1 Carbon isotopic evidence for organic matter oxidation in soils of the Old Red Sandstone (Silurian to 2 Devonian, South Wales, UK). 3 A.T. Brasier^{1*}, J.L. Morris^{2,3}, R.D. Hillier⁴ 4 5 1) Faculty of Earth and Life Sciences, VU University Amsterdam 6 2) School of Earth and Ocean Sciences, Cardiff University, Cardiff, CF10 3AT 7 3) Department of Animal and Plant Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S10 2TN 8 4) Department of Geology, National Museums and Galleries of Wales, Cathays Park, Cardiff, CF10 3NP 9 10 Corresponding author (email: a.t.brasier@vu.nl) 11 12 Number of words: 10894 13 Abbreviated title: CO₂-rich soils in the Siluro-Devonian 14 15 **Abstract** 16 Petrographic and calcrete carbon isotope data from seasonally waterlogged Upper Silurian (Přídolí) to Lower Devonian (Pragian) palaeo-Vertisols of the Old Red Sandstone, South Wales, UK, are presented. The δ^{13} C 17 18 values mostly range from -9 to -12% (VPDB), suggesting the soils were inhabited by abundant vegetation 19 that when oxidised (perhaps with microbial assistance) resulted in CO₂-rich soils. Such soils would favour 20 calcrete precipitation through equilibration of soil zone CO₂ with the relatively lower atmospheric pCO₂. 21 However, reliably estimating palaeoatmospheric pCO₂ calculated from these carbon isotope data is a 22 challenge. 23 24 **Keywords:** calcrete, carbon isotopes, Silurian, Devonian, soil carbonate, palaeosols 25 26 The physical appearances, sedimentary textures and depositional processes of soil carbonates have evolved 27 through time, particularly through the Palaeozoic (Brasier 2011). One of the first major steps in terrestrial 28 carbonate evolution was likely associated with the Palaeoproterozoic oxygenation of shallow marine and 29 lacustrine environments (Brasier 2011), which led to widespread precipitation of calcium sulphates. 30 Dissolution of highly soluble gypsum and anhydrite can lead to precipitation of less soluble calcite from 31 terrestrial groundwaters (the 'common ion effect'). The widespread incorporation of organic matter from early

plants into soils has been hypothesised as the driver of a later major step in carbonate precipitation that likely took place in the Late Silurian or Early Devonian. This is because plant growth and organic matter incorporation raises soil zone pCO₂ via plant and microbial respiration or decay, which leads to enhanced production of carbonic acid. The latter can dissolve limestone bedrock (where present), and dissociate to form bicarbonate ions (HCO₃). On the other hand, if the accumulated soil zone carbon dioxide is able to escape (perhaps during dry seasons as the soils begin to crack), and pCO₂ is higher than atmospheric pCO₂, then outgassing of dissolved CO₂ can occur. This CO₂ loss drives an equilibrium reaction (reaction 1, below) to the right, leading to calcrete precipitation.

$$41 \quad \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{HCO}_3^{-} \leftrightarrow \text{CaCO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \tag{1}$$

Chemical weathering of silicate bedrock via interaction with carbonic acid is a major driver in perturbations of global atmospheric carbon dioxide levels (e.g. Berner & Kothavala 2001). The importance of respiring vascular plants with well-developed root systems (that locally lower soil zone pH) and symbiotic mycorrhizal fungi to this process has often been emphasised (e.g. Algeo *et al.* 2001; Berner *et al.* 2003).

Calcrete deposition also requires a source of calcium ions. This could be local chemical weathering of carbonate or volcanic bedrock, although in the Recent soils of New Mexico, USA, the calcium is demonstrably sourced from windblown dust (Capo and Chadwick, 1999). Increased levels of silicate weathering (leading to increased calcium availability) could also have encouraged post-Middle Devonian non-marine carbonate precipitation (Brasier, 2011).

At least from the Middle Devonian onwards, vascular plants with root systems have actively encouraged calcrete (sensu Wright and Tucker, 1991) precipitation through evapotranspiration, and directly controlled the geochemistry of the rhizosphere (see references in Brasier 2011). The effects of earlier (Silurian to Early Devonian), pre-vascular plant organic matter on calcrete precipitation and morphology, and on silicate mineral weathering, must also be considered. It has previously been suggested that the biological productivity of microbiota prior to vascular plants was similar to that of modern soils (Yapp & Poths 1994), and that microbially-produced CO₂ levels may have been high in the vadose zone prior to the Silurian (Keller & Wood 1993). Degassing of CO₂ from these soils could have produced calcite-supersaturated groundwaters before the later advent of vascular plants with roots actively engaged in the precipitation of calcrete.

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64 Direct evidence of preserved organic matter in Late Silurian to Early Devonian terrestrial deposits is limited. 65

The Anglo-Welsh Basin of South Wales and the Welsh Borderland (Fig. 1) has yielded an unrivalled record

of early land plant history (e.g. Lang 1937; Edwards & Richardson 2004), in particular vascular plant remains

such as *Cooksonia* (Edwards 1979). The majority of megafossil remains are allochthonous in nature, although

downward-bifurcating drab haloes are common in palaeosols, and have been interpreted as surface water

gleying around small-scale rooting structures that subsequently decayed (Allen1986; Allen & Williams, 1982).

Hillier et al. (2008) described shallow rooting structures from a wide range of terrestrial environments across

the basin, and used circumstantial evidence to conclude that these structures could have been produced by the

fungus *Prototaxites*. In addition to rooting structures, the Late Silurian to Early Devonian terrestrial deposits

preserved a diverse ichnofauna that demonstrates a complex trophic structure (Morrissey et al. 2012).

74 "Enigmatic" sedimentary structures such as millimetre-scale ripples and wrinkle structures provide evidence

for widespread microbial presence around palaeosols and their spatially associated environments, constituting

76 a plausible base to the trophic pyramid (Morrissey et al. 2012; Marriott et al. 2012).

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Many Late Silurian to Early Devonian palaeosols from the Anglo-Welsh Basin contain abundant calcrete

nodules (e.g. Allen 1974; Marriott & Wright 1993; Love & Williams 2000; Hillier et al. 2011a). The aim of

this study was to test the possibility of a link between the palaeontological and sedimentary evidence for

81 terrestrial biological activity, organic matter accumulation and the occurrence of these early calcrete nodules.

82 Processes that could have caused the calcrete precipitation include evaporation, the common-ion effect, or

83 loss of CO_2 from the soil to the relatively lower pCO_2 atmosphere (via reaction 1). Evidence for

predominance of the latter process would suggest that Late Silurian to Early Devonian terrestrial organisms

(either actively when alive or passively when dead) produced high pCO_2 , carbonic acid rich soils prior to the

evolution of deeper-rooted plants.

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Calcrete carbon isotope geochemistry should portray the influence of soil zone organic matter on calcrete

precipitation. Carbon isotope data from pre-Silurian calcretes are currently scarce, but values reported to date

are all much closer to 0% VPDB than found in more recent examples. These ancient cases include the

91 Cambrian La Flecha Formation calcretes of Argentina (-1 to -3%; Keller et al., 1989; Buggisch et al., 2003),

92 and Cambrian alluvial fan calcretes of the Guaritas Sequence of Brazil (-1.47 to -0.99%; De Ros et al., 1994).

93 Their relatively positive carbon isotope compositions likely reflect a very small or negligible contribution of biologically processed carbon to pre-Silurian soil zone CO_2 . In contrast, Late Devonian to modern calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ values are mostly strongly negative (e.g. Ekart et al., 1999). Their signals are dominated by CO_2 respired by soil-inhabiting organisms, in addition to the CO_2 resulting from oxidation of dead soil zone organic matter (e.g. Cerling 1984; Driese & Mora 1993; Mora *et al.* 1996; Ekart *et al.* 1999). If organic matter oxidation in the Late Silurian and Early Devonian produced high soil zone pCO_2 , facilitating and accelerating widespread calcrete precipitation via reaction 1, and potentially enhancing silicate bedrock weathering, this should be reflected in the calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ record.

