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Spatio-temporal evolution of ocean redox and nitrogen cycling in the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean

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Abstract

The early Cambrian was a critical interval for the Earth system, during which a rise in oceanic and atmospheric oxygen levels coincided with the rapid diversification of metazoans. A variety of contrasting models have been proposed for the spatiotemporal redox evolution of the early Cambrian ocean. These include the development of a well-oxygenated deep ocean at the base of Cambrian Stage 3 (commencing at ~521 Ma), or alternatively, persistent and widespread anoxic (ferruginous) conditions throughout the early Cambrian

1 23 ocean. Here, we present redox sensitive trace element (RSTE), Fe speciation,
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3 24 and N and C isotope ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) data for samples from a section
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6 25 (Zhongnancun) of the early Cambrian Niutitang Formation, which was
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9 26 deposited on the outer-shelf of the Yangtze Block, South China. The Fe
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12 27 speciation and RSTE data provide evidence of a transition from euxinic,
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15 28 through ferruginous, to oxic conditions during deposition of the Niutitang
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18 29 Formation. The combination of these new data with existing data from the
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21 30 inner-shelf to basin environment, implies regional redox stratification across
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23
24 31 the Yangtze Block during Cambrian stages 2 and 3, with oxic shallow waters
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27 32 above ferruginous deep waters, and spatial variability in the degree of
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30 33 mid-depth euxinia. Oxygenation of deeper waters may have occurred by early
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33 34 Cambrian Stage 4 (~514 Ma). A compilation of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values from multiple early
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36 35 Cambrian sections of the Yangtze Block indicate that N_2 fixation dominated the
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39 36 nitrogen cycle during late Cambrian Stage 2. Low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ($< -2\text{‰}$)
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42 37 preserved in shelf sections can be interpreted to represent partial assimilation
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45 38 of NH_4^+ , where NH_4^+ was not a limiting nutrient. During the early-middle
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48 39 Cambrian Stage 3, more positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (0 to $+3\text{‰}$) are recorded in shelf
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51 40 sections, with lower values (-2 to $+2\text{‰}$) recorded in slope-basin sections. The
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54 41 positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values observed in shelf sections are likely a consequence of
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57 42 partial denitrification in the water column, whereas coeval deeper water $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
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60 43 values of $\sim 0\text{‰}$ may reflect the dominance of N_2 fixation. The distribution of
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63 44 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, combined with a gradient in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values, are consistent with a
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1 45 stratified ocean model. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of all sections are lower than those of
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3 46 the modern ocean, which may indicate that the nitrate concentration of the
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6 47 early Cambrian Yangtze ocean was generally low during Cambrian Stage 3.
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9 48 The observed gradient in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values is similar to that observed in records
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12 49 from Mesoproterozoic oceans, suggesting that abundant nitrate availability
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15 50 may have been restricted to shelf environments. We propose that increased
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18 51 nitrogen availability in shelf settings may have contributed to the evolution of
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21 52 large-celled eukaryotic phytoplankton. This provided a positive feedback on
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24 53 ocean oxygenation, allowing for increased complexity in early animal
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27 54 ecosystems on the continental shelf, and ultimately deep water oxygenation.
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31 **Key words:** Nitrogen isotopes; Redox conditions; Nitrogen cycle; Early
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34 57 Cambrian; South China.
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39 59 **1. Introduction**

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42 60 The early Cambrian (~529 - 514 Ma, late Fortunian to early Stage 4)
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45 61 encompasses an interval of major evolutionary innovation, including the rapid
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48 62 diversification of crown group Metazoa, against a backdrop of global climatic
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51 63 instability and variability in the chemical composition of the oceans and
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54 64 atmosphere (Krause et al., 2018; He et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2019). Perhaps
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56
57 65 most significantly, Cambrian Stage 3 in South China includes the radiation of
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1 67 Chengjiang Lagerstätte (Wood et al., 2019). This interval also immediately
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3 68 precedes the global Sinsk extinction event (Zhuravlev and Wood, 1996; He et
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6 69 al., 2019).

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9 70 The number of studies attempting to more precisely constrain the spatial and
10
11 71 temporal redox evolution of the early Cambrian ocean has increased in recent
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13 72 years. Multiple studies have focused on platform to basin reconstructions of
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15 73 the Yangtze Block (South China) with integrated sequence stratigraphy,
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17 74 resulting in broad spatial constraints on the redox evolution of these
18
19 75 depositional environments. During the early Cambrian there is widespread
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21 76 evidence for anoxic ferruginous conditions, as constrained by a number of
22
23 77 different proxies, including Fe speciation (Goldberg et al., 2007; Canfield et al.,
24
25 78 2008; Och et al., 2016; Li et al. 2017; Hammarlund et al., 2017),
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27 79 redox-sensitive trace elements (Xu et al., 2012; Jin et al., 2016), and sulfur
28
29 80 isotope compositions (Feng et al., 2014). A stepwise expansion of oxic water
30
31 81 column conditions from shallow to deep settings is then recorded across the
32
33 82 Yangtze Block through Cambrian Stages 2 to 4, albeit with continued evidence
34
35 83 for locally ferruginous conditions in deeper water settings (Li et al. 2017;
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37 84 Hammarlund et al., 2017). The preservation of near-modern seawater $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$
38
39 85 values ($\sim 2.34\text{‰}$) recorded in black shales, however, has been used as
40
41 86 evidence of an expanded oxic sink for Mo in the global oceans by Cambrian
42
43 87 Stage 3 (~ 521 Ma, Chen et al., 2015; Wen et al., 2015). Wang et al. (2018)
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45 88 suggested that oxygenation of the deep ocean occurred during Cambrian
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1 89 Stage 3, based on a comprehensive N isotope dataset from the Yangtze Block.

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3 90 One of the main challenges associated with interpreting geochemical redox
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6 91 proxies relates to discriminating between local and global conditions, and
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9 92 combining both temporal and spatial variability. Recently, geochemical and
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12 93 paleontological data from multiple stratigraphic sections were integrated in a
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14
15 94 sequence stratigraphic framework to reconstruct spatio-temporal redox
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18 95 evolution along a Cambrian basin margin sequence from the Baltic Sea
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20 96 ([Guilbaud et al. 2018](#)). In their study, [Guilbaud et al. \(2018\)](#) argued for the
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23 97 development of an oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) along a productive
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26 98 continental margin. A euxinic wedge could be dynamically maintained above
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29 99 deeper ferruginous waters, if sufficient sulfate and organic matter were
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32 100 available ([Poulton et al., 2010](#); [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#); [Li et al., 2018](#)). The
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35 101 OMZ model has also been applied to stratigraphic sequences from the
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38 102 Yangtze Block (e.g. [Hammarlund et al. 2017](#)). However, there has been limited
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41 103 evaluation as to the spatial extent of this redox architecture across the Yangtze
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44 104 Block, or higher order stratification with respect to intermediate redox states (in
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47 105 addition to oxic, anoxic and euxinic conditions). For example, aerobic
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50 106 conditions in the surface ocean may have overlain deeper nitrogenous waters,
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53 107 with manganoous ([Tostevin et al., 2016](#)) and then ferruginous water column
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56 108 conditions below, as electron acceptors were utilized in order of their energy
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59 109 yield during organic carbon remineralization.

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65 110 Iron speciation ([Poulton and Canfield, 2005](#)) is a particularly robust proxy

1 111 used for reconstructing local depositional redox conditions (e.g., [Poulton et al.,](#)
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3 112 [2004; Canfield et al., 2007; Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)). When combined with
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6 113 redox-sensitive trace element (RSTE) concentrations and ratios ([Tribovillard et](#)
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8
9 114 [al., 2006; Algeo and Rowe, 2012](#)), a detailed characterisation of the precise
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11 115 nature of ocean redox chemistry can be achieved. In addition, nitrogen
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14 116 isotopes ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) are sensitive to productivity in the photic zone, and the isotopic
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17 117 signature of biomass produced in the photic zone may ultimately be preserved
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20 118 in sediments. The redox structure of the ocean exerts a strong control on the
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23 119 speciation of dissolved inorganic nitrogen, with NO_3^- being stable in oxic
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26 120 waters and NH_4^+ being stable in anoxic waters ([Ader et al., 2016](#)). As such,
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28 121 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values are increasingly being utilized in studies of seawater paleoredox in
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31 122 both the Phanerozoic and Precambrian (e.g. [Algeo et al., 2008; Godfrey and](#)
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33
34 123 [Falkowski, 2009; Higgins et al., 2012; Godfrey et al., 2013; Stüeken, 2013;](#)
35
36 124 [Ader et al., 2016; Stüeken et al., 2016; Zerkle et al., 2017](#)).

39 125 In this study, we report Fe speciation, RSTE, $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values from
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42 126 a new outer-shelf outcrop section of Cambrian stratigraphy from the Yangtze
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45 127 Block. We compile our new data with previously published data from
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48 128 correlative sections, to present a more comprehensive model for the spatial
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51 129 and temporal evolution of nitrogen cycling in the early Cambrian Yangtze
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54 130 ocean. Subsequently, we evaluate possible links between nitrogen availability,
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56 131 marine paleoredox and biological evolution during this key interval of Earth
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58
59 132 history.

133

2. Geological setting

135 Neoproterozoic and early Cambrian marine sedimentary rocks are well
136 preserved in the Yangtze Block, South China. According to palaeomagnetic
137 records, South China was at low-latitudes during the early Cambrian (Merdith
138 et al., 2017). Paleogeographic reconstructions show that the environmental
139 setting of the Yangtze Block comprised platform facies, a transition zone, and
140 slope to basin facies, as illustrated in Fig. 1 (Steiner et al., 2001; Jiang et al.,
141 2012). The lower Cambrian Niutitang Formation and equivalent strata
142 unconformably overly the upper Ediacaran Dengying Formation. The
143 Niutitang Formation is dominantly comprised of black shale, but the lower
144 parts of the Formation contain bedded phosphorite, barite, and thick units (up
145 to tens of meters) of "stone coal" (combustible shale of algal origin, Xu et al.,
146 2012). Furthermore, in Guizhou and Hunan Province, an organic-rich, Ni-Mo
147 sulfide layer with a maximum thickness of 30 cm is used as a marker horizon
148 for the lowermost part of the Niutitang Formation (Jiang et al., 2006; Xu et al.,
149 2012). Previous studies have evaluated the thermal maturity of organic matter
150 to show the Niutitang Formation has only undergone sub-greenschist
151 (prehnite-pumpellyite) facies metamorphism (Křibek et al., 2007).

152 The Zhongnancun section in this study is located in Zunyi city, Guizhou
153 province (N 27°41'21.4", E 106°40'67.0"), and paleo-geographically lies in the
154 transition zone (outer-shelf) (Fig. 1, Pi et al., 2013). The Niutitang Formation

1 155 at this section has been divided into 3 intervals according to lithostratigraphic
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3
4 156 analysis. Interval 1 contains a variety of rock types, including brownish to
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6 157 black, siliceous phosphorite (~65 cm in thickness), a K-bentonite layer
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9 158 interbedded with black chert (~20 cm in thickness), carbonaceous chert
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12 159 interbedded with black shale (~1.70 m in thickness), and carbonaceous shale
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15 160 (~2.90 m in thickness). The K-bentonite layer at the Zhongnancun section has
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17 161 been dated using the SHRIMP U-Pb method to 532.3 ± 0.7 Ma ([Jiang et al.,](#)
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19
20 162 [2009](#)). The phosphorite deposits and nodules hosted by Lower Cambrian
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22
23 163 shale across the Yangtze Block may have resulted from the interaction of
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25 164 upwelling P-replete water with oxygenated surface waters ([Wille et al., 2008](#)).
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28 165 The origin of the widespread Ediacaran-Cambrian (E-C) chert deposits in the
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31 166 Yangtze block has recently been revealed by silicon isotopes, indicating that
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34 167 seawater was the primary silica source of the cherts ([Gao et al., 2020](#)).

