

Sulfur isotope characterization of primordial and recycled sources feeding the Samoan mantle plume

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James W. Dottin Ill, Jabrane Labidi, Vedran Lekic, Matthew Jackson, James Farquhar. Sulfur isotope characterization of primordial and recycled sources feeding the Samoan mantle plume. Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 2020, 534, pp.116073. 10.1016/j.epsl.2020.116073. hal-03089842

HAL Id: hal-03089842 https://hal.science/hal-03089842

Submitted on 14 Jan 2021

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| 1 | Sulfur isotope characterization of primordial and recycled sources feeding the |
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| 2 | Samoan mantle plume |
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| 14 | |
| 15 | Abstract |
| 16 | The Samoan islands are the type locality for the Enriched Mantle (II) reservoir that |
| 17 | is thought to be produced from the subduction and recycling of marine sediment from |
| 18 | upper continental crust. In addition to hosting extreme radiogenic isotope compositions |
| 19 | from the EM II reservoir, Samoa also exhibits contributions from other mantle reservoirs in |
| 20 | a dilute form including the EM (I) (recycled continental material), HIMU (recycled oceanic |
| 21 | crust), and DMM (depleted upper mantle) mantle reservoirs. The plume system feeding the |
| 22 | Samoan islands sits above a seismically imaged Large Low Shear Velocity Province (LLSVP) |

and an Ultra-Low Velocity Zone (ULVZ) that is thought to contribute, in addition to recycled 23 24 components, the recently discovered early-formed (primordial) components with negative μ^{182} W and high 3 He/ 4 He. Recent work measuring sulfur isotopes in ocean island 25 26 basalts has established that recycled oceanic and continental crust host unique S-isotope 27 compositions that can be identified at various hotspot localities. Here we document previously unknown relationships between Δ^{33} S and radiogenic tungsten, helium and 28 lead isotopes from 7 Samoan basalts (from the islands of Ofu, Vailulu'u and Malumalu) that 29 suggest mixing between several endmembers. One, a HIMU influence that has slight 30 positive Δ^{33} S and positive δ^{34} S; another, related to EM II that has near zero Δ^{33} S and 31 32 positive δ^{34} S; a third, which is primordial with negative μ^{182} W, high 3 He/ 4 He, that has Δ^{33} S=0 and negative δ^{34} S. From this, we conclude that the indistinguishable Δ^{33} S of the 33 primordial endmember from that of the convective mantle indicates that sulfur isotopes 34 35 were homogenized early in Earth's history. The Vailulu'u sample with HIMU characteristics, 36 carries a small but resolvable Δ^{33} S that allows, but does not require mass-independent 37 Archean Δ^{33} S to shift the Δ^{33} S. The observed correlations involving Δ^{33} S supports 38 arguments linking Pb, He, and W geochemistry to a deep mantle process and places constraints on questions related to the sources of mantle geochemical heterogeneity. 39

40

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Basalts erupted at ocean islands (OIBs) are thought to sample both the deep and convective mantle, and provide insight into the diversity of mantle reservoirs. Long-lived 44 radiogenic isotope compositions of strontium (Sr), neodymium (Nd), and lead (Pb) from 45 OIBs reveal compositional heterogeneity of the mantle and have formed the basis for 46 identifying distinct mantle reservoirs produced by melt removal and incorporation of 47 48 recycled components over time (Zindler and Hart 1986). The process of core formation and 49 further planetary differentiation allowed for the production of an early formed reservoir 50 (from here forward in this paper, we refer to this as a *primordial* reservoir). Components of 51 this reservoir are observed in modern mantle plume basalts such as Samoa, and are 52 manifested as isotopic anomalies in the short lived radiogenic isotope composition of tungsten (W) (Mundl-Petermeier et al., 2019; Mundl et al., 2017; Rizo et al., 2016; also see 53 54 Kruijer and Kleine, 2018) and noble gas signatures of helium (He), neon (Ne), xenon (Xe), 55 and argon (Ar) (e.g. Kurz et al., 2009; Mukhopadhyay, 2012). The isotopic observations that 56 identify primordial components in mantle plume systems have suggested links to Large 57 Low Shear Velocity Provinces (LLSVPs) and Ultra Low Velocity Zones (ULVZs) in the deep mantle (Williams et al., 2019). 58