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Geological setting

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104 Basin History

105 The Old Red Sandstone magnafacies outcrops across South Wales and the Welsh Borderland, U.K. (Fig. 1) 106 and comprises predominantly terrestrial sequences that were deposited in the Anglo-Welsh Basin during the 107 Late Silurian to Early Carboniferous. During this interval the basin lay on the southern margins of Laurussia 108 within sub-tropical latitudes (c. 17° S; Channell et al. 1992; Friend et al. 2000). The Lower Old Red 109 Sandstone Daugleddau Group (Fig. 2; Barclay et al. in press) is of Late Ludlow to Early Devonian (Emsian) 110 age. Sequences of the lower part of the group (the Milford Haven Subgroup) were deposited mainly in 111 dryland coastal plain and alluvial floodplain environments that developed in a semi-arid climate (Allen 1974; 112 Barclay et al. 2005; Hillier & Williams 2006). Contemporaneous volcanic tuffs were likely sources of calcium for the calcretes and are interbedded throughout the succession (e.g. Marriott et al., 2009). The upper Přídolí 113 114 Moor Cliffs Formation is a mudstone-dominated, heterolithic succession of moderately sinuous ephemeral 115 river channel and floodplain deposits that were pedified to varying degrees as calcic palaeo-Vertisols, of 116 which the C horizons are often defined by the presence of pedogenic calcrete (as further described

below; Allen & Williams 1979; Marriott & Wright 1993; Marriott & Wright 2004). The formation also

preserves low-gradient, high width-to-depth ratio ephemeral fluvial sandbodies (Love & Williams 2000;

Williams & Hillier 2004). The top of the formation is marked by the Chapel Point Limestone Member (Fig.

2), a unit of well-developed stacked calcrete-containing palaeosols of significant aerial extent across the basin,

which signifies a period of basin-wide sedimentary hiatus and pedogenesis close to the Silurian-Devonian

boundary (Williams et al. 1982; Allen 1986; Wright & Marriott 1996).

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124 A basin-wide change in palaeohydrology and geomorphology occurred across the Silurian-Devonian 125 boundary, with the appearance of sandstone-dominated perennial fluvial channels of the lower Lochkovian 126 Freshwater West Formation (Fig. 2). These may represent an overall wetter climate than that of the Late 127 Silurian, possibly associated with a more intense monsoonal climate (Hillier et al. 2007; Morris et al. 2012). 128 The presence of hydromorphic palaeosols indicates intervals of prolonged waterlogging (Hillier et al. 2007), 129 the higher water table facilitating the preservation of plant micro- and macrofossils (Higgs 2004; Morris et al. 130 2011, 2012). During intervals of low precipitation and discharge, the basin essentially reverted to an 131 ephemeral dryland mudstone-dominated system with well-developed calcic palaeo-Vertisols (Hillier et al. 132 2007). Most of the Late Silurian- Early Devonian deposits were derived from the north, with the exception of 133 the late Lochkovian Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation, found south of the Ritec Fault in Pembrokeshire 134 (Fig. 1), with deposits derived from the south. It represents an interval of transtensional related half-graben 135 development in the basin, with increased topographic relief shedding ephemeral alluvial fan deposits into 136 contemporaneous dryland alluvial valleys (Hillier & Williams 2007). 137 138 Pedogenic vs. groundwater calcretes 139 The term calcrete is defined as 'a near surface, terrestrial accumulation of predominately calcium carbonate, 140 which occurs in a variety of forms from powdery to nodular to highly indurated' (Lampugh 1902; Goudie 141 1973; Wright & Tucker 1991). The term applies to carbonate accumulations in soils and palaeosols 142 ('pedogenic calcretes'), and also to groundwater precipitates ('groundwater calcretes'; see Wright & Tucker 143 1991). Much calcrete in the Old Red Sandstone of the Anglo-Welsh Basin is pedogenic. Typical pedified red 144 beds of the Old Red Sandstone are recognised by three soil horizons that occur as single vertical profiles or, 145 more commonly, as a series of stacked profiles with complex depositional and pedogenic histories (Allen 146 1974, 1986; Marriott & Wright 1993, 2006). The upper (A) horizon is characterised by the presence of blue-147 grey vertically orientated vein-like features, ascribed by most authors to local reduction of iron ('drab haloes') 148 around roots, but may also represent burrows or desiccation cracks. The middle (Bss) horizon is recognised 149 by the presence of convex-up, wedge shaped peds with slickensided slip-planes. The lower (Ck) horizons 150 possess various types of pedogenic carbonate, including sub-spherical nodules, elongate, columnar rods and 151 crystallaria, ranging from stage I to V in development (sensu Machette 1985). Calcrete precipitation and

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growth in soils is displacive.

When compared to modern soil orders (US soil taxonomy) the A-Bss-Ck horizonation is most similar to that of Vertisols (Soil Survey Staff 1999), hence most palaeosols within the Anglo-Welsh Basin are interpreted as calcic palaeo-Vertisols (e.g. Allen 1986; Marriott & Wright 1993, 2004; Love & Williams 2000). Today the majority of Vertisols develop under conditions of limited moisture, but that are sufficient for plant growth (ustic regimes; Soil Survey Staff 1999). Many authors have interpreted the pedogenic features observed as evidence for a semi-arid palaeoclimate with distinct wet and dry seasons (Allen 1986; Marriott & Wright 1993, 1996, 2004). For example, shrinking and swelling of clays under such conditions leads to the formation of the slickensided slip-planes (Wilding & Tessier 1988), while pedogenic calcrete formation itself might require strong seasonality (e.g. Breecker et al. 2010). Seasonal wetting and drying of the soils promoted alternating periods of oxidation and reduction, and subsequent formation of redoximorphic indicators such as drab haloes around rooting traces, fractures and desiccation cracks (pseudogleying). In addition, and particularly common in the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member, is the development of red/purple and grey to grey/green colour mottling in sandstone bodies. The latter may be oval or outline depositional structures such as cross-lamination. They are interpreted as redoximorphic indicators of seasonal saturation as iron oxides were reduced (low chromas) or oxidised (high chromas) by a fluctuating water table (Hillier et al. 2007). Pedogenic calcretes are usually assumed to have obtained their carbon from a combination of atmospheric CO₂ and biological, respired CO₂ in the soil zone (e.g. Cerling 1984). Some re-working of carbon from older pedogenic calcrete is also to be expected in these systems.

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Conversely, groundwater calcretes precipitate from mobile carbonate-rich groundwaters. These carbonates are commonly precipitated in layers within the capillary fringe zone, but they can be precipitated below the water table (Wright & Tucker 1991). They have been recognised in the Old Red Sandstone of the Anglo-Welsh Basin as sharp-based, layer-bound micritic calcretes with upper surfaces comprising vertical and cylindrical nodules (Hillier *et al.* 2011*b*). Groundwater calcretes may source their carbon from beyond the soil zone (e.g. underlying bedrock, or older pedogenic calcretes).

