1	Microbial Sulfate Reduction Regulated by Relative Sea Level Change
2	in a Pleistocene – Holocene Sedimentary Record: Insights from
3	Loch Duart, Scotland, UK
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13	Abstract
14	A Pleistocene–Holocene-aged sediment core recovered near Loch Duart, located in the
15	coastal Assynt region of NW Scotland, UK, provides new insight into the relationship between
16	the sulfur isotope composition of iron sulfides (pyrite) and organic sulfur under rapidly changing
17	environmental conditions. Since the Late Glacial period, shifts in local marine connectivity at
18	Loch Duart have been driven by the competition between two fundamental Earth surface
19	processes: eustatic sea level rise due to post-glacial meltwater contributions since the Last
20	Glacial Maximum and relative sea level (RSL) fall associated with isostatic rebound. These
21	processes, imprinted on the sedimentary record, have been evaluated via lithology, microfossil
22	assemblages, elemental analysis, and isotopic measurements. Over the last 17 kyr, Loch Duart
23	has transitioned between (1) marine conditions, when eustatic rise due to meltwater exceeded
24	isostatic rebound, (2) non-marine conditions, when land uplift caused by isostatic rebound
25	exceeded eustatic rise, and (3) brackish-water conditions, when the magnitude of these two
26	forces was effectively balanced, with marine intrusion limited to part of the tidal cycle.
27	Here, we evaluate marked perturbations in the local sulfur (S) cycle related to the
28	aforementioned environmental changes. The marine interval coincides with relatively stable and
29	low $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values (average ~ -27.2 ‰), the non-marine interval records an abrupt positive
30	$\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ excursion of over 30 ‰ (average ~ 9 ‰), and the brackish interval preserves

intermediate values (average ~ -16.2 %). The $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values shift sympathetically with $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$, 31 32 although the magnitude of δ^{34} Sorg change is nominal by comparison, particularly during the 33 transition from freshwater to marine facies. As expected, marine and brackish sections preserve higher $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values than coeval $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$. Interestingly, this relationship is reversed in the 34 freshwater facies, where sulfides are 34 S-enriched relative to organic S by as much as 20 ‰, 35 36 suggesting that RSL modulates the isotopic composition of non-pyrite phases in the bulk S pool. 37 This relationship has implications for our understanding of the exogenic S-cycle, how S-cycling 38 impacts carbon burial, and the interpretation of the sedimentary S-isotope record.

Evaluating shifts in the local S-cycle associated with RSL changes allows for a novel comparison between S and osmium isotope records, demonstrating that these proxies may have joint applications for paleoenvironmental investigations in shallow coastal systems. We offer new perspectives on the interplay between eustasy, relative sea level (RSL), and the S-cycle by assessing these relationships in a coastal isolation basin.

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 The biogeochemical sulfur (S) cycle is intimately linked to several of the most important 47 processes in Earth's history. Archived within reservoirs of sedimentary pyrite, carbonate-48 associated sulfate, barite, and gypsum/anhydrite, the S isotope (δ^{34} S) record has been utilized to 49 investigate the origins of life (Shen et al., 2001; Phillipot et al., 2007), the accumulation of 50 oxygen in the ocean and atmosphere (Berner and Raiswell, 1983; Holser et al., 1988; Canfield 51 and Teske, 1996; Canfield and Raiswell, 1999; Canfield, 1998, 2001), and changes in the redox 52 state of Earth's surface. This biogeochemical cycle is regulated by several metabolic processes, 53 including microbial sulfate reduction (MSR), sulfide oxidation, and the disproportionation of 54 intermediate S species (Bak and Cypionka, 1987; Canfield and Teske, 1996; Tsang et al., 2023). 55 Consequently, environmental controls that geochemically influence these metabolisms are 56 imprinted on the aforementioned geological archives. It is through these pathways, mainly via 57 the remineralization of organic matter during MSR, that the S cycle engages with the global 58 carbon (C) and oxygen (O) cycles.

Organic Matter (OM) burial is a key driver controlling Earth's surface oxygen budget.
Thus, mechanisms impacting the rates of primary production and the efficiency of OM
preservation play an important role in regulating the concentration of atmospheric O₂ and CO₂.

62 The primary production of OM in surface waters is largely a function of the availability of limiting nutrients (Fe, N, P), and the efficiency of transporting this OM to bottom waters is 63 64 strongly influenced by the duration of O₂ exposure, with longer exposure times increasing the period over which OM is susceptible to remineralization by aerobic heterotrophs (Hartnett et al., 65 1998). The burial efficiency of OM is enhanced through adsorption to mineral surfaces 66 67 (Hemingway et al., 2019) or through chemical alteration into larger, less-functionalized 68 molecules (Hartnett et al., 1998). Organic matter sulfurization represents one such chemical 69 pathway for this type of reaction. It has been proposed as a possible mechanism influencing 70 organic carbon preservation at various points in Earth's history (Raven et al., 2023). Key to 71 understanding the competitive balance between the biogeochemical processes controlling the S 72 cycle are local records that reflect the balance between OM burial, MSR, and S loss pathways, 73 including pyrite formation and OM sulfurization.

74

75 1.1 Geologic Background and Setting

76 Loch Duart (NW Scotland, UK; Fig. 1) is an isolation basin, defined as a topographic 77 depression characterized by intermittent sea connectivity due to relative sea level (RSL) changes 78 (Long et al., 2011). Over the last 17 kyrs, environmental change in the region has been driven by 79 the collapse and deglaciation of the British and Irish Ice Sheet (BIIS). This deglaciation has 80 fostered two competing processes: global meltwater-fed eustatic sea level rise and isostatic-81 rebound-driven RSL fall. The combination of these two processes controls variations in relative 82 sea level change at Loch Duart, producing the lithofacies succession of marine (Lithofacies 1; 83 L1) to freshwater (Lithofacies 2; L2), and back to marine (Lithofacies 3; L3) before transitioning 84 into a modern brackish-tidal setting (Lithofacies 4; L4) (Taylor et al., 2023). Each unit, defined 85 by microfossil assemblages (Hamilton et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2023), preserves a distinct 86 geochemical fingerprint reflecting the degree of connectivity with the open ocean. The 87 sedimentary record is anchored by exceptional biostratigraphic histories (Hamilton et al., 2015; 88 Taylor et al., 2023) and a newly constructed radiocarbon chronology (Taylor et al., 2023). The 89 latter underpins an investigation of the relationship between RSL and changes in local water 90 column/bottom water chemistry through a well-constrained geochronologic window that we 91 expand upon to test the controls on the S cycle.