Here, we present new bulk rock quadruple sulfur isotope data on (n=7) basalts from three Samoan volcanoes--Ofu, Vailulu'u and Malumalu (figure 1)--to explore whether sulfur isotopes provide insight into the primordial signatures described above. So far sulfur isotopes have been used to track recycling of exogenic sulfur into plume systems (Cabral et al., 2013; Delavault et al., 2016; Labidi et al., 2015), to identify an isotopic imprint of planetary differentiation (Labidi et al., 2013), and to trace magmatic processes such as

| 65 | degassing (Beaudry et al., 2018). The observation of mass-independent ($\Delta^{33}S \neq 0$) and |
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| 66 | mass-dependent (Δ^{33} S = 0, variable δ^{34} S) signatures of sulfur in mantle samples highlights |
| 67 | its potential value for study in other mantle systems. The samples studied here yield a |
| 68 | relationship between $\mu^{182}W$ and ${}^{3}He/{}^{4}He$ that illustrate a contribution from a primordial |
| 69 | component (negative $\mu^{182}W$ anomalies associated with high ³ He/ ⁴ He) and a non-primordial |
| 70 | component. This offers an opportunity to place constraints on the primordial sulfur isotope |
| 71 | composition of the mantle and to offer insight into the source of non-primordial W and He |
| 72 | isotope compositions. |
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| 75 | 2. Geologic Context/Background |
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| 76 77 | 2.1 Samoan radiogenic isotopic geochemistry |
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Malumalu seamount and Savai'i submarine lavas, and the dilute HIMU (high $\mu = {}^{238}U/{}^{204}Pb$) 88 89 component at Ta'u island and Vailulu'u seamount (Jackson et al., 2014; Workman et al., 2004). The EMI endmember is characterized by relatively low ¹⁴³Nd/¹⁴⁴Nd and ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb 90 at high ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, and high ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb at a given ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb. The EMII source is 91 92 characterized by the highest ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb at a given ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb and its origin is argued to reflect the subduction and recycling of continental sediments (Jackson et al., 93 2007a; Workman et al., 2008). The HIMU endmember is thought to reflect recycled oceanic 94 crust after it experienced Pb loss during subduction, hence leading to ingrowth of 95 radiogenic 206 Pb/ 204 Pb (e.g. Kellev et al., 2005 and references within). 96

97 Studies of ocean island basalts, including Samoa, also suggest various ocean islands host primordial mantle components. Evidence for this comes from high ³He/⁴He ratios in 98 Hawaii (e.g. Kurz et al., 1983, Valbracht et al., 1997 and references within), Samoa (Jackson 99 100 et al., 2009, 2007b), Iceland (e.g. Macpherson et al., 2005 and references within), Galapagos 101 (Graham et al., 1993; Kurz et al., 2009), and Baffin Island (Starkey et al., 2009; Stuart et al., 102 2003). Additional evidence for early-formed "primordial" mantle domains is observed 103 through the association of primitive Ar and Ne, and ancient Xe isotope signatures in mantle plumes with high ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ (e.g. Kurz et al., 2009; Mukhopadhyay, 2012), negative $\mu^{182}W$ 104 105 compositions associated with high ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ in Samoa and Hawaii (Mundl et al., 2017), and 106 positive μ^{182} W in Baffin island and Ontong Java Plateau (Rizo et al., 2016; also see Kruijer 107 and Kleine, 2018).

108

2.2 Unique seismic structures beneath Samoa

109 In addition to the isotopic heterogeneity observed in the mantle, seismic evidence 110 for compositional heterogeneity in the deep mantle has been mounting. Recent studies 111 confirm that at the largest scales, the pair of Large low Shear Velocity Province (LLSVPs) 112 appear to be associated with both low shear wavespeed and high density, a telltale 113 signature of compositional heterogeneity (Lau et al., 2017; Moulik and Ekström, 2016). At 114 smaller scales, Ultra Low Velocity Zones (ULVZs), whose properties have been interpreted to represent either partial melt (Williams and Garnero, 1996) or very high iron enrichment 115 (Wicks et al., 2010), have now been detected beneath Samoa (Thorne et al., 2013), Hawaii 116 117 (Cottaar and Romanowicz, 2012), and Iceland (Yuan and Romanowicz, 2017). High 118 resolution global tomographic models constructed using full waveform inversion have been interpreted to require the presence of compositional heterogeneity within plume 119 120 conduits themselves (French and Romanowicz, 2015). Importantly, efforts in mantle 121 geochemistry have begun to associate mantle reservoirs that host primordial components, 122 such as that sampled by Samoa, to Large Low shear Velocity Provinces (e.g. Williams et al., 123 2019) and Ultra Low Velocity Zones (e.g. Mundl et al., 2017) that reside at the base of the 124 mantle. These observations continue to contribute evidence that mantle plumes are sampling reservoirs that are both deep and compositionally distinct from the ambient 125 126 mantle.

127

128 **3. Methods**

Splits (1 to 3 gram aliquots) of the same fine crushed powder from Mundl et al.(2017) were placed into Teflon reactors for acid digestion as described by Labidi et al.