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36 168 The base of Interval 2 is marked by the aforementioned Ni-Mo sulfide layer
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39 169 (~15 cm thick), which is considered to belong to Cambrian Stage 2 based on
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41
42 170 biostratigraphic data ([Steiner et al., 2001](#)). A Re-Os isochron age of 521 ± 5
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45 171 Ma has been reported for the sulfide ore from three mining sites (Sancha in
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47
48 172 Hunan province, and Dazhuliushui and Maluhe in Guizhou province) ([Xu et al.,](#)
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50 173 [2011](#)), confirming the biostratigraphic age. The Ni-Mo sulfide layer is
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53 174 considered to have been deposited under euxinic conditions ([Lehmann et al.,](#)
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56 175 [2007; Steiner et al., 2001](#)) but the origin of the metal enrichment is debated.
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59 176 Previous studies have suggested that the sulfide layer may be a product of
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1 177 hydrothermal venting (Steiner et al., 2001; Jiang et al., 2006) versus
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3 178 scavenging from seawater by organic matter (Lehmann et al., 2007; Xu et al.,
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5
6 179 2011). The potential effects of volcanic input on early Cambrian black shale
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9 180 and sulfide ore of South China has been indicated by mercury isotopes,
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11 181 suggesting that Hg in these rocks mainly originated from seawater (Yin et al.,
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14 182 2017). The remainder of Interval 2 consists of ~16 m of black shale, overlain
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17 183 by Interval 3, which is dominated by dark gray to black silty shale with a
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20 184 thickness of ~12 m.
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25 186 **3. Materials and methods**

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28 187 A total of 39 samples (~1 kg each) were collected from the lower Cambrian
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31 188 Niutitang Formation at the Zhongnancun outcrop section, including three chert
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34 189 samples, one sulfide ore sample and 35 shale samples. These samples were
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37 190 carefully trimmed to remove possible weathered surfaces. Approximately 300
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39 191 – 500 g of remaining material from each sample was then crushed to a fine
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42 192 powder (<74 μm) using an agate mortar.
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45 193 Total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations were determined on a LECO
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48 194 CS-230 carbon and sulfur analyzer at the Geochemistry Laboratory of Yangtze
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51 195 University. Prior to analysis, samples were subjected to a pre-leach in 6 M HCl
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54 196 for 24 hrs, in order to remove carbonate. Major and trace elements were
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56 197 analyzed using XRF (AB104L, AL104, AxiosmAX) and ICP-MS (PerkinElmer,
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59 198 Elan DCR-e), respectively, at the Beijing Research Institute of Uranium
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1 199 Geology. Detailed descriptions of the methods have been published by [Gao et](#)
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3 [al. \(2015\)](#). For ICP-MS analysis, approximately 50 mg of powdered samples
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6 201 were treated with a solution mixture of 2 ml HNO₃, 3 ml HF and 1 ml HCl at
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9 202 150°C. After drying, the residues were treated with 1 ml HNO₃ and 3 ml HF at
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12 203 180°C for 48 h. After samples were dissolved, each solution was cooled and
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15 204 0.5 ml HClO₄ (70%) was used to oxidize organic matter. After evaporation,
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18 205 residues were re-dissolved in 2 ml HNO₃ for analysis. Analytical errors are
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21 206 generally better than 10% for Fe_T and Al, and ±5% for trace elements. Trace
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24 207 metal enrichment factors (Mo_{EF} and U_{EF}) were calculated using the formula:
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26 208 $X_{EF} = (X/Al)_{\text{sample}} / (X/Al)_{\text{AUCC}}$, where X = Mo or U, and AUCC refers to the
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28
29 209 composition of average upper continental crust ([McLennan, 2001](#)).

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31 210 Iron speciation was conducted to reconstruct water column palaeoredox
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34 211 conditions. Highly reactive iron (Fe_{HR}) was determined as the sum of four
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37 212 operationally-defined pools, predominantly comprising pyrite Fe (Fe_{py}),
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40 213 carbonate-associated Fe (Fe_{carb}), ferric oxide Fe (Fe_{ox}), and magnetite Fe
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43 214 (Fe_{mag}) ([Poulton et al., 2004](#); [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)). Fe_{carb}, Fe_{ox} and
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45
46 215 Fe_{mag} were determined via the sequential extraction procedure of [Poulton and](#)
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48
49 216 [Canfield \(2005\)](#). Approximately 100 mg of sample powder was first subjected
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51
52 217 to a sodium acetate leach (buffered to pH = 4.5 with acetic acid) at 50 °C for 48
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55 218 hours for the extraction of Fe_{carb}. The sample residue was then leached in
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57
58 219 sodium dithionite (50 g/L sodium dithionite, 58.82 g/l sodium citrate and 20 ml/l
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61 220 acetic acid) at room temperature for 2 hours, to extract Fe_{ox}. Finally, the
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1 221 remaining solid sample was treated with ammonium oxalate solution (0.2 M
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3 222 ammonium oxalate and 0.17 M oxalic acid) at room temperature for 6 hours, to
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6 223 extract Fe_{mag} . All extraction solutions were measured at the Beijing Research
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8
9 224 Institute of Uranium Geology by atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS), with
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11 225 RSDs of <5% for Fe in all fractions. Fe_{py} was calculated from the pyrite sulfur
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14 226 extracted as an Ag_2S precipitate following the chromium reduction method
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17 227 ([Canfield et al., 1986](#)).

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20 228 Organic carbon and nitrogen isotope ratios were measured using a Thermo
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22 229 Finnigan MAT 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer interfaced to a Flash EA
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24
25 230 2000 elemental analyzer and a ConFlo IV continuous flow interface at the
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27
28 231 Beijing Research Institute of Uranium Geology. For organic carbon isotope
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31 232 measurements, 50 – 100 mg of sample was weighed and digested in 2 mol/L
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34 233 HCl to ensure complete carbonate removal. Residues were washed with
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37 234 distilled water to remove chlorides and dried at 70°C for 8 h. The decalcified
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40 235 sample powder was then weighed into tin capsules for organic carbon isotope
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42 236 measurements. Carbon isotope values ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) are reported in per mil relative
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45 237 to the international VPDB (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite) standard. The
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48 238 analytical uncertainties were monitored by two international standards
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50 239 (USGS40, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -26.39\text{‰}$; IAEA-600, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -24.8\text{‰}$) and a China national
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53 240 standard (GSW04407, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -22.43\text{‰}$), with replicate analyses yielding a
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56 241 standard deviation of $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$.

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58 242 Samples for N isotope analysis were first analyzed for their total nitrogen
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1 243 content (TN). Only those samples with TN >0.012 mg (>0.006%) were
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3 244 considered to provide reliable nitrogen isotope results (Wang et al., 2015).
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6 245 Approximately 30 – 150 mg of each bulk sample powder was weighed into a tin
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9 246 capsule and a carbon-absorbing trap was used in the EA to avoid interferences
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11 247 during the analysis due to the low N content and high C content of the marine
12
13 248 shale samples. The nitrogen isotopic composition of sedimentary rocks
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15 249 ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$) is reported in per mil relative to atmospheric N_2 . The analytical
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17 250 uncertainties were monitored by three international standards (USGS40, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
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22 251 = -4.52‰ ; IAEA-600, $\delta^{15}\text{N} = +1.0\text{‰}$; IAEA-N-2, $\delta^{15}\text{N} = +20.3\text{‰}$) with replicate
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25 252 analyses yielding a standard deviation of $\pm 0.4\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.
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31 254 4. Results

32
33 255 Nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$) and organic carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) isotopes, total organic
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35 256 carbon (TOC), total nitrogen (TN), Fe speciation, and redox-sensitive trace
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37 257 element (e.g. Mo, U, V) concentrations from the outer-shelf Zhongnancun
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39 258 section are presented in Table S1, and selected stratigraphic trends are
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41
42 259 illustrated in Fig. 2.
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47 260 Three chert samples, eight black shale samples and one sulfide ore sample
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50 261 were analysed from Interval 1. The three chert samples contain relatively low
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52 262 TOC, TN and RSTE concentrations, ranging from 0.82 to 1.21 wt.% (mean =
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54
55 263 1.03 wt.%) for TOC, from 0.05 to 0.09 wt.% (mean = 0.07 wt.%) for TN, from
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58 264 4.1 to 4.8 ppm (mean = 4.5 ppm) for U, from 101 to 480 ppm (mean = 297 ppm)
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1 265 for V, and from 6.8 to 18.5 ppm (mean = 12.2 ppm) for Mo. The Fe_T
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3 266 concentrations for chert samples range from 0.68 to 0.76 wt.%, the Fe_{HR}/Fe_T
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5
6 267 and Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} values range from 0.28 to 0.41 and 0.04 to 0.05, respectively.
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8

9 268 The black shales from Interval 1 are characterized by higher TOC, TN and
10
11 269 RSTE concentrations. The TOC values range from 4.27 to 12.08 wt. (mean =
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13
14 270 7.69 wt.%), TN values range from 0.09 to 0.16 wt.% (mean = 0.12 wt.%), U
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17 271 concentrations range from 23.8 to 112 ppm (mean = 40.0 ppm), V
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20 272 concentrations range from 1211 to 4872 ppm (mean = 2594 ppm), and Mo
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22
23 273 concentrations range from 74.3 to 208 ppm (mean = 119 ppm). The Mo/TOC
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25
26 274 ratios are between 8 and 21 (mean = 17). The sulfide ore sample preserves
27
28 275 high TOC (10.72 wt.%), TN (0.12 wt.%) and RSTE concentrations (41850 ppm
29
30
31 276 for Mo, 612 ppm for V, and 120 ppm for U), with a high Mo/TOC ratio (3904).
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33
34 277 The Fe_T concentrations for shale samples range from 1.76 to 11.50 wt.%, and
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37 278 Fe_{HR}/Fe_T and Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} values for black shales range from 0.67 to 0.89 and
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39 279 0.66 to 0.85, respectively. The δ¹³C_{org} values in Interval 1 preserve a
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41
42 280 prominent negative excursion from -31.2‰ down to a nadir of -33.8‰. Values
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44
45 281 for δ¹⁵N_{sed} are between +1.2 to -0.6‰, with the exception of a prominent outlier
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47
48 282 at -4.2‰.

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50 283 In comparison to Interval 1, black shale samples of Interval 2 generally
51
52
53 284 preserve lower TOC (with the exception of two samples at the bottom of this
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55
56 285 interval), TN and RSTE concentrations. Total organic carbon concentrations
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58
59 286 are in the range 3.14 to 15.56 wt.% (mean = 5.39 wt.%), and TN ranges from
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1 287 0.06 to 0.13 wt.% (mean = 0.09 wt.%). The concentration of U is in the range
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3 288 19.2 to 68.6 ppm (average = 29.9 ppm), V ranges from 362 ppm to 1453 ppm
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6 289 (mean = 972 ppm), Mo ranges from 7.3 ppm to 125 ppm (mean = 41.1 ppm),
7
8
9 290 and Mo/TOC is in the range 2 to 15 ppm/wt% (mean = 7 ppm/wt%). The Fe_T
10
11 291 concentrations range from 0.78 to 2.32 wt.%, and Fe_{HR}/Fe_T and Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR}
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13
14 292 ratios range from 0.38 to 0.88 and 0.01 to 0.72, respectively. Values for δ¹³C_{org}
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16
17 293 initially increase following the negative excursion exhibited in Interval 1, from
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20 294 -32.1 to -29.6‰, before decreasing once more to -31.4‰ near the top of
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22
23 295 Interval 2. Values for δ¹⁵N_{sed} vary between +0.6 and +2.7‰, and exhibit an
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25
26 296 overall positive excursion in this interval.

27
28 297 Silty black shales of Interval 3 preserve the lowest TOC, TN and RSTE
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31 298 concentrations of the three intervals. The TOC concentrations range from 1.32
32
33
34 299 to 2.73 wt.% (mean = 1.98 wt.%), and TN values range from 0.06 to 0.11 wt.%
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37 300 (mean = 0.09 wt.%). The concentration of U is in the range 15.2 to 27.3 ppm
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40 301 (mean = 19.0 ppm), V ranges from 252 to 856 ppm (mean = 446 ppm), Mo
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43 302 ranges from 4.5 to 14.8 ppm (mean = 8.6 ppm), and the Mo/TOC ratio is in the
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45
46 303 range 3 – 6 ppm/wt% (mean = 4 ppm/wt%). The Fe_T concentrations range
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49 304 from 1.25 to 2.46 wt.%, and Fe_{HR}/Fe_T and Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} values range from 0.21 to
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51
52 305 0.48 and 0.11 to 0.42, respectively. Values for δ¹³C_{org} in Interval 3 are
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54
55 306 relatively invariant, and range from -30.5 to -30.0‰, whilst δ¹⁵N_{sed} decreases
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58 307 from +1.1 to +0.2‰.

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5. Discussion

5.1. Palaeoredox evolution of the early Cambrian Nanhua Basin

The ratio Fe_{HR}/Fe_T , together with the extent of sulfidation of the highly reactive iron pool (Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR}), can provide valuable information about local bottom water redox conditions (e.g. [Poulton et al., 2004](#); [Canfield et al., 2008](#); [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)). Generally, Fe_{HR}/Fe_T ratios > 0.38 suggest anoxic water column conditions, with ratios < 0.22 providing strong support for oxic depositional conditions ([Raiswell and Canfield, 1998](#); [Raiswell et al., 2001](#); [Poulton and Raiswell, 2002](#); [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)). Enrichments in Fe_{HR} (i.e. $Fe_{HR}/Fe_T > 0.38$) commonly occur under anoxic conditions due to water column precipitation of either Fe sulfide minerals (in euxinic settings) or non-sulfidized Fe minerals (in anoxic ferruginous settings) ([Canfield et al., 1996](#); [Raiswell and Canfield, 1998](#); [Poulton et al., 2004](#); [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)). Fe_{HR}/Fe_T ratios between 0.22 – 0.38 are considered equivocal due to the potential dilution of Fe_{HR} enrichments either as a consequence of rapid sedimentation or post-depositional transfer of unsulphidized Fe_{HR} to Fe-rich clay minerals during early diagenesis (e.g. [Poulton and Raiswell, 2002](#); [Poulton et al., 2010](#)). In such cases, additional insight into depositional redox conditions may be gained from Fe/Al ratios and RSTE systematics (e.g. [Doyle et al., 2018](#)). For sediments deposited under anoxic water column conditions, Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} ratios of < 0.7 and $> 0.7-0.8$ are commonly used to distinguish between ferruginous and euxinic conditions, respectively (e.g.

