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Oxygenation of Ediacaran Ocean recorded by iron isotopes

Haifeng Fan^{a,b}, Xiangkun Zhu^{a,*}, Hanjie Wen^b, Bin Yan^a, Jin Li^a, Lianjun Feng^c

^a Laboratory of Isotope Geology, State Key Laboratory of Continental Tectonics and Dynamics, Institute of Geology, Chinese Academy of Geological Sciences, Beijing 100037, China

^b State Key Laboratory of Ore Deposit Geochemistry, Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guiyang 550002, China ^c Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China

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Abstract

The increase in atmospheric oxygen during the late Neoproterozoic Era (ca. 800–542 Ma) may have stimulated the oxygenation of the deep oceans and the evolution of macroscopic multicellular organisms. However, the mechanism and magnitude of Neoproterozoic oxygenation remain uncertain. We present Fe isotopes, Fe species and other geochemical data for two sections of the Doushantuo Formation (ca. 635–551 Ma) deposited after the Nantuo glacial episode in the Yangtze Gorge area, South China. It is highlighted that highly positive δ^{56} Fe values reflect a lower oxidation rate of Fe(II)_{aq} under ferruginous conditions, and in turn near zero δ^{56} Fe values indicate oxidizing conditions. Our study suggests that during the deposition of the bottom of Member II of the Doushantuo Formation the shallow seawater was oxic, but the deep water was characterized by ferruginous conditions, which is consistent with a redox chemical stratification model. Subsequent anoxic conditions under shallow seawater, represented by positive δ^{56} Fe and negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions, should be ascribed to the upwelling of Fe(II)_{aq} and dissolved organic carbon (DOC)-rich anoxic deep seawater. The oxidation of Fe (II)_{aq} and DOC-rich anoxic deep seawater upon mixing with oxic shallow water provides an innovative explanation for the well-known negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions (ENC2) and positive δ^{56} Fe excursions in the middle of Doushantuo Formation. Meanwhile, the upwelling Fe (II)_{aq} - and DOC-rich anoxic deep seawater could increase photosynthetic activity. The balance between oxygen consumption and production was most important criteria for the oxygenation of Early Ediacaran Ocean and diversity of eukaryotic organisms.

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1. INTRODUCTION

A significant change of Earth surface redox is thought to have occurred during the late Neoproterozoic, and is often referred to as the "Neoproterozoic Oxygenation Event" (Canfield, 2005; Shields-Zhou and Och, 2011). However, the mechanism and magnitude of the oxygenation event have not been well constrained. Several lines of geochemical evidence suggest that the Ediacaran (635–541 Ma) surface and deep ocean became oxygenated. The evidence includes

* Corresponding author. Tel./fax: +86 1068999798. E-mail address: xkzhu0824@gmail.com (X. Zhu). the increase of sulfur isotopic fractionation between coexisting sulfide and sulfate (Fike et al., 2006), the lower ratio between highly reactive Fe (Fe_{HR}) and total Fe (Fe_T) (Canfield et al., 2007), the enrichment of redox-sensitive trace elements (Sahoo et al., 2012) and the significant negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion (Fike et al., 2006; McFadden et al., 2008). Recently, the oxygenation model for the Ediacaran Ocean has been challenged by a redox chemical stratification model, with oxic surface water underlain by a thin ferruginous layer, an euxinic wedge and ferruginous deep water (Li et al., 2010).

Many studies have focused on Ediacaran chemo-stratigraphic correlation by coupling carbon, oxygen and sulfur isotopes, in which striking negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions were

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gca.2014.05.029 0016-7037/© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. recorded. The remarkable negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions have been observed not only in the Doushantuo Formation of South China (McFadden et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2013), but also in equivalent strata from other sites worldwide (Fike et al., 2006; Bjerrum and Canfield, 2011). Most authors have suggested that the negative δ^{13} - C_{carb} excursions reflect seawater column stratification and the oxygenation of a large DOC reservoir sourced from anoxic deep seawater (Fike et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2007; McFadden et al., 2008). This popular interpretation has also been challenged by alternative scenarios involving secondary alteration by meteoric water and burial diagenesis (Knauth and Kennedy, 2009; Derry, 2010).