(2012). These samples are a different type from those studied by Labidi et al. (2015) in that 131 132 the samples are not glasses but, are rather the same powder from the interiors of the 133 sampled flows used by Mundl. et al (2017). Prior to digestion, the setup was degassed with N_2 for ~ 15 minutes. After degassing, the samples were acidified and digested in heated 134 135 (70-80°C) 3.2M CrCl₂, 12M HCl, and 29M HF in the amounts of 10 ml, 5 ml, and 5ml 136 respectively. The amount of solution was doubled for larger samples (>2 grams of powder). Sulfides were released as H_2S that is then bubbled (pulsed bubbling of $\sim 3-5$ bubbles every 137 \sim 1-2 seconds) through a water trap and lastly trapped as Ag₂S in an acidic AgNO₃ trap 138 139 solution. The captured Ag₂S subsequently transferred to a 1.5 ml Eppendorf centrifuge tube 140 where it was then rinsed, agitated with a vortex machine for 10 seconds, and centrifuged with Milli-Q water. The supernatant was pipetted off and the rinsing procedure was 141 repeated 6 times. After rinsing, the Ag₂S was dried at 70 °C. The dried Ag₂S was then 142 143 weighed to determine sulfur concentration and the Ag_2S (0.3mg to 5 mg) reacted with 3-5 144 times excess F_2 in heated (~250°C) nickel reaction tubes for at least 8 hours. Note, some 145 samples yielded greater than 5 mg of Ag₂S (up to 15 mg). For these samples, 3-5mg splits were taken and used for isotopic analyses. The resulting SF_6 was transferred to a liquid 146 nitrogen cooled trap and the residual F_2 was passivated by a reaction with ~ 110°C KBr 147 salt. After passivation, the liquid nitrogen trap was replaced by an ethanol slush (~-108 °C 148 to -115°C) in an effort to separate HF from the remaining SF₆. Once separated, the SF₆ was 149 transferred to a liquid nitrogen cooled injection loop of a gas chromatograph (GC). Next, the 150 151 SF_6 was simultaneously thawed and injected into the gas chromatograph with flowing 152 helium at a rate of 20 mL/min. The gas chromatograph allows for a final SF_6 purification using a 1/8-inch diameter, 20-foot long Haysep-Q[™] GC column. The SF₆ was monitored 153

while passing through the (GC) and captured from the helium flow in liquid nitrogen cooled
spiral metal tubes. Lastly, the captured purified SF₆ was measured manometrically to
determine procedural yields and preserved in individual sample fingers of glass manifolds.
Yields determined from fluorination range from 70% to 106%. The glass manifold was then
attached to an additional liquid nitrogen cooled manifold that is used to introduce SF₆ into
the sample bellows of a Thermo Finnigan MAT 253 dual-inlet mass spectrometer.

160 *3.1 Mass Spectrometry*

161 Sulfur has four stable isotopes (32 S (95.2%), 33 S (0.75%), 34 S (4.25%), and 36 S 162 (0.02%)), and isotopic variations of sulfur isotopes were determined using mass 163 spectrometry of purified SF₆. The purified SF₆ was measured by monitoring SF₅⁺ ion beams 164 at m/z of 127, 128, 129, and 131. Data are reported in per mil using the following notation:

165
$$\delta^{33}S = [(({}^{33}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{33}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT}) - 1]$$

166
$$\delta^{34}S = [(({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT}) - 1]$$

167
$$\delta^{36}S = [(({}^{36}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{36}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT}) - 1]$$

168

169
$$\Delta^{33}S = [(({}^{33}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{33}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT}) - (({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT})^{0.515}]$$

170
$$\Delta^{36}S = [(({}^{36}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{36}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT}) - (({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{sample} / ({}^{34}S/{}^{32}S)_{CDT})^{1.9}]$$

All analyses were normalized to analyses of a large, single reservoir of SF₆ gas produced by fluorination of IAEA-S1 undertaken in the same session as the sample analyses. This normalization was conducted during each analytical session to account for changes in the 174 composition of different aliquots of mass spectrometer reference gas. We developed this 175 approach for studies of meteorite samples and found that the approach yields more 176 accurate and reproducible Δ^{33} S (Antonelli et al., 2014). The data are then normalized to the 177 value measured for Canyon Diablo Troilite (CDT) using the same approach and calibration 178 in Antonelli et al. (2014) and Dottin et al. (2018). This places IAEA-S1 at a value of δ^{33} S = -179 0.091 ‰, δ^{34} S = -0.401‰, δ^{36} S = -1.558‰, Δ^{33} S = 0.116‰, Δ^{36} S = -0.796‰.

