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SI Materials and Methods

Samples. A total of 61 different troilite nodules from 58 different iron meteorites were analyzed for their sulfur isotopic composition in this study. Examples of the nodules extracted are photographed and shown in Fig. S1. Most of the samples were obtained from the National Museum of Natural History (Smithsonian Institution), using a fine chisel and hammer to chip out small pieces (∼10 mg) of troilite nodules. The samples were picked on a purely visual basis, and variable amounts of graphite (C), cohenite $[(Fe,Ni)₃C]$, schreibersite $[(Fe,Ni)₃P]$, and silicates, which are relatively common in the troilite nodules, were included in the analyzed samples. Additional troilite was sent from several institutions as noted in Table S1. Sulfur isotope data obtained from the acquired samples is displayed in Table S2.

Sulfur Isotope Measurements. Sulfur is extracted from different mineral phases in a sequential fashion. First, acid volatile sulfur (AVS) is obtained from aliquots of crushed troilite: The samples (5−20 mg) are heated for 3 h in two-necked 50-mL boiling flasks with 20 mL of nitrogen-flushed 5 N HCl through which nitrogen is continuously bubbled; the released $H_2S_{(g)}$ (from monosulfides) is carried through a condenser and an acid trap, and is then chemically captured as Ag2S in a slightly acidic trapping solution (containing $HNO₃$ and $AgNO₃$). The apparatus used is the same as described by Forrest and Newman (1).

Chromium-reducible sulfur (CRS) is obtained by changing the capture solution and injecting a reduced Cr (II) solution into the boiling flasks (after 3 h of prior reaction with HCl) after the method of Canfield et al. (2). The CRS solution is allowed to react with the acid residues for an additional 3 h. The small amount of product H_2S from chromium reduction of the troilite samples comes from acid-resistant phases within the troilite, possibly from the mineral daubreelite in reduced iron groups $(FeCr₂S₄)$, or other complex sulfides in other groups. The results for CRS samples large enough to analyze did not show any significant differences in the Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S compositions of acid-soluble and acid-resistant minerals (Table S3). Any terrestrial sulfur, in the form of sulfate, is not extracted by these methods. Some of the troilite samples analyzed at the Institut de Physique du Globe de Paris (IPGP) were combined AVS+CRS extractions, achieved by combining the sequential methods used at the University of Maryland (UMD) (Table S4). The precipitated Ag_2S is aged in the dark for 1 wk (to remove impurities in the crystals) then centrifuged and rinsed with ultrapure water three times, after which it is allowed to sit overnight in $1 M NH₄OH$ solution to remove impurities, and then again rinsed three times before drying overnight in an oven (at 50 °C).

The fluorination line used in the production of SF_6 from Ag₂S is dedicated exclusively to meteorite analyses to avoid any possible contaminations from more highly fractionated terrestrial samples. Aliquots of ∼3 mg of Ag₂S are wrapped in clean aluminum foil and reacted with ∼10 times stoichiometric excess of pure F_2 in nickel fluorination bombs (at 250 °C overnight), producing $SF₆$ gas and other fluorinated by-products. The excess fluorine is separated cryogenically, as it does not freeze at liquid N₂ temperatures (−196 °C) whereas both HF and SF₆ are trapped at this temperature. After all noncondensable gases are pumped away, the sample is thawed in a small volume and subsequently refrozen using a N₂-ethanol slurry (at -115 °C), cryogenically trapping HF thereby separating it from the $SF₆$. The $SF₆$ is then purified using gas chromatography on a 12' molecular sieve 5 Å/Hasep Q column with a thermal conduc-

tivity detector, and introduced cryogenically into the cold-finger of a ThermoFinnigan MAT 253 dual-inlet mass spectrometer.