1.2 Microbial Sulfate Reduction (MSR)

94 MSR is an anaerobic process where microbes remineralize organic matter (OM, 95 expressed below as CH_2O) and reduce sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) to sulfide (H_2S , HS^{-}).

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- 97

(1) $SO_4^2 + 2CH_2O \rightarrow H_2S + 2HCO_3^-$

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99 Through the Phanerozoic, this process regulates atmospheric O₂ concentrations (Berner, 100 1989), providing a critical interface between the exogenic C, O, and S cycles. Rates of sediment-101 hosted MSR are enhanced by increased delivery of OM to bottom waters and consequent O_2 102 depletion. Increased OM-flux through the water column can induce anoxic bottom water 103 conditions by driving oxygen consumption by aerobic decomposers. Once available oxygen is 104 depleted, OM decomposition effectively shifts to sulfate reducers. Thus, increased OM delivery 105 is associated with increased sulfide production, which can either be re-oxidized to intermediate S 106 species and sulfate (Friedrich et al., 2001, 2005), react with organic material to form organic S 107 compounds via sulfurization (Sinninghe Damsté and de Leeuw, 1990), or be scavenged by 108 reactive iron (Fe) to form sedimentary sulfides (e.g., Berner, 1989; Seal, 1996; Fike et al., 2015). 109 These reduced S-species and their associated metabolisms can, in turn, enhance OM preservation 110 by limiting aerobic remineralization (Berner and Raiswell, 1983). Additionally, it has been 111 proposed that the "sulfurization" of labile organic molecules into more recalcitrant forms may 112 further enhance OM preservation (Sinninghe Damsté and de Leeuw 1990; Hartgers et al., 1997). 113 These connections link perturbations in the surface S-cycle to those in the carbon cycle, the 114 porewater oxygen budget, and the redox state near the sediment-water interface (SWI).

115 A kinetic isotope effect (KIE) accompanies MSR, as obligate anaerobes preferentially dissimilate ³²S (over ³⁴S) during sulfide production. This biologically mediated isotope 116 fractionation can cause sulfides to become 34 S-depleted relative to sulfate by as much as ~70 ‰ 117 118 (Goldhaber and Kaplan, 1980; Wortmann et al., 2001; Brunner and Bernasconi, 2005; Sim et al., 2011a). The resulting sulfide may then react with iron to form 34 S-depleted pyrite (FeS₂). The 119 120 magnitude of the KIE associated with MSR (ε_{msr}) is influenced by two primary mechanisms: the 121 concentration of sulfate in the local environment (Habicht et al., 2002) and the cell-specific 122 sulfate reduction rate (e.g., Leavitt et al., 2013; Wing and Halevy, 2014; Bradley et al., 2016), 123 which reflects the relative sulfate flux into, and back out of, the cell (Brunner and Bernasconi,

124 2005). When MSR occurs in environments where sulfate is low (<200 μ M), ε_{msr} may be 125 significantly diminished, and the S isotopic composition of product sulfide approaches that of 126 sulfate (Habicht et al., 2002; Crowe et al., 2014). Greater cell-specific sulfate reduction rates, 127 facilitated by increased availability and/or lability of organic matter, reduce the sulfate flux into 128 the cell relative to the flux out of the cell, which ultimately lowers ε_{msr} (Harrison and Thode, 129 1958; Kaplan and Rittenberg, 1964; Sim et al., 2011a, b; Brunner and Bernasconi, 2005; Leavitt 130 et al., 2013).

131 In evaluating S isotope records of sulfate and sulfide, it is essential to distinguish between 132 ε_{msr} and what is referred to as the reservoir effect (e.g., Gomes and Hurtgen, 2013). The 133 production of sulfide via MSR occurs across different depths of euxinic water columns 134 (syngenetic) and/or sediments (diagenetic). As sulfate is consumed during MSR, sulfate 135 concentrations decrease, and the S isotope composition of the residual sulfate pool increases as microbes preferentially remove ³²S during the production of sulfide (i.e., Rayleigh fractionation; 136 137 Fig. 2). As the fraction of sulfate remaining in the system (f) decreases, the S isotope 138 composition of subsequently produced sulfide must also increase (assuming ε_{msr} remains 139 constant). Importantly, sulfate levels play a critical role in determining the rate at which the S 140 isotope composition of sulfate and sulfide evolves to higher δ^{34} S values with increasing depth in 141 the water column/sediments. In high sulfate systems, f decreases less rapidly with depth and the 142 S isotope composition of MSR-generated sulfide evolves to higher values more slowly. By 143 contrast, in low sulfate systems (and holding other variables constant) f decreases rapidly with 144 depth and thus the rate of δ^{34} S_{sulfide} increase is also more rapid. Therefore, even in a system 145 where the KIE associated with MSR remains constant, the reservoir effect can strongly influence preserved δ^{34} S_{sulfide} values. 146

147 The system's "degree of openness" to sulfate replenishment significantly influences the 148 reservoir effect. For instance, sulfate can be replenished more readily in the water column (as 149 opposed to sediment pore spaces) due to active circulation within the water column; this 150 "openness" thus reduces the significance of the reservoir effect and promotes the formation of 151 ³⁴S-depleted sulfide (relative to diagenetic sulfide production). By contrast, the "degree of 152 openness" is much lower in sediment pore spaces, as diffusion rates hinder sulfate 153 replenishment. This amplifies the impact of the reservoir effect and promotes the production of 154 ³⁴S-enriched sulfide (relative to syngenetic sulfide production). Within this context, high rates of sedimentation reduce sulfate diffusion rates to the zone of MSR, heighten the importance of the
reservoir effect, generating ³⁴S-enriched sulfide and, ultimately, pyrite (Goldhaber and Kaplan,
1975; Maynard 1980; Gautier, 1986).

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159 **1.3 Organic Sulfur** (Sorg)

160 Assimilatory sulfate reduction plays a key role in creating amino acids (cysteine and 161 methionine) and is thus associated with all known life (Roy and Trudinger, 1970). Organic 162 matter sulfurization, however, refers to reactions between dissolved (poly)sulfides and organic 163 matter, whereby certain reactive functional groups, common in lipids and carbohydrates, are 164 replaced with S-species (Sinninghe Damsté and de Leeuw, 1990). Sulfurization of OM can occur 165 in anoxic or sulfidic settings; the process decreases the reactivity of OM by increasing the size of 166 the polymeric compounds relative to the preexisting organic molecules (Sinninghe Damsté and 167 de Leeuw, 1990), effectively increasing the preservation potential of organic molecules (Werne 168 et al., 2004; Hülse et al., 2019).