1 331 Poulton et al., 2004; Poulton and Canfield, 2011; Raiswell and Canfield,
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3 332 2012). It is necessary to carefully consider the lithology when applying Fe
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6 333 based redox proxies (Raiswell et al. 2018). For lithologies where clastic input
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9 334 has been diluted (e.g. carbonates, cherts) threshold values for total iron and
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11 335 organic carbon (> 0.5% for both) have been proposed as minimum
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13 336 requirements for using the iron-based redox proxies (e.g. Clarkson et al.,
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15 337 2014; Raiswell et al. 2018). The Fe_T and TOC concentrations in all samples
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17 338 from this study are greater than 0.5%, indicating that the iron speciation proxy
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22 339 is a valid approach for reconstructing depositional paleoredox conditions.

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25 340 At the Zhongnancun section, black shale samples from Interval 1 have
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27 341 elevated Fe_{HR}/Fe_T (0.67-0.89), with generally high Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} (0.66-0.85),
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29 342 which is consistent with anoxic water column conditions, and at least
30
31 343 intermittent euxinia. Elevated Fe_{HR}/Fe_T and a decrease in Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} supports
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33 344 a shift to dominantly ferruginous conditions up-section into Interval 2 (Fig. 2).
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35 345 Samples from Interval 3 have Fe_{HR}/Fe_T ratios that fall in the equivocal zone
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37 346 (except for one sample at 33.4 m, where $Fe_{HR}/Fe_T = 0.48$), and we thus utilize
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39 347 RSTE systematics to provide additional insight into water column redox
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42 348 conditions during deposition of these samples.

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45 349 The degree to which Mo, U and V are enriched in organic-rich mudstones
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47 350 (ORMs), alongside co-variation in total organic carbon (TOC), can be
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49 351 effectively used to track both depositional paleoredox conditions and the size
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52 352 of seawater trace metal reservoirs (Algeo and Lyons, 2006; Anbar et al., 2007;
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1 353 [Scott et al., 2008](#); [Sahoo et al., 2012](#)). Starting with samples from Interval 1
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3 354 ([Fig. 2](#)), the high level of Mo enrichment (mean for black shale samples = 119
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5
6 355 ppm) is consistent with the presented Fe speciation data, and suggests
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8
9 356 dominantly euxinic conditions (e.g. [Scott and Lyons, 2012](#)). However, the
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11 357 co-variation between Mo and TOC is not particularly strong ($R^2 = 0.41$; [Fig.](#)
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13 358 [3a](#)), which might be consistent with variable water column H₂S concentrations,
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15
16 359 since persistently high H₂S is required to effectively draw down Mo
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18
19 360 ([Tribovillard et al., 2006](#)). Indeed, variability in H₂S concentrations would be
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21
22 361 consistent with our Fe speciation data, whereby some of the Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} ratios
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24
25 362 fall slightly below the 0.7 threshold for robust identification of water column
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27
28 363 euxinia, implying more limited sulfide availability. As with Mo, however,
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31 364 enrichments in V (612 to 4872 ppm, average 2373 ppm) for ORMs from
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33
34 365 Interval 1 ([Fig. 2](#)) are consistent with generally euxinic water column
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37 366 conditions ([Tribovillard et al., 2006](#)).

38
39 367 The Mo and TOC enrichments in Interval 2 remain high, but are lower than
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41
42 368 those of Interval 1 ([Fig. 2](#)), consistent with the interpretation of anoxic
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44
45 369 ferruginous conditions from Fe speciation data. Uranium is not commonly
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48 370 enriched under oxic/dysoxic conditions, but is instead present primarily as
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51 371 carbonate complexes that are chemically unreactive (see references in [Algeo](#)
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53 372 [and Tribovillard, 2009](#)). Strong U enrichment does, however, occur under
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56 373 anoxic conditions, where enrichments commonly show a positive correlation
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59 374 with TOC ([Fig. 3b](#); [Algeo and Tribovillard, 2009](#)). By contrast, the positive
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1 375 correlation ($R^2 = 0.66$) between Mo and TOC, together with relatively low Mo
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3 376 concentrations (9 ± 5 ppm; [Fig. 3a](#)), provides evidence that Mo was
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6 377 sequestered in association with organic matter in an oxic or dysoxic
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9 378 environment during deposition of Interval 3 ([Scott et al., 2008](#)), which
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11 379 suggests that the Fe_{HR}/Fe_T ratios of <0.38 ([Fig. 2](#)) are indeed recording
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14 380 oxic/dysoxic water column conditions.

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17 381 Co-variation between Mo and U in marine basins can provide an additional
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19
20 382 level of interpretation concerning trace element enrichment mechanisms and
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23 383 possible water mass restriction (e.g. [Tribovillard et al., 2006](#); [Algeo and](#)
24
25 384 [Tribovillard, 2009](#)). Molybdenum and U enrichment factors from the
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27
28 385 Zhongnancun section are largely consistent with the pattern observed in the
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30
31 386 modern open ocean ([Fig. 4](#)). Samples from Interval 1 exhibit high Mo_{EF} , U_{EF}
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33
34 387 and Mo/U ratios, which support sedimentary enrichment of Mo and U from a
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37 388 dominantly euxinic water column. Samples from Interval 2 preserve lower
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40 389 concentrations of Mo and U, and some samples have elevated Mo/U ratios
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42
43 390 relative to the modern open ocean trend, which may suggest a weak
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45 391 particulate shuttle ([Algeo and Tribovillard, 2009](#)). The preferential
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47
48 392 complexation of Mo with Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides can lead to the enhanced
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50
51 393 transfer of Mo into sediments, thereby resulting in elevated Mo/U ratios
52
53 394 ([Algeo and Tribovillard, 2009](#)). This particulate shuttle effect is most
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55
56 395 pronounced where the oxic – anoxic chemocline is located close to the
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59 396 sediment water interface (e.g. modern Baltic Sea, [Scholz et al., 2013](#)).

1 397 The relative importance of the particulate shuttle for Mo enrichment can be
2
3 398 assessed from Mo_{EF} and U_{EF} data compiled for multiple lower Cambrian
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6 399 sections (Fig. 4). The lowest Mo_{EF} , U_{EF} and Mo/U ratios are found in samples
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8
9 400 from Interval 3, supporting oxic/suboxic conditions. However, it is worth noting
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11 401 that the Mo enrichment associated with the Fe-Mn oxyhydroxide particulate
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14 402 shuttle may also complicate the interpretation of Mo and TOC co-variation
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16
17 403 (Magnall et al. 2018), and may be an alternative explanation for the lack of
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20 404 correlation between Mo and TOC in Intervals 1 and 2.

21
22 405 The redox constraints from the Zhongnancun section can be compared to
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24
25 406 other studies conducted on correlative sections (e.g. Jin et al., 2016) from the
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28 407 Yangtze Block (Fig. 5; Table S2). Euxinic conditions prevailed in the
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31 408 transitional zone between oxic waters on the platform and dominantly
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34 409 ferruginous deeper waters on the slope/basin during Cambrian Stage 2.
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36 410 Subsequently, euxinic conditions were progressively replaced by anoxic,
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39 411 non-sulfidic water column conditions as the sea level regression proceeded
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42 412 (early-middle Cambrian Stage 3). Oxic conditions were progressively
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45 413 established in shelf settings during late Cambrian Stage 3 with anoxia largely
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48 414 maintained in slope and basin environments and euxinic conditions in deeper
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50
51 415 water environments.

52
53 416 These observations are consistent with a stratified ocean model in which
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56 417 euxinic mid-depth waters were dynamically maintained between oxic surface
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59 418 waters and ferruginous deeper waters. Progressive ventilation, first of shallow,

1 419 and then shelf and slope environments, proceeded during Cambrian Stage 2
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3 420 to 3 (e.g. [Jin et al., 2016](#); [Li et al., 2017](#)). By early Cambrian Stage 4 (~514
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6 421 Ma), oxic conditions may have been established in shallow shelf (i.e. Jinsha
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9 422 section) and slope settings, and in deeper waters (i.e. Longbizui section),
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11 423 while mid-depth environments (i.e. Wengan and Songtao sections) remained
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13 424 anoxic ([Fig. 5](#)), suggesting a redox structure similar to an oxygen minimum
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16 425 zone (OMZ). In terms of the broader redox landscape, geochemical proxies
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19 426 that are sensitive to long term terrestrial weathering processes provide
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21
22 427 evidence that global tectonic activity during the Ediacaran-Cambrian could
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25 428 have resulted in the increased supply of nutrients to the oceans, primary
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28 429 productivity and associated photosynthetic O₂ release ([Campbell and Squire,](#)
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30
31 430 [2010](#)). Yet it remains an ongoing challenge to differentiate between local,
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33
34 431 regional, and global scale controls on the spatio-temporal redox evolution of
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37 432 ancient marine systems. In the case of the Yangtze Ocean, for example, a
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39 433 marine regression during Cambrian Stage 3 could have simply resulted in the
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42 434 offshore migration of euxinic waters (e.g. [Bowyer et al. 2017](#)). In the following,
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45 435 we evaluate N isotope data from the Zhongnancun section together with
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48 436 compiled data from the literature to further evaluate the redox architecture of
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51 437 the Cambrian Yangtze Ocean.

438

5.2. Nitrogen cycling in the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean

58 440 The isotopic composition of nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values) can provide additional

1 441 information for studies on seawater paleoredox (Fig. 6). In the modern
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3 442 oceans, the primary source of bioavailable nitrogen to the marine system is
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6 443 via fixation of atmospheric N_2 (N_2 -fixation), which transforms molecular N_2
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9 444 into organic matter (via NH_4^+) through ammonification. There is negligible
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11 445 isotopic fractionation associated with ammonification (-1‰ on average),
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14 446 however under Fe^{2+} -rich or thermophilic conditions, fractionation may be as
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17 447 large as -4‰ (e.g. Zerkle et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). In oxic
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20 448 environments, the NH_4^+ released by breakdown of organic matter is rapidly
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22 449 oxidized to NO_2^- and then to NO_3^- through nitrification, also with negligible
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24
25 450 fractionation. Assimilation of NO_3^- results in isotopic fractionation with ϵ_{org-NO_3}
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27
28 451 between 0‰ and -10‰ in NO_3^- limited and NO_3^- replete conditions,
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30
31 452 respectively (Pennock et al., 1996). In dysoxic to anoxic environments, the
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34 453 removal of nitrogen from the marine system (NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and NO_2^- are
35
36 454 converted into gaseous species NO_2 or N_2) takes place via denitrification and
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38
39 455 anammox, with large fractionations of ~ 20-30‰ in the water column, and
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41
42 456 negligible fractionation in the sediments (Sigman et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2009;
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45 457 Lam and Kuypers, 2011).

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47 458 A recent compilation of published $\delta^{15}N$ values from the Yangtze Block
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50 459 documented modern-like $\delta^{15}N$ values during Cambrian Stage 3, implying that
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53 460 a large NO_3^- reservoir may have built up in well-oxygenated seawater during
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55
56 461 this time interval (Wang et al., 2018). Clearly, this is not consistent with the
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59 462 stratified ocean model suggested by the redox conditions documented across
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1 463 the Yangtze Block (e.g. [Jin et al., 2016](#); [Li et al., 2017](#)). In order to better
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3 464 understand the prevailing redox structure and operation of the N cycle in the
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6 465 early Cambrian Yangtze ocean, we coupled inorganic redox proxies with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
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9 466 data from multiple sections across the Yangtze Block, as well as sections
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11 467 from the uplift margin close to the Cathaysia Block ([Fig. 7](#); [Table S3](#)).

14 468 *5.2.1 Late Cambrian Stage 2*

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17 469 During late Cambrian Stage 2, the majority of deep water sections
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19
20 470 (slope-basin) across the Yangtze Block show $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values that range from -2
21
22 471 to 2‰ ([Fig. 7](#)), with a mean value close to the nitrogen isotopic composition of
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24
25 472 the atmosphere (0‰). Isotopic variability within this range can be explained
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28 473 by three possible mechanisms (see [Stüeken, 2013](#) for detailed discussion): (i)
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30
31 474 Nitrogen fixation as the dominant pathway for nitrogen cycling, especially
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34 475 under anoxic conditions where nitrification (strictly dependent on O_2) is
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36 476 inhibited. Biological nitrogen fixation (reduction of N_2 to NH_4^+) with the most
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38
39 477 common Mo-based nitrogenase enzyme imparts a minimal isotopic
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42 478 fractionation of -1‰ on average, with a range from -2 to $+1\text{‰}$ ([Zhang et al.,](#)
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44
45 479 [2014](#); [Stüeken et al., 2016](#)). This scenario is likely in the case of the Yangtze
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48 480 ocean during the late Cambrian Stage 2, because iron speciation data
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51 481 indicates that seawater was dominantly anoxic at depth ([Fig. 5](#)) and the
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53 482 sediments in this interval are characterized by high Mo concentrations ([Scott](#)
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55
56 483 [et al., 2008](#); [Chen et al., 2015](#)). (ii) Fixed nitrogen is rapidly nitrified and then
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58
59 484 quantitatively denitrified due to the redox gradient in the water column.