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Localities and methodology

- The majority of the calcretes sampled are from South-west Wales. Here there is good section exposure of recognisable, well-developed palaeosol profiles that have been extensively studied (e.g. Allen & Williams 1982; Williams *et al.* 1982; Marriott & Wright 1993, 2004; Love & Williams 2000; Williams & Hillier 2004;
- Hillier et al. 2007). Palaeosol profiles of the upper Přídolí Moor Cliffs Formation were examined, and

185 carefully selected calcretes were sampled from Manorbier, Pembrokeshire (latitude 51.644212°, longitude -186 4.806869°) and Llansteffan, Carmarthenshire (latitude 51.752037°, longitude -4.634724°) (Fig. 1). Calcretes 187 from the lower Lochkovian Freshwater West Formation were collected from palaeosols identified throughout 188 the type section at Freshwater West, Pembrokeshire (latitude 51.652384°, longitude -5.057570°) and at 189 representative shorter sections at Manorbier and Llansteffan. Samples from the late Lochkovian Ridgeway 190 Conglomerate Formation were collected at Freshwater West. 191 192 Additional pedogenic calcrete nodules were sampled from central South Wales, from palaeosol profiles of the 193 lower Lochkovian Freshwater West Formation (previously known in the region as the St. Maughans 194 Formation, Barclay et al. 2005, in press; Fig. 2), Chapel Point Limestone Member, and Moor Cliffs Formation 195 (previously known regionally as the Raglan Mudstone Formation). These were all identified in two cores from 196 Tredomen Quarry (BGS registration numbers SO13SW/2 & SO13SW/3), near Brecon, Powys (Fig. 1; latitude 197 51.965185°, longitude -3.285985°; Morris et al. 2011, 2012). 198 199 All hand-specimens were examined with a binocular microscope and stained with Alizarin Red S and 200 Potassium Ferricyanide to enable clear distinction between calcite and dolomite. Those deemed suitable for 201 analysis and representative of each calcrete type were thin-sectioned. Half of each thin-section was then 202 stained with Alizarin Red S and Potassium Ferricyanide prior to examination with a petrographic microscope. 203 Detailed information on stable isotope measurement methods is provided in the supplementary information. 204 205 **Results** 206 207 Petrography, selection and sampling of calcretes 208 209 A summary of petrographic observations is given here, with more detailed descriptions in the supplementary 210 information. 211 212 Moor Cliffs Formation palaeosols 213 At Manobier, the Moor Cliffs Formation is a thick sequence of predominantly brownish-red silty mudstones 214 interbedded with subordinate conglomerates, tuffs and sandstone bodies (Williams et al. 1982; Marriott & 215 Wright 1993, 2004; Love & Williams 2000). Marriott & Wright (1993) recognised 20 mudstone intervals that

216 indicated varying degrees of pedification. Over half of the sequences they observed are complex, truncated 217 cumulate profiles, with only 5 truncated simple profiles recognised. All three horizons typical of palaeo-218 Vertisols were recognised (A-Bss-Ck). The C horizons are rich in calcrete (Fig. 3), ranging in morphology 219 from: 5 to 10 mm diameter discrete nodules; larger calcrete 'rods' of 10 to 40 mm diameter and up to 150 mm 220 long; and coalescent calcrete rods and nodules (Marriott & Wright 1993), representing stages I – III in 221 calcrete development (sensu Machette 1985). Although most of the calcrete rods are orientated vertically, 222 some are aligned along wedge-shaped ped slip planes, where overprinting of the B horizon has occurred, 223 indicative of (syn-sedimentary) reactivation of the slip planes. A representative sample from each calcrete 224 type or development stage was taken (Table S1). Thin-section microscopy of one of the smaller nodules (Fig. 225 3a, 3b) reveals micrite surrounding clear, sparry calcite cement that infills irregular-shaped voids. A simple 226 explanation of sparry calcite cementation (perhaps during burial) of burrows within siliciclastic host rock 227 would not account for the relationship between the micrite and the spar. More likely is a two-stage process, 228 starting with micritic calcite precipitation around an organic substrate (plants or other organisms, perhaps after 229 their burial in the soil). Secondly the organic matter oxidized, leaving behind convolute voids, of up to 0.5 230 mm width and several millimetres in length, within the earlier-formed micrite. All stages of calcite 231 precipitation could have happened syn-depositionally, associated with CO₂ degassing from the soil zone to the 232 atmosphere. Samples of micritic oval pellets, 0.5 cm in diameter, probably of faecal origin (Allen & Williams 233 1981; Marriott et al. 2009) and calcitised horizontal burrow fills (perhaps Beaconites barretti; see Marriott et 234 al. 2009), of up to 3 cm length and 0.5 cm width, were also taken (Table S1). 236 Calcretes from the top of the Moor Cliffs Formation were sampled from exposures at Llansteffan (Fig. 1),

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237 specifically from the Chapel Point Limestone Member (formerly the *Psammosteus* Limestone / Bishop's 238 Frome Limestone; see Fig. 3c and Barclay et al. in press). This pedogenic calcrete unit comprises aggraded 239 well-developed (up to stage V) calcrete (C) horizons, totalling up to 20m thick (Marriott & Wright 1993; 240 Jenkins 1998), suggesting a prolonged period of slow sedimentation and tectonic and climatic quiescence 241 lasting many thousands of years (Allen 1974; Allen 1985; Wright & Marriott 1996; Jenkins 1998). In thin-242 section (Fig. 3d) these nodules exhibit typical calcrete fabrics like crystalline mosaics and circum-granular 243 cracks that can be interpreted as primary in origin (Wright & Tucker, 1991). The mosaics and fracture-filling 244 spar are therefore not seen as evidence for carbonate mobilisation during burial.

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Freshwater West Formation palaeosols

247 The Conigar Pit Sandstone and Rat Island Mudstone Members of the Freshwater West Formation (Fig. 2) 248 have been extensively described by Hillier et al. (2007) and Marriott & Wright (1993), respectively. The 249 Conigar Pit Sandstone Member is the lower part of the formation and is characterised by interbedded 250 heterolithics, sheet and multi-storey sandstones and mudstones. The mudstones represent 30% of the Conigar 251 Pit Sandstone Member at Freshwater West, and were deposited either in shallow, ephemeral pools on the 252 floodplain or as within-channel muddy braid bars (Hillier et al. 2007). Pedogenic processes have affected 253 many of these muds (Fig. 4); the majority of the profiles recognised are cumulative. Blue-grey drab haloes, 254 abundant within the A horizons, have been interpreted as the traces of roots, fungal hyphae or burrows (e.g. 255 Fig. 4a, 4b; see also Hillier et al. 2007; Marriott & Wright 1993). Slickensided wedge-shaped peds in the B 256 horizons (Hillier et al. 2007) and pedogenic calcretes are indicative of palaeo-Vertisols, although the 257 slickensided peds are weakly-developed compared to those of the Moor Cliffs Formation. The majority of C horizons have stage I calcrete nodules, with some up to stage II-III (Hillier et al. 2007). 258 259 260 The Rat Island Mudstone Member is the upper part of the formation, containing pedified mudstones described 261 by Marriott & Wright (1993) as weakly-developed calcic palaeo-Vertisols. They are more prevalent than 262 those in the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member; the sandstone: mudstone ratio within the former being 1:3. The 263 calcretes are mostly developed to stages I & II, with rare occurrences of stage III. The majority of profiles are 264 cumulate, with only a small proportion truncated, and no evidence of reactivation (Marriott & Wright 1993). 265 266 Four forms of calcrete were collected from the Freshwater West Formation at Manorbier and Freshwater West 267 (Fig. 1; Table S1). The first three are: large (commonly 5 cm diameter) pedogenic nodules (Fig. 4a); smaller, 268 centimetre-sized, elongated calcrete nodules, sometimes oriented between peds (Fig. 4c); and small (up to 269 5mm diameter) transported calcrete clasts (for example Fig. 4d) in lenses of well-sorted intraformational 270 conglomerates, likely deposited during flash-flooding events. Conglomerate lenses are several metres in 271 length and up to 10 cm thick. They are set in homogenous red mudstone matrices exhibiting blocky ped 272 textures. The fourth form of calcrete is calcite-filled cracks (Fig. 4e) at Freshwater West, interpreted as 273 pedogenic crystallaria. 274 275 Thin-sections of nodules from the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member (Fig. 5; Table S1) display clay-rich calcitic 276 peloids amalgamated into nodules, surrounded by central calcite spar-filled irregular and circumgranular 277 cracks, set in matrices of haematitic clays and sub-angular quartz grains (e.g. Fig. 5a). Dark micritic margins

to the largest cracks surround clear calcite similar to the relationship observed within the Moor Cliffs
Formation nodules (Fig. 3). Here we similarly infer precipitation of micrite on an organic substrate, followed
by oxidation of the organic matter and filling of the resulting void by spar. Circumgranular crack-filling spar
is cut by stylolites (Fig. 5b, 5c), consistent with spar formation prior to deep burial. Within one vein in a
single nodule (ATB 210810-7; Fig. 5d) were a very few crystals that did not stain with Alizarin Red that are
either dolomite or siderite.