169 Organic S (S_{org}) is one of the most abundant reduced S-species in the sedimentary record, 170 second only to pyrite (Anderson and Pratt, 1995). Like pyrite, the S isotope composition of Sorg $(\delta^{34}S_{org})$ is regulated by the S isotope composition of the "parent" S-phase, in this case, sulfide 171 172 produced via MSR. However, while minimal isotopic fractionation occurs during iron sulfidation, $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values tend to be ³⁴S-enriched relative to sulfide. This enrichment is estimated 173 174 to average ~10 ‰ (Anderson and Pratt, 1995), although enrichments of up to 38 ‰ have been 175 preserved in the sedimentary record (Shawar et al., 2018). Additionally, Sorg can form either 176 syngenetically in the water column ("open system") or diagenetically within the anoxic portions of sediments ("closed system") and the S isotope composition of Sorg will depend on where in the 177 178 water column and/or sediments it formed. For example, diagenetic Sorg production is generally associated with increasing S_{org} concentration and $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values with depth in the sediments 179 (Werne et al., 2000; Raven et al., 2015), similar to the δ^{34} S versus depth relationship for MSR-180 generated sulfide and pyrite (Fig. 3), In rare instances, lower δ^{34} Sorg values relative to coeval 181 182 pyrite have been recorded (Brüchert and Pratt, 1996; Raven et al., 2015; Raven et al., 2023). 183 In Figure 3, we present a schematic illustration of the relationship among ε_{msr} , the

reservoir effect, and the S isotope composition of sulfate, sulfide, and S_{org} with depth in the water column and sediments under various environmental conditions (sulfate concentration and water 186 column redox). This topic, including potential mechanisms for generating $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values that are 187 lower than co-existing $\delta^{34}S_{pyrite}$ values, will be discussed in greater detail below.

188

189 1.4 Osmium

190 Osmium has a short oceanic residence time (1,000 - 10,000 years; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & 191 Ravizza, 2000; Rooney et al., 2016) and two easily distinguished isotopic end-member 192 reservoirs: the mantle and the continental crust. These characteristics make it an attractive proxy 193 for assessing paleoceanographic change (Peucker-Ehrenbrink and Ravizza, 2000). The mantle possesses an unradiogenic 187 Os/ 188 Os composition (~ 0.12), whereas crustal sources are 194 195 characterized by more radiogenic values (≥ 1.4 ; Peucker-Ehrenbrink and Ravizza, 2000). The 196 relative contribution of these distinct sources to the marine realm produces an average 197 ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os value of 1.04 – 1.06 for modern open seawater (Sharma et al., 1997; Peucker-198 Ehrenbrink and Ravizza, 2000; Rooney et al., 2016 and references therein). Alongside our sulfur study, we utilize an osmium isotope (¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os) record from a previous study of Loch Duart 199 (Taylor et al., 2023), which underpins the state of local marine connectivity at the depositional 200 201 site from the Late Pleistocene through the Holocene.

202

203 **2. Material and Methods**

204 In 2020, a 220 cm sediment core (Loch Duart Marsh 20-JT – hereafter LDM 20-JT; see 205 Taylor et al., 2023) was recovered from the present-day salt marsh at Loch Duart. The core was 206 obtained using a side-filling, chambered-type "Russian" core sampler and preserved sediments 207 spanning the Late Glacial period to the present day, providing an opportunity to evaluate 208 paleoenvironmental changes associated with the deglaciation of the BIIS. Notably, LDM 20-JT 209 was recovered 3 m southeast of a previous Russian core location (LDM 13-1) that produced a 210 robust diatom-based biostratigraphic study (Hamilton et al., 2015). Together, these studies 211 provide the paleoenvironmental framework that underpins our interpretations of the sulfur cycle. 212

213 2.1 Geochemical Analyses

Bulk sediment samples from the LDM-20-JT core were oven-dried (50°C), and then crushed and homogenized using an agate pestle and mortar. For this study, sample powders underwent weight percent analysis for S_{sulfide} and S_{org}, as well as stable isotope measurements of

217 $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{org}$. A previous study analyzed the powders for wt. % TOC and $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ (Taylor 218 et al., 2023), which, in addition to the osmium isotope data, are utilized here alongside the S data 219 (Fig. 4).

220 Chromium reducible sulfur (CRS; first described by Zhabina and Volkov, 1978 and 221 expanded upon by Groger et al., 2009) is the standard protocol for the extraction and reductive 222 distillation of sulfur and sulfides from sediments via hot chromous chloride, which converts 223 sedimentary S-phases (e.g., elemental sulfur, FeS and FeS₂) to Ag₂S for δ^{34} S analysis. 224 Problematically, this process combines the various reducible S phases into a single pool, 225 complicating interpretations of S isotope results. Elemental sulfur (Sel) is largely insoluble in 226 water and in most organic solvents, with the exception of a S-containing solvent (CS₂). Our 227 protocol is designed to quantitatively extract Sel from sediment samples, allowing for isotopic 228 analysis of Sel and further extraction of S-phases bereft of Sel.

229 Samples were weighed (~ 0.5 g) into Exetainer vials and subsequently filled with a 50/50 230 mix of CS_2 and acetone. The supernatant was then transferred into a silica wool-packed pipette 231 and drained into a round-bottom flask containing ~1.0 grams of diatomaceous earth; this step 232 was repeated until the diatomaceous earth became visibly saturated with solvent (\sim 3mL/g). 233 Samples were left in a fume hood for 24 hours to ensure complete evaporation of the solvent 234 before proceeding with the CRS procedure. The original sample material remaining in the 235 Exetainer vials, now "desulfurized", underwent additional rounds of chemistry to extract AVS 236 (via the CRS method described below, without the use of chromium (II) chloride) and sulfide 237 phases without the Sel component. However, neither the AVS nor the Sel phases were extracted in 238 quantities that could confidently be distinguished from blanks during Cline analysis (Cline, 239 1969) or that would allow for isotopic measurements; thus, they are not discussed further.