 $SF₆$ molecules from the sample and standard gas are ionized to $SF₅⁺$ ions in the source of the mass spectrometer (electron impact), focused through lenses, and accelerated down the flight tube through a uniform magnetic field, separating the isotopologues by mass. The ion beams are collected in separate Faraday cups at the detector end of the mass spectrometer that are positioned to measure mass/charge ratios of 127, 128, 129, and 131 $(^{32}SF_5^+, {^{33}SF_5^+, {^{34}SF_5^+, \text{ and } ^{36}SF_5^+}$ respectively). The number of ions hitting each detector can be calculated (ions per second) for each isotopologue by measuring the voltage drops across resistors of known conductance.

Sulfur isotope measurements on the three obtained lunar basalt samples (Table S2) were conducted similarly to those for troilite, but with a slightly different preparation procedure. After cleansing all of the crushing materials in an ultrasonic cleaner (VWR) and methanol bath, lunar basalt samples were crushed using a steel impact mortar and pestle, and further pulverized with an agate mortar and pestle using a small amount (∼5 mL) of ethanol to wet the samples and reduce dust. The resulting slurry was then transferred to the reaction vessels, rinsing with ethanol to ensure quantitative transfer. To minimize oxidation and loss of sulfide, the pulverized samples were immediately placed into the reaction apparatus, where the ethanol was allowed to evaporate under N_2 . The samples were then reacted with HCl, and then with reduced chromium solution, as described in the methods above.

Quantification of Uncertainty. As the abundance of $36S$ is the lowest of all stable sulfur isotopes (0.02% of natural abundance, versus 0.79% and 4.29% for 33S and 34S , respectively), its measurement is most susceptible to contamination from traces of other substances. A common source of isobaric interference on m/z position 131 includes contamination from $C_3F_5^+$. An attempt at monitoring this contamination is made through the repetitive analysis of International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) S1 standard material between meteorite samples (an aliquot of which was fluorinated and processed with every batch of approximately five samples, to also monitor the performance of the GC and fluorination line). In some cases, small $m/z = 131$ contaminations were observed in both the sample and a simultaneously analyzed standard. As a result, samples with obvious contaminations were renormalized back to our long-term accepted values of IAEA S1 (based on their bracketing standard analyses). Measurements of $36S$ F₅⁺ also succumb to greater amounts of instrumental noise because the resistor at $m/z = 131$ has the lowest conductivity, which is necessary to obtain a sufficient signal from an isotope of such low abundance. The current of the most abundant ion beam (³²SF₅⁺) was approximately ~10 nA (~6 billion ions per second) for the average sample size in this study.

For the dominant portion of iron meteorite measurements, the regular amounts of analyses performed per sample at UMD were tripled to decrease the uncertainty of our measurements. Each value reported is the average of 36 individual cycles; in each cycle, the isotopic difference is measured between a sample and our reference gas, which has a known isotopic composition relative to CDT. All results are finally converted to a known reference frame by renormalizing to bracketing IAEA S1 analyses (if necessary), and subsequently normalizing to our repeat measurements of CDT, which defines $\delta^{3X}S$ and $\Delta^{3X}S$ values of zero.

However, CDT reference material has been observed to possess δ^{34} S variations of $\pm 0.2\%$ in different nodules (3), which contributes to the lower external reproducibility of our measurements for this parameter. To avoid inconsistency, the analyses made in this study were normalized to the average value for repeated measurements of CDT material from a single sample at UMD (Table S3).

During the chemical extraction of sulfur from a sample, the incomplete reaction of sulfides could introduce a kinetic isotope fractionation effect into the captured Ag₂S. In addition, loss of any product H_2S during the extraction (through oxidation or leakage) would also lead to kinetic isotope fractionation. Due to these factors, a great deal of care is taken leak-checking the reaction apparatuses and purging them with N_2 for >30 min before introducing HCl (that has also been degassed separately with N_2 for the same amount of time). For subsequent CRS extractions, the Cr (II) solution is degassed with N_2 before its injection into the reaction flasks, in an ongoing effort to minimize oxygen in the system.