1 485 Scenario (ii) is a possible explanation for the N isotope signals preserved at
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3 486 the shallowest water Xiaotan section, since intermittent oxic conditions
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6 487 occurred in the late Cambrian Stage 2. (iii) Under oxic conditions, fixed
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9 488 nitrogen is readily nitrified and denitrification is restricted to sediments.
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11 489 Scenario (iii) is unlikely because widespread anoxia has been well
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14 490 documented in this stage (e.g. [Feng et al., 2014](#); [Wang et al., 2015](#); [Jin et al.,](#)
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16
17 491 [2016](#); [Fig. 5](#)). Thus, the biogeochemical pathway of the nitrogen cycle in the
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19
20 492 deep water during the late Cambrian Stage 2 was likely dominated by N₂
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23 493 fixation ([Fig. 8a](#)).

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25 494 Anomalous negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ($< -2\text{‰}$) are preserved in some samples
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27
28 495 from the outer-shelf Zhongnancun ([Fig. 2](#)) and Sancha sections, and also
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30
31 496 from the base of the inner-shelf CJ2 section ([Fig. 7](#)). Two alternative
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34 497 mechanisms can be considered to explain these negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values: (i) N₂
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37 498 fixation using alternative nitrogenases containing V or Fe as cofactors
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40 499 (instead of the more common Mo) can produce large isotopic fractionations of
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42 500 -6 to -8‰ ([Zhang et al., 2014](#)); (ii) non-quantitative NH₄⁺ assimilation by
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44
45 501 organisms in NH₄⁺ replete conditions could produce large fractionations of -4
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47
48 502 to -27‰, depending on NH₄⁺ concentrations ([Pennock et al., 1996](#)).

49
50 503 Scenario (i) has been invoked to explain the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (-2 to -4‰)
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52
53 504 preserved in Cretaceous Oceanic Anoxic Event 2 (OAE-2) black shales, due
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55
56 505 to Mo-limited ocean anoxia ([Zhang et al., 2014](#)). However, this scenario
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58
59 506 seems unlikely, since even in the Mo-depleted, Fe-rich Precambrian oceans
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1 507 there is thus far no convincing evidence of biological N₂ fixation with V or Fe
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3 508 nitrogenases (Stüeken et al., 2013). Furthermore, this interpretation is also
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6 509 inconsistent with the high Mo concentration recorded in sediments during this
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9 510 period (Wang et al., 2015; Hammarlund et al., 2017; Scott et al., 2008; Chen
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11 511 et al., 2015). Scenario (ii) has been invoked to explain the negative δ¹⁵N
12
13 512 values (as low as -4‰) during Cretaceous OAE-2 (Higgins et al., 2012) and
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15 513 similar δ¹⁵N values (as low as -4.7‰) in the late Paleoproterozoic (Papineau
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17 514 et al., 2009). This mechanism would be a reasonable interpretation for the low
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19
20 515 δ¹⁵N values in this study (Fig. 8a), because the negative δ¹⁵N values
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22 516 observed in shelf sections correspond well with euxinia (Fig. 7). Under euxinic
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24 517 conditions, the organic-bound NH₄⁺ is likely to accumulate to high
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26 518 concentrations in the water column (review by Stüeken et al., 2016 for
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28 519 details).

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31 520 Previous studies have suggested that partial NH₄⁺ assimilation by
32
33 521 anaerobic bacteria (e.g. green or purple sulfur bacteria) could result in these
34
35 522 low δ¹⁵N values in the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean during Cambrian Stage
36
37 523 2 (Wang et al., 2018). The NH₄⁺ replete conditions may have built up in the
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39 524 shelf area due to strong upwelling of NH₄⁺-rich anoxic waters from the deep
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41 525 ocean. These results are further consistent with a shallow chemocline and
42
43 526 photic zone euxinia during the late Cambrian Stage 2. The majority of
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45 527 samples from shelf sections, however, preserve δ¹⁵N values typical of
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47 528 nitrogen fixation (from -2 to 2‰), which may be attributable to the NH₄⁺
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1 529 transported from deep water being consumed quantitatively and thereby
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3 530 masking the fractionation associated with NH_4^+ assimilation.
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6 531 *5.2.2 Cambrian Stage 3*

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9 532 During the early-middle Cambrian Stage 3, widespread anoxic conditions
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11 533 existed in the Yangtze ocean (Figs 5 and 7). However, distinctive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
12
13 534 are preserved in different settings, with more positive values (generally
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15 535 between 0 and 3‰) recorded in the shelf environment and lower values (from
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17 536 -2 to 2‰) recorded in slope-basin settings (Figs. 7 and 9).
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22 537 The positive shift in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values observed in sections from the inner-shelf
23
24 538 and outer-shelf can be explained by three possible scenarios (Stüeken, 2013;
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26 539 Ader et al., 2016; Stüeken et al., 2016; Koehler et al., 2017): (i) Partial
27
28 540 assimilation of NH_4^+ would preferentially consume isotopically light nitrogen
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30
31 541 and leave the residual NH_4^+ pool enriched in ^{15}N (Papineau et al., 2009); (ii)
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33 542 Partial nitrification of NH_4^+ can produce an isotopically light nitrate pool while
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35 543 leaving a residual NH_4^+ pool enriched in ^{15}N , because nitrification prefers
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37 544 lighter isotopes (Thomazo et al., 2011). Scenarios (i) and (ii) are unlikely
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39 545 explanations for the positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ shift in the shelf area of the early Cambrian
40
41 546 Yangtze ocean for the following reasons. Firstly, mechanism (i) would result in
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43 547 two distinct isotopic facies, one which preserves low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (<-2‰) and
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45 548 one which preserves high $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (>1‰). However, samples from the
46
47 549 inner-shelf to the basin during this period do not record very negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
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51 550 values. For example, the lowest $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value from the slope (Longbizui) section
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1 551 is -2‰ and most values from deep water sections are close to 0‰, consistent
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3 552 with N₂ fixation (-2 to +2‰, [Stüeken, 2013](#)). Regarding scenario (ii), partial
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6 553 nitrification has so far been considered to occur only in marine environments
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9 554 that undergo transient seasonal changes, with no evidence for this process
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11
12 555 occurring over longer geologic timescales ([Hadas et al., 2009](#); [Granger et al.,](#)
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14 556 [2011](#)). This leaves scenario (iii), whereby partial denitrification in the water
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16
17 557 column leaves the residual nitrate pool enriched in ¹⁵N, because denitrification
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20 558 produces isotopically light nitrogenous gases, which removes ¹⁴N from the
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23 559 system (e.g. [Cline and Kaplan, 1975](#)). Scenario (iii) is most likely in the case of
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25
26 560 the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean and nitrate appears to have been more
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29 561 abundant in shelf environment ([Fig. 8b](#)). This has also been considered as the
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31
32 562 main mechanism for the production of positive δ¹⁵N values in the modern
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35 563 ocean (e.g. [Lam et al., 2009](#); [Tesdal et al., 2013](#)) as well as in the early
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38 564 Cambrian Yangtze ocean ([Hammarlund et al., 2017](#); [Wang et al., 2018](#)). These
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41 565 positive δ¹⁵N excursion intervals have a good correspondence with ferruginous
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44 566 conditions, suggesting that the water column may also have experienced
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47 567 nitrogenous conditions. Oxygen is required for nitrification of ammonium to
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49
50 568 nitrate ([Koehler et al., 2017](#)), thereby higher nitrate levels in the shelf area
51
52
53 569 suggest that oxic-suboxic conditions may have been established in shelf
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55
56 570 environment.

55 571 The δ¹⁵N values (-2 to +2‰) of slope – basin sections during this period are
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57
58 572 similar to those in the late Cambrian Stage 2. The invariability of δ¹⁵N values in
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1 573 these sections is consistent with the maintenance of anoxic and ferruginous
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3 574 conditions in deeper waters throughout Cambrian Stage 2 – 3 (Jin et al., 2016;
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5
6 575 Li et al., 2017), reflecting nitrogen limitation in slope – basin parts of the early
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9 576 Cambrian Yangtze ocean (Fig. 8b). However, the positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ excursions are
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11
12 577 found in the sections (Yanjia section, Chunye 1 drill core and Silikou section)
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15 578 close to the Cathaysia Block, and are interpreted to have resulted from
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18 579 denitrification (Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). These sections were
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21 580 considered to represent a deep water environment (Wang et al., 2018).
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23 581 Previous studies have suggested that at least the western Zhejiang area
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26 582 (where the Yanjia section and Chunye 1 drill core were located) was a
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28
29 583 semi-restricted gulf environment (Xue and Yu, 1979; Huang and Zhang, 1988;
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32 584 Xiang et al., 2018), and thus the nitrogen cycle here may have been different to
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35 585 that of the open ocean.

36 586 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values preserved in all sections (Fig. 10) are, however, lower than
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38
39 587 the isotopic composition of modern oceanic sediments (+5‰, Tesdal et al.,
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41
42 588 2013). Lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values documented in these sections can be explained by
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45 589 low oceanic dissolved oxygen and nitrate concentrations (Stüeken, 2013;
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48 590 Koehler et al., 2017). A small nitrate reservoir and low oxygen concentration in
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51 591 the water column would have decreased the nitrate inventory of the ocean
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54 592 without significantly increasing residual nitrate $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, thereby allowing
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57 593 preservation of a N isotopic signature characteristic of N_2 fixation (Stüeken,
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60 594 2013; Ader et al., 2016; Kipp et al., 2018). It is noteworthy that the redox
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1 595 differences and latitude variations should also be taken into account when
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3 596 comparing ancient and modern oceans (e.g. [Koehler et al., 2019](#)). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
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6 597 excursions observed in each of the shelf sections are of a similar magnitude
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9 598 ($\sim 3\text{‰}$), which may imply that the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in these sections could have
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12 599 recorded the values of the regional nitrate reservoir during the early Cambrian
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14 600 period, which was lower than that of the modern ocean. Although data from
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17 601 Yangtze basin cannot capture global trends in marine nitrogen cycling during
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20 602 early Cambrian and more data outside South China await further analysis and
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23 603 study here and elsewhere, it is possible that they may in part reflect a global
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26 604 phenomenon. This explanation is supported by long-term secular variation in
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28
29 605 the marine nitrogen cycle, suggesting that ^{15}N -depleted isotopic compositions
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32 606 in the Cambrian ocean were likely due to enhanced sedimentary denitrification,
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35 607 without significant nitrogen isotopic fractionation effects during greenhouse
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38 608 highstands ([Algeo et al., 2014](#)). Taken together, we conclude that the
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41 609 spatiotemporal distribution of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, and the gradients in C and N
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44 610 isotopes ([Fig. 9](#)), suggest a stratified redox structure, consistent with that
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47 611 recorded by iron speciation and RSTE data.

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613 **5.3. Biological implications**

614 During the late Cambrian Stage 2 to earliest Stage 3, continental margin
615 environments such as the Yangtze Block, South China, exhibited variable
616 degrees of anoxia and palaeoredox stratification. In such environments,

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1 617 negative carbonate carbon isotope excursions and low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values have been
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3 618 suggested to indicate periodic shoaling of the redoxcline into the photic zone
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6 619 (e.g. [Wang et al., 2018](#); [Chen et al., 2019](#)). The extensive anoxia and
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9 620 intermittent photic zone euxinia, as confirmed by iron speciation and RSTE
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11 621 data, may have resulted in the extinction of small shelly fossils in early
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14 622 Cambrian oceans ([Zhu et al., 2007](#); [Wang et al., 2018](#)).

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17 623 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ gradient in the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean during early –
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20 624 middle Stage 3 ([Fig. 9](#)) is similar to the Mesoproterozoic Belt Supergroup (~
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22 625 1.4 billion years ago, Ga; [Stüeken, 2013](#)), and the Bangemall (~ 1.5 Ga) and
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25 626 Roper (~ 1.4 – 1.5 Ga) basins ([Koehler et al., 2017](#)), suggesting that the early
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27
28 627 Cambrian Yangtze ocean was characterized by generally low nitrate
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31 628 concentrations with a minimum in offshore deep water environments. It has
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33
34 629 been hypothesized that nitrogen availability may have played an important role
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36
37 630 in the evolutionary innovation of eukaryotes ([Anbar and Knoll, 2002](#)). If correct,
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40 631 the nitrate gradient may have restricted large-celled eukaryotes to near-shore
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43 632 environments, as in the case of the early evolution of eukaryotes in the
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46 633 Mesoproterozoic oceans ([Stüeken, 2013](#); [Koehler et al., 2017](#)). The nitrate
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49 634 gradient observed in this study can be linked to fossil distributions in the early
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52 635 Cambrian Yangtze ocean, as demonstrated by [Jin et al. \(2016\)](#). These authors
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54
55 636 showed that the complexity of early animal ecosystems is spatially
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58 637 heterogeneous, with increased complexity in near-shore environments
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61 638 containing higher oxygen levels ([Figs 5 and 7](#)). The increased nitrogen
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1 639 availability in shelf environments may have enhanced the biological pump and
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3 640 the evolution of large-celled eukaryotic phytoplankton (Brocks et al., 2017;
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5 641 Wang et al., 2018). A corresponding increase in the size of organic particulates
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8 642 and faster sinking rates may have enhanced organic matter burial, thus
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10
11 643 reducing O₂ consumption in the water column and resulting in a positive
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14 644 feedback on further ocean oxygenation, and synchronized early animal
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17 645 radiations (Butterfield, 2009; Lenton et al., 2014).