240 This chromium reducible sulfur (CRS) procedure recovers various pools of reduced 241 inorganic sulfur (e.g., pyrite) present in crushed sediments (including elemental sulfur and iron 242 monosulfide phases) by reacting the sample material in 20 mL of 1 M chromium (II) chloride 243 (CrCl₂) solution, which is acidified to 0.5 N hydrochloric acid (HCl) for 2 h under a nitrogen 244 atmosphere. The process liberates the trapped S species as hydrogen sulfide (H_2S), which travels 245 through a specialized glass line to be captured in a trapping flask containing a 0.3 M Zn acetate 246 solution, thereby forming a relatively stable zinc sulfide (ZnS) product. An aliquot of this ZnS 247 product-solution (4 mL) is partitioned for well-plate analysis, described below, with the

248 remaining ZnS subjected to 1 mL of silver nitrate (AgNO₃) to catalyze a cation exchange that 249 precipitates silver sulfide (Ag_2S) as an end product. This Ag_2S is rinsed three times using 250 deionized water and ammonium hydroxide, centrifuged, and dried at 50 °C. The dry Ag₂S powder is then homogenized, with ~400 μ g analyzed for ³⁴S/³²S after combustion via a Delta 251 252 (V+) isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS; analyte SO₂) coupled with a Costech ECS4010 253 Elemental Analyzer under continuous He flow. Sulfur isotope composition is expressed in 254 standard delta notation as per mil (‰) deviations from Vienna Canyon Diablo Troilite. Ag₂S 255 reference materials were used for isotopic analyses of organic sulfur and sulfide samples, they 256 include IAEA-S1 (-0.3‰), IAEA-S2 (+22.62‰), IAEA-S3 (-32.49‰) as reported in Brand et 257 al., (2014), alongside another in-house standard. The average standard deviation (1 σ) of duplicate standard δ^{34} S values is < 0.5 ‰ (n = 13). The average standard deviation was < 0.6 ‰ 258 259 for sulfide CRS sample duplicates (n=3) and < 1.0 % for organic sulfur sample duplicates (n=3). The organic sulfur fraction was analyzed by measuring the δ^{34} S and wt %S of the 260 residual sediment, following the attempted extraction of Sel, AVS, and CRS, on the IRMS-EA as 261 262 described for the sulfide fraction, above.

Total CRS-extracted sulfide concentrations have been estimated for each sample via spectrophotometric analysis. Moving forward, we refer to "sulfide" measurements as including all sulfide "pyrite-plus" phases captured during CRS. A well plate colorimetric assay (Cline, 1969) reacts each ZnS sample with diamine to form leucomethylene blue, which is a faintly colored intermediate compound. To facilitate spectrophotometric analysis, leucomethylene blue is oxidized to methylene blue ($\lambda_{max} = 664$ nm) using an Fe(III) solution. The absorbance of methylene blue is proportional to the total dissolved sulfide concentration.

270

271 **3. Results**

The litho-, bio-, and chemostratigraphy in LDM 20-JT preserve a local record interpreted to be driven by changes in RSL (Hamilton et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2023). This change between marine and freshwater dominance results from the interplay between glacioeustatic sea-level rise and the effects of isostatic rebound. The latter has controlled Loch Duart's degree of connectivity with the ocean, and thus, modulated the ecology, patterns of sedimentation, and local geochemistry that define the different lithofacies identified in the core (Figs. 4; 5).

- 278 Detailed descriptions of the lithofacies have been previously presented (Hamilton et al., 279 2015; Taylor et al., 2023). In brief, they include: Lithofacies 1 (L1: 220-193 cm), a marine 280 facies of pale grey silty clay that is conformably overlain by Lithofacies 2 (L2: 193 – 160 cm), a 281 freshwater facies that is dark brown, organic-rich silty clay with abundant rootlets. The latter is 282 conformably overlain by *Lithofacies 3* (L3: 160 - 55 cm), a marine facies of dark grey silty clay 283 with a conspicuous layer of clasts and fragmented shells (from 155 - 145 cm) that are up to 3 cm 284 in diameter. This lithofacies includes a hiatus in sedimentation of ~5 kyr between 158 and 154.5 285 cm (Taylor et al., 2023). Lithofacies 3 is conformably overlain by the uppermost Lithofacies 4 286 (L4: 55 - 0 cm), a tidal marsh facies characterized by fine-grained organic carbon-rich deposits 287 with abundant rootlets, silt, and clay material.
- 288

289 3.1 Carbon Analyses ($\delta^{13}C_{org}$, wt % TOC)

The $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ and wt % TOC results have been previously described in detail for each lithofacies (Taylor et al., 2023). Each unit (L1 through L4) possesses a distinct carbon isotope and wt % TOC profile (Fig. 4), as summarized below (Table 1).

- 293
- 294 (Table 1)

Fac	cies	TOC (wt %)	δ ¹³ Corg
Uppermost tidal marsh	Records the greatest	Records the lightest δ^{13}	C _{org} values
facies	wt% TOC (26.2%) in	(-26.6 ‰) in the core.	
(L4)	the core		
Marine facies	TOC remains relatively	$\delta^{13}C_{org}$ values remain re	latively stable
(L3)	stable		
Freshwater facies	Wt% TOC increases to	Parabolic $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ profile	e with a broad peak that
(L2)	10% and then slightly	subsequently decreases	by 4 ‰ moving into L3.
	decreases to 7.5%		
	moving into L3		
Basal marine facies	Typical marine TOC	Relatively heavy $\delta^{13}C_{org}$	g values (-14 to -19 ‰)
(L1)	content (~1%)		

295

296 **3.2 Sulfur Analyses** ($\delta^{34}S_{org, sulfide}$ wt % $S_{org, sulfide}$)