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A thin-section of a nodule collected from a conglomerate in the Freshwater West Formation at Llansteffan reveals a spherulitic texure (Fig. 5e). A c. 100 micron thick, c. 5mm long laminar calcite crust surrounding a spherulitic clast comprises three couplets of light and dark laminae (Fig. 5f). It is tempting to speculate that this combination of spherulites and tufa-like laminar crust imply initial subaerial precipitation of the nodule in association with cyanobacteria (perhaps initially in a stream?). However, an entirely abiotic, phreatic origin for these textures is also plausible (e.g. Verrecchia *et al.* 1995; Wright *et al.* 1995).

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Micritic areas of samples were targeted for stable isotope analysis. Thin-section ATB 220810-05 was selected for its relatively wide void-filling spar section (shown in Fig. 5a), and drilled using a computer-controlled micromill. Samples were obtained of the circumgranular crack-filling spar and its micritic lining, plus a micritic peloid. The few crystals of vein-filling dolomite or siderite and spatially-associated void-filling spar (Fig. 5d) were micromilled from a second thin-section (ATB 210810-7), but unfortunately samples obtained were not of sufficient size for analysis.

- 299 Tredomen Quarry core palaeosols
- The Freshwater West and Moor Cliffs Formations also outcrop across central South Wales (Figs. 1 and 2;
- 301 Allen & Dineley 1986). Both formations, including the Chapel Point Limestone Member, are recognised in
- two cores drilled at Tredomen Quarry (Fig. 1; Morris et al. 2012). The Freshwater West Formation comprises
- interbedded multi-channel sandstones, intraformational conglomerates, inclined and planar laminated
- heterolithics, and pedified mudstones. The majority of the latter are interpreted as calcic palaeo-Vertisols with
- A-Bss-Ck horizonation, mostly within truncated single profiles, but some are cumulate (Morris *et al.* 2012).
- The calcrete ranges from small (2-5mm in diameter), sparsely distributed sub-spherical micritic nodules (stage
- I), to larger (over 5mm in diameter) sub-spherical and elongate nodules (stage II). Two stage II-III (coalesced)
- 308 calcrete horizons are interpreted as the Chapel Point Limestone Member. Underlying this are rocks of the

309 Moor Cliffs Formation, being predominately vertic and non-vertic calcic palaeosols, interbedded with inclined 310 and planar-laminated heterolithics and minor sandstones with intraformational conglomeratic bases (Morris et 311 al. 2012). The palaeosol profiles are commonly cumulate, often with no clear horizonation, although some 312 truncated single profiles were observed. Pedogenic calcrete development ranges between stages I and II. 313 314 Five micritic nodules were chosen (three from the Freshwater West Formation, one from the Chapel Point 315 Limestone Member and one from the Moor Cliffs Formation; Table S1) for stable isotope analysis. The 316 selected examples showed no obvious signs of recrystallisation, fracture-filling cement or gley mottling (Fig. 317 6). Profiles showing such features were deliberately avoided as the initial intention was to attempt direct calculation of Siluro-Devonian palaeoatmospheric pCO_2 from calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ (Cerling 1984; 1991; 1992; see 318 below) and $\delta^{13}C$ of fossil plants from the same locality. Gley mottling can indicate that the soil was 319 320 waterlogged; rendering it unsuitable for use in the palaeosol pCO₂ model, and recrystallisation can allow resetting of the carbonate δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O compositions (Quast *et al.* 2006). 321 322 323 In thin-section the nodules are petrographically similar and typical of calcretes, exhibiting sharp to slightly 324 diffuse boundaries, and surrounded by circumgranular cracks. Several of the nodules are composite, 325 comprised of spar-cemented coalesced micritic peloids. Floating sand grains are rare but are encountered, 326 commonly exhibiting corroded margins. The observed textures are compatible with a primary calcrete origin. 327 328 Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation palaeosols 329 The Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation at Freshwater West (Fig. 1) comprises alluvial fan conglomerates 330 interfingering with sheet sandstones, inclined and planar-laminated heterolithics and mudstones, interpreted as 331 a low gradient fluvial system (Hillier & Williams 2007). Pedified mudstones are interpreted as calcic palaeo-332 Vertisols (Fig. 7a). They possess characteristic A horizons that are desiccation-cracked and calcretised, with 333 drab-haloed root traces. These root traces may have originated from vascular plants, but fungal rooting 334 structures have also been reported from this formation (Hillier et al. 2008). Some of the calcretes in this 335 formation are of likely groundwater origin (Fig. 7b; Hillier et al. 2011a). These can be identified where they 336 form thin continuous layers with sharp bases and tops. 337 338 Pedogenic calcretes are developed up to Stage III of Machette (1985), and rarely calcrete nodules are as large 339 as 20 cm diameter. Some nodules are cross-cut by discontinuous and irregular sub-horizontal calcite-filled

cracks that are interpreted as pedogenic crystallaria (Fig. 7a). Such calcite-filled fractures typically form sheets sub-parallel to bedding (Hillier & Williams 2007). In thin-section, the more common smaller nodules comprise millimetre-sized dark micritic (pedogenic) peloids coated in c. 100 micron-thick layers of (phreatic?) calcitic microspar (Fig. 7c) that also infills millimetre-sized cavities (Fig. 7d). This microspar is consistent with a 'secondary' phreatic cement-precipitating phase that followed initial precipitation of dark micritic carbonate within the soil. However, the precipitation of the spar could have occurred within swampy, waterlogged soils at times of high water table, making it arguably 'syn-depositional'. The largest nodules from the top of the Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation at Freshwater West (ATB 220810-13; Table S1) are spherulitic, composed of curved columnar calcite crystals that grew out from a reduction spot in the nodule centre (Fig. 7e). The curving of the crystals can be ascribed to spherulitic crystal growth.

Results of stable isotope geochemistry

Bulk micritic samples of the nodules were micro-drilled for stable isotope analyses. Carbon and oxygen isotope data from this study (all VPDB) are tabulated in full in the supplementary information and presented here in a cross-plot (Fig. 8), and on a plot of collated Palaeozoic calcrete carbon isotope data (Fig. 9). A summary of the results is given in Table 1. Overall, calcrete carbon isotope values range from ca. -12‰ (Conigar Pit Sandstone Member at Manorbier) to -6.9‰ (from near the top of the Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation at Freshwater West). Oxygen isotopes were mostly lower than -9‰, ranging from ca. -14‰ (from near the top of the Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation at Freshwater West) to -5.8‰ (from crystallaria in the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member at Freshwater West). A micro-milled thin-section of Conigar Pit Sandstone Member calcrete (Fig. 5a) yielded uniform δ^{13} C values for central void-filling spar (-10.0‰), microsparry crystallaria around the void-filling spar (-10.1‰), and micritic nodule calcite (-10.1‰). The δ^{18} O values of these samples showed some variation, with the latest-stage void-filling spar yielding a value of -8.1‰, the surrounding microsparry crystallaria -13.6‰, and the micritic nodule -13.8‰.

Two samples of coalified remains from rhyniophytoids from Tredomen Quarry (Morris *et al.* 2011) gave δ^{13} C of -24.2‰ and -25.0‰. Two samples of charcoalified *Prototaxites* gave δ^{13} C of -24.6‰ and -25.5‰. One sample of coalified *Prototaxites* gave δ^{13} C of -26.9‰ VPDB. These are all consistent with a primary origin from photosynthesising organisms using the C₃ photosystem pathway. It is possible that the isotopic values

from *Prototaxites* reflect its heterotrophic consumption of C₃ photosynthesising organisms, rather than indicating *Prototaxites* was an autotrophic organism itself (e.g. Boyce *et al.* 2007).