The Fe isotopic composition of modern and ancient marine sedimentary rocks and minerals, such as banded iron formations, pyrites in black shale, and carbonates, is useful for understanding the redox condition of seawater and Fe geochemical cycling (Johnson et al., 2003, 2008; Rouxel et al., 2005; Yamaguchi et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 2008a; Duan et al., 2010; Asael et al., 2013). The dissolved Fe (II)_{aq} in surface water is commonly oxidized by abiotic and biotic processes to form ferric oxides, which result in the enrichment of the heavier Fe isotopes in ferric oxide (hematite, goethite and magnetite) with fractionation relative to Fe(II)_{aq} ranging from 1% to 3.5% (Bullen et al., 2001; Johnson et al., 2002; Welch et al., 2003; Croal et al., 2004). Under anoxic and euxinic conditions, Fe(II)_{aq} would preferentially be precipitated as an FeS_m phase or pyrite into sediments. This would promote the accumulation of the lighter Fe isotopes in the sediments as the authigenic FeS_m phase and pyrite have isotope fractionations ranging from -0.3% to -3.0% (Rouxel et al., 2005; Butler et al., 2005; Guilbaud et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2008a; Wu et al., 2012a). However, highly negative δ^{56} Fe values in Precambrian ferric oxides were also reported, which is commonly interpreted as the presence of microbial Fe(III)-reduction (Beard et al., 2003; Yamaguchi et al., 2005; Johnson and Beard, 2005). Highly positive δ^{56} Fe values in Precambrian pyrites reflect the diagenetic origin of these pyrites after ferric oxides (Nishizawa et al., 2010; Fabre et al., 2011; Yoshiya et al., 2012). Ferrous carbonates (e.g., siderite, ankerite) can also be part of the iron sink in ancient oceanic systems. These ferrous carbonates usually show negative δ^{56} Fe values at isotopic equilibrium conditions (Yamaguchi et al., 2005; Frost et al., 2007; Von Blanckenburg et al., 2008), consistent with experimental studies that estimate isotope fractionation ranging from -0.5% to -0.9% between ferrous carbonate and Fe(II)_{aq} (Wiesli et al., 2004; Johnson et al., 2005).

Here we present Fe and carbon isotopes, and other geochemical data of cherts, carbonates and phosphorites from Early Ediacaran Doushantuo Formation (Member II–III) in South China, to trace the redox environment of Ediacaran Ocean and to constrain the oxidation mechanism of DOC. Together with their deposition condition, our data highlight that Ediacaran seawater can be characterized by a redox chemical stratification model and that the oxidation of upwelling Fe(II)_{aq}- and DOC-rich anoxic deep water into oxic shallow water could be an important mechanism controlling these redox conditions.

2. GEOLOGICAL SETTING AND STRATIGRAPHY

Ediacaran successions in South China developed on a south-southeast facing (present day position) passive margin on the Yangtze Craton after the breakup of Rodinia about 850–750 Ma (Wang and Li, 2003). The Cryogenian glacial and interglacial successions (750–635 Ma) record rift-drift transition, although there is a lack of the exact timing of the rifting events in China (Jiang et al., 2003). Subsequent Ediacaran deposition (635–541 Ma) occurred in a marginal environment and focused on topographic highs and lows created by fault blocks during development of the Nanhua Rift system (Jiang et al., 2003; Zhu et al., 2007).

