotic carbonate precipitated during marine diagenesis.

All three ODP sites studied have portions of their sediment columns where the carbonate sediments are in the presence of pore fluid that is isotopically distinct from the original carbonate, and from modern seawater. Site 821 is, however, the only site in which CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ significantly deviates from the ‘predicted’ sulfur isotope composition based on barite $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$. We hypothesize that this deviation may be due to pore fluid incorporation during marine diagenesis.

The rate of carbonate recrystallization and the partition coefficient of sulfate into carbonate are likely to have complementary effects on the potential alteration of CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ because the partition coefficient, $K_{SO_4}$, should be dependent on calcite growth rate (Busenberg and Plummer, 1985). Higher rates of carbonate recrystallization incorporate more sulfate per unit of recrystallized carbonate, although it is unclear whether this relationship holds at the relatively slow rates experienced during early diagenesis in marine sediments. Values for $K_{SO_4}$ in both primary and recrystallized carbonate, and their dependence on growth rate, are not well constrained. However, while the range of sulfate concentrations in biogenic carbonate can vary over several orders of magnitude (600–24 000 ppm – Staudt and Schoonen, 1995), the reported range of sulfate concentrations in diagenetic carbonate lies in a relatively narrow, and lower, range (200–600 ppm – Staudt and Schoonen, 1995).

The rate of carbonate recrystallization is arguably the dominant factor controlling pore fluid sulfate incorporation into carbonate, due to the likely dependence of $K_{SO_4}$ on this rate. Numerous studies have calculated that mineral recrystallization rates decrease exponentially with increasing age (and, therefore, sediment depth – e.g. Richter and DePaolo, 1987). Broadly speaking, there exists an inverse relationship between reaction rate ($R$) and sediment age for both silicate and carbonate sediments and soils ($R = 0.1 \text{ Age}^{-1}$ – Maher et al., 2004). This relationship extends
over many orders of magnitude and types of environment, and has been shown to hold for young (<2 Ma) sedimentary carbonates (Fantle and DePaolo, 2007), although it breaks down on laboratory timescales (e.g. Burch et al., 1993) and in perturbed systems (e.g. Kirkwood and Nesbitt, 1991). For deep-sea sediments, like those we have studied, carbonate recrystallization rates can initially be very high in the uppermost sediments (~40% Myr⁻¹ – Fantle and DePaolo, 2007), before dropping exponentially to ~2–3% in deeper sediments (Fantle and DePaolo, 2006, 2007). In such cases, if the partition coefficient of sulfate into carbonate does not vary significantly with depth, then it is the uppermost (i.e. youngest), most rapidly recrystallizing carbonate that will incorporate the most pore fluid sulfate. If this pore fluid sulfate is isotopically offset from seawater, then this has the potential to overprint the original CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄

The preservation of primary CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄ is therefore more likely in sites with low sedimentation rates, such that the majority of carbonate recrystallization has occurred near the surface, above deeper horizons that may have isotopically altered pore fluid. Changes in the sulfate isotope composition of the pore fluid in older, deeper sediments are unlikely to have such a significant effect on CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄ because in the deeper sediments the carbonate recrystallization rates are much lower. Our results reinforce this hypothesis, as any variability we observe in CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄ is limited to the youngest sediments in the presence of evolved pore fluid and CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄ is relatively unaffected by elevated δ³⁴SΟ₄ in the pore fluid at deeper horizons (see below).

5.1.1. Carbonate recrystallization models

It is possible to apply a simple, time-intergrated mass balance model to an idealized sediment column to estimate the recrystallization rate and illustrate this conceptual idea of the importance of sedimentation rate on CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄. This is overlays two separate processes within the sediment column, carbonate recrystallization rates, which we scale as a function of age (therefore depth – see below) versus sulfate reduction and pore fluid sulfur isotope evolution, which we prescribe and set fixed for an idealized sediment column. Assuming that there is no sulfur isotope fractionation upon the incorporation of sulfate into diagenetic calcite, that the rate of carbonate precipitation is equal to the rate of dissolution (e.g. Fantle and DePaolo, 2007), and that carbonate that is recrystallizing at every depth is the remaining primary carbonate (i.e. secondary calcite is not re-dissolved at greater depths – e.g. Delaney, 1989), the resultant CAS δ³⁴SΟ₄ value for a given depth, j in the sediment, can be derived:

$$\delta^{34}S_{Sj} = \frac{\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}C_{SO_4}(1 - \sum_{i=0}^{j}r_i) + \sum_{i=0}^{j}\delta^{34}S_{Fi}(C_{Ca_{fi}}/C_{Ca_{ri}})K_{SO_4}r_i}{C_{SO_4}(1 - \sum_{i=0}^{j}r_i) + \sum_{i=0}^{j}(C_{Ca_{fi}}/C_{Ca_{ri}})K_{SO_4}r_i}$$