After the Ag2S is collected, incomplete rinsing could lead to impurities in the subsequent fluorination and could cause the conversion of Ag_2S to SF_6 to be nonquantitative, which could introduce a mass-dependent isotopic fractionation into the sample. All samples are reacted with ~10× stoichiometric excess of F_2 at 250 °C overnight, to promote a full reaction. Although the bombs are degassed and checked for leaks before fluorine introduction, adsorbed water and oxygen (along with possible small leaks and temperature variations) may inhibit the completely quantitative reaction of Ag_2S to SF_6 , in turn causing a mass-dependent isotopic fractionation.

Despite the numerous processes preceding the sulfur isotope analyses, duplicate sulfur extractions of five different samples yielded average differences of only 0.07‰, 0.002‰, and 0.15‰ for $\delta^{34}S$, $\Delta^{33}S$, and $\Delta^{36}S$, respectively (Table S3), while six duplicate analyses of a single troilite nodule from the Canyon Diablo IAB iron meteorite yield 2σ s.d. of 0.16‰, 0.008‰, and 0.09‰, for $\delta^{34}S$, $\Delta^{33}S$, and $\Delta^{36}S$, respectively (Table S3). These repeat measurements serve to indicate that the total extraction, purification, and analysis procedures at UMD are well within the range of our reported long-term reproducibility.

However, due to long-term drift in the machine and isotopic variability reported in CDT (3), along with small differences in the methodology of individual operators, it is best to report the external reproducibility of the measurements in this study based on the laboratory's long-term (2 y) reproducibility on IAEA S1 reference material, which is 0.3% ₀, 0.008% ₀, and 0.3% ₀ (2s.d.) for δ^{34} S, Δ^{33} S, and Δ^{36} S, respectively, taking into account the improved counting statistics resulting from the tripled number of analyses performed on each sample.

Interlaboratory Measurements. Fourteen different troilite samples were reanalyzed for their sulfur isotopic compositions at the IPGP, with results shown in Table S4. As can be seen, the IPGP measurements reproduce the sulfur isotopic values we obtained for several important specimens, most notably for the IIIF specimen Cerro del Inca. The average absolute differences between the two laboratories in Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S for the 14 iron meteorites are 0.006‰ and 0.136‰, respectively, which are well below our stated uncertainties. The linear regression for data obtained at IPGP also yields the same array as that obtained at UMD, when excluding three outlier points that would otherwise control the regression $\left[\Delta^{36}S/\Delta^{33}S \right] \sim -7$ (Fig. S3)].

However, comparisons of our $\delta^{34}S$ measurements yield an average absolute difference of 0.34‰, which is not a systematic deviation (Table S4). The origin of this difference is unclear. About half of the 14 samples were extracted and precipitated as $Ag₂S$ at UMD. The $Ag₂S$ precipitate was mechanically homogenized and then split in two for each aliquot to be analyzed separately.

Other samples were sent to IPGP as troilite and extracted there into a combined AVS+CRS Ag2S product. This procedure extracts sulfur from less reactive mineral phases (in addition to troilite), which may account for some of the variability [our own extractions of CRS at UMD had significant deviations from AVS in δ^{34} S (Table S3)]. It must also be noted that all chemical processes necessary in the extraction and analysis of sulfur isotopes can potentially lead to mass-dependent fractionations, if any product is lost or if any reactions are incomplete; this may be one of the reasons that there are larger interlaboratory variations in $δ³⁴S$ than in $Δ³³S$ and $Δ³⁶S$. Despite this fact, the established external reproducibility of the Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S measurements in this study lends weight to the differences we describe in our paper.

Potential Variability from Noncanonical Mass Dependence. For equilibrium exchange reactions, the exponent which relates the fractionation factor for $33S$ to $34S$ is typically between 0.514 and 0.515 (4), but it has been suggested that some kinetic processes can result in an exponent for sulfur that may be as extreme as 0.507 or 0.518, which were calculated to yield a maximum Δ^{33} S variation of 0.01‰ (compared with the canonical value of 0.515), given the δ^{34} S range found in iron meteorites. This process does not provide a large enough signal to account for the observed range of Δ^{33} S (-0.031 to +0.031‰), and evidence for these extreme noncanonical slopes is not provided by the S isotope data.