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Discussion

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- Diagenesis and geochemical alteration of the oxygen isotopes
- Thin-sections of the pedogenic nodules reveal micritic peloids with circumgranular cracks that are interpreted as original soil textures (e.g. Fig. 5a; Table S1). Several of the features observed are consistent with precipitation of the micritic and microsparitic fabrics in waterlogged soils, including gleying and the circumgranular cracks themselves. Coarse, clear calcite spar and very minor vein-filling dolomite or siderite (the
- latter seen only in one late-stage spar-filling fracture) could conceivably reflect cementation of void spaces
- during burial. This 'late stage' calcite spar is found in burrows that were clearly syn-sedimentary voids
- 382 (perhaps after organic matter oxidation) and circum-granular cracks that could have progressively opened as
- 383 the water-logged soils dried out. Oxygen isotope values of c. -9 to -14‰ values seem incompatible with
- precipitation from meteoric waters in the interpreted sub-equatorial setting of these rocks in the Late Silurian
- and Early Devonian (Channell *et al.* 1992). They would, however, be consistent with re-setting of carbonate
- δ^{18} O by high temperature fluids during burial. One might speculate that the late-stage spar of the Conigar Pit
- Sandstone Member exhibits less negative δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values than the relatively older micritic nodules and
- void-lining microsparitic crystallaria (Fig 5a and Fig. 8) because the spar was less susceptible to oxygen
- isotopic alteration than the micrite. Based on examination of Oligocene terrestrial carbonates of the
- Himalayas, however, Bera et al. (2010) considered that oxygen isotope compositions were best preserved in
- 391 samples with over 70% micrite. They suggested that this was because the lowest water:rock ratios would
- normally be found in the most micritic samples. In the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member it seems possible the
- 393 micrite was more permeable to oxygen isotope altering fluids than the spar.

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Post-depositional alteration of carbon isotopes?

- Carbonate carbon isotopes are less likely to be re-set than carbonate oxygen isotopes during burial because of a strong buffering effect from pre-existing carbonate carbon (e.g. Banner & Hanson 1990). The lack of δ^{13} C
- variation encountered between the three micromilled Conigar Pit Sandstone Member fabrics (early micrite,

early microspar, and late spar) can be interpreted as early-formed calcrete carbon dominating the δ^{13} C signal of late-stage fluids, or alternatively complete late-stage overprinting of an earlier (higher) δ^{13} C signal.

Rocks of the Anglo-Welsh Basin have experienced low grade metamorphism at temperatures of c.175 to 350°C (up to lower greenschist facies; Bevins and Robinson, 1988). One consequence of low-temperature metamorphism of carbonates in the presence of silicates can be production and loss of CO₂ ('decarbonation') such that carbon and oxygen stable isotopes may be affected. The carbon dioxide produced by such reactions is usually enriched in ¹³C and ¹⁸O in comparison to the calcite (Shieh and Taylor, 1969), meaning the calcite is likely to become relatively depleted in ¹³C and ¹⁸O. In addition, metasomatic fluids passing through the carbonate rock provide an opportunity for isotopic exchange to occur, particularly for oxygen. Rocks with a significant silicate component are liable to have experienced shifts in their oxygen and carbon stable isotopic compositions as a result of metamorphism, and these calcretes clearly fall in that category. However, large shifts in δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O (ca. 5 to 10 per mil decreases) by decarbonation only occur if substantial proportions of the carbon and oxygen are converted to CO₂ and lost from the rock (Valley, 1986). Large effects are usually found in cases of contact metamorphism that also include a component of equilibration of isotopically light igneous CO₂ with sedimentary carbonate CO₂ (see Valley, 1986). In the Old Red Sandstone strata examined, the lack of minerals that are common products of decarbonation reactions (e.g. wollastonite and tremolite) and lack of evidence for substantial recrystallisation of the calcretes, argues against significant metamorphic effects on their carbon and oxygen isotope values.

A negative shift in calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ could result from post-depositional isotopic exchange with a significant external source of organic carbon. However there is no clear evidence of carbon migration (such as veining) from underlying Ordovician organic-rich shales into the Old Red Sandstone sections investigated. The carbon isotopic compositions of marine carbonates of the Coralliferous Formation (which lies stratigraphically between the Ordovician shales and the lower Old Red Sandstone units described here) were measured to determine whether they have been affected by migration of organic carbon from Ordovician shales. These limestones gave bulk compositions in the region of ca. -2% VPDB (our unpublished data), suggesting there has not been a significant upward migration of low $\delta^{13}C$ carbon into the Coralliferous Formation (and, by inference, the overlying Old Red Sandstone units). It is concluded that the most likely source of isotopically light carbon that could have affected the carbon isotopic compositions of these nodules during deep burial is organic matter from within the ancient soils themselves.

The strongest evidence against significant post-depositional re-setting of these calcrete carbon isotopic signals comes from their unaltered petrographic appearances, which are hard to reconcile with geochemical processes that would demand substantial recrystallization sufficient to affect the carbon signals. Field and petrographic evidence (including, for example, nodules reworked in conglomerates) suggests most of the calcite precipitation occurred prior to burial, and the geochemical data do not require input of carbon from any source other than organic matter originally present in the (likely seasonally waterlogged) soils.

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Explanations for low calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ values

440 Assuming that the carbon isotopic compositions of these calcretes are mostly unaltered then consideration 441 must be given to why these values are more negative than those of North American calcretes of similar age 442 (see Fig. 9). One explanation might be that calcrete precipitation took place under different conditions. Mora 443 et al. (1991) and Driese et al. (1992) suggested that the precipitation of the North American Bloomsburg 444 Formation calcretes took place at shallow soil depths (a few centimetres), given small Silurian plant rooting 445 systems (e.g. Algeo et al. 1995). In the Bloomsburg Formation palaeosols, this would have favoured a strong, relatively ¹³C rich atmospheric CO₂ contribution to the calcrete δ^{13} C (e.g. Mora *et al.* 1996), resulting in 446 447 isotopic values of > -7\% (Driese et al. 1992). Perhaps the contribution of atmospheric CO₂ to the Old Red 448 Sandstone calcretes was relatively lower than found in the North American examples. This could be the case 449 if the Old Red Sandstone soils originally contained greater volumes of respiring organisms and oxidizing 450 organic matter. Determining the relative contributions of organic matter from these two settings is challenging 451 because the majority of the plant material has not been preserved. No plant fossils were described in 452 association with the Bloomsburg paleosols (Driese et al., 1992). However, in general the plant fossil record 453 from the Bloomsburg Formation is meager, the most significant report from Ludlovian strata being non-454 vascular thalloid fragments that are part of the Nematothallus complex (Strother, 1988). In comparison the 455 plant assemblages from the latest Silurian to earliest Devonian Anglo-Welsh Basin are more abundant and 456 diverse, with evidence of vascular plants (Edwards and Richardson, 2004). It is notable that Lower 457 Cretaceous calcretes of the Wealden Beds, UK, that were also deposited in partially waterlogged to marshy soils, have very comparable δ^{13} C values (-9 to -12.5%; Robinson et al., 2002). There, Robinson et al. (2012) 458 459 suggested the ingress of atmospheric CO₂ to the soils was low to negligible. In these scenarios of soils 460 inhabited by abundant plants the Old Red Sandstone calcrete carbon isotope signals would be dominated by 461 isotopically light carbon from the organic matter.

- Further possibilities might include the effects of soil zone microbiota. First, in anoxic environments anaerobic
- methanogenesis can provide a source of dissolved carbon that has extremely low δ^{13} C values (commonly ca. -
- 465 75‰; Irwin et al., 1977; Whiticar, 1999):
- 466 $2CH_2O$ → $CH_4 + CO_2$. (2)

467

- Due to production of CO₂, an accompanying lowering of soil water pH is expected, unless methanogenesis is
- coupled to significant Fe(III) reduction (Andrews et al., 1991):
- 470 $13CH_2O + 2Fe_2O_3 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 6CH_4 + 7HCO_3^- + 4Fe^{2+} + OH^-$ (3)

471

- However such methanogenesis usually occurs in environments lacking acetate (Whiticar, 1999). These places
- are mostly proximate to areas that are sulphate-rich, where sulphate reducing bacteria can out compete
- methanogens for the acetate (Whiticar, 1999). Sulphate minerals (or their pseudomorphs) and sulphides are
- distinctly lacking in the examined sections, so the above mechanisms can probably be discounted.