(1)

In this equation, CSO₄ is the concentration of sulfate in carbonate at the sediment-water interface – which is held constant, and KSO₄ is a function of the pore fluid sulfate/calcium ratio (e.g. Richer, 1996):

$$\left(\frac{[SO_4^{2-}]/[Ca^{2+}]}{\text{calcite}}\right)_{\text{pore fluid}} = K_{SO_4}\left(\frac{[SO_4^{2-}]/[Ca^{2+}]}{\text{pore fluid}}\right)_{\text{calcite}}$$

(2)

which is denoted at depth i as CSO₄/Caᵢ. The δ³⁴S_SO₄ (δ³⁴S_SO₄ in carbonate at the top of the sediment column) is that of modern seawater (21.1%), rᵢ is the recrystallization rate (units time⁻¹) at depth i, which is related to age by sedimentation rate, and δ³⁴S_Cᵢ is the isotopic composition of sulfate in the pore fluid at depth i.

This approach is similar to the “statement of diagenetic effect” from Fantle et al. (2010), Fantle (2010), with the exception that we assume that the sulfate concentrations between the solid and the fluid are not in equilibrium since they are driven by the ‘external process’ of sulfate reduction, and that there is no sulfur isotope fractionation upon sulfate incorporation into recrystallized carbonate (as with biogenic carbonate – Burdette et al., 1989). Moreover, because pore fluid sulfate concentrations are only negligibly by the addition of sulfate from dissolving carbonate, we set pore fluid sulfate concentrations and sulfur isotope compositions independently...
of the model. Finally, it is assumed that the pore fluid sulfate concentration and sulfur isotope profiles are in steady state and do not change over time. The latter assumption is potentially problematic, because the sulfate profile is controlled by microbial processes that may vary over time. However, this assumption is justified in the absence of further external constraints on the evolution of sulfate reduction rates in marine sediments over the most recent ∼30 Ma.

We use our model with a hypothetical 400 m sediment column and an idealized pore fluid $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ (Fig. 4) with sulfate concentrations decreasing from seawater concentrations to zero over the uppermost 150 m (Fig. 4a). We further assume that pore fluid calcium concentrations remain at seawater concentrations throughout the sediment column. This assumption is a simplification of the sedimentary system, because pore fluid calcium concentrations can both increase or decrease from seawater values (e.g. Sites 807 and 821 – see Fig. 2c). In our model, the partition coefficient is a function of the pore fluid sulfate/calcium ratio (Eq. (2)), and therefore this assumption will affect the amount of sulfate that is incorporated into the recrystallized calcite. However, this ratio (sulfate/calcium) is dominated in shallow marine sediments by sulfate concentrations decreasing by up to 30 mM, while the calcium concentrations typically (over this depth range) change by up to 5 mM. Therefore we take this simplification as acceptable for our purposes. In our hypothetical scenario, the exponential relationship between the recrystallization rate, $R$, and depth is taken to be (from Fantle and DePaolo, 2007):

$$R(t) = 0.4e^{-t/0.865}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

where $t$ is the age of the sediment (time since deposition). We vary the sedimentation rate between a maximum of 500 and a minimum of 1 mMyr$^{-1}$ and take the concentration of sulfate in the initial carbonate (Cs) at 1000 ppm (based on average foraminiferal concentrations from Staudt and Schoonen, 1995). We further assume an upper bound on the partition coefficient ($K_{SO_4}$) of $3.6 \times 10^{-5}$, such that the concentration of sulfate in the recrystallized calcite is equal to that of the original calcite at the top of the sediment column. Results of the model (Fig. 4b) are shown as a contour plot, with lines of equal CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ values over the depth of the sediment and for the range of modelled sedimentation rates. Our calculations suggest that CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ can be elevated above its initial $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ by a maximum of about 4‰, and this only in sediments that have sedimentation rates from 50–150 mMyr$^{-1}$. This indicates that CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ will not deviate from primary seawater $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ by more than a few permil over a large range of sedimentation rates, even with extreme pore fluid isotopic variance and high rates of carbonate recrystallization.