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20 646 Recently, He et al. (2019) documented a strong positive co-variation
21
22 647 between carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and carbonate-associated sulfate $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values
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24
25 648 in early Cambrian Siberian platform carbonates. The authors argued that this
26
27
28 649 covariation records variability in atmospheric O₂ concentrations. Moreover,
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31 650 they suggest that episodic maxima in the biodiversity of animal phyla directly
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34 651 coincided with the extent of shallow-ocean oxygenation. Hammarlund et al.
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36 652 (2017) have shown that OMZ-type conditions persisted well into the interval
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38
39 653 characterized by the Chengjiang biota. However, the shallow shelf may have
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41
42 654 been dominantly well oxygenated at this time, providing a stable, oxygenated
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45 655 environment within which these energetically costly, motile lifestyles could
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48 656 have thrived.

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50 657 When predatory animals, which produce larger fecal particulates, dominate
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52 658 the shallow water ecosystem, the sinking and burial of organic carbon is
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55 659 accelerated, thus reducing oxygen consumption in the water column and
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58 660 allowing oxygen to reach deeper waters (Logan et al., 1995). Furthermore,
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661 sponges, which dominate the deep water ecosystem of the early Cambrian
662 Yangtze ocean (Zhu, 2010; Fig. 5), may have also played a role in the
663 accumulation of oxygen in the deep waters by filtering the reduced carbon in
664 the water column (Lenton et al., 2014). The appearance of macrozooplankton
665 (i.e. bivalved arthropod *Isoxys*) and suspension-feeding mesozooplankton (i.e.
666 anomalocarid *Tamisiocaris borealis*) in Cambrian Stage 3 (Luo et al., 1994;
667 Vinther et al., 2014) provides reliable paleontological evidence for this
668 hypothesis. Although global Fe speciation data suggest that deep waters
669 remained largely anoxic in some basins during Cambrian Stage 3 (Sperling et
670 al., 2015; Li et al., 2017), oxic conditions (Fig. 5), and a transition from
671 abundant sponge spicules to articulated sponges (Wang et al., 2012; Jin et al.,
672 2016) observed at the deep water Longbizui section, may provide evidence for
673 at least local ventilation of deep water settings (slope-basin) during Cambrian
674 Stage 4 in South China. Furthermore, OMZ-type stratification with at least
675 weakly oxygenated deeper waters has recently been recorded from detailed
676 regional paleoredox assessments of lower Cambrian sediments of the Baltic
677 Basin (Guilbaud et al., 2018), and South China (Hammarlund et al., 2017)
678 raising the possibility for widespread restructuring of the paleoredox landscape
679 by Cambrian Stage 4.

680

681 **6. Conclusions**

682 Multi-proxy geochemical data are reported for the outer-shelf Zhongnancun

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1 683 section of the early Cambrian Yangtze Block in South China. Results reveal
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3 684 that the redox conditions progressively evolved from euxinic, through
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6 685 ferruginous, to oxic during deposition of the Niutitang Formation. Our new data
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9 686 combined with existing data from the shelf to the basin environment, suggest
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11 687 that during Cambrian stages 2 – 3, the Yangtze ocean was redox stratified with
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14 688 euxinic mid-depths dynamically maintained between oxic surface waters and
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17 689 ferruginous deeper waters. However, by early Cambrian Stage 4 (~514 Ma),
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20 690 deep waters may have become intermittently oxygenated.

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22 691 Nitrogen isotope data from successions across the Yangtze Block show that,
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25 692 during late Cambrian Stage 2, N₂ fixation was the dominant biogeochemical
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28 693 pathway of the nitrogen cycle. Anomalously light $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (<-2‰) observed
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31 694 in shelf sections correspond well with euxinia, suggesting that partial
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34 695 assimilation of NH₄⁺ was the dominant pathway for nitrogen cycling in euxinic
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37 696 waters, and NH₄⁺ may have built up to high concentrations.

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39 697 During early – middle Cambrian Stage 3, a distinct gradient in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is
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42 698 observed in the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean, with more positive values
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45 699 (between 0 and 3‰) recorded in shelf sections and lighter values (from -2 to
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47
48 700 2‰) recorded in slope-basin sections. The positive shift in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
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51 701 preserved in the shelf sections likely results from partial denitrification in the
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54 702 water column, while $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of ~0‰, recorded in deeper water sections
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56
57 703 may have resulted from N₂ fixation. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values preserved in all sections
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60 704 are lower than those of the modern ocean, indicating that the early Cambrian
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1 705 Yangtze ocean may be characterized by low nitrate concentrations.
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3 706 Furthermore, the spatiotemporal distribution of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, together with
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6 707 the stratigraphic gradients in C and N isotopes, and Fe speciation data, are all
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9 708 consistent with a model of, at least, regional-scale palaeo-marine redox
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12 709 stratification.

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14 710 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ gradient in the early Cambrian Yangtze ocean is similar to that
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17 711 suggested for Mesoproterozoic oceans (Stüeken, 2013; Koehler et al., 2017),
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20 712 implying that nitrate was limited in offshore environments, restricting
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23 713 eukaryotes to near-shore environments. Increased nitrogen availability in shelf
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26 714 environments would have enhanced the biological pump and the evolution of
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29 715 large-celled eukaryotic phytoplankton, which may have produced a positive
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32 716 feedback on further ocean oxygenation, allowing for increased complexity and
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35 717 diversity of early animal ecosystems on oxic shelves.

36 718

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1077 Figure captions

1078 Fig. 1, Simplified geological map of the Yangtze Platform (after [Steiner et al.,](#)
1079 [2001; Jiang et al., 2012](#)) and stratigraphic column of outer-shelf
1080 Zhongnancun section. Sections: 1-Xiaotan, 2-Meishucun, 3-CJ2 drill
1081 core, 4-Jinsha, 5-Dingtai, 6-Zhongnancun, 7-Sancha, 8-Yangjiaping,
1082 9-Wengan, 10-Songtao, 11-Longbizui, 12-zk2012 drill core, 13-Lijiatuo,
1083 14-Yuanjia, 15-Siduping, 16-Hejiapu, 17-Silikou, 18-Yanjia, 19-Chunye
1084 1 drill core.

1085 Fig. 2, Stratigraphic distribution of Fe species, TOC contents, TN contents,
1086 Mo, U and V concentrations, Mo/TOC ratios, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ values
1087 at the Zhongnancun section (reference $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ data at the
1088 Zhongnancun section from [Zhang et al., 2017](#) with orange symbol).
1089 Gray vertical lines represent the divisions between oxic ($\text{Fe}_{\text{HR}}/\text{Fe}_{\text{T}} <$
1090 0.22 ; [Poulton and Raiswell, 2002](#)), equivocal ($\text{Fe}_{\text{HR}}/\text{Fe}_{\text{T}} = 0.22-0.38$;
1091 [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)) and anoxic conditions ($\text{Fe}_{\text{HR}}/\text{Fe}_{\text{T}} > 0.38$;
1092 [Poulton and Raiswell, 2002](#)), and between ferruginous and euxinic
1093 conditions ($\text{Fe}_{\text{py}}/\text{Fe}_{\text{HR}}=0.7$; [Poulton and Canfield, 2011](#)).

1094 Fig. 3, Crossplot of Mo versus TOC (a) and U versus TOC. A good positive
1095 correlation of Mo and TOC content can be found in samples from
1096 Interval 3, but the lack of correlation between Mo and TOC for Interval
1097 1 and 2 suggests that the black shales with higher Mo contents from
1098 Interval 1 and 2 are deposited in euxinic/anoxic environments and the

1 1099 black shales with low Mo concentration from Interval 3 are deposited in
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3 1100 oxic/suboxic environments. The content of U and TOC decreased
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6 1101 gradually from Interval 1 to Interval 3 and the U-TOC correlation
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9 1102 becomes stronger, suggesting that the redox condition evolved from
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12 1103 euxinic to oxic/suboxic.

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14 1104 Fig. 4, Crossplots of Mo_{EF} versus U_{EF} with enrichment factors normalized to
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17 1105 AUCC (McLennan, 2001). The trend lines are modified from Algeo and
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20 1106 Tribovillard (2009). The data includes the section of this study and the
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22
23 1107 compiled data from multiple sections (CJ2 from Hammarlund et al.,
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25 1108 2017, Jinsha and Wengan from Jin et al., 2016, Dingtai from Xu et al.,
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27
28 1109 2012), all of the data correspond to the Cambrian Stage 2 to 3.

29
30 1110 Fig. 5, Spatio-temporal variations in watermass redox conditions from
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33 1111 inner-shelf to basin environment. The redox conditions of Xiaotan (Och
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36 1112 et al., 2013), CJ2 drill core (Hammarlund et al., 2017), Jinsha (Jin et al.,
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38
39 1113 2016), Wengan (Jin et al., 2016), Songtao (Goldberg et al., 2007; Guo
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41
42 1114 et al., 2007; Canfield et al., 2008), Longbizui (Wang et al., 2012),
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45 1115 Silikou (Zhang et al., 2018), Chunye1 drill core (Xiang et al., 2018)
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48 1116 sections are reconstructed from Fe speciation data; the redox
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51 1117 conditions of Sancha and Yuanjia are reconstructed from $\delta^{13}C_{org}$,
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53 1118 $\delta^{15}N_{sed}$ and Mo data (Wang et al., 2015).

54
55 1119 Fig. 6, The biogeochemical nitrogen cycle. Elements in parentheses are used
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58 1120 as co-factors in enzymes and ϵ is the fractionation factor (‰) related to
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1 1121 the metabolic process ($\epsilon \approx \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{product}} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{reactant}}$). Adapted from
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 3 1122 [Stüeken et al. \(2016\)](#).
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6 1123 Fig. 7, Nitrogen isotope chemostratigraphy of Xiaotan section ([Cremonese et](#)
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 9 1124 [al., 2013](#)), CJ2 drill core ([Hammarlund et al., 2017](#)), Zhongnancun
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 11 1125 section (this study), Sancha section ([Wang et al., 2015](#)), Siduping and
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 14 1126 Hejiapu sections ([Xu et al., 2020](#)), Longbizui section ([Cremonese et al.,](#)
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 17 1127 [2014](#)), zk2012 drill core ([Chen et al., 2019](#)), Lijiatuo section
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 20 1128 ([Cremonese et al., 2014](#)), Yuanjia section ([Wang et al., 2015](#)), Silikou
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 23 1129 section ([Zhang et al., 2018](#)), Yanjia section ([Wang et al., 2018](#)) and
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 25 1130 Chunye1 drill core ([Xiang et al., 2018](#)).
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28 1131 Fig. 8, Schematic of the proposed nitrogen cycle in the early Cambrian
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 31 1132 Yangtze ocean during late Stage 2 (a) and early-middle Stage 3 (b).
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33 1133 Fig. 9, $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ plotted against $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ for the multiple sections in the Yangtze
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 36 1134 Block, the plot only includes those samples corresponding to anoxic
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 39 1135 conditions during the early-middle Cambrian Stage 3. The data of shelf
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 42 1136 sections include Xiaotan section ([Cremonese et al., 2013](#)), CJ2 drill
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 44
 45 1137 core ([Hammarlund et al., 2017](#)), Zhongnancun section (this study) and
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 47
 48 1138 Sancha section ([Wang et al., 2015](#)). The data of slope-basin sections
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 50
 51 1139 include Siduping and Hejiapu sections ([Xu et al., 2020](#)), Longbizui
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 53 1140 section ([Cremonese et al., 2014](#)), zk2012 drill core ([Chen et al., 2019](#)),
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 56 1141 Lijiatuo section ([Cremonese et al., 2014](#)) and Yuanjia section ([Wang et](#)
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 58 1142 [al., 2015](#)).
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1 1143 Fig. 10, Nitrogen isotope distributions of modern surface sediments ([Testal et](#)
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3 1144 [al., 2013](#)) and early Cambrian Yangtze Block, South China (ca. 521-514
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6 1145 Ma).