476

- Where acetate (CH₃COO⁻) is present (i.e. where bacterial sulphate reduction is not prevalent), methanogenesis
- 478 can occur through acetate fermentation:
- 479 $CH_3COO^- + H^+ \rightarrow CH_4 + CO_2$ (4)

480

- Subsequent oxidation of the methane by iron reduction could supply very low δ^{13} C dissolved carbon
- 482 (Andrews et al., 1991):
- 483 $CH_4 + 2Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow HCO_3^- + 4Fe^{2+} + 3OH^-$ (5)

484

- There is clear evidence of iron reduction in the studied sections such as gley mottling, and even reduction
- spots in some nodule centres. Such features could also have been produced by anaerobic microbial oxidation
- of organic matter, using Fe³⁺ as the oxidant (Andrews et al., 1991):
- $488 3H₂O + 2Fe₂O₃ + CH₂O \rightarrow HCO₃ + 4Fe²⁺ + 7OH⁻ (6)$

- 490 The δ^{13} C of the bicarbonate produced via organic matter oxidation would reflect the δ^{13} C of the organic
- 491 matter (measured here as -25‰). Direct oxidation of the organic matter (i.e., aerobic respiration by soil zone

organisms including plant roots, fungi and invertebrates), or of biogenic methane, could obviously also occur in oxic conditions (e.g. Irwin et al., 1977):

494

495
$$CH_2O + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$$
 (7)

496 $CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O$ (8)

497

- 498 Here some carbonic acid is produced that could be used in the chemical weathering of pre-existing carbonate
- rock, or more likely in this case of calcium silicate grains from interbedded volcanic ash horizons (e.g. Berner,
- 500 1992; reaction 9):
- $501 2CO_2 + 3H_2O + CaAl_2Si_2O_8 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2HCO_3^{-} + Al_2Si_2O_5(OH)_4 (9)$

502

- Through supply of calcium ions, reaction 9 could help to drive calcite precipitation (via reaction 1). A likely
- product of this chemical weathering is kaolinite, which has been found in Lower Old Red Sandstone rocks of
- Wales (Hillier et al., 2006). Some of this kaolinite has been interpreted as potentially having survived
- diagenesis (Hillier et al., 2006), while illite, the likely product of kaolinite diagenesis, is common in the clays
- of Freshwater West (Hillier et al., 2006).

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- A key feature of all of the above processes is that they require the presence of organic matter, or at least of
- organic carbon compounds derived from breakdown of such material, within the ancient soils. Reactions 4, 5
- and 6 all take place in anoxic conditions (including waterlogged soils) and have the advantage of directly
- explaining features associated with iron reduction. Yet the calcretes examined are non-ferroan to only slightly
- ferroan, staining dominantly pink to rarely purple with Alizarin Red S and potassium ferricyanide. This
- suggests they dominantly formed under oxic conditions, with low δ^{13} C carbon liberated via oxidation of
- organic matter following reactions 7 and 8. Calcrete formation under oxic conditions is clearly also
- 516 compatible with the red colouration of these clay-rich Old Red Sandstone rocks.

- The strong and consistent signal from C_3 photosynthesis seen in the δ^{13} C of the calcretes measured, together
- with the δ^{13} C of organic matter, the lack of sulphides or sulphates, and the great abundance of carbonate
- nodules, is taken as evidence for significant organic matter oxidation in (and later de-gassing of CO₂ from)
- these ancient soils. The palaeoclimate must have been strongly seasonal. During the wet season, plant-
- associated respiration in the soils was high. When soils were waterlogged anaerobic microbial oxidation of

organic matter (plus some methanogenesis) may have occurred. These processes will have generated carbonic

acid, which in turn liberates calcium ions. Most calcrete precipitation likely took place during the dry season,

as evapotranspiration increased concentrations of calcium ions in increasingly oxic soil waters, and CO₂ de-

- gassed to the atmosphere. Because carbonic acid-rich soils enhance chemical weathering of silicate bedrock,
- 527 implicated in drawdown of atmospheric CO₂ levels (e.g. Berner 1998), this finding is of relevance to
- modelling Silurian to Devonian atmospheric pCO₂ (e.g. Lenton *et al.* 2012).

529

- 530 Calculation of palaeoatmospheric CO₂
- In the right circumstances palaeoatmospheric CO₂ concentrations can be directly estimated from pedogenic
- calcrete δ^{13} C (e.g. Cerling 1984, 1991, 1992; Driese *et al.* 1992; Andrews *et al.* 1995; Ekart *et al.* 1999; Royer
- et al. 2001; Breecker et al. 2010; Bera et al. 2010). This is because a high (palaeo-)atmospheric CO₂
- contribution to soil zone gases can result in ¹³C-rich calcretes, while high contributions from respired CO₂
- (including oxidation of isotopically light vegetation) drive δ^{13} C of pedogenic calcrete to lower values. The
- equation for estimating palaeoatmospheric pCO_2 from calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ (after Cerling 1984; 1991; Ekart *et al.*
- 537 1999) is:

538

539 $C_{air} = S(z) * (\delta^{13}C_s - 1.0044 \delta^{13}C_{\phi} - 4.4 / \delta^{13}C_{air} - \delta^{13}C_s)$ (3)

540

- where C_{air} is the calculated CO_2 concentration of the palaeoatmosphere; S(z) is the CO_2 contribution from soil
- respiration as a function of depth (z); $\delta^{13}C_s$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ of soil CO₂ (calculated from calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ using the
- temperature dependent fractionation factor of Romanek *et al.* 1992); δ^{13} C ϕ is the δ^{13} C of soil respired CO₂
- 544 (measured from contemporaneous organic carbon); and $\delta^{13}C_{air}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ of palaeoatmospheric CO_2 (here
- calculated from δ^{13} C_{org} of -25‰, assuming consistent fractionation by photosynthesis, to be -5.75‰, using
- Schaller et al., 2011). On the basis of calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ values around -5% from the Silurian Bloomsburg
- 547 Formation of North America, Mora et al. (1991) and Driese et al. (1992) concluded that Silurian to Early
- Devonian atmospheric pCO_2 was very high: above 3000 ppmV.

- In the case of the Siluro-Devonian soil carbonates described here, it is not clear that they are a suitable source
- for deducing palaeoatmospheric pCO₂. Firstly, it is recommended that calcrete samples are taken from at least
- 552 50cm depth below the palaeosurface (Royer et al., 2001). This is because in modern soils of the south western
- USA, soil carbonate δ^{13} C has been shown to be variable above this depth due to mixing of soil respired CO₂

and atmospheric CO_2 (Cerling, 1984; Ekart et al., 1999). In common with most palaeosols, it is not easy to tell whether many of the nodules described here originally formed at 50cm depth or less. This is in part because of syn-depositional movement via the self-mulching process (argillopedoturbation), as well as truncation of the A horizons (Marriott & Wright 2006). Secondly, there is considerable uncertainty over the correct value to use for S(z). An exceptionally high value of 20 000 ppmV (Royer *et al.* 2001) might be appropriate if the soils were waterlogged when most of the carbonate precipitated. In their study of Lower Cretaceous calcretes formed in seasonally waterlogged soils, Robinson et al. (2002) chose to apply an S(z) value of 10 000 ppmV. However this S(z) value was too low to allow palaeoatmospheric p CO_2 calculation from calcretes inferred to have formed in the wettest, marshy palaeoenvironments. Third, using a value for $\delta^{13}C\phi$ obtained from measurement of contemporaneous organic carbon (-25‰) ignores the possibility here of a methanogenic contribution to soil respired CO_2 . Using a lower value for $\delta^{13}C\phi$, allowing for some methanogenesis

If unaltered, our carbon isotope data would only be broadly compatible with the high Late Silurian atmospheric pCO_2 that Mora et~al.~(1991) and Driese et~al.~(1992) suggest if a very high value for S(z) applies, or if $\delta^{13}C\phi$ was lower than -25‰. For example, using our measured organic carbon $\delta^{13}C$ value of -25‰ with a micritic calcrete $\delta^{13}C$ value of -10.1‰ (Conigar Pit Sandstone Member micromilled sample) at 25 °C with an S(z) value of 20 000 ppmV yields a calculated palaeoatmospheric pCO_2 of c. 2500 ppmV. However, Breecker et al., 2010, noted that most modern calcrete precipitation in semi-arid environments occurs during dry seasons, when values of S(z) are significantly lower (c. 2500 ppmV). Using an S(z) value of 2500 ppmV, with all other parameters as above, yields a calculated palaeoatmospheric pCO_2 of just 300 ppmV. Further constraints on the correct value to use for S(z) here, and on $\delta^{13}C\phi$, are therefore required before reliable estimates of palaeoatmospheric pCO_2 can be made from these palaeosol carbonates.