The Ediacaran successions, including Doushantuo and Dengying (or Liuchapo) Formations in South China, display a significant variation of strata thickness from >1000 m in the shallow water platform to <250 m in the deep marine basin (Zhu et al., 2007, 2013; Jiang et al., 2007, 2011). The Doushantuo Formation is underlain by the Cryogenian Nantuo Formation diamictite and overlain by Dengying Formation peritidal dolostone and organismrich limestone (e.g., Jiang et al., 2007, 2011; McFadden et al., 2008, 2009; Zhu et al., 2007, 2013). The age of Doushantuo Formation in the Yangtze Gorges area has been constrained between 635.2 ± 0.6 Ma and 551.1 ± 0.7 Ma by zircon U-Pb ages obtained from interbedded volcanic ash (Condon et al., 2005). The Doushantuo Formation which varies in thickness from 90 to 200 m, was deposited under subtidal or intertidal conditions and is usually divided into four different lithologic members (McFadden et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2011) (Fig. 1). Member I is a 5 m-thick cap dolostone. Member II (80–120 m thick) contains alternating black shale and dolostone with abundant pea-sized fossiliferous cherty nodules. Member III consists of 40-60 m massive and laminated dolostones interbedded with cherty bands or lenses. In both Member II and III, these cherty nodules and bands preserved abundant silicified microfossils including acritarchs, coccoidal and filamentous cyanobacterial, multicellular algae, doubtful embryos and tubular microfossils (e.g., Xiao, 2004; McFadden et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013). Recent biostratigraphic studies suggested that the lower biozone (Tianzhushania spinosa and Meghystrichosphaeridium magnificum) and the upper biozone (Ericiasphaera rigida and Tianzhushania spinosa) persevered in early diagenetic cherty nodules and bands can be easily identified in most of sections of the Doushantuo Formation (McFadden et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013). Member IV is a layer of 10 m thick black organism-rich shale, siliceous shale, or mudstone.

In this study, the Baiguoyuan (BGY) section (shallower water) and the Liuhuiwan (LHW) section (deeper water) were investigated. Their locations and stratigraphies were well described by Zhu et al. (2013) and Liu et al. (2013) (Fig. 1). The Baiguoyuan section is located at N31°19'31.1", E111°03'33.1" in the northwestern limb of the Huangling Anticline (Fig. 1A). Aside from the lowermost part (Member I), the Doushantuo Formation is well exposed. The lowest exposed part of the Doushantuo

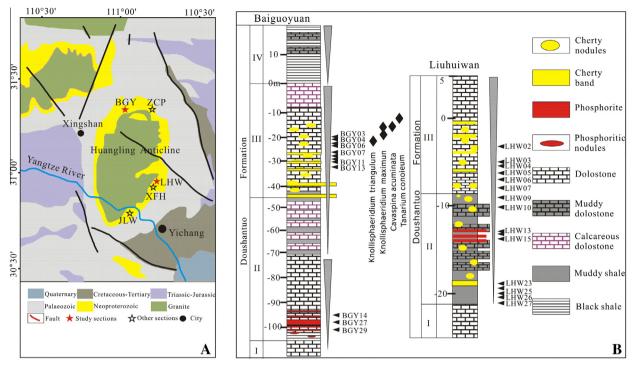


Fig. 1. Geological map of Yangtze Gorge area (A), locations and stratigraphic correlation of the Liuhuiwan section and the Baiguoyuan section (B), modified from Zhu et al. (2013) and Liu et al. (2013). Sample locations also have been shown in Fig. 1B.

Formation in this section contains ~ 4 m of dark phosphorites interbedded with dolostones (Fig. 1B). The phosphorite unit is succeeded by a 4 m-thick unit of grey, thick-bedded dolostone, followed by 20 m-thick dolostone and 30 m-thick black silty shale with muddy dolostone interlayer (Member II). This unit was followed by an ~ 50 m grey middle-thick dolostone (Member III), in which abundant cherty nodules or irregular cherty bands are occasionally observed (Fig. 1B). In these cherty nodules of Member III, four acritarch species have been identified, including *Cavaspina acuminata, Knollisphaeridium maximum, Knollisphaeridium triangulum* and *Tanarium conoideum* (Liu et al., 2013, Fig. 1B). At the top of the section, a 15 m-thick black shale hosts thin dolostone layers and represents Member IV.