These results (Fig. 4b) suggest that, for a fixed depth distribution of carbonate recrystallization, and pore fluid sulfate evolution due to bacterial sulfate reduction, only sediments deposited at intermediate sedimentation rates are susceptible to diagenetic overprinting of CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$. This is because the majority of carbonate recrystallization will occur in the youngest sediments. The relative position of the youngest sediment versus the zone of sulfate reduction (typically 50–150 mbsf) will determine whether diagene- nesis has a significant impact on the overall CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$. When the $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ of the pore fluid reaches its maximum values at the bottom of the zone of sulfate reduction, the pore fluid sulfate concentrations also reach their lowest concentrations, so very little of this highly evolved $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ can be incorporated. Thus the critical region for CAS diagenesis is where there is relatively evolved sulfate $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ in the presence of both high pore fluid sulfate concentrations, and high carbonate recrystallization rates. If sedimentation rates are low relative to the depth over which sulfate is depleted (∼10 mMyr$^{-1}$), then young, highly reactive sediment will be in contact with isotopically unevolved pore fluid. At the other extreme, very rapid sedimentation rates (∼300 mMyr$^{-1}$) will put reactive sediment below this critical region before sufficient recrystallization has occurred to overprint the original $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$. It is thus at sedimentation rates in the intermediate range (50–150 m) where carbonate recrystallization could impact the CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$.

The dependence of the diagenetic deviation of CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ on the sedimentation rate is particularly important in carbonates with low original sulfate concentrations, such as foraminiferal oozes or aragonitic sediments, which are not as buffered to the original $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ of CAS, as are sediments with higher CAS concentrations (e.g. the Florida Keys, Lyons et al., 2004).
For Site 807 and 821, we can use the known sedimentation rates and pore fluid $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$, sulfate and calcium concentrations, along with Eq. (1) to obtain a first order estimate of recrystallization rates. We do this by comparing the calculated CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ (as above) with measured CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ (Fig. 5), assuming sulfate concentrations of 1000 ppm, and a $K_{SO_4}$ of $3.6 \times 10^{-4}$, as above. We chose to do these calculations for Sites 807 and 821 because Site 807 already has well characterized recrystallization rates (Fantle and DePaolo, 2006, 2007) and Site 821 is the site where we see isotopically distinct CAS, which could contain a diagenetic component. Site 1003 has complicated hydrology, which does not lend itself to this calculation. This calculation assumes that the modern pore fluid profiles measured at Sites 821 and 807 are at steady-state with respect to sulfate and calcium concentrations, and $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$. With regard to calcium concentrations, there is inherent uncertainty in the extent to which modern pore fluid profiles represent long-term pore fluid conditions. This is because the reactive length scale of calcium is much shorter than the sediment column in both sites (e.g. Fantle and DePaolo, 2007), such that pore fluid calcium concentrations are reset by reactions in the sediment, obscuring previous reactions or past advection. However, modern pore fluid concentrations represent our best hypothesis for pore fluid calcium concentrations over the past 0–30 Ma.

At Site 807 the best fit to our model suggests a carbonate recrystallization rate of 2–10% Myr$^{-1}$ for the top 300 m of sediments (Fig. 5a), which is similar to the recrystallization rates in the uppermost sediments calculated based on strontium concentrations and isotopes (2–3% Myr$^{-1}$ – Fantle and DePaolo, 2006). In contrast, our model suggests Site 821 has carbonate recrystallization rates of 20–50% Myr$^{-1}$ for the top 150 m. The estimate of recrystallization rates at Site 821 may be an overestimate, because we assume that only recrystallization occurs, when in fact this sediment is likely to also be experiencing net carbonate precipitation, as evidenced by a decrease in calcium concentrations over the uppermost 150 m at this Site. A similar time-dependent reactive transport model of strontium concentrations as was used in Site 807 (Fantle and DePaolo, 2006) could be applied to Site 821, however this is complicated by likely brine advection deeper in the sediment column, which may skew the lower strontium pore fluid profiles. If we look at the strontium pore fluid profiles from Sites 821 and 807, we see that both sites show similarly increasing strontium pore fluid concentrations with depth, although the sediments at Site 821 are much younger (2 Ma vs. 30 Ma) and contain less carbonate than at Site 807. This supports our previous calculation that recrystallization rates are much higher at Site 821 than Site 807, in order to produce such elevated pore fluid strontium concentrations in these younger sediments.