Conclusions

The Moor Cliffs Formation, Freshwater West Formation and Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation all have calcrete δ^{13} C values within the range of -7 to -12‰, with an average of -10.1‰ (VPDB). The most likely source of isotopically light carbon that could have exchanged with the carbonate carbon during burial is intraformational organic matter. The carbon isotopes suggest these widespread and abundant pedogenic calcrete nodules formed principally by de-gassing of CO_2 from seasonally water-logged, organic-carbon rich soils, to the atmosphere. If these assumptions are correct then calculations of Late Silurian atmospheric pCO_2

- from our calcrete carbon isotope data could only yield results broadly consistent with those obtained from North American soils of similar age (Mora *et al.* 1991; Driese *et al.* 1992) if an exceptionally high value of 20
- 587 000 ppmV is used for S(z) in these calculations, or if our estimated value of -25% for δ^{13} C ϕ is too low.
- Relative lack of constraint on these parameters highlights a need for further research on ancient microbial processes in fossil soils.

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812	Figure Captions

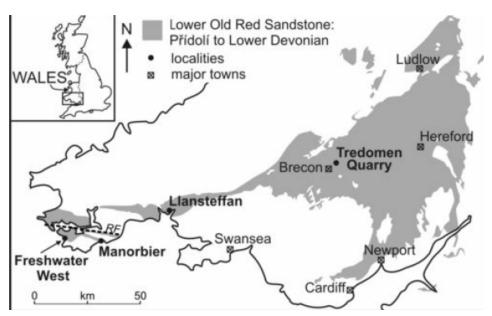


Fig. 1. Map showing the extent of the Lower Old Red Sandstone in South Wales and locations studied (Freshwater West; Manorbier; Llansteffan; and Tredomen Quarry) RF = Ritec Fault. Inset map shows the location of South Wales in the UK. Scale bar is 50 km.

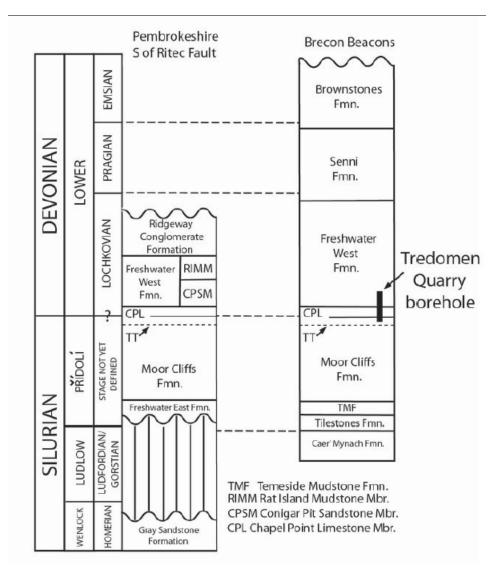


Fig. 2. Stratigraphic columns illustrating the studied formations of Lower Old Red Sandstone in Pembrokeshire and Brecon Beacons; the Moor Cliffs Formation including the Chapel Point Limestone Member (CPL) that outcrops above the Townsend Tuff (TT); the Conigar Pit Sandstone (CPSM) and Rat Island Mudstone (RIMM) Members of the Freshwater West Formation; and the Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation. The stratigraphic position of the core taken at Tredomen Quarry is also marked.

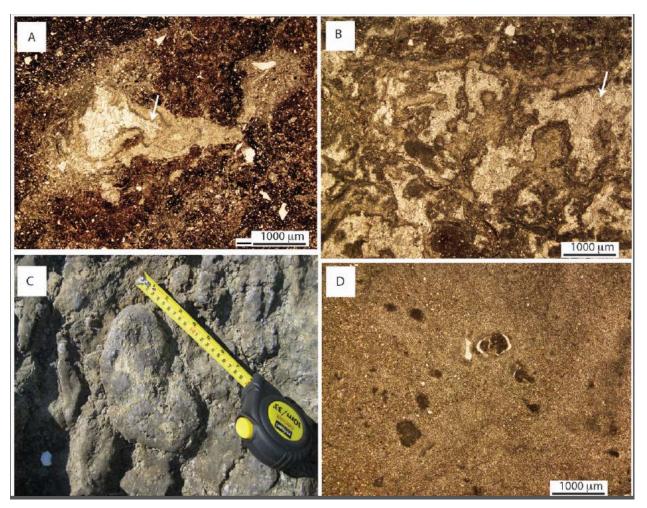


Fig. 3. Calcretes of the Moor Cliffs Formation. A) and B): Plane polarised light images of thin-section of ATB MC 5 (an elongate, 15mm long and 3mm wide nodule from Manorbier), showing irregularly-shaped patches of micrite that likely precipitated on an organic (perhaps plant root) substrate that was later (syndepositionally) oxidised, leaving a void that was infilled by clear calcite spar (arrowed). Note that the vertical lines seen in the spar near the arrow are twin planes in the calcite spar, and not evaporite pseudomorphs. C): A large, elongate (20 cm long, 10 cm wide), rounded nodule in the Chapel Point Limestone Member at Llansteffan. D): A plane polarised light image of thin-section ATB 190810-01 (a 10 cm diameter nodule from the Chapel Point Limestone Member at Llansteffan), showing the crystalline microspar mosaic and mm-sized grains coated with clotted micritic fabrics. Scale bars in A, B and D are all 1000 μm. Scale of the tape measure in C is in cm (below) and inches (top).

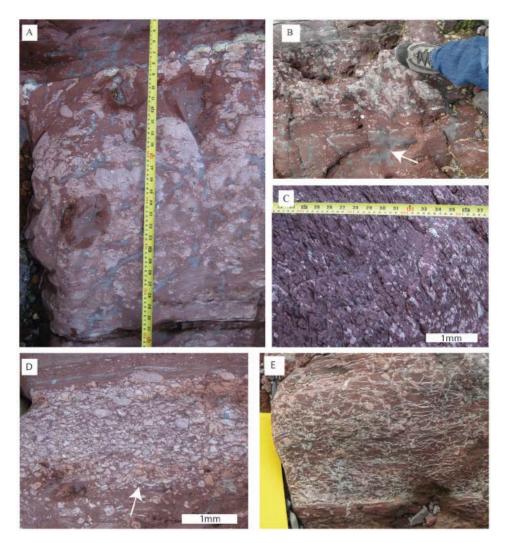


Fig. 4. Outcrop images of the Freshwater West Formation. A) Large pedogenic nodules in a palaeo-Vertisol of the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member at Manorbier (top of palaeosol is towards top of image). Scale on tape measure is in inches (right side) and centimetres (left side). B) Palaeo-Vertisol with pedogenic calcrete nodules and downward branching 'drab haloes' (arrowed) at Freshwater West. Note the palaeo-Vertisol has a gradational base and truncated top. The boot is approximately 12 cm wide. C) Smaller nodules oriented parallel to pedogenic slickensides in a Conigar Pit Sandstone Member palaeo-Vertisol at Manorbier (top of palaeosol is to the right). D) Transported calcrete nodule clasts in a Conigar Pit Sandstone Member conglomerate at Manorbier (arrow points to the base of the bed). E) Calcite-filled fractures interpreted as pedogenic crystallaria in a palaeo-Vertisol at Freshwater West. The field of view is approximately 20cm from top to bottom.