Estimates of uncertainty can be assigned on the basis of measured long-term reproducibility of independent fluorinations of a variety of reference materials. These uncertainties include contributions from mass spectrometry and chemical preparation and, for Δ^{33} S, vary depending on the mass spectrometry counting times. For δ^{34} S and Δ^{36} S the long-term reproducibility on reference materials is ±0.3‰ and ±0.3‰ (2 σ). For Δ^{33} S, the long-term reproducibility is ±0.008‰, and ±0.016‰ (2 σ), for mass spectrometry analyses made using 9 and 3 analytical cycles, respectively.

187 The reproducibility reported in Table 1 of 2 (SE) represents the in-run precision from mass spectrometry and renormalization determined by Monte Carlo error 188 propagation. The reproducibility (SE) for δ^{34} S and Δ^{36} S is smaller than seen from the long-189 190 term reproducibility on IAEA-S1 due to factors associated with the chemical procedures in preparing the SF₆ (δ^{34} S) and interferences (Δ^{36} S). The reproducibility (SE) is comparable to 191 that seen for Δ^{33} S on the basis of long-term reproducibility on IAEA-S1. This suggests 192 193 greatest contributor to reproducibility for Δ^{33} S comes from mass spectrometry. Estimates 194 of precision (total uncertainty) are assumed to be the larger of the long-term reproducibility of reference materials and the propagated, normalized mass spectrometry 195

data. These are presented in Table 1. For figures we plot estimated uncertainty. We use a
Bayesian approach (details given in supplementary information) to assess match between
data and models for relationships between sulfur isotope data and other geochemical
systems.

200

201 **4. Results**

202 Data from 7 Samoan basalts are presented in table 1 and figure 2. Sulfur 203 concentrations of the bulk rock phase represent a lower limit, as a small amount of S could 204 be lost in the sample preparation (rinsing and weighing procedure). Concentrations range 205 from 30 ppm to 800 ppm S and isotopic compositions extend from ± 1.08 to $\pm 4.23\%$ (± 0.3), -0.004 to +0.027‰ (± 0.008), and -0.29 to +0.22‰ (± 0.3) in δ^{34} S, Δ^{33} S, and Δ^{36} S 206 respectively. With the exception of sample Ofu-04-15 (δ^{34} S = +4.23‰), the δ^{34} S data are 207 208 within the range of compositions previously reported (+0.11% to +2.79%, Labidi et al., 209 2015). The Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S are all within the previously reported range, +0.001‰ to +0.022‰, and -0.063‰ to +0.271‰, for Δ^{33} S and Δ^{36} S respectively¹. The compositions we 210 211 observe are within the range of bulk sulfur isotope compositions reported for the global dataset of glasses from ocean island and mid ocean ridge basalts where values range from 212 ~ -3‰ to +3‰ in δ^{34} S and -0.01‰ to +0.01‰ in Δ^{33} S (Labidi et al., 2015, 2014, 2013). 213 214 However, the observed compositions are not as extreme as the isotopic data obtained on 215 individual sulfides via secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS), at localities such as the

¹ The compositions reported here are not shifted to the CDT scale in δ^{34} S and the UMD-CDT scale for Δ^{33} S. This shift in normalization yields a -0.1 ‰ shift in δ^{34} S and a +0.01 ‰ shift in Δ^{33} S which would convert to +0.01 to +2.69, +0.011 to +0.032, and -0.063 to +0.271 for in δ^{34} S, Δ^{33} S, and Δ^{36} S respectively.

Canary Islands that reveal large negative δ^{34} S variations (up to -8.2‰) assigned to degassing with strictly mass dependent Δ^{33} S (Beaudry et al., 2018) and Mangaia and Pitcairn that show large negative δ^{34} S variations (-17.25‰ to -2.25‰) associated with sub-permil Δ^{33} S variations (0 to -0.85‰) (Cabral et al., 2013; Delavault et al., 2016). These SIMS measurements resolve isotopic difference on a granular scale, which is different from bulk measurements presented here, and have larger uncertainties.

Our data reveal relationships between Δ^{33} S and radiogenic isotopic compositions of 222 W, Pb, and He. The data do not, however, preserve a relationship between δ^{34} S and 223 224 radiogenic isotopic compositions of W, Pb, and He. In order to assess the significance of 225 these relationships, we employed a Bayesian model selection approach to quantify the relative probability that the underlying relationship is represented by a line (M1) versus a 226 227 constant value (i.e. line with zero slope; M2). We explicitly marginalize out the extra tunable parameter (slope of the line) present in M1, and assume that the errors in both 228 composition estimates are normally distributed and uncorrelated. We find that the 229 radiogenic W, Pb, and He vs. Δ^{33} S data strongly prefer M1 over M2 (> 99% chance of being 230 231 true).