The Liuhuiwan section is located near the village of Liuhuiwan, $\sim 2 \text{ km}$ north of Xiaofeng town (N30°57'11.3", E111°16'59.2", Fig. 1A). Recent field investigation indicated that Member IV is absent on the east limb (from Liuhuiwan to Niuping) of the Huangling Anticline (Liu et al., 2013, Fig. 1B). The section represents the best exposure of an important transitional succession (shale-dominated facies to carbonate-dominated facies) in the middle of the second sequence of the Doushantuo Formation in the southern Huangling Anticline. This succession is generally not well exposed in other sections from the Yangtze Gorges area. The basal 10 m succession is composed of intercalated dark grey laminated dolostone and shale with abundant cherty nodules (Fig. 1B). Up the section, there is a 2.5 m thick unit of massive dolostone with abundant cherty nodules overlain by 1.5 m of phosphorite interbedded with muddy dolostone, cherty bands and nodules (Fig. 1B). Further up the section, there is a cliff section composed of \sim 6.5 m of thick grey dolostone which contains abundant irregular cherty bands and nodules. At the top of the section, there is a layer of whitish grey dolomitic grainstone without cherty nodules and bands.

3. SAMPLES AND METHODS

3.1. Sample description

The freshest large block samples, including cherts (cherty nodules and bands), dolostones and phosphorites, were collected from the Doushantuo Formation (Members II and III) at the Baiguoyuan and Liuhuiwan sections in the Yangtze Gorge area (Fig. 1B). The diameters of the cherty nodules that occurred in the dolostone and mudstone range from several millimeters to a couple of centimeters (Fig. 2A). These cherty nodules usually contain high organic carbon and disseminated pyrite (Xiao et al., 2010), and control the distribution of acanthomorphic acritarchs (McFadden et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013). The cherty bands occur as 1-10 cm thick discrete bands interbedded with dolostones and mudstones in the field (Fig. 2B). These cherty bands contain rare acanthomorphic acritarchs but also other abundant microfossils (McFadden et al., 2009). These cherts (nodules and bands) are composed of about 80-96% or more silica, present as microcrystalline, micro- and mega-quartz, and a few carbonate minerals (Fig. 2C and D) which suggest that these cherts formed by replacement of primarily carbonate with silicarich solution during early diagenesis (Xiao et al., 2010). There are also a few quartz veins crossing through the early diagenetic quartz and carbonates (Fig. 2C). We propose

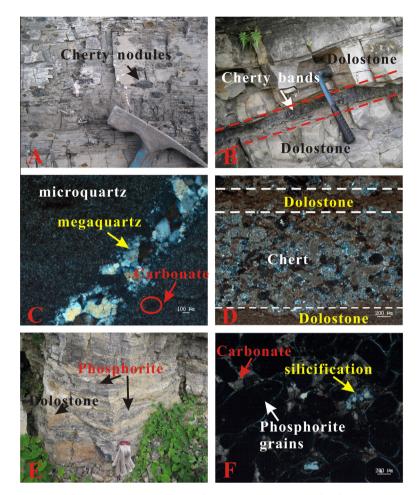


Fig. 2. (A and B) Field photographs of cherts (nodules and bands) from Doushantuo Formation in the Yangtze Gorge area. (C and D) Thin section photomicrographs of two chert samples (LHW25 and BGY07) indicated that cherts would be formed likely by the means of replacement of carbonate sediments with silica-rich solution which has taken place before compaction and calcite cementation (Xiao et al., 2010). However, direct precipitation of dissolved silica from the ambient seawater cannot be excluded. (E) Field photography of phosphorite at lower part of the Baiguoyuan section; (F) Thin section of a phosphorite (BGY14), phosphatic grains in total extinction under cross-polarized transmitted light.

that these cherty bands could also include some products formed by direct precipitation of dissolved silica from ambient seawater, based on the texture of the microquartz and carbonate (Fig. 2C and D). Phosphorite bands (2– 10 cm) in the two sections are interbedded with dolostones (Fig. 2E). Silicification also can be observed in these phosphorites (Fig. 2F).

3.2. Analytical methods

3.2.1. Major and trace element analyses

The potential weathered surfaces of samples have been removed by cutting machine before crushing into powders for chemical analysis. The major elements of twenty-eight samples were measured by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) using lithium tetraborate powder pelleting at the ALS Chemex (Guangzhou) Co., Ltd. The standard reference materials (SRM) were analyzed together with unknown samples and the results suggested that the accuracy is better than 5%.