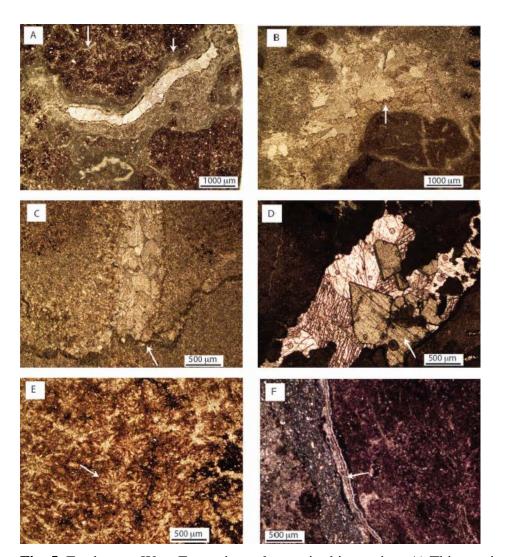


Fig. 5. Freshwater West Formation calcretes in thin-section. A) Thin-section of ATB 220810-05, a calcrete nodule from the Conigar Pit Sandstone Member at Freshwater West. Clay-rich calcitic peloids amalgamated into nodules, surrounded by central calcite spar-filled irregular and circumgranular cracks (left arrow), set in matrices of haematitic clays and sub-angular quartz grains. The margins of the largest cracks are commonly lined with a layer of dark micrite (right arrow). B) Thin-section of ATB 210810-11 (calcrete conglomerate clast cut by crystallaria, from Conigar Pit Sandstone Member at Manorbier) showing stylolites (arrowed) cutting across the circumgranular crack-filling spar. C) Thin-section of nodule ATB 220810-09 (Rat Island Mudstone Member at Freshwater West) showing a uniform crystalline appearance. The matrix is cut by stylolites (arrowed) and millimeter-scale 'veinlets' of sparry calcite. D) Thin-section of nodule ATB 190810-7 from a conglomerate in the Freshwater West Formation at Llansteffan, revealing spherulitic calcitic microspar. A spherulite is arrowed. F) Laminar calcite crust of c. 100 microns thickness and c. 5mm length (arrowed)

around the outside of the spherulitic clast shown in D. Scale bars in A and B are $1000~\mu m$. Scale bars in C to F are $500~\mu m$.

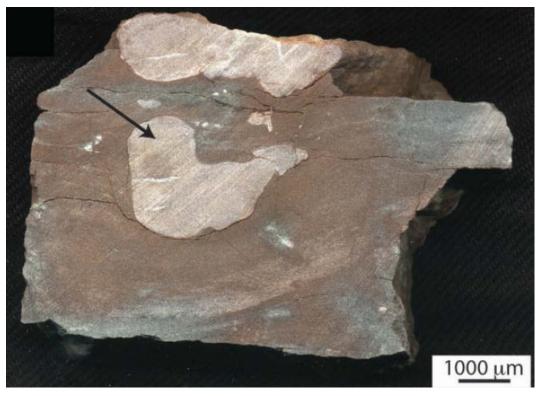


Fig. 6. Calcrete nodule from Tredomen Quarry Core SO13SW/3 (BGS). A cut hand-specimen of nodule 1 is shown (arrowed; scale bar is $1000 \, \mu m$).

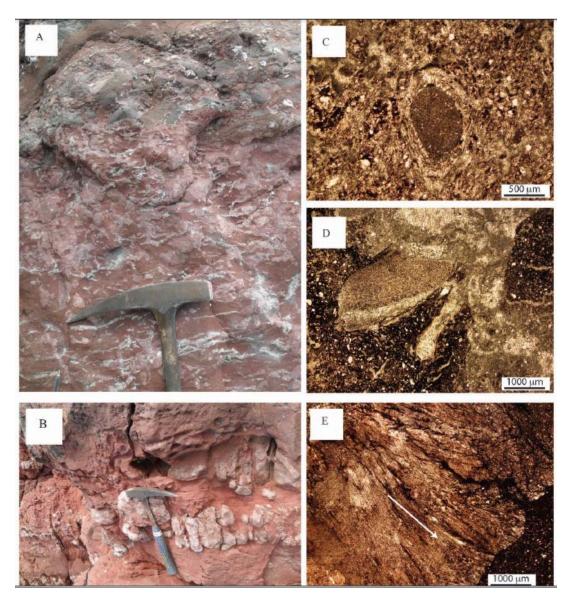


Fig. 7. Calcretes of the Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation at Freshwater West. A) Calcrete nodules and crystallaria in a palaeo-Vertisol that is interbedded with alluvial fan conglomerates. B) Large, 10cm long and layer-bound (groundwater calcrete?) nodules near the top of the Ridgeway Conglomerate Formation at Freshwater West. C) A thin-section of nodule ATB 220810-11 revealing millimetre-sized dark micritic peloids coated in c. 100 micron-thick layers of calcitic microspar. D) Patches of clear spar that infilled millimeter-sized irregular cavities (burrows?) or cracks in thin-section ATB 220810-11. E) Image of thin-section ATB 220810-13, from a very large c. 20 cm diameter nodule, part composed of curved columnar calcite crystals These grew out from a reduction spot in the centre of the nodule (not visible in this image) into the surrounding clay-rich matrix (arrow shows the direction of crystal growth). Hammer head for scale in A and B is 17 cm wide; Scale bar in C is 500 μm, and 1000 μm in D and E.

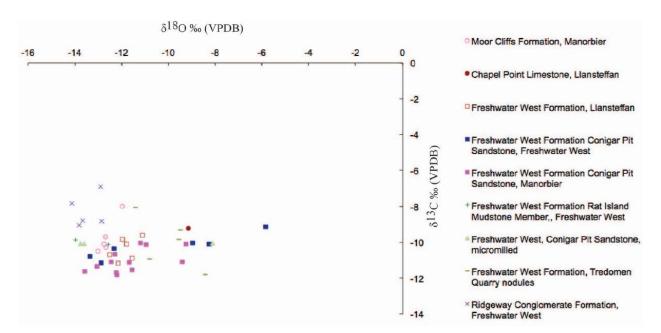


Fig. 8. Cross-plot of carbon and oxygen isotopes for all calcrete samples measured. Overall calcrete δ^{13} C values range from ca. -12‰ to -6.9‰, and δ^{18} O ranges from ca. -14‰ to -5.8‰.

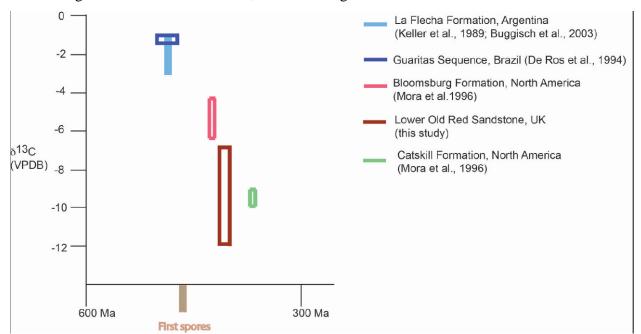


Fig. 9. Carbon isotopic compositions of selected Cambrian to Carboniferous calcretes. Very few data have been published on late Cambrian to Silurian calcrete carbon isotopes (shown here). A representative selection of data from Devonian and Carboniferous calcretes is given in this figure. This plot shows a transition from calcretes with carbon isotopic compositions close to 0 per mil in the Late Cambrian, to calcretes with low δ^{13} C (VPDB) compositions by the Late Silurian. This likely reflects different and evolving causes of

carbonate precipitation in terrestrial environments (e.g. 'common-ion effect' versus organic matter oxidation and CO₂ degassing).