Nitrogen Isotopes. Photochemical isotope fractionation has also been invoked as an explanation for the large range in $\delta^{15}N$ (∼250‰) found in iron meteorites (5–8). However, the few available data make it difficult to establish whether Δ^{33} S and δ^{15} N could be related. This is because single iron meteorites can be highly variable in $\delta^{15}N$ (>70‰ range for Canyon Diablo), which might result from analytical artifacts, terrestrial contamination, and/or degassing (9). Furthermore, very few Δ^{33} S and δ^{15} N values have been determined for the same meteorite $(n = 10)$, and no coupled data exist for groups IC, IIAB, and IIIF. Comparing the available $\delta^{15}N$ and $\Delta^{33}S$ data does not highlight any trends at present, but such a relation might be rediscussed in subsequent studies as more data are acquired.

Photolysis Model for Early Solar Nebula. To model H_2S photolysis in the solar nebula, we used the evolving solar nebula model of Hersant et al. (10), which is the same model used in Pasek et al. (11). We used the time-dependent midplane temperature and disk surface density, but we assumed an isothermal vertical temperature profile, implicitly adding viscous heating. We used the nominal model values in (10), with initial accretion rate $M_0 = 5 \times 10^{-6}$ M_{solar} y⁻¹, turbulent viscosity parameter $\alpha = 0.009$, and initial outer disk radius $R_{D0} = 17$ AU. The initial disk mass is 0.24 M_{solar} , low enough to prevent gravitational instability. The accretion rate evolves as

$$
\dot{M}(t) = \dot{M}_0 \left(1 + \frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{-s},
$$
 [S1]

where $t_o = R_{Do}^2/3v_{Do} \sim 3 \times 10^4$ y (11), $s = 1.5$, and v_{Do} is the turbulent viscosity at the initial disk edge. As the accretion rate decreases with time, the disk surface density and midplane temperature also decrease. We present estimates of the H_2S photolysis rates for two end-member scenarios (high-mass disk vs. lowmass disk) for both solar and subsolar oxygen abundances $(C/O =$ 1.5), to illustrate how much Ly-α photolysis is expected at different periods in solar system history.

We evaluated the H_2S photolysis and mixing timescales assuming a vertically isothermal solar nebula. Our disk has number density given by

$$
\rho(R, Z) = \frac{\Sigma(R)}{\sqrt{2\pi}H} \exp\left(-\frac{Z^2}{2H^2}\right),
$$
 [S2]

where $\Sigma(R)$ is the surface density in g/cm^2 , and $\rho(R, Z)$ is the mass density of the nebular gas in $g/cm³$ at heliocentric distance R and height above the midplane Z. R_{AU} is defined as $(R/1 \text{ AU})$ and so is dimensionless. The scale height is $H(R) = C_s/\Omega$, where $C_s = (kT/\mu m_H)^{0.5}$ is the sound speed, and the Keplerian orbital frequency is $\Omega = (GM_{sun}/R^3)^{0.5}$, where G is the gravitational constant, M_{sun} is the solar mass, $\mu = 2.37$ is the mean molecular weight of nebular gas, m_H is the proton mass, and k is the Boltzmann constant. It is useful to have the number density of hydrogen nuclei (most of which are in H_2) for optical depth calculations. A mean molecular weight of 2.37 corresponds to a H₂ fraction of $f_{H2} = 0.82$ and $f_{He} = 0.18$. Considering the most abundant gases only, the gas density is $\rho = m_{H2} n_{H2} + m_{He} n_{He}$ and the number density of H nuclei is

$$
n_H(R, Z) = \frac{2\rho(R, Z)}{m_{H_2} + \frac{f_{He}}{1 - f_{He}} m_{He}}.
$$
 [S3]

