

Supporting Information

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SI Materials and Methods

We present results from four localities in Europe spanning intervals before, during, and after Oceanic Anoxic Event 2 (OAE 2). The sample locations were selected with an eye toward sites that had direct connection to the open ocean and a spatial distribution that encompasses multiple marine basins (Fig. 1). All sample sites have been previously documented to record the OAE 2 interval by means of biostratigraphy, chemostratigraphy (Sr- and C isotopes), or a combination of both (1–5). A comprehensive discussion of the sedimentology, age relationships, and tectonic settings of the sampled localities is already available (2, 5–7). All of the sections are dominated by carbonate lithologies with abundant microfossils, along with some macrofossils, and are characterized by low organic carbon contents (2, 5–7), with one exception. The section at South Ferriby contains a 10-cm-thick organic-rich interval deposited during OAE 2 (2, 4), which was avoided for carbonate-associated sulfate (CAS) analysis. We chose these carbonate sites because they can capture evolving global seawater chemistry, which tracks ocean-scale redox processes. Importantly, because organic-lean sites typically provide lithologic uniformity before, during, and after the OAE, they potentially represent the best isotopic archives of global marine conditions. Briefly, three of the four localities (Eastbourne cliff section, South Ferriby Quarry, and the Trunch borehole: all United Kingdom) illustrate poorly lithified pelagic foraminiferal–nannofossil-rich chalk facies with similar diagenetic histories and consistently good carbonate preservation. The fourth sample site, Raia del Pedale, is a well-lithified platform-carbonate section in southern Italy, rich in rudist fragments and benthic foraminifera and formerly located on the margin of the Tethys Ocean (Fig. 1). Fig. 2 shows lithostratigraphic sections and carbon isotopes for South Ferriby from Jenkyns et al. (4), stratigraphy for Trunch borehole from Jarvis et al. (3) (note $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from bulk pelagic carbonate), and stratigraphic data and carbon isotopes for the Eastbourne section from Tsikos et al. (1).

All samples analyzed for the $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$ were dominated by high carbonate contents (60–80 wt%). We followed a standard procedure extracting CAS from the carbonate-rich samples (8, 9). Briefly, the samples were trimmed to eliminate weathered surfaces, including surficial Fe oxidation. Then, 10–20 g of powdered sample were treated with NaCl and NaOCl solutions and rinsed with multiple deionized rinses to prevent the incorporation of any non-CAS sulfur-bearing phases. The samples were then dissolved using 4 M HCl and vacuum-filtered less than 1 h later to minimize the pyrite oxidation, which was further limited in the samples by low pyrite and ferric iron concentrations. A BaCl_2 solution was added to precipitate sulfate as BaSO_4 .

The precipitated and homogenized BaSO_4 from each sample was loaded into tin capsules with excess V_2O_5 and analyzed for its $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$ ratio at the University of California, Riverside. Sulfur-isotope ratios were measured using a Thermo Delta V gas-source isotope-ratio mass spectrometer coupled to a Costech 4010 elemental combustion system for on-line sample combustion and analysis. All sulfur-isotope compositions are reported in standard delta notation as per mil (‰) deviation relative to Vienna Canyon Diablo Troilite and were corrected to a suite of international reference materials using a linear regression (e.g., refs. 8, 9) based on replicate analyses of international standards [International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) SO-5 [0.49], IAEA SO-6 [–34.05], and NBS 127 [21.1]] agreed to within 0.2‰ of their published values.

C and S Modeling. The values used in the coupled carbon and sulfur model were based on the combination of available geochemical data and on the sensitivity tests (Fig. 4) to help constrain unknown parameters for the sulfur cycle. As previously stated, there are several possibilities to replicate the observed trends by mixing and matching unconstrained parameters, but we have attempted to bracket a few of these factors using data in combination with estimates for these values in the modern cycles. For instance, the $\Delta^{34}\text{S}$ used in the model during non-OAE intervals is close to the modern value and was necessary to achieve steady state with the inputs, whereas the ΔS during the OAE itself was chosen based on the known starting sulfate value ($\sim+20\text{‰}$; ref. 10) and an average pyrite value of -20‰ [the average pyrite value during the OAE based on the available data is $\sim-30\text{‰}$ (11–14), but this is exclusively from euxinic settings and we assume a global average closer to -20‰], which provides a $\Delta^{34}\text{S}$ of -40‰ . Consequently, the $\Delta^{34}\text{S}$ is transiently shifted in the model from -30‰ to -40‰ and back to -30‰ for the intervals prior to, during, and after the OAE, respectively. The starting sulfate concentration was based on the length of time it takes for the S-isotope profile of the Raia del Pedale section to indicate recovery to the pre-OAE baseline and seems to fit best with values between 5 and 9 mM and thus we used the average of 7 mM. The values for continental weathering were held constant with the exception of the enhanced weathering scenario (discussed previously), which would only dampen the positive excursion. Therefore, the only parameter to further adjust is the amount of pyrite burial, which can have dramatic effects on the magnitude of the excursion.