232 **5. Discussion**

233

5.1 Preservation of mantle sulfur in interiors of pillow basalts?

We report sulfur concentrations in the interior of pillow basalts erupted at Ofu, Vailulu'u and Malumalu that range from 30 to 800 ppm. These are lower than concentrations seen in glasses erupted at these islands (600 to 2000 ppm S, Labidi et al. 2015). Typically, samples of glass, erupted at ocean depths greater than 1000 meters have 238 the greatest chance of preserving the sulfur concentrations and isotopic compositions of 239 the erupted melt (Moore and Fabbi, 1971). The bulk rock samples from Vailulu'u and 240 Malumalu are from submarine eruptions (they were collected at water depths of \geq 92 bars) 241 and preserve slightly higher sulfur concentrations, but are at the low end (600-800 ppm) of 242 the S concentrations reported for samples of glass from the same localities by Workman et 243 al. (2006) and Labidi et al. (2015) and in some cases (see table 1, supplementary figure 2) reveal even lower concentrations (~ 200 ppm) than the lowest value (~ 600 ppm) reported 244 by Labidi et al., (2015). Bulk rock samples with the lowest S concentrations (30 and 60 ppm 245 S) are subaerial lavas from Ofu. Sulfur loss can also be associated with isotopic shifts in 246 247 δ^{34} S, but not Δ^{33} S or Δ^{36} S.

The sulfur isotope compositions of Samoan basalts (from this study and Labidi et al., 248 2015) are 34 S-enriched relative to the composition of mantle sulfur proposed by Labidi et 249 al. (2013, 2014) of -1±0.5‰. These ³⁴S-enrichments could be caused by recycling of ³⁴S-250 bearing subducted components (Labidi et al. 2015), or by syn-eruptive or post-eruptive 251 252 sulfur loss. While sulfur loss could be accounted for by episodes of sulfide segregation, as 253 seen in some Samoan melts (Labidi et al. 2015), we argue that the lowest sulfur concentrations observed here illustrate sulfur loss through an event(s) of sulfur degassing 254 and that the loss of sulfur (³²S) could account for the increasing ³⁴S-enriched characteristic 255 256 of the Ofu samples (δ^{34} S = +1.8‰ and +4.3‰). A similar shift in δ^{34} S from degassing cannot be ruled out for the samples from Vailulu'u and Malumalu, however, some of these samples 257 258 still overlap the range of sulfur isotopic compositions seen for Samoan glasses by Labidi et 259 al. (2015) (Figure 2).

260 Sulfur loss through degassing can occur as an equilibrium fractionation, a kinetic 261 fractionation, or a combination of both. At the Quartz-Fayalite-Magnetite reaction buffer, SO₂ dominates the gas phase (Burgisser et al., 2015; Gaillard and Scaillet, 2009), and 262 263 degassing is expected for melts erupting at less than 100 bars pressure (\sim 1000 m depth) 264 (Gaillard and Scaillet, 2009). At 1200 degrees C, sulfur dioxide is 34 S-enriched by ~1.5 to 3% relative to the dissolved sulfide in the melt (e.g. Mandeville et al., 2009), and 265 equilibrium degassing of sulfur dioxide drives the melt to more negative δ^{34} S compositions. 266 If instead the S were degassed as H_2S , S loss would result in a negligible fractionation of ${}^{34}S$ 267 268 (Mandeville et al., 2009) but H_2S loss is not supported by degassing models of melts with 269 these compositions and oxygen fugacities (Burgisser et al., 2015). The alternative, kinetic degassing, results upon rapid loss of S and generates a ³⁴S heavy residual melt, rather than 270 depletion, driving the melt towards positive δ^{34} S (e.g. de Moor et al., 2013 and references 271 within). Note, positive δ^{34} S can be achieved during decompression degassing in highly 272 273 oxidizing conditions (> QFM +3, Fiege et al., 2014). Degassing almost certainly occurred, 274 however our data do not allow for a single process with a singular fractionation to be 275 identified (supplementary figure 1). This limits our ability to project back to the δ^{34} S of an initial magma. We note that oxidative weathering of the crystalline interiors may have 276 277 induced the loss of reduced S. Studies of isotope effects associated with low temperature oxidation by Heidel et al. (2013) show no change in the δ^{34} S of the residual sulfides from 278 oxidation, but, reveal a fractionation for the product sulfate which they attribute to 279 280 formation of more than one product. Thus, in the event of oxidative weathering, it is 281 expected that the δ^{34} S of sulfide would still reflect that of its parental melt.