297	Measured parameters related to the local S system ($\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ wt % $S_{sulfide}$ and				
298	Sorg) are associated with changes in lithology and the environment at Loch Duart (Fig 4).				
299	Moving upsection the following is observed:				
300					
301	<i>Basal marine facies (L1)</i> preserve δ^{34} S _{sulfide} values that become slightly more positive upsection				
302	(-20 to -17 ‰); notably, no $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ data were recovered as the organic S-phase was below the				
303	detection limit.				
304					
305	<i>Freshwater facies (L2)</i> is characterized by parabolic δ^{34} S profiles with broad peaks wherein the				
306	relationship between the three S-isotope records changes. The $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ records peak				
307	at -7 and +13 ‰, respectively, during the positive excursion maxima before trending toward				
308	lower values at the top of this unit.				
309					
310	<i>Middle marine facies (L3)</i> records a large negative $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ shift near its base (from +8 to -28				
311	‰). Over this same time interval, the organic fraction experiences a considerably lower				
312	magnitude shift, with $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values decreasing only from -12 to -16 ‰.				
313					
314	Uppermost tidal ma	arsh facies (L4) records a second positive shift for both S-phases, with			
315	$\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ rising from -32 to -9 ‰, and $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values increasing from -19 to -5 ‰.				
316					
317	3.3 Osmium isotop	e record			
318	As with the carbon analyses, the osmium isotope $(^{187}Os/^{188}Os)$ record (Fig. 4) has been				
319	described in detail (Taylor et al., 2023). We summarize that data in Table 2.				
320					
321	(Table 2)				
	Facies	Description			
	Uppermost tidal	Preserves ¹⁸⁷ Os/ ¹⁸⁸ Os values slightly higher, but still very similar to those in L3,			

ranging from 0.94 - 1.09.

marsh facies

Freshwater facies	Preserves a notable positive excursion in ¹⁸⁷ Os/ ¹⁸⁸ Os, rising from 2.73 at the base
(L2)	of the L2 to a peak of 4.89. A brief decrease is interrupted by a second smaller
	peak of 4.02, before a steady decrease to 1.33 at the top of L2.
Basal marine	¹⁸⁷ Os/ ¹⁸⁸ Os values that steadily increase from 1.06 at the base up to 2.38 towards
facies	the top of the lithofacies interval.
(L1)	

323 **4. Discussion**

324 4.1 Interpreting changes in the sedimentary δ^{34} S record

The sedimentary $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ record at Loch Duart aligns with the environmental shifts interpreted via litho- and biostratigraphic changes (Hamilton et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2023) and the osmium isotope record (Taylor et al., 2023). These environmental shifts have been interpreted as a function of variable RSL modulating the influence of marine waters at Loch Duart. Thus, the relationship between facies change and the S-isotope record is likely driven by changes in RSL via fluctuating local connectivity to the marine sulfate reservoir, as well as the associated redox history of Loch Duart (Fig. 5).

332 The relatively stable and low δ^{34} S_{sulfide} values preserved in L1 and L3 (Fig. 5) are 333 consistent with a system characterized by relatively high sulfate concentrations. This suggests 334 that L1 and L3 represent deposition during intervals of high RSL in a system well connected 335 with marine waters where sulfate concentrations are believed to be high and approximate modern 336 levels (~28 mM). Increased sulfate availability in the basin enables a more pronounced 337 expression of the S isotope difference between sulfide preserved in the sediments and the 338 residual water column sulfate pool resulting from MSR. Two factors contribute to this result. 339 First, the magnitude of the KIE resulting from MSR (ε_{msr}) is not reduced because of low sulfate 340 concentrations (Habicht et al., 2002). Second, the fraction of sulfate remaining (f) decreases at a 341 comparatively slow rate due to the high sulfate levels in the system (Fig. 2). This slows the rate at which $\delta^{34}S_{sulfate}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ shift to higher values with increasing depth in the sediment 342 343 column (Fig. 3a), ultimately reducing the impact of the reservoir effect.

In contrast to L1 and L3, the comparatively high $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values preserved in L2 and L4 are consistent with systems characterized by relatively low sulfate concentrations. This reflects deposition during periods of low RSL. We believe that RSL was low enough in L2 that the basin 347 became completely isolated with diminished or nonexistent sulfate replenishment from seawater. 348 In L3 we believe that marine sulfate replenishment becomes restricted to high tide, and that the 349 reservoir effect was enhanced by this decreased connection with the ocean is compounded by 350 increased sedimentation rate. Thus, despite some differences in depositional setting both L2 and 351 L4 are marked by decreased sulfate availability in the MSR-zone; this would have reduced the S 352 isotope difference between sulfide preserved in the sediments and the residual water column 353 sulfate reservoir. Since precise sulfate concentrations are not known for the L2 and L4 systems, 354 it is difficult to ascertain if ε_{msr} was reduced due to low sulfate concentrations. However, if we 355 assume rates of MSR were roughly consistent across all environments, the fraction of sulfate 356 remaining (f) would have decreased more rapidly in L2 and L4 (relative to L1 and L3) due to much lower sulfate levels in the system (Fig. 2). This increases the rate at which $\delta^{34}S_{sulfate}$ and 357 δ^{34} S_{sulfide} shift to higher values with depth in the sediments (Fig. 3b,c), thereby enhancing the 358 impact of the reservoir effect. 359

360 The conclusions above align with the findings of Taylor et al. (2023), who determined 361 that the L1-L2 transition marked a shift from a marine to a relatively freshwater environment as 362 glacio-isostatic rebound outpaced the background eustatic rise (i.e., RSL fall). This interpretation is supported by the coincident radiogenic ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os compositions, which likely reflect the 363 weathering of terrestrial materials (e.g., biotite; Taylor et al., 2023) present in the Lewisian 364 365 gneiss bedrock surrounding Loch Duart (Burton et al., 2000). Our evaluation of L4 is also 366 supported by Taylor et al., (2023), who observe a marked increase in sedimentation rate in that 367 brackish water setting.

368 The S isotope record across the L1-L2-L3 transitions, particularly the relationship between changes in δ^{34} S_{sulfide} and δ^{34} S_{org}, warrants further attention. As discussed above, the 369 decrease in sulfate availability across the L1-L2 transition would have pushed the S isotope 370 371 composition of the residual sulfate pool to progressively higher values (particularly within the sediments), resulting in the formation of ³⁴S-enriched dissolved sulfide. A portion of this 372 373 dissolved sulfide could then react with available iron, if present, to form pyrite with essentially 374 the same isotope composition as the dissolved sulfide. However, a separate fraction of the MSRgenerated ³⁴S-enriched dissolved sulfide could facilitate OM sulfurization, generating δ^{34} Sorg 375 values that are ³⁴S-enriched relative to the dissolved sulfide (Fig. 3). Indeed, the increase in TOC 376 377 (up to $\sim 10\%$; Fig. 4) coincides with the appearance of measurable organic S. Interestingly, the

 $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values in L2 are lower than the coexisting $\delta^{34}S_{pyrite}$ values (represented by $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ on Figs. 3, 4 and 5). As mentioned above, this situation is unusual, with only a few instances of $^{34}S_{-}$ enrichment of S_{org} documented in the literature, none exhibiting a coherent excursion as reported here.