To model the carbon isotope excursion in the modeling exercises, all parameters are held constant in the carbon cycle and the burial of organic carbon is increased to 1.6× the pre-excursion rate. For the sulfur cycle portion of the model, we used the values discussed above and increased the pyrite burial rate to 2× the starting rate because it best replicated a 5–6‰ excursion; however, adjusting this value does not affect the offset between the carbon- and sulfur-isotope excursions. Replicating this offset requires a waning of the carbon and sulfur burial rates (shown in Fig. S1). The longer the transient decay back to the pre-OAE baseline burial rates, the larger the offset because of the differences of sizes of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and sulfate reservoirs and relative magnitude of the fluxes in the cycles compared with this reservoir size. Consequently the peak carbon-isotope values occur closer to the time of maximum organic-carbon burial (i.e., near the end of the OAE), but the sulfur excursion continues to rise until the return to normal pyrite burial as seen in Fig. S1.

Eastbourne Sulfur Geochemical Preservation. The $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$ at this site shows several negative shifts during the first half of the OAE, although the overall trend of the data shows progressively more positive values. Eastbourne shows small negative excursions within the OAE, although the Raia del Pedale section seems to indicate similar features. These negative excursions in the Eastbourne section seem to be correlated with the most positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values before the slight decreases in carbon-isotope values. It is difficult to pinpoint the exact origin of the negative excursions at Eastbourne but there are three possibilities to explain the observed phenomena: (i) later pyrite oxidation skewing the primary CAS signal, (ii) enhanced delivery of sulfate, or (iii) a paleoceanographic circulation change.

A concern for the validity of the data for CAS has been the oxidation of pyrite either during the burial of the rock, outcrop weathering, or during the chemical extraction of CAS (15, 16). Due to the slight decrease in carbonate concentration leading into the OAE (on average 83 wt% in OAE chalk sediment and ~91 wt% in non-OAE chalk sediment) this could be a concern. With this in mind, we measured the amount of pyrite in most samples postfiltration of the CAS dissolution step and performed a standard chromium chloride extraction (17). The low amounts of pyrite measured for all sections (Fig. S2), with Eastbourne having the highest values but relatively low compared with previously published CAS data sets (8, 9, 18–21), suggest this effect played a limited role during the extraction procedure. In addition, cross-plots of sulfate isotopes and sulfate concentrations against the pyrite concentration show no trends for individual sections (Fig. S2) or all samples combined. Also, CAS isotope vs. pyrite concentration for Eastbourne shows no linear correlation or obvious trends. Linear correlations with pyrite would imply a mixed signal of primary CAS and pyrite-contaminated sulfate (9, 15, 16); therefore, we believe this signal is a primary $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$ signal.

Geochemical proxies suggest there was an increase of continental weathering during the OAE (22–24) or increased volcanic activity (13), phenomena which could have delivered isotopically depleted sulfur to the marine reservoir. This model seems un-

likely, because a simple mass-balance calculation would suggest that a massive delivery of sulfate would have had to enter the system to account for the isotopic shift. Furthermore, there is no evidence for increased marine sulfate concentrations during the OAE that would necessarily have affected all localities equally.

The third possibility for the $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$ record that the negative excursions observed at Eastbourne are changes in the paleoceanographic circulation patterns due to climatic processes. There is mounting evidence for a cooling episode during the early part of the OAE, not only due to silicate weathering but also to the global burial of organic carbon, thus decreasing atmospheric CO_2 (25–28). The fall in temperature is documented by the paleo-temperature proxy tetraether index $(\text{TEX})_{86}$ (29, 30) in the Northern proto-Atlantic and by invasion of boreal faunas (the so-called “Plenus Cold Event”) in the north European Chalk Sea (31), both accompanied by excursions in Nd-isotope ratios, suggesting introduction of watermasses of possible Arctic derivation (32–34). In the proto-Atlantic region and the Western Interior Seaway, the invasion of cooler, more oxygenated waters during the same time interval was characterized by population of the seafloor by benthic foraminifera: the so-called “Benthic Oxidic Event” (35, 36). Such oxygenated waters as these would have oxidized sub-seafloor surficial pyrite and introduced isotopically depleted sulfate into the water column and thus lowered the S-isotope composition of ambient seawater.

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Table S1. Initial parameters for the C and S model

Flux (inputs and outputs)	Carbon concentration	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$, ‰	Sulfur concentration	$\delta^{34}\text{S}$, ‰
Starting marine reservoir	3.3	+1.8	1.35–5.4	+19
Weathering flux	25	–4	0.52* and 0.98 [†]	+5.5
Organic burial	5	–28	—	—
Inorganic burial	20	—	0.67 [‡] and 0.83 [§]	–11 [‡] and — [§]

All fluxes are in 10^{18} mol/Ma, whereas the reservoir sizes are 10^{18} mol. The weathering flux for both cycles combines both the fluxes from volcanic (*) and continental (†) weathering. The isotopic composition of the weathering flux was calculated through isotopic mass balance. The inorganic flux for carbon is based on the burial of carbonates, whereas the sulfur burial portion of the model includes pyrite (‡) and evaporite minerals (§). Em-dashes indicate phases that do not impart a major fractionation on the isotope reservoirs (1), and the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value for pyrite gives a $\Delta^{34}\text{S}$ of –30‰.

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Other Supporting Information Files

[Dataset S1 \(XLS\)](#)

[Dataset S2 \(XLS\)](#)

[Dataset S3 \(XLS\)](#)

[Dataset S4 \(XLS\)](#)