282 5.2 Recycled sulfur in Samoa

283 The submarine erupted samples we analyzed from Vailulu'u and Malumalu have 284 higher S concentrations than the analyzed Ofu samples and we suggest (see above) that sulfur degassing may have only minimally modified the isotopic composition. These 285 samples have δ^{34} S compositions (+1.23 to +2.30‰) that fall within the range of values 286 287 previously reported on glassy Samoan basalts by Labidi et al., (2015) and exhibit similar radiogenic isotope compositions for Pb, Sr, and He (Figure 3). Even though the sulfur 288 concentrations are generally lower than that observed by Labidi et al., (2015) 289 (supplementary figure 2), the geochemical similarity between the samples suggests they 290 are part of the same population. Thus, we defer to the study by Labidi et al. (2015) for 291 292 insight into the δ^{34} S of the primary magma, where they identified a mixing array between a 293 lower 87 Sr/ 86 Sr mantle domain with negative δ^{34} S, and an EMII endmember with positive 294 δ^{34} S.

The relationship between Δ^{33} S and other geochemical systems such as tungsten, 295 helium and lead isotopes reflects mixing of mantle reservoirs sampled by the Samoa mantle 296 297 plume, including a recycled component with dilute HIMU characteristics (Jackson et al., 298 2014), an EMII sulfur component that has been documented by Labidi et al. (2015) and a 299 primordial endmember defined by negative μ^{182} W and high ³He/⁴He (Mundl et al., 2017). 300 Below, we explore in greater detail various scenarios for interpreting the relationships 301 between sulfur and other geochemical systems. We start by discussing the connection with 302 the recycled component and then discuss the connection with the primordial endmember 303 in the context of its suggested origin and placement this endmember.

Our data from Vailulu'u and Malumalu occupy the same field for δ^{34} S and 87 Sr/ 86 Sr 304 305 (figure 4) and also the same field for δ^{34} S vs Δ^{33} S (figure 2) as defined for volcanic glasses 306 of the Samoan volcanic chain reported by Labidi et al. (2015). Labidi et al. (2015) argue that these relationships between δ^{34} S and 87 Sr/ 86 Sr reflect mixing between an EMII mantle 307 308 endmember with positive δ^{34} S (+10 ± 3‰) and radiogenic 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and a mantle domain with negative $\delta^{34}S_{V-CDT}$ (-0.89 ± 0.11 (1 σ)) and less radiogenic ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr. Minor scatter in 309 the Δ^{33} S of the combined data allows for other components with different Δ^{33} S, such as 310 HIMU, as underplating of HIMU-enriched material to the crust below Samoa has been 311 312 proposed as the outcome of the earlier passage of the Cook-Austral plumes (Workman et 313 al., 2004); however, the HIMU component may also be indigenous to the Samoan plume (Jackson et al., 2014). Jackson et al. (2014) argue that the Vailulu'u lavas reveal 314 characteristics suggestive of a dilute HIMU signature. The slightly elevated Δ^{33} S in Vailulu'u 315 316 lavas is interpreted to reflect a dilute contribution from a HIMU component that possess 317 variable anomalous Δ^{33} S. A similar observation is observed in lavas from Vailulu'u in Labidi 318 et al. (2015). Given the data from Malumalu (EM2) and Vailulu'u (dilute HIMU) occupy 319 different fields for δ^{34} S and 87 Sr/ 86 Sr and a slightly different field for δ^{34} S vs Δ^{33} S (figure 2), the case may be that the sources of sulfur are indeed different for the Vai and Malu volcanic 320 321 lineament. The high ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr in EM2 Malumalu lavas (and possibly the Vailulu'u lavas, which also have moderately elevated 87 Sr/ 86 Sr), combined with observed δ^{34} S vs Δ^{33} S, 322 allows for a potential mixture of both Proterozoic and Archean sediments (Labidi et al., 323 324 2015). In this type of mixture, the small magnitude Δ^{33} S signature could also be contributed 325 by Proterozoic sediments (See Johnston (2011) for data compilations showing such characteristics for early to middle Proterozoic sediments). Such small-magnitude positive 326

and negative shifts of Δ^{33} S are a natural outcome of biological and biogeochemical cycling (Ono et al., 2006) and are seen in sulfide and sulfate from a wide range of sedimentary and hydrothermal systems (Johnston, 2011).

330 5.3 *Sulfur from the primordial mantle*

331 The plume component with which this recycled endmember is mixed hosts a heterogeneous radiogenic Pb isotopic composition. The data from Samoa define four arrays 332 in ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb vs. ²⁰⁴Pb/²⁰⁴Pb that all converge on a small range of values (19.0-19.3 in 333 ²⁰⁶Pb/²⁰⁴Pb, 39.0-39.4 in ²⁰⁸Pb/²⁰⁴Pb) (Jackson et al., 2014) that are associated with the 334 high ³He/⁴He ratios of the "common component" (20-33.8 R_A). Samples from Samoa with 335 high ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ also preserve negative $\mu^{182}\text{W}$ compositions (Mundl et al., 2017). Such ${}^{182}\text{W}$ 336 deficits require a separate evolution from mantle-hosted ¹⁸²Hf, which went extinct within 337 the first 60 million years of solar system history. ¹⁸²W deficits are thus signatures formed 338 early in Earth's accretionary history that were immediately isolated from mantle 339 340 convection and mixing (Mundl et al., 2017).