We hypothesize that this reversal in δ^{34} S values in L2 may arise from a spatial decoupling 382 383 of pyrite and organic S formation within the water column and/or sediments, amplified by the 384 reservoir effect in a low-sulfate system. In systems with well-oxygenated bottom waters, sulfide 385 generation via MSR is restricted to the anoxic portions of the sediments. This MSR-generated dissolved sulfide may then react with iron to form pyrite (with a δ^{34} S value equivalent to that of 386 the dissolved sulfide) and/or be utilized during OM sulfurization (with a $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ value that is ${}^{34}S_{-1}$ 387 enriched relative to that of the dissolved sulfide) (Fig. 3). Importantly, the MSR-generated 388 389 dissolved sulfide may react to form pyrite and Sorg at different depths of the sediment column. 390 Furthermore, because the S isotope composition of dissolved sulfide evolves to more ³⁴S-391 enriched values with depth in the sediments, the precise location of pyrite formation and OM sulfurization impacts the δ^{34} S_{pyrite} and δ^{34} S_{org} values ultimately preserved in the sedimentary 392 393 record, especially in a low sulfate system.

394 For example, if OM sulfurization primarily occurred in the upper portion of the sediments 395 where the organic carbon is relatively labile and the S isotope composition of dissolved sulfide was ³⁴S-depleted (relative to deeper sediments), the δ^{34} S value of sulfidized OM would also be 396 ³⁴S-depleted (although somewhat ³⁴S-enriched compared to the dissolved sulfide). Moreover, if 397 398 pyrite formation occurred primarily in the deeper portions of the sediment column (perhaps due 399 to the reactivity of the iron reservoir), then the $\delta^{34}S_{pyrite}$ value may be ³⁴S-enriched relative to the $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ values formed higher in the sediment column (Fig. 3b). Importantly, this $\delta^{34}S$ vs. depth 400 relationship depends on sulfate concentrations. At low sulfate levels, the $\delta^{34}S$ of dissolved 401 402 sulfide will increase more rapidly with depth than at high sulfate levels (compare Fig 3a vs. 3b). 403 These conditions, combined with the relatively short reaction time for OM sulfurization, could 404 explain how δ^{34} S_{org} in L2 is maintained at relatively low values compared with coeval δ^{34} S_{sulfide}, 405 which integrates δ^{34} S values across the entire authigenic to early diagenetic history.

This effect may be even more pronounced if the chemocline shifts upward into the water
column of a low sulfate system, allowing sulfide generation via MSR to proceed in an anoxic
water column (Fig. 3c). In fact, X-ray fluorescence analysis reveals broad peaks in selenium (Se)

and copper (Cu) at 182 cm, coinciding with the main peak in ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os within L2 (Taylor et al., 409 410 2023). In solution, copper complexes with OM; thus, increased OM is often associated with an 411 accumulation of copper (Tribovilliard et al., 2006). In a reducing environment, particularly one 412 capable of facilitating MSR, Cu(II) is reduced to Cu(I) (Tribovilliard et al., 2006). Thus, copper 413 accumulation in marine or lacustrine sediments is also associated with anoxic conditions. 414 Selenium, another redox-sensitive metal, serves as another potential indicator of anoxia (Tolu et 415 al., 2014; Wen et al., 2014), especially when found in high quantities alongside significant levels 416 of preserved OM. Together, these geochemical observations suggest that L2 may have been 417 characterized by anoxic bottom water conditions, which could explain the distinct S-isotope 418 record. However, water column anoxia is not required to generate the S isotope record presented 419 here.

Alternatively, the isotopic relationship between S_{org} and S_{sulfide} may reflect changes in sediment delivery, altering the amount and type of OM as well as the availability of reactive metal species. Taylor et al. (2023) note that the C:N ratio of L2 indicates an increase in terrestrial input. In this scenario (Fig. 3b), the sedimentary sulfide record is also dominated by diagenetic sulfide production, which could have occurred after Loch Duart was reconnected with the ocean in sediment pore spaces that were too deep for the overlying sulfate pool to penetrate.

426 Considering that all known life contains sulfur, another alternative hypothesis could 427 involve the incorporation of terrestrial organic matter into the organic sulfur pool to account for 428 the observed sulfur-isotopic relationship. We investigated δ^{34} S records of terrestrial plants, which appear to closely track the δ^{34} S values of the local source of soil SO₄²⁻ (Kaplan and 429 430 Rittenberg, 1963) with upwards of a -2 ‰ fractionation effect measured during assimilation 431 (Cavallaro et al., 2022). A robust compilation of terrestrial plant S-isotope measurements from locations across the USSR exhibits δ^{34} S values ranging from -7 ‰ to +19 ‰, reflecting 432 433 differences in the S-isotopic composition of local rainwater (Chukrov et al., 1978). Additionally, Sphagnum moss in a remote bog on the Isle of Mull (Scotland, UK) exhibits a range in δ^{34} S 434 values (+5.4 to +18.7‰) (Bottrell and Novak, 1997). The more positive δ^{34} S values are shown to 435 436 be associated with chloride and are thus interpreted as approximating ocean spray during winter 437 storms, while the more ³⁴S-depleted values are considered to represent anthropogenic pollution of rainwater during the summer months. As such, the range of potential δ^{34} S values for terrestrial 438

439 plants suggests that it is unlikely that an augmented terrestrial OM supply could account for the 440 δ^{34} Sorg record in L2 (-12 to -7‰) at Loch Duart.