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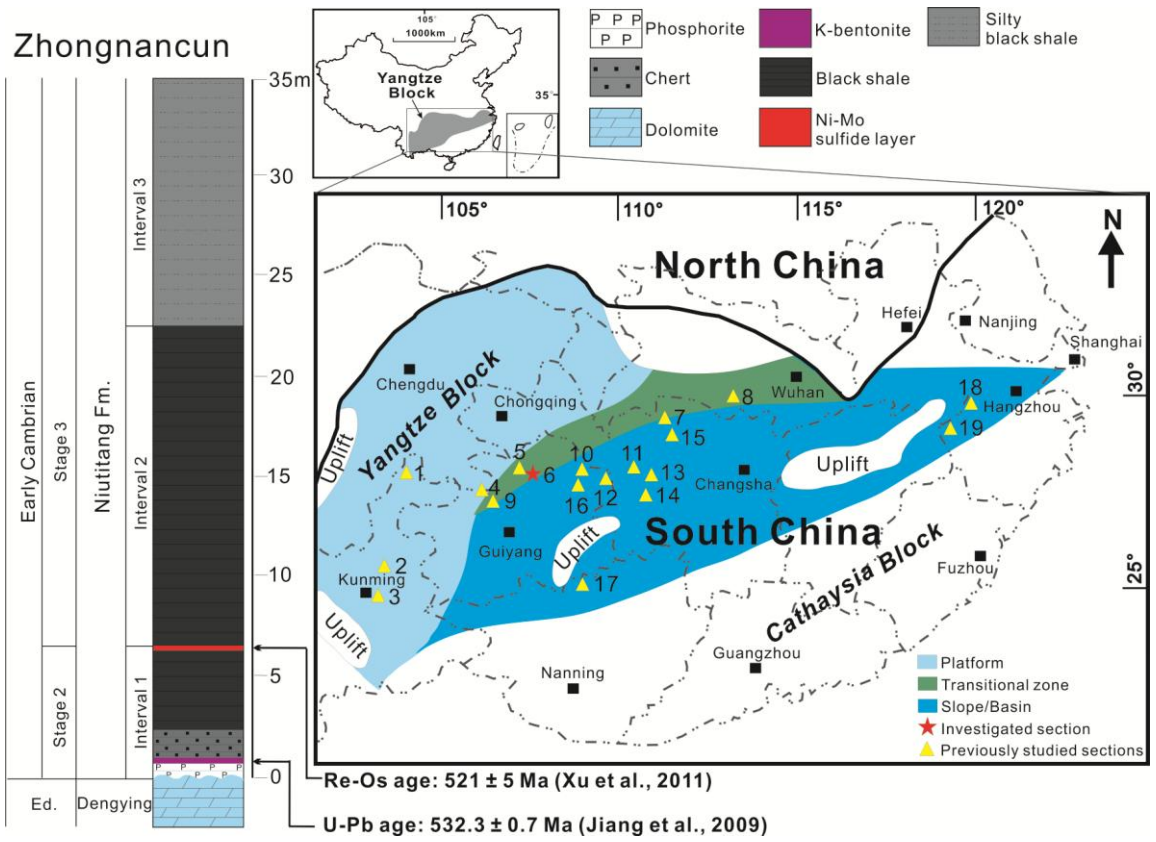
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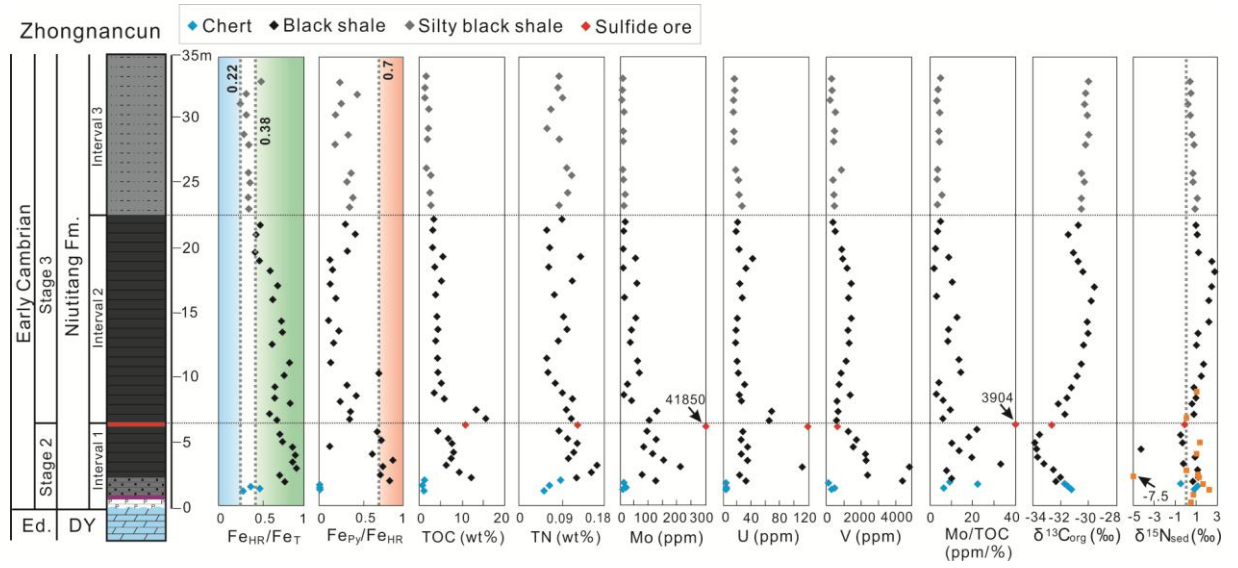
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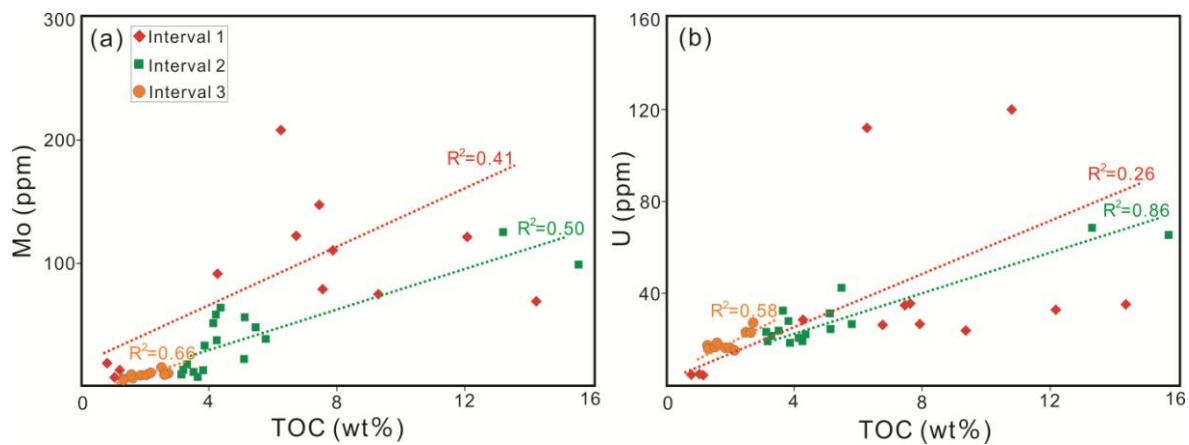
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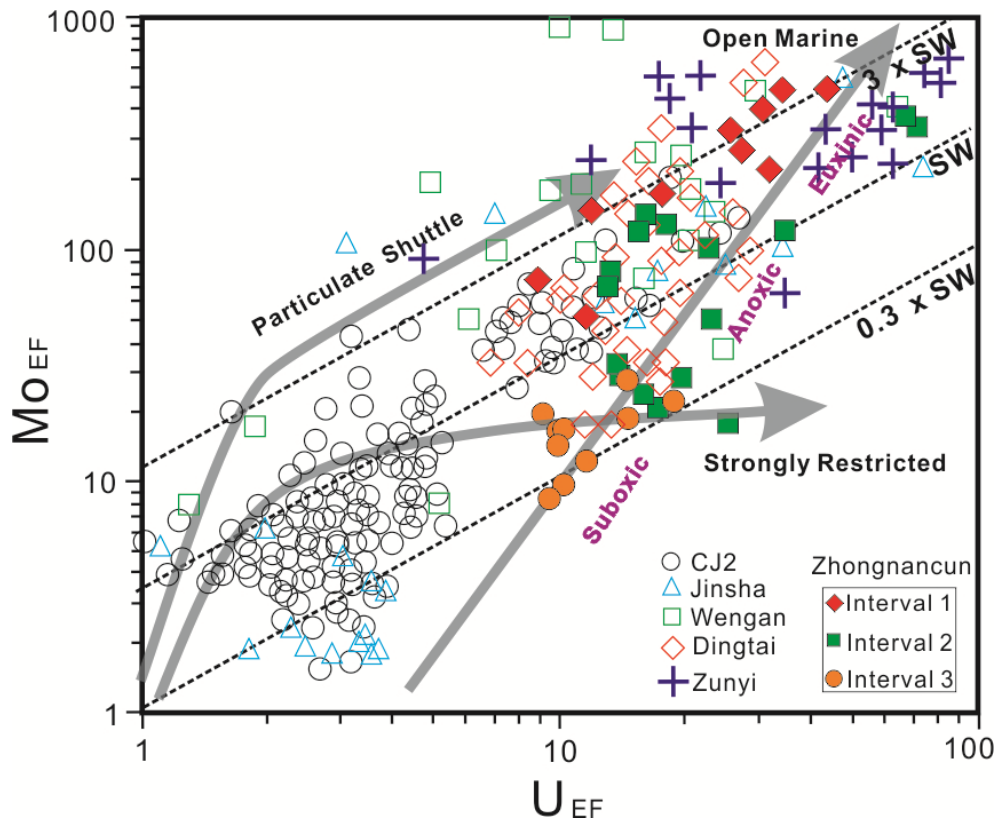
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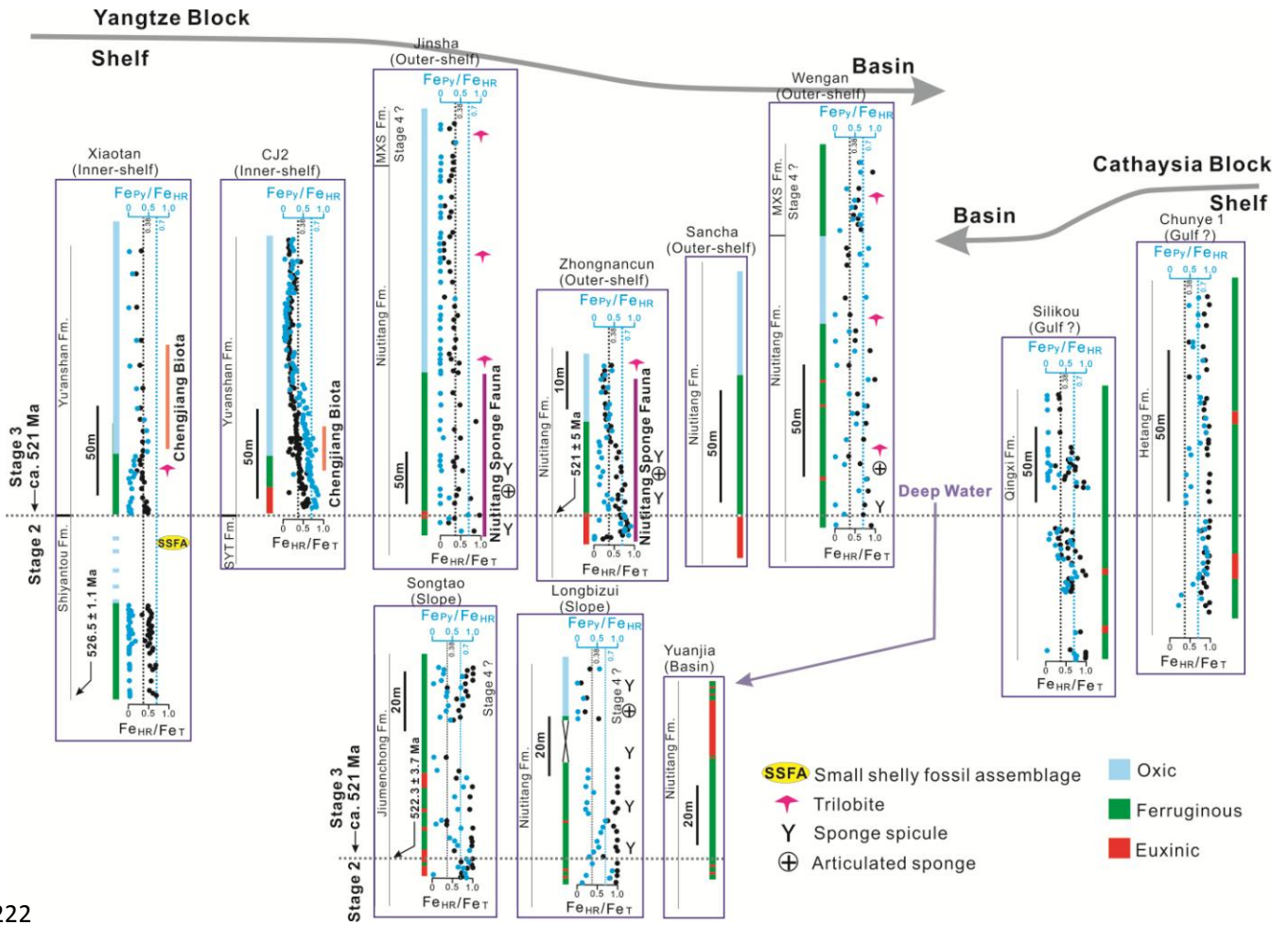
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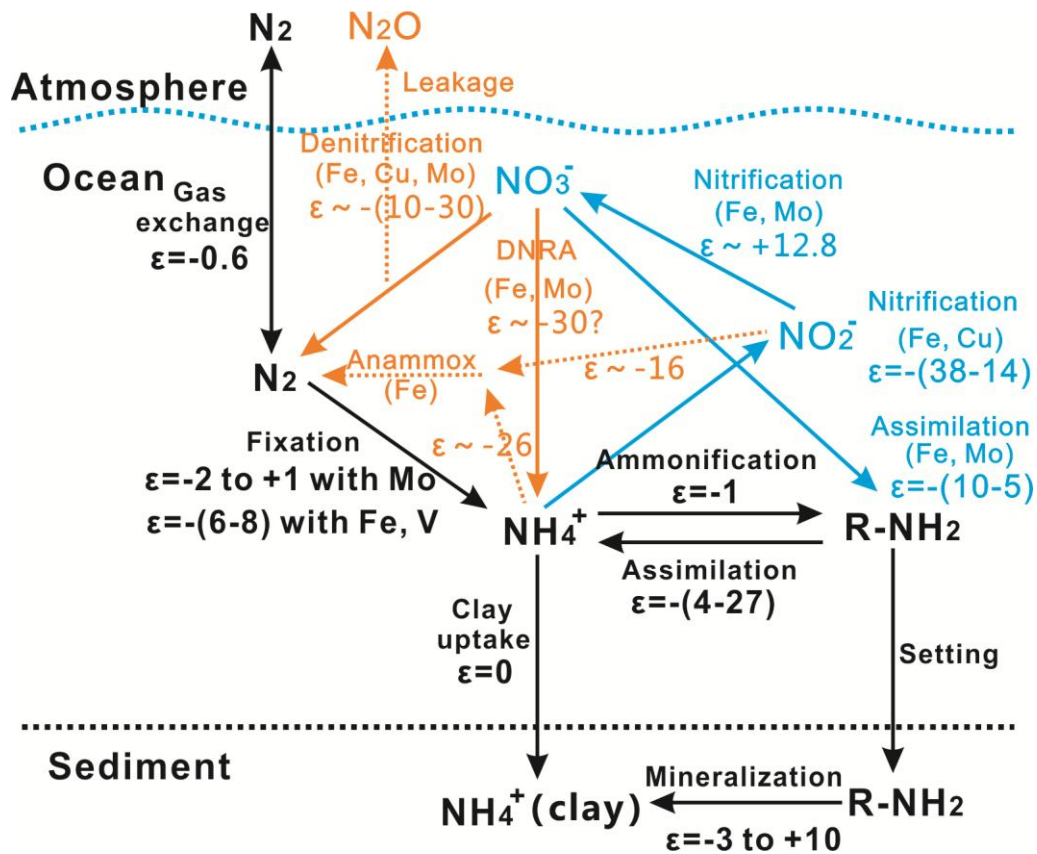