The observed relationships between S with He and W (figure 3) suggests the 341 contribution of sulfur from an undegassed, early-formed mantle reservoir. Our data 342 establish that materials linked to the deep primordial component have Δ^{33} S $\approx 0\%$, similar 343 to the average MORB value of 0.008±0.006‰ (n=80, 1 s.d., Labidi and Cartigny 2016). A 344 345 homogeneous mantle Δ^{33} S with variable μ^{182} W supports a process that homogenized Δ^{33} S prior to the ingrowth of μ^{182} W signatures in different reservoirs. In Samoan lavas, the 346 recycled components bring materials with Δ^{33} S $\neq 0\%$ associated with the recycled 347 component with HIMU characteristics (Jackson et al., 2014) and the observed relationship 348

is apparent because this component has a different Δ^{33} S than the endmember with negative μ^{182} W. It was shown that the convective mantle is defined by Δ^{33} S and μ^{182} W both equal to zero (e.g. Labidi et al., 2014; Willbold et al., 2011). We therefore expect future analyses will fill in a three-component mixing field for Δ^{33} S and μ^{182} W (though, hints of this field may already be present in figure 5); endmember 1 is a primordial component, endmember 2 is a recycled component, endmember 3 is the convecting mantle.

To allow for an early segregated metal-rich reservoir with a ¹⁸²W deficit, Mundl et al. 355 356 (2017) suggest a connection to deep mantle reservoirs such as the seismically-defined 357 Large Low Shear Velocity Province (LLSVP) or Ultra Low Velocity Zone (ULVZ) beneath 358 Samoa which have been suggested to host Fe-rich metals (e.g. Zhang et al., 2016) and/or may have interacted with the core (Rizo et al., 2019). Work by Frost et al. (2004) suggests 359 360 the formation of such metal could have occurred via an Fe²⁺ disproportionation pathway driven by formation of bridgmanite early in Earth's history. This process has the potential 361 to yield a reservoir of deep mantle metal with moderate W abundances and low HSEs 362 363 (Mundl et al., 2017). Zhang et al. (2016) point out that S will concentrate in this metal 364 phase, which in turn will mute the expression of the equilibrium metal/silicate fractionation (>1%): Labidi et al., 2016) and yield an isotopic composition similar to that of 365 the mantle in which it formed (negative δ^{34} S and Δ^{33} S = 0‰). This composition is 366 consistent with the composition of sulfur we infer for the endmember with negative μ^{182} W. 367

368 An alternative proposed mechanism for producing negative μ¹⁸²W variations 369 involve high-pressure episodes of core formation that are recorded and preserved in the 370 deep mantle (Jackson et al. 2018). At high pressure, sulfur remains a siderophile element 371 (Suer et al. 2017) but the isotopic effect remains unconstrained. There is a potential for 372 changes in the mass dependent fractionation of ${}^{34}S/{}^{32}S$ (see discussion in Labidi et al. 373 2016), but we consider it unlikely that the $\Delta^{33}S$ would be affected in the formation of the 374 deep mantle reservoir.

375 Mundl et al., (2017) discount the possibility that physical core metal entrainment was the source of primordial (negative) μ^{182} W because HSEs are not sufficiently enriched 376 in Samoan lavas and are uncorrelated with negative μ^{182} W. In consideration of the mantle 377 378 nature of sulfur in samples with increasingly negative μ^{182} W from Vailulu'u and Malumalu², 379 the data suggest the primordial component likely has negative δ^{34} S, which would be 380 inconsistent with the core being the source of the sulfur that was later diluted with recycled sediments. Labidi et al. (2013) and Labidi and Cartigny (2016) argue that the δ^{34} S 381 of the bulk Earth, if chondritic, must be between -0.27 and +0.04%. In this case, the mantle 382 and core bracket this value with the mantle having strongly negative δ^{34} S (-0.89 ± 0.11‰) 383 (1σ)) while the core is slightly ³⁴S-enriched. Further support for the Mundl et al. (2017) 384 385 suggestion that the μ^{182} W anomalies did not originate from entrainment of core material, 386 may be provided by the lack of significant curvature in the $\Delta^{33}S - \mu^{182}W$ array (Figure 5) and the prevalence of near zero or slightly positive $\Delta^{33}S$ for early solar system materials 387 388 (Antonelli et al., 2014). Significant curvature would be expected if the mantle mixed with core material to generate the Δ^{33} S – μ^{182} W array (Figure 5) observed here, due to different 389 390 W/S ratios in the mantle and core. The lack of curvature also implies the W/S 391 concentration ratio is not much different in the mixing endmembers and, unless the

² We set aside the data for two samples from Ofu because of the likelihood of late shifts of δ^{34} S from extreme degassing owing to shallow eruption of the Ofu lavas.