441 Lithofacies 3 is characterized by a renewed connection to the marine sulfate reservoir and 442 trace metal abundances suggest reoxygenation. Reventilated bottom waters and replenished 443 $[SO_4^{2-}]$ would have returned the basin to normal marine conditions, as evidenced by relatively stable and low $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values that remain systematically more negative than concurrent $\delta^{34}S_{org}$. 444 445 Lithofacies 4 is associated with a rise in RSL and a positive δ^{34} S_{sulfide} shift. Today, Loch 446 Duart is only inundated by seawater at high tide (Taylor et al., 2023). However, osmium isotopes 447 still reflect sufficient marine inundation to maintain values very close to modern seawater. 448 Sedimentation rates at Loch Duart increase by 100% at the L3 – L4 boundary (Fig. 4; Taylor et 449 al., 2023) and are accompanied by a substantial increase in TOC (from 16 to 25%) and weight % 450 organic sulfur (from 1 to 3%). While these two parameters covary, we hypothesize that the 451 noticeably larger relative increase in the weight % of organic sulfur, coupled with the subsequent 452 steady decrease up section, could be explained by diagenetic accumulation in the sediment pore 453 space. This would halve the duration during which pore-space MSR could interact with the 454 overlying sulfate reservoir. We propose that this quasi-restriction from the SWS reservoir may partly be responsible for the positive excursion in both $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{org}$, reflecting a 455 456 distillation effect similar to-but smaller than-the one observed in L2. This excursion is thus 457 comparable to another study examining changes in δ^{34} S associated with glacial-interglacial cycles in the Mediterranean (Pasquier et al., 2017). Notably, δ^{34} S values in L4 do not approach 458 459 those recorded in the completely restricted freshwater phase of L2. This discrepancy may be 460 explained either by the rejuvenation of the local sulfate reservoir through the inundation of 461 seawater during high tide or by the relatively young age of the sediments, which has not yet 462 permitted the full expression of later-stage diagenesis.

463

464 4.2 Sulfur and osmium isotopic comparison

The osmium isotope record at Loch Duart can be used to reconstruct the history of marine influence in the basin (Taylor et al., 2023). The authors conclude this by comparing a $^{187}Os/^{188}Os$ profile with foraminiferal data in conjunction with diatom records (Hamilton, 2015), finding that radiogenic $^{187}Os/^{188}Os$ values are associated with the freshwater L2 facies (1.33 – 4.89). Given this relationship, we compare the osmium isotope record with our own $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ 470 data to evaluate the extent to which they may or may not be mutually supportive (Fig. 6). Shifts

- 471 in osmium isotope composition at Loch Duart are driven by the degree of marine influence
- 472 (Taylor et al., 2023). The ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os values that are more radiogenic than 1.06 represent
- 473 increased terrestrial influence and diminished marine inundation/connectivity. Our data suggest
- 474 that $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values are modulated mainly by [SO₄²⁻], a function of the degree of connectivity to
- 475 the marine sulfate reservoir. Figure 6 demonstrates that the relationship between the two isotopic
- 476 systems behaves as predicted: radiogenic, freshwater ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os values are associated with
- 477 higher $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values, whereas marine ${}^{187}Os/{}^{188}Os$ values are linked to lower $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values,
- 478 and brackish conditions correlate with osmium and $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ values that fall in between the two 479 end members.

480 The relationship between these two datasets supports the interpretations stated for each 481 geochemical proxy: the Os isotope proxy is a valuable tool for establishing marine connection in near coastal environments, and δ^{34} S can similarly be utilized in low-sulfate environments to 482 483 identify marine incursions. Given that these isotopic profiles are driven by the same fundamental 484 mechanism (changes in RSL and thus ocean connectivity), their mutual profiles provide a fine-485 tuned geochemical history of Loch Duart (Fig. 6). The stratigraphic position of each data point within the Os- δ^{34} S space (with 1 representing the deepest point in the core at 218 cm, 2 486 487 representing the next deepest at 208 cm, etc.) opens a geochemical window into the 488 environmental evolution of the system that can be tracked across the various lithofacies. 489 Consequently, these results suggest that S isotopes, along with osmium isotopes, have the 490 potential to reconstruct environmental changes associated with RSL change.

491

492 **5. Conclusions**

The sediment core recovered at Loch Duart preserves an exceptional archive of environmental change since the Late Glacial period with a robust suite of bio-, litho-, and chemostratigraphic records suggesting that fluctuating RSL, driven by the interplay of eustatic sea level rise and isostatic rebound, caused changes in the depositional environment over the last ~17 kyrs. The sedimentary record preserves four distinct lithofacies that document variability in marine influence.

499 The osmium record (Taylor et al., 2023) was utilized as a proxy for marine inundation 500 into the basin, with more radiogenic 187 Os/ 188 Os values (>1.06) reflecting terrestrial influence. 501 Comparing the Loch Duart ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os values to our δ^{34} S record (Fig. 6) demonstrates a strong 502 covariance between the two datasets, providing robust evidence that RSL change is the driving 503 mechanism for both geochemical signals.

The δ^{34} S_{sulfide} record fits coherently within the established paleoenvironmental history of Loch Duart, which has been defined by changes in biotic assemblages (Hamilton et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2023). Relatively stable and low δ^{34} S_{sulfide} values are observed in marine facies (L1 and L3), while marked positive δ^{34} S excursions are preserved in sediments deposited under fresh (L2) and brackish water (L4) conditions, which we primarily interpret as a function of decreased local [SO₄²⁻] due to isolation from the seawater sulfate reservoir.

510 Lithofacies 2 preserves a novel δ^{34} S profile characterized by ³⁴S-depleted organic sulfur 511 relative to coeval pyrite. This finding is unusual in the geologic record, as the parameters surrounding organic sulfurization tend to produce δ^{34} Sorg ~10 ‰ heavier than coincident pyrite 512 513 (e.g., Pratt, 1995). To our knowledge, previous studies that have recorded a similar inversion 514 $(\delta^{34}S_{org} < \delta^{34}S_{sulfide})$, have only observed isolated, individual data points nestled within sections preserving the more typical relationship ($\delta^{34}S_{org} > \delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$) and have interpreted these signals to 515 516 reflect the diachronous formation of the two S-phases (e.g., Raven et al., 2015; 2023). These 517 single data point observations contrast starkly with the record at Loch Duart, which preserves a 518 succession of six data points spanning the entire freshwater facies (L2; 31 cm), directly 519 overlapping with the positive S isotope excursion. We suggest that this inverse relationship $(\delta^{34}S_{org} < \delta^{34}S_{sulfide})$ may indicate that the predominant zone of OM sulfurization occurs higher 520 521 within the water column and/or sediments than the primary zone of pyrite formation, in a system 522 with low sulfate concentrations. As a result, the S isotopic composition of the dissolved sulfide responsible for pyrite formation is ³⁴S-enriched relative to the dissolved sulfide utilized during 523 524 the OM sulfurization process. Although further work is necessary to test this hypothesis, this 525 inverse relationship may serve as an additional diagnostic tool for identifying low-sulfate 526 systems in the geologic past.