Our results suggest that the high uppermost carbonate recrystallization rates at Site 821 have a larger impact on CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ than the prolonged presence of elevated pore fluids $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ at depth at Site 807. Finally, below 100 m the CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ at Site 821 return from values that are higher than coeval barite back to those we expect from primary calcite (Fig. 3a). This may be the result of variations in the pore fluid sulfate profile over time, for example if sulfate reduction rates were lower and the pore fluid less evolved 2 million years ago when the deeper sediments were at the top of the sediment column.

These results emphasize that a careful analysis of the depositional conditions is important in the selection of carbonate samples of CAS, to determine the potential influence of early marine diagenesis. Where possible, high density sampling of the same stratigraphic interval from more than one carbonate sequence will help to unpick possible diagenetic alteration from the global marine sulfate trends. Although our results are based on nanofossil oozes, which do not comprise the geological record before the Cretaceous, these results are broadly applicable in other micritic carbonate environments. This is because the relationship between sediment age and reaction rate (or recrystallization rate) is broadly similar across a variety of different mineral phases and diagenetic environments (Maher et al., 2004). Foraminiferal oozes do represent a “worst case scenario” for CAS preservation, however, because foraminiferal calcite has relatively low original sulfate concentrations (600–2000 ppm, Staudt and Schoonen, 1995), and so the original sulfate is less buffered to marine diagenesis. Other sediments which may be similarly problematic are aragonitic sediments which are recrystallizing to calcite, because it is thought that sulfate is more easily incorporated into calcite than aragonite (Kitano et al., 1975; Busenberg and Plummer, 1985). We also note that given the large range in marine sulfate concentrations over Earth history, it is likely that the effect of diagenetic overprinting on CAS $\delta^{34}S_{SO_4}$ may not be the same over time, as the concentra-
tion of sulfate in carbonate has likely also varied over time with sulfate concentrations.

5.1.2. Directly comparing CAS and barite $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$

Although our data suggest minimal diagenetic overprinting on CAS $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$, especially at Sites 1003 and 807, there is larger measured variability in the CAS $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ compared to the barite $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ (Fig. 3a). Even at low rates of recrystallization, it is possible that very small amounts of pore fluid incorporation could increase the CAS $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ above that expected from primary calcite alone. On the other hand, CAS $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ that lies below the “expected values” is often attributed to contamination during extraction. For example, it has been shown that microcrystalline grains of pyrite will dissolve upon acid addition (Marenco et al., 2008); pyrite and other possible contaminants have a lower $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ than the carbonate fraction. It is possible that, even with our care in extraction, contaminants have not been fully removed. Recently revised extraction techniques may be sufficient to remove the phases contributing to this variability (Wotte et al., 2012). However, organic sulfur compounds that are structurally bound within the carbonate lattice are unlikely to be removed by the extensive bleaching steps taken prior to carbonate dissolution. Our results support the idea that variations of <2% in CAS results should be treated with caution (this has been implied by other authors, e.g. Marenco et al., 2013).

5.2. Oxygen isotopes in carbonate associated sulfate

Previous work on CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ has shown that modern carbonate shells record a value that is consistent with seawater but with a variability of 2% or greater, which was ascribed to vital effects (Cortecce and Longinelli, 1971). Our results, however, show very little similarity to either modern seawater, or to the barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ record over the past 25 Ma (Turchyn and Schrag, 2006). The core-top CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ measurements are 2.4% elevated above the accepted seawater $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ value (8.6‰ – Brand et al., 2009). Core-top barite is isotopically offset from seawater by 1.4% (Turchyn and Schrag, 2004). Although an oxygen isotope fractionation between CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ and seawater sulfate may exist, this does not explain why there is no correlation between trends in the barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ record and in that of the CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ record (Fig. 3b). The CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ results here show no relationship to the $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ of the pore fluid in these sites (Figs. 2b, 3b). Additionally, if CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ has been overprinted by porefluid sulfate incorporation, then it would be expected that CAS $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ would also show diagenetic overprinting, because both $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ become isotopically enriched at similar depths in the pore fluid.

The CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ and barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ records are not easily reconciled by laboratory artefacts during CAS extraction, either by the liberation of non-CAS phases, or by sulfate–oxygen exchange. Non-CAS mineral phases are mostly in a reduced valence state (e.g. $S^{0}$, $S^{–}$, $S^{2–}$), and so will incorporate oxygen during oxidation, either from water from the laboratory (measured at −7‰) or dissolved molecular oxygen (~23‰). Our CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ is largely isotopically heavier than the coeval barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$, which would require that our measured signal contained significant (~40%) reduced sulfur phases that were oxidised by dissolved molecular oxygen (Fig. 6). This requires that ~40% of the CAS $\delta^{34}S_{\text{SO}_4}$ is also sourced from sulfur that is oxidised during extraction. Reduced sedimentary sulfur phases commonly have a lower sulfur isotope composition than marine sulfate. However, for the samples where CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ does not agree with barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$, there is good agreement between the sulfur isotope composition of CAS and barite, either suggesting minimal contribution from reduced sulfur phases, or that reduced sulfur phases in these different cores all had $\delta^{34}S$ values that were similar to marine sulfate. The latter scenario would be unusual, and we therefore argue that extraction artefacts are unlikely to be the explanation for discrepancies between CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ and barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$.

We also consider it unlikely that sulfate oxygen isotopes have exchanged with water or other oxygen-bearing phases during precipitation, burial or extraction. Previous laboratory experiments (Hoering and Kennedy, 1957; Chiba and Sakai, 1985) indicate that exchange is unlikely to occur in the pH and temperature ranges at which the carbonate existed, or was subsequently analysed. Moreover, if sulfate–oxygen exchange with water is responsible for deviations in the CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$, then all the CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ results should be higher than the original barite $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$, as sulfate–oxygen isotope exchange with water has a calculated and measured fractionation of +23 to +38‰ (Mizutani and Rafter, 1969; Lloyd, 1968; Zeebe, 2010).

It is, however, possible that sulfate incorporation into carbonate needs to be understood differently for sulfur versus oxygen isotopes. The role of biology in the incorporation of sulfate into biogenic carbonates, for example, remains enigmatic. It is likely that the oxygen atoms in a sulfate molecule are impacted more than the central sulfur atom when sulfate is incorporated into carbonate, because of their proximity to the calcium ion at the site of structural substitution. This has the potential to result in the isotope fractionation of sulfate–oxygen associated with this ionic interaction, without resulting in a sulfate isotope fractionation. Secondly, it is possible that microenvironments undergoing biogenic calcification could have $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ values that are modified from seawater due to microbial processes locally that facilitate oxygen isotope exchange between sulfate and water.

To date, oxygen isotope fractionation during sulfate incorporation into carbonate, and the specifics of any vital effects, remain unconstrained. In bulk carbonate samples such as those presented here it is not possible to address these questions further. Variations in CAS $\delta^{18}O_{\text{SO}_4}$ do show interesting trends at significant time intervals, which are larger than the variability we see over the last
25 million years and may be representative of global variations in the sulfur cycle (Newton et al., 2004). Even if it is the case that $\delta^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ is not always representative of a global environment, variations in $\delta^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ are still illuminating aspects of the dynamics of an interesting and important microenvironment, which merits closer attention.

6. Conclusions

Carbonate-associated sulfate results record similar sulfur isotope values to marine barite, but with more variability, resulting in an uncertainty that is much greater than the analytical uncertainty. Carbonate-associated sulfate is also prone to overprinting by carbonate recrystallization when sedimentation rates and bacterial sulfate reduction rates are elevated sufficiently to introduce rapidly recrystallizing carbonate (<2 Ma) into highly evolved pore fluid. We used a model to show, however, that the deviation of the sulfur isotope composition of CAS will not differ from seawater by more than 4% over a range of sedimentation and carbonate recrystallization rates.

Oxygen isotopes of carbonate-associate sulfate are more complex than sulfur isotopes and do not appear to record the same signal as marine barite $\delta^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$. Despite these uncertainties, CAS $\delta^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ is still a powerful tool, at the least to assess the likelihood of sulfate oxidation during CAS extraction. In the cases where CAS $\delta^{18}$O$_{SO_4}$ and $\delta^{34}$S$_{SO_4}$ are not representative of the global ocean, they still have potential to yield interesting information on sedimentary processes or specific microenvironments. Careful sedimentary characterization and high density sampling at multiple sites is vital to distinguish between CAS results showing local diagenetic trends and those that are basin-wide or global.

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