392 primordial reservoir has negative Δ^{33} S, the negative μ^{182} W endmember may not be 393 significantly more negative (e.g. if it was a direct core contribution) than the most negative 394 values that have been measured thus far.

395 More recent work by Mundl et al. (2019) introduce an argument for anomalous μ^{182} W that involves a chemical and isotopic equilibration process for W between a basal 396 397 silicate layer and the core. Mundl et al. (2019) argue that the best candidate reservoirs are seismically imaged ULVZs. An equilibration process that that generates a reservoir with 398 μ^{182} W of ~-17 for a Δ^{33} S ~0 would explain our data (Mundl et al., 2020). The resulting 399 400 reservoir would mix with a recycled endmember with Δ^{33} S $\neq 0$ to produce the arrays that 401 are seen. Using simple mixing calculations, the data are well fit with this model assuming the amount of tungsten mixed into the basal silicate reservoir yields a μ^{182} W of ~ -17. 402

403 **6. Conclusions**

404 The Samoan islands are the type locality for the EM (II) reservoir but also receive dilute 405 contributions from EM (I), HIMU, and DMM related components. Furthermore, Samoa sits above a seismically imaged LLSVP and ULVZ that is thought to be the source of material 406 407 that exhibit primordial isotope compositions, seen as high ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ and negative μ^{182} W. We have characterized the nature of sulfur in primordial and recycled mantle sources using 408 multiple sulfur isotopes of bulk rock Samoan basalts by focusing on Samoan islands with 409 410 high ${}^{3}\text{He}/{}^{4}\text{He}$ and negative μ^{182} W. Relationships between Δ^{33} S and other geochemical systems such as radiogenic tungsten, helium and lead isotopes is observed and suggests 411 mixing between a component with HIMU characteristics (slight positive Δ^{33} S and 412 413 positive δ^{34} S) with a primordial endmember (negative μ^{182} W, high 3 He/ 4 He, Δ^{33} S=0 and

negative δ^{34} S). The antiquity of the primordial endmember is indicated by ¹⁸²W deficits that 414 415 require a separate evolution from mantle-hosted ¹⁸²Hf within the first 60 million years of solar system history. The similar indistinguishable Δ^{33} S from that of the convective mantle 416 417 indicates that sulfur isotopes were thus homogenized early in Earth's history. The small 418 but resolvable Δ^{33} S in the recycled endmember reflects sulfur that is contributed by a 419 Samoan plume component with HIMU characteristics (with a possible mixture of Proterozoic sulfur from continental crust sediments). Although a contribution from mass-420 independent Archean Δ^{33} S could be associated with HIMU, it is not required to explain the 421 422 Δ^{33} S variation because younger (Proterozoic) contributions may also have small positive 423 and negative deviations from Δ^{33} S=0. The correlations between sulfur, Pb, He, and W are 424 most easily reconciled with a deep mantle process linked to a dense, undegassed basal reservoir such as a ULVZ. Although our data do not support a reservoir with $\mu^{182}W$ =-220 425 and $\Delta^{33}S = 0$, the relationship between sulfur and tungsten could reflect W isotope 426 427 equilibration through a core-mantle equilibration process, where a diluted core W isotope 428 composition having less negative μ^{182} W is incorporated into the plume that also hosts 429 recycled sediments having Δ^{33} S \neq 0. Ultimately, our work identifies relationships between sulfur and radiogenic Pb, He, and W that provide a means of continuing to unravel the 430 431 complexities of geochemical heterogeneity of the mantle. With this work, we further the understanding of how the subduction and recycling of oceanic and continental crust can 432 influence geochemical signatures observed at ocean islands and how well dispersed the 433 434 various reservoirs are in the mantle.

435 **7. Acknowledgements**

We sincerely thank Editor Tamsin Mather for handling our manuscript and
providing useful comments. We also appreciate the thoughtful comments and suggestions
from three anonymous reviewers. This project was supported by the University of
Maryland Graduate School Research and Scholarship Award and a Fulbright Fellowship
(JF). The manuscript was partially constructed while JF was visiting at the Institut de
Physique du Globe Paris (IPGP).

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