527

528 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

529 Luca Podrecca: Writing – original draft, Writing – review and editing, Investigation,
 530 Validation, Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Visualization, Data Curation

531	Andrew Masterson: Writing – review and editing, Supervision, Data Curation,
532	Investigation, Methodology, Conceptualization, Visualization, Formal Analysis
533	Matthew Hurtgen: Writing – review and editing, Supervision, Conceptualization,
534	Visualization
535	Jennifer Taylor: Resources, Data Curation, Investigation, Writing – review and editing
536	Jeremy Lloyd: Resources, Writing – review and editing
537	David Selby: Resources, Writing – review and editing, Project administration, Funding
538	acquisition
539	Brad Sageman: Writing – review and editing, Supervision, Resources,
540	Conceptualization, Project administration, Funding acquisition
541	
542	Declaration of competing interest
543	The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
544	relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
545	
546	Data Availability
547	Data will be made available on request.
548	
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- 757
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- 759 **Figures**



Figure 1: Map of the region with field site location indicated by yellow star (from Taylor et al.,

763 2023).



Figure 2: As sulfate is consumed during microbial sulfate reduction (MSR) in a local reservoir 765 766 (e.g., sediment pore spaces or water column of an anoxic basin) and the fraction of sulfate 767 remaining (f) decreases, the S isotope composition of the residual sulfate pool becomes 768 progressively higher. As f in the local reservoir decreases, the S isotope value of subsequently 769 produced sulfide must increase (assuming the magnitude of S isotope fraction associated with MSR remains constant). As f approaches zero, the total pooled δ^{34} S_{sulfide} value approaches the S 770 771 isotope value of the original sulfate pool (Ohmoto and Goldhaber, 1997; Canfield, 2001). (Figure 772 modified from Fike et al., 2015).



774 Figure 3: Schematic illustration of the reservoir effect under different environmental conditions: 775 (a) under oxic water column conditions with high sulfate concentrations. " $\varepsilon_{(msr)}$ " represents the 776 degree of negative S-isotope fractionation during MSR and "sulfurization" represents positive 777 isotope fractionation during organic matter sulfurization. (b) Isolation from the marine reservoir 778 (as in L2) results in a lower concentration of available sulfate and a correspondingly steeper slope of S-isotope fractionation for sulfate, which is reflected in the slopes of sulfide and S_{org} . 779 780 While the water column remains oxygenated, δ^{34} Sorg represents the sulfurization of early sulfides, however the average δ^{34} S_{sulfide} value reflects the dominance of a later diagenetic 781 782 component, one that is cut-off from the marine sulfate pool by the overlying sediment column. 783 (c) This scenario is also characterized by low sulfate conditions though it differs from (b) by 784 virtue of anoxic bottom water conditions. Sorg captures the earliest (most isotopically negative) 785 HS⁻ produced during MSR (in the water column), while the sedimentary sulfide record is 786 dominated by the HS⁻ produced in the sediment pore spaces. The average value of organic sulfur 787 that is recorded becomes isotopically more depleted than the average value for sulfides produced 788 by MSR, thus inverting the relationship observed in (a). Both (b) and (c) scenarios invoke the same mechanism to explain the relationship between $\delta^{34}S_{org}$ and $\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$ (low sulfate 789 790 concentration) under different circumstances. (c) suggests a spatial decoupling with a slight 791 temporal effect whereas (b)nsuggests a larger temporal decoupling.



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795 Figure 4: Core lithofacies (L1 – L4; bottom to top) and associated geochemical analyses for Loch Duart. Left to right: isotopic values for organic carbon ($\delta^{13}C_{org}$), sulfide sulfur ($\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$, 796 red), organic sulfur (δ^{34} Sorg, black), and osmium (187 Os/ 188 Os; Taylor et al., 2023); weight 797 798 percent values for sulfide (red), organic sulfur (black), and organic carbon (green); and the sulfur 799 to carbon ratio (gold). Note major isotopic excursions at lithofacies boundaries associated with 800 change in RSL modulating marine influence. Brackish - intertidal L4 preserves major shift in 801 elemental weight percent values associated with increased accumulation of organic carbon. 802 Sedimentation rate (mm/yr) estimated from Carbon-isotope chronology (Taylor et al., 2023). 803



δ³⁴S Records at Loch Duart Marsh

Figure 5: *Left:* Isotopic values for sulfide sulfur ($\delta^{34}S_{sulfide}$, red) and organic sulfur ($\delta^{34}S_{org}$, black) through the Loch Duart sediment core. *Right:* A cartoon depicting changes in the hydrography of Loch Duart due to changes in eustatic sea level and isostatic rebound discussed in text. L1 and L3 depict marine waters (dark blue) high enough to completely infiltrate the study site, while L3 depicts a RSL low enough that LDM becomes fresh (light blue). L4 depicts the ephemeral connection (dashed line) between the ocean and LDM, creating a brackish (brown) local environment.

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Figure 6: Left: $\delta^{34}S_{pvr}$ (average = -14.7%) plotted against ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os (Marine values ~ 1.06). 815 816 Right: Individual lithofacies subsets L1 (Pink; marine), L2 (Blue, fresh water), L3 (Green, marine), L4 (Brown, brackish); numbers depict successive stratigraphic height within each 817 lithofacies with 1 = bottommost data point. L1 preserves distinct increase in both $\delta^{34}S_{pvr}$ and 818 ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os interpreted to reflect falling RSL and decreasing marine influence. Abrupt shift in L2 819 820 (note: change in the range of y-axis) records a dramatic change in depositional setting. The lower 821 portion of the facies experiences a progressive "climb" in both isotopic signals, presumably a 822 reflection of continued RSL fall, followed by a subsequent "fall" in these signals as measurements of both ${}^{187}\text{Os}/{}^{188}\text{Os}$ and $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{sulfide}}$ trend back toward more normal marine values. A 823 major shift in L3 records return to stable, marine conditions. L4 preserves ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os values 824 825 slightly higher, but still very similar to those in L3 alongside a much more significant shift in δ^{34} S_{sulfide} values. The ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os signature can be explained by high-tide marine inundation 826 827 continuing to supply a sufficient marine derived ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os composition to the water column. We hypothesize that the shift in δ^{34} S_{sulfide} values might be largely due to an increase in 828 829 sedimentation rate (Taylor et al., 2023), creating a distillation effect. 830



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