The photolysis rate coefficient J (molecules per second) for H_2S due to Ly- α photons as a function of height from the disk midplane is given by

$$
J_{H_2S}(Z) = \int_{Ly\alpha} \sigma_{H_2S}\varphi I_{H \text{ layer}} e^{-\tau(z)} d\lambda,
$$
 [S4]

where $\sigma_{H2S} = 2.8 \times 10^{-17}$ cm² is the absorption cross sections for H₂S at Ly-α (12), φ is the dissociation probability for H₂S (we assume this is unity), and $I_{H\ layer}$ is the Ly- α intensity at the base of the H atom layer high in the disk. The H atom layer isotropically scatters $Ly-\alpha$ photons such that the base of the H atom layer blankets the interior disk in Ly-α. To first order, I_H layer is ~ 1/2 the Ly- α intensity incident on the H layer at $R = 1$ AU, but now directed downward toward the disk midplane (13). At Ly- α , the main absorbers are H₂O, dust and H₂S, so the Ly- α optical depth τ is given by

$$
\tau(Z) = \sigma_{H_2S} N_{H_2S}(Z) + \sigma_{H_2O} N_{H_2O}(Z) + \sigma_{dust} N_{dust}(Z),
$$
 [S5]

where $N_x(Z)$ is the column number density of absorber x above height Z to the H atom layer. We compute the column density as

$$
N_{X}(Z) \approx \int\limits_{Z}^{\infty} n_{X}(0) e^{-\frac{x^{2}}{2H}} dz, \qquad \qquad \textbf{[S6]}
$$

where H is the disk scale height, given in Table 1, and where we approximate the height of the H atom layer to be at infinity (at $R = 1$ AU, the H atom layer extends vertically from $Z \sim 0.6-1.0$ AU in the model of ref. 13). In our isothermal model, such heights correspond to implausibly low gas densities. Accounting for upper disk heating due to EUV radiation yields an increasing gas temperature in the upper regions of the disk, so the scale height and gas densities are larger than an isothermal model would predict. Here, for simplicity, we assume gas column density above the H atom layer is negligible. Using a two-term expansion for the complementary error function on Eq. S6, the column density is

$$
N_x(Z) \approx n_x(Z)\frac{H^2}{Z}\left(1-\frac{H}{Z}\right)
$$
 [S7]

To determine the depth of penetration of $Ly-\alpha$ into the disk from the overlying H atom layer, we computed the optical depths for H_2O , H_2S , and dust, shown summed in Eq. **S5**. The fractions of CO, H₂O, and H₂S relative to H are ~ 2.7×10^{-4} , 1.2×10^{-4} , and 1.3×10^{-5} , respectively, assuming solar elemental abundances (14), and a fraction of O atoms trapped in $SiO₃$ bonds (pyroxene dust). The dust optical depth is expressed relative to the column density of H atoms as $\tau_{dust} = \gamma \sigma_{dust} N_H(Z)$ where $\sigma_{dust} = 5.6 \times 10^{-22}$ cm² and $\gamma \sim 0.6$ for 1-µm dust. Table S6 shows the Ly- α optical depths for all three absorbers considered here for a high-mass disk and low-mass disk $\left[< 50 \right]$ Ky and < 500 Ky, respectively (two snapshots in protoplanetary disk evolution)] corresponding to the Hersant et al. disk model (10). From Table S6, H_2O is the dominant Ly- α absorber for the case with solar H₂O abundance in both disks, and limits H₂S photolysis to between $Z = 0.3{\text -}0.25$ AU, and between $Z = 0.25{\text -}0.2$ AU, respectively, assuming photolysis will stop at optical depths higher than an order of about 1. For the case with reduced water abundance (corresponding to $C/O = 1.5$ in ref. 12), H_2O , H_2S , and dust are comparable (within a factor of 2) in Ly- α absorption, implying that H₂S photolysis will occur slightly deeper in the disk.