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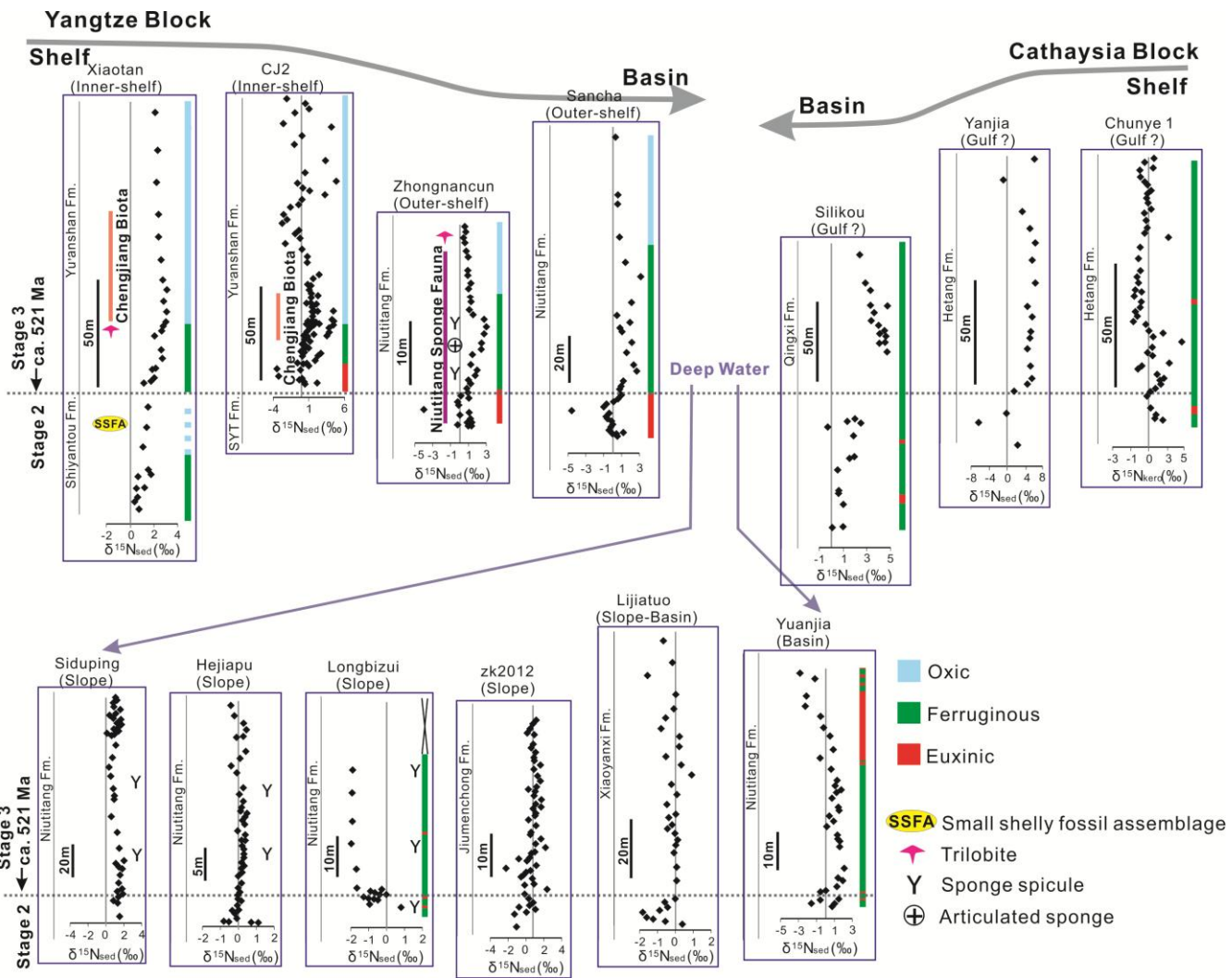
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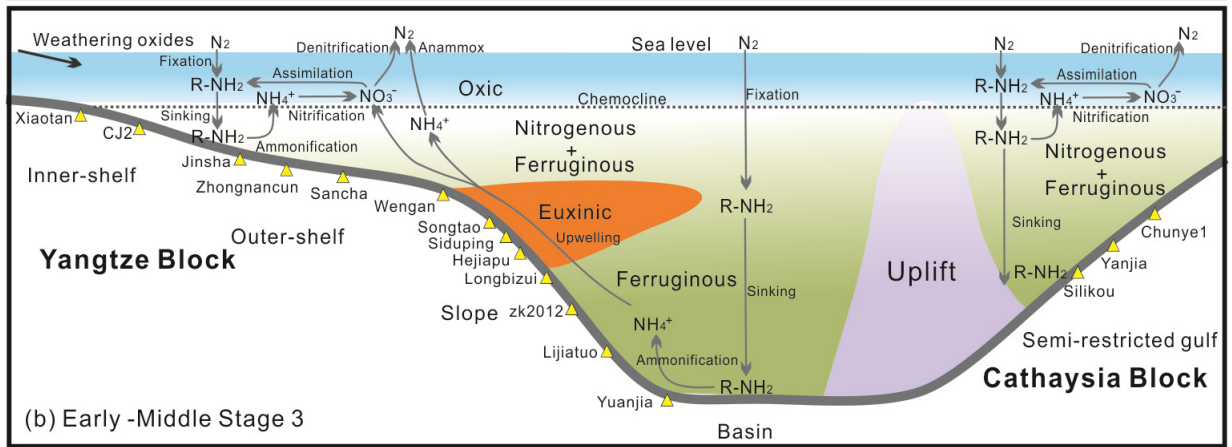
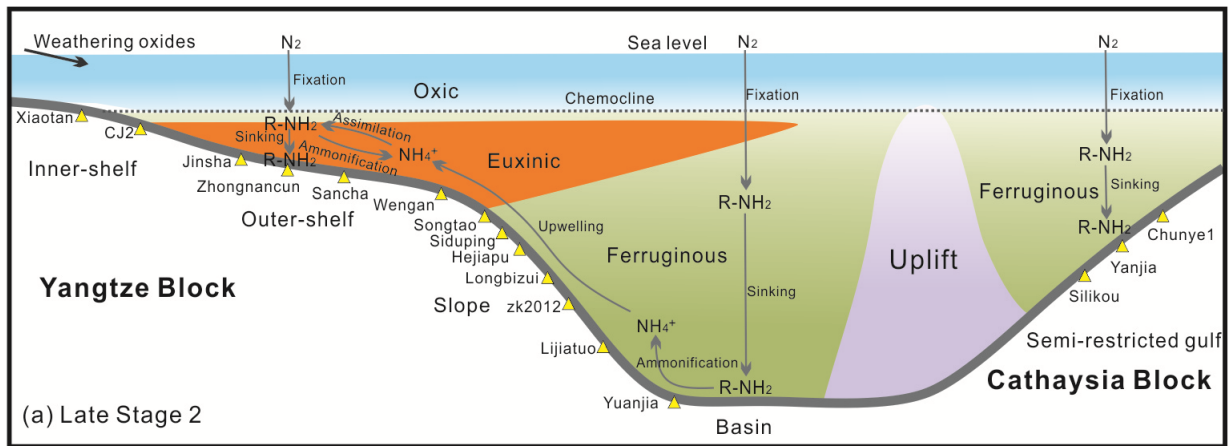
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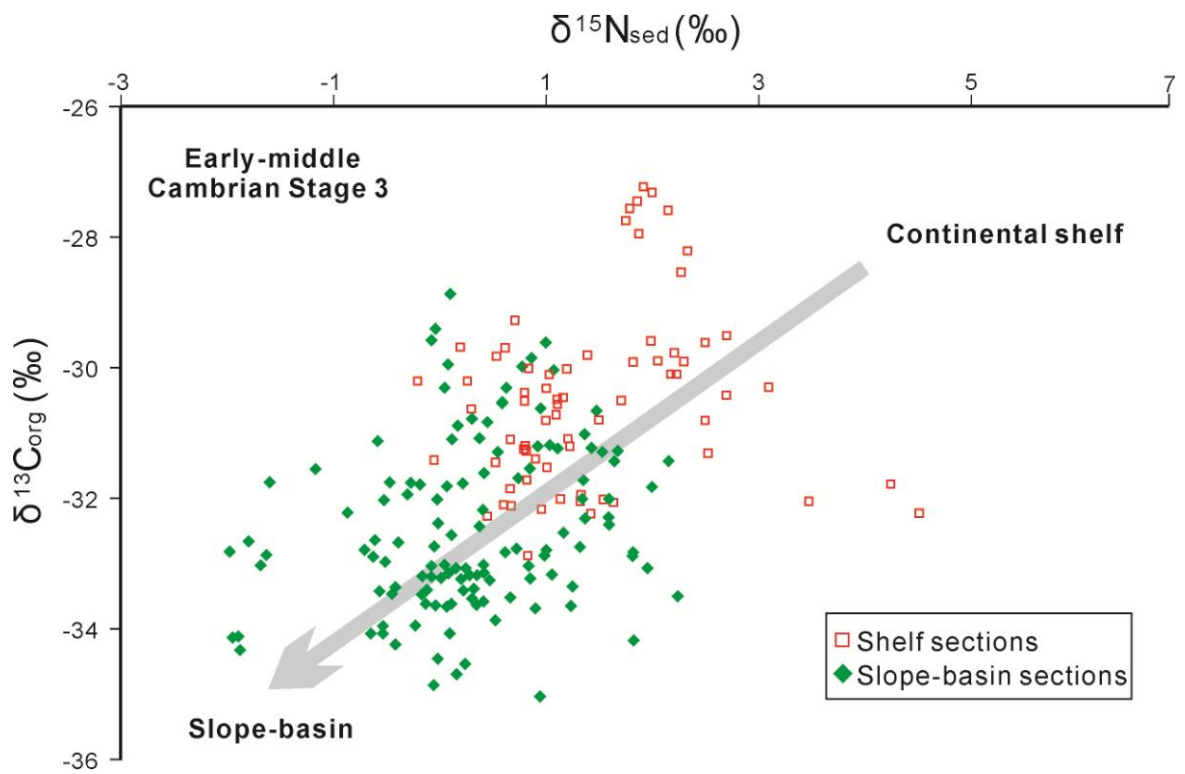
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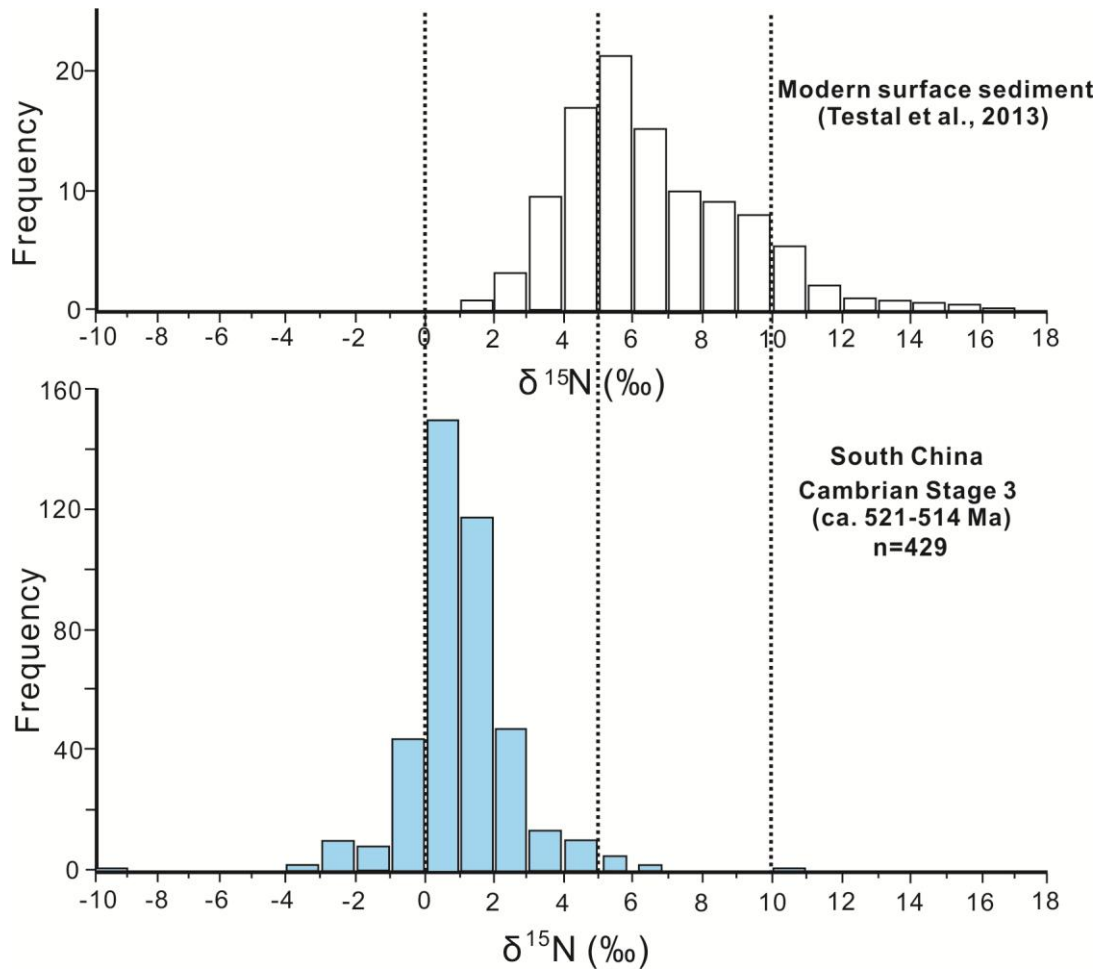
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Table S1