Photolysis in the nebula will occur as long as turbulently mixed gas is available in the photoactive zone. A more refined calculation for penetration depth takes into account the photolysis timescale for an H₂S molecule at different heights in the disk and at 1 AU, and yields the depth at which this does not exceed the timescale for turbulent mixing (Table 1), which is in agreement with our coarser estimates. For example, in the high-mass $(<50$ Ky) disk with solar C/O ratio, $J_{H2S}(Z) = 4.2 \times 10^{-4} \exp[-\tau(Z)] \text{ s}^{-1}$, where $\tau(Z) = 2.2 \times 10^6 (H/Z)(1 - H/Z) \exp(-Z^2/2H^2)$ and $t_v^{-1}(Z) =$ $7.3 \times 10^{-12} (1 \text{ AU/Z})^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Solving graphically yields a penetration depth (Z_{ph}) of 0.29 AU for this case (Table 1).

As discussed in the text, H₂S photolysis experiments at Ly- α (15) give a maximum Δ^{33} S of approximately (negative) 1.5‰ in elemental sulfur, suggesting that ∼2% of total disk H2S needs to be photolyzed in the region of the nebula where troilite grains were produced. Because this is a much larger fraction of H_2S than represented in the photoactive zone at any one time, vertical mixing of the nebular gas is needed to dredge up enough H_2 S to the Ly- α photolysis zone. Assuming that turbulent vertical mixing was present due to a magnetorotational instability (MRI) at 1 AU (at 700 K, there may still have been enough Na⁺ and/or K^+ present to allow coupling to the magnetic field, although higher temperatures are more favorable), we estimate the vertical mixing time to height Z as $t_{\nu} \sim Z^2/\alpha_{\nu} c_s H$, where α_{ν} is the turbulent viscosity parameter. For fairly strong MRI-induced turbulence, the viscosity parameter is typically $\alpha_{\nu} \sim 0.01$ [in the Hersant et al. (10) model, $\alpha_{\nu} = 0.009$, which we assumed here]. The mixing time (t_{ν}) for the solar and subsolar O cases is ∼200–300 y (Table 1). The timescales for the number of overturns required to produce the observed Δ^{33} S signatures in a high-mass and low-mass disk, at both solar and subsolar oxygen abundances, are tabulated in Table 1, and range from \sim 200 Ky to ~10 Ky, which is consistent with a preaccretionary origin for the anomalous sulfur signals.

A final consideration to be taken into account relates to the inference about the starting composition of sulfur in the inner solar system. It is possible that the sulfur isotopic composition of the Sun is different from the inferred composition that we take as a starting point for interpreting the sulfur isotopic variability of meteoritic, lunar, and planetary materials. It is known from secondary ion mass spectrometry measurements (e.g., ref. 16) that nucleosynthetic heterogeneities exist in presolar materials. If the composition of sulfur that made up the magmatic iron meteorites started with a ³³S enrichment relative to the Earth, Moon, Mars, chondrites and nonmagmatic iron meteorites, a nucleosynthetic origin could be possible and an implication could be that these other inner solar system bodies also acquired

a nucleosynthetic sulfur component. We consider the present dataset, however, to be more simply explained by a singular reservoir that was fractionated into the magmatic iron and achondrite groups. The strong prevalence of chondritic Δ^{33} S signatures [means and uncertainties (2SE): carbonaceous chondrites $+0.012 \pm 0.014\%$; ordinary chondrites $+0.005 \pm 0.014\%$; enstatite chondrites $-0.007 \pm 0.010\%$ (17, 18)] found in solar

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system materials such as the IAB iron meteorites $[+0.004 +$ 0.002‰ (2SE)] and the least-altered samples of larger planetary bodies like the Earth, Moon, and Mars (19–22), along with our data for negative Δ^{33} S in solar system materials, supports the suggestion that bulk solar system Δ^{33} S was chondritic, and that deviations from this value are most likely the results of inner solar system photochemistry.

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Fig. S1. Photos of troilite nodules from one of each iron meteorite group analyzed. As shown above, the troilite nodules vary in size from several centimeters to few millimeters, with variable degrees of impurity, containing possible inclusions of graphite, cohenite [(Fe,Ni)₃C], silicates, and/or schreibersite [(Fe,Ni)₃P].

SVN&S SVN

Fig. S2. Obtained δ³⁴S, Δ³³S, and Δ³⁶S data versus percent ideal yields (pure troilite) of AVS extractions. Error bars represent 2s.d. long-term uncertainties on $δ³⁴$ S, $Δ³³$ S, and $Δ³⁶$ S of 0.3‰, 0.008‰, and 0.3‰, respectively. Impurities in the troilite nodule have not been shown to affect sulfur extraction efficiencies; there is no correlation between the sulfur isotopic composition of troilite and its abundance in an analyzed sample.

Fig. S3. Linear regressions of (A) Iron meteorite analyses at UMD, (B) duplicate analyses at IPGP, and (C) available sulfur isotopic data for bulk achondrites, in Δ³⁶S vs. Δ³³S space. (A) Regression and error envelope for iron meteorites from groups with more than eight analyzed members, defines Δ³⁶S/Δ³³S array of −7 ± 4 (2s.d.). (B) Linear regression of iron meteorite analyses from IPGP, excluding three outliers, defines a weak Δ36S/Δ33S array of −7. (C) Linear regression of available data for bulk achondrites (24, 25), defines Δ^{36} S/ Δ^{33} S array of -6 ± 6 (2s.d.) (excluding four outliers in Δ^{36} S). These arrays are consistent with each other and, given uncertainties and small spread of data, with Lyman-α photolysis experiments on H₂S (13) (Δ³⁶S/Δ³³S of -3). Slope errors calculated using ref. 26.

NAS

Fig. S4. (A) Δ^{33} S variations from mixing of products and reactants during Rayleigh distillation of troilite. (B) Modeled nucleosynthetic injection of a pure ^{32}S component on the sulfur isotopic composition of CDT. (A) Modeled variations in Δ^{33} S due to Rayleigh distillation during evaporation of troilite, using data from ref. 23, produces a max possible Δ^{33} S of 0.009‰. (B) Modeled injection of 32 S, as found in certain presolar SiC grains (16), leads to a unidirectional departure from CDT with a Δ^{36} S/ Δ^{33} S array of −1.9 (about the origin).

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 $\tilde{\mathbf{A}}$

USNM, National Museum of Natural History (Smithsonian Institution); ME, Field Museum, Chicago; WAM, Museum of Western Australia; UCSD, University of California San Diego (Mark Thiemens); AMNH, American Museum of Natural History; NHM, Naturhistoriches Museum, Austria.

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Table S2. Sulfur isotopic analyses of iron meteorite troilite and three lunar basalts

AVS2, duplicate extraction of initial troilite; Fluo2, duplicate fluorination of Ag₂S; re, remeasurement of SF₆ after long-term storage, Averages are in bold. *Duplicate analysis of Cerro from IPGP.

† St. Genevieve County data from ref. 1.

ǂ Mantle average from ref. 2.

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 $^{\rm S}$ Lunar average from ref. 3. Long-term uncertainties are 0.3‰, 0.008‰, 0.3‰ (2σ) for δ 34 S, Δ^{33} S, and Δ^{36} S, respectively.

1. Gao X, Thiemens MH (1991) Systematic study of sulfur isotopic composition in iron meteorites and the occurrence of excess ³³S and ³⁶S. Geochim Cosmochim Acta 55(9):2671–2679. 2. Labidi J, Cartigny P, Moreira M (2013) Non-chondritic sulphur isotope composition of the terrestrial mantle. Nature 501(7466):208–211.

3. Wing BA, Farquhar J (2014) Planetary sulfur isotopic baseline from lunar basalts. Geochim Cosmochim Acta, in press.

Table S3. Variability in samples and measurements

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*Samples with SF₆ pressures of less than 1 torr do not yield reliable Δ³⁶S data; average differences (bold) are from absolute values.
[†]Average differences (bold) are calculated from absolute values.

*Denotes AVS + CRS extraction at IPGP; all other samples represent AVS data. For these measurements, UMD data represent counting statistics 9 times greater than IPGP. Average differences are in bold.

Table S5. Two-tailed heteroscedastic T-tests

*P values lower than 0.05 are in bold.

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