[Click here to download Table: Supplementary Table S1.xlsx](#)

Geochemical data for studied samples from Niutitang Formation at Zhongnancun section, South China.

Interval	Sample	Depth	Lithology	TOC (wt %)	Al (wt %)	Fe _T (wt %)	Fe _{HR} /Fe _T	Fe _{Py} /Fe _{HR}
3	ZNC40	33.4	Silty Black shale	1.56	10.38	1.60	0.48	0.17
3	ZNC39	32.5	Silty Black shale	1.32	10.47	1.85	0.26	0.42
3	ZNC38	31.7	Silty Black shale	1.35	10.26	1.98	0.21	0.19
3	ZNC37	30.8	Silty Black shale	2.18	10.15	2.15	0.26	0.11
3	ZNC36	29.3	Silty Black shale	2.04	10.08	1.85	0.23	0.29
3	ZNC35	28.5	Silty Black shale	1.87	9.80	1.25	0.30	0.11
3	ZNC34	26.3	Silty Black shale	1.62	9.72	1.68	0.29	0.33
3	ZNC33	25.6	Silty Black shale	2.65	9.54	1.32	0.31	0.27
3	ZNC32	24.3	Silty Black shale	2.52	10.03	1.47	0.29	0.36
3	ZNC31	23.5	Silty Black shale	2.73	8.82	2.46	0.29	0.31
2	ZNC30	22.2	Black shale	3.30	9.58	1.05	0.46	0.25
2	ZNC29	21.5	Black shale	3.18	8.32	1.34	0.40	0.39
2	ZNC28	20.1	Black shale	3.14	8.15	1.72	0.38	0.27
2	ZNC27	19.4	Black shale	5.46	7.42	0.92	0.45	0.02
2	ZNC26	18.6	Black shale	3.65	7.84	1.63	0.60	0.06
2	ZNC25	17.5	Black shale	5.12	8.23	1.03	0.71	0.03
2	ZNC24	16.4	Black shale	3.82	8.65	2.32	0.64	0.11
2	ZNC23	14.7	Black shale	4.13	8.20	1.15	0.77	0.01
2	ZNC22	13.8	Black shale	4.25	8.87	1.08	0.78	0.15
2	ZNC21	12.9	Black shale	3.87	8.68	1.21	0.63	0.08
2	ZNC20	11.4	Black shale	4.20	7.88	0.93	0.88	0.04
2	ZNC19	10.5	Black shale	4.36	8.46	0.86	0.80	0.72
2	ZNC18	9.6	Black shale	5.10	8.24	1.15	0.67	0.27
2	ZNC17	8.8	Black shale	3.52	9.13	1.23	0.67	0.40
2	ZNC16	8.3	Black shale	5.78	7.15	0.78	0.88	0.17
2	ZNC15	7.5	Black shale	13.20	6.20	1.21	0.60	0.32
2	ZNC14	6.8	Black shale	15.56	5.54	1.62	0.70	0.31
1	ZNC13	6.3	Sulfide ore	10.72	2.05	11.50	n.m.	n.m.
1	ZNC12	5.9	Black shale	4.27	9.87	2.56	0.67	0.78
1	ZNC11	5.3	Black shale	6.73	4.73	1.78	0.68	0.69
1	ZNC10	4.8	Black shale	7.56	6.75	2.13	0.87	0.74
1	ZNC09	4.2	Black shale	7.88	6.36	1.76	0.88	0.66
1	ZNC08	3.7	Black shale	7.45	6.87	2.52	0.84	0.85
1	ZNC07	3.2	Black shale	6.25	6.10	3.34	0.89	0.78
1	ZNC06	2.6	Black shale	9.30	5.32	2.78	0.72	0.71
1	ZNC05	2.3	Black shale	12.08	4.60	3.10	0.79	0.83
1	ZNC04	2.1	Chert	1.21	2.83	0.68	0.34	0.04
1	ZNC02	1.9	Chert	0.82	2.36	0.69	0.41	0.04
1	ZNC01	1.7	Chert	1.05	2.52	0.76	0.28	0.05

Table S2

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Fe speciation data for early Cambrian successions in the Yang

Sample	Formation	Height (m)	Fe _{HR} /Fe _T	Fe _{Py} /Fe _{HR}
Xiaotan section, Yunan, South China				
XTY61	Yu'anshan	380	0.33	0.02
XTY60	Yu'anshan	370	0.22	0.11
XTY59	Yu'anshan	355	0.22	0.01
XTY58	Yu'anshan	340	0.34	0.22
XTY57	Yu'anshan	329	0.3	0.02
XTY56	Yu'anshan	319	0.39	0.22
XTY55	Yu'anshan	310	0.3	0.24
XTY54	Yu'anshan	305	0.3	0.42
XTY53	Yu'anshan	300	0.39	0.46
XTY52	Yu'anshan	295	0.35	0.5
XTY51	Yu'anshan	290.5	0.37	0.47
XTY50	Yu'anshan	288.5	0.35	0.18
XTY49	Yu'anshan	286.7	0.28	0.15
XTY48	Yu'anshan	284.7	0.3	0.16
XTY47	Yu'anshan	281.7	0.23	0.08
XTY46	Yu'anshan	280.8	0.35	0.16
XTY45	Yu'anshan	279.3	0.35	0.13
XTY44	Yu'anshan	278.3	0.34	0.02
XTY43	Yu'anshan	277	0.41	0.06
XTY42	Yu'anshan	274	0.33	0.08
XTY41	Yu'anshan	270	0.35	0.09
XTY40	Yu'anshan	268.3	0.46	0.05
XTY39	Yu'anshan	266.3	0.4	0
XTY38	Yu'anshan	265.3	0.47	0.01
XTY37	Yu'anshan	264.6	0.49	0.05
XTY36	Yu'anshan	264	0.41	0.01
XTY35	Yu'anshan	263	0.51	0.08
XTY30	Shiyantou	222	0.51	0
XTY29	Shiyantou	220.6	0.5	0
XTY28	Shiyantou	219.6	0.55	0.04
XTY27	Shiyantou	218.6	0.59	0
XTY26	Shiyantou	217.6	0.36	0.09
XTY25	Shiyantou	216.6	0.58	0.01
XTY24	Shiyantou	215.6	0.55	0.01
XTY23	Shiyantou	214.6	0.53	0.04
XTY22	Shiyantou	213.6	0.52	0.01
XTY21	Shiyantou	212.6	0.59	0
XTY20	Shiyantou	211.64	0.58	0.07
XTY19f	Shiyantou	211.44	0.58	0.01
XTY19e	Shiyantou	211.27	0.54	0.01

Table S3

[Click here to download Table: Supplementary Table S3.xlsx](#) $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ data for early Cambrian successions in the Yangtze Block.

Sample	Formation	Height (m)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sed}}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (‰)	Data Sources
Xiaotan section, Yunan, South China					
XTY 61	Yu'anshan	611.6	2.4	-25.1	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 60	Yu'anshan	591.6	2.7	-31.9	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 59	Yu'anshan	576.6	2.5	-27.8	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 58	Yu'anshan	561.6	2.7	-27.0	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 57	Yu'anshan	550.6	2.7	-27.9	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 56	Yu'anshan	540.6	2.6	-26.4	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 55	Yu'anshan	531.6	2.7	-26.8	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 54	Yu'anshan	526.6	2.7	-27.3	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 53	Yu'anshan	521.6	2.5	-26.0	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 52	Yu'anshan	516.6	2.8	-28.9	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 51	Yu'anshan	511.6	2.8	-29.1	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 50	Yu'anshan	509.6	2.5	-26.2	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 49	Yu'anshan	507.8	2.7	-27.6	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 48	Yu'anshan	505.8	1.8	-28.6	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 44	Yu'anshan	499.4	2.2	-28.4	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 43	Yu'anshan	498.1	2.3	-28.5	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 42	Yu'anshan	495.1	2.3	-28.2	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 41	Yu'anshan	491.1	2.2	-27.6	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 40	Yu'anshan	489.5	1.9	-28.0	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 39	Yu'anshan	487.5	1.9	-27.2	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 38	Yu'anshan	486.5	2.0	-27.3	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 37	Yu'anshan	485.8	1.9	-27.4	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 36	Yu'anshan	485.2	1.8	-27.8	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 35	Yu'anshan	484.2	1.8	-27.6	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 34	Shiyantou	483.2	1.2	-28.8	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 33	Shiyantou	473.2	1.5	-29.5	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 32	Shiyantou	463.2	1.4	-30.4	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 31	Shiyantou	453.2	1.1	-30.5	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 30	Shiyantou	443.2	1.5	-29.7	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 29	Shiyantou	441.7	1.7	-30.0	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 28	Shiyantou	440.7	0.6	-29.9	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 27	Shiyantou	439.7	0.9	-30.4	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 26	Shiyantou	438.7	0.9	-29.8	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 25	Shiyantou	437.7	0.6	-29.4	Cremonese et al., 2013
XTY 24	Shiyantou	436.7	1.0	-29.6	Cremonese et al., 2013
CJ2 section, Yunan, South China					
	Yu'anshan	55.8	-2.2	-29.7	Hammarlund et al., 2017
	Yu'anshan	59.0	0.6	-29.5	Hammarlund et al., 2017
	Yu'anshan	61.8	1.0	-29.8	Hammarlund et al., 2017
	Yu'anshan	64.0	-0.9	-29.8	Hammarlund et al., 2017