The trace element concentrations were analyzed using an ICP-MS at the Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences. All samples were first ashed at 500 °C to remove organic materials. Subsequently, the ashed samples were digested with a mixture of HNO₃ and HF acids at 130 °C for 72 h in a clean room. A small aliquot of digestion solution was taken for trace element concentration. The accuracy is better than 3%, which is calculated from the results of standard reference materials such as GBPG-1 (Garnet-Biotite Plagiogneiss), OU-6 (Penrhyn Slate) and AMH-1 (Mount Hood Andesite) (Qi et al., 2000).

3.2.2. Fe isotope analysis

The chemical purification of dissolved whole rocks for Fe isotope analysis was carried out by AGMP-1 resin following the method from Zhu et al. (2008b) and Zhao et al. (2012). Fe isotopic compositions were measured using a Nu–MC–ICP–MS at the Institute of Geology, Chinese Academy of Geological Sciences. Fe isotopic results are expressed in the standard notation as δ^{56} Fe deviation from IRMM-014. Accuracy of each analytical run and long-term reproducibility were tested by routine analyses of two lab standards (CAGS-Fe, GSR-3) and an international

Table 1
Chemical composition, iron and carbon isotopic composition of samples in the Baiguoyuan (BGY) section and the Liuhuiwan (LHW) section.

Sample	Description	Depth(m)	$\delta^{57} Fe_{WR}$		δ ⁵⁶ Fe _v	VR	$\delta^{13}C_{\text{Car}}$	SiO ₂ (%)	Al ₂ O ₃ (%)	Fe ₂ O ₃ (%)	P_2O_5 (%)	TREE (ppm)	Zr (ppm)	Fe/Al
			‰	2σ	‰	2σ								
The Liuhu	iwan section													
LHW02	Chert	-3.5	1.41	0.19	0.94	0.07	2.34	92.21	0.17	0.07	0.64	19.21	1.87	0.54
LHW03	Chert	-5.0	1.88	0.15	1.26	0.08	0.28	75.11	0.19	0.05	0.17	6.46	2.29	0.35
LHW03	Duplicated	-5.0	1.89	0.16	1.26	0.10								0.35
LHW04	Chert	-6.0	1.84	0.20	1.13	0.17	-0.47	93.85	0.15	0.06	0.42	12.65	2.90	0.53
LHW05	Chert	-6.5	1.38	0.10	0.94	0.17	-0.19	86.85	0.26	0.08	0.22	8.38	3.80	0.41
LHW06	Dolostone	-7.0	0.69	0.09	0.47	0.11	-0.67	9.03	0.81	0.41	0.95	28.40	6.85	0.67
LHW07	Chert	-8.0	1.14	0.08	0.76	0.08	-2.03	84.03	0.17	0.10	0.48	9.08	2.19	0.78
LHW09	Chert	-9.0	0.98	0.15	0.65	0.13	-0.70	77.26	0.22	0.12	1.60	16.38	3.01	0.72
LHW10	Chert	-10.5	0.42	0.06	0.23	0.06	-1.10	86.31	0.18	0.07	0.58	16.28	3.10	0.51
LHW13	Chert	-12.8					-0.19	87.92	0.07	0.01	0.10	1.26	0.59	0.19
LHW14	Chert	-13.0					-0.40	92.75	0.08	0.01	0.06	0.86	0.54	0.17
LHW15	Phosphorite	-13.9	0.62	0.12	0.44	0.06	0.80	5.65	0.50	0.24	17.85	145.24	9.70	0.63
LHW23	Chert	-18.0	0.37	0.08	0.25	0.04	1.74	67.98	0.33	0.45	0.11	13.52	3.76	1.80
LHW23	Duplicated	-18.0	0.32	0.17	0.20	0.04								
LHW24	Chert	-19.0	0.92	0.01	0.66	0.05	1.47	77.51	0.33	0.14	0.58	20.20	3.32	0.56
LHW25	Chert	-20.0	0.73	0.19	0.42	0.23	2.87	80.56	0.19	0.18	0.40	14.17	4.27	1.25
LHW26	Chert	-21.0	0.63	0.13	0.42	0.09		84.51	0.15	0.03	0.68	15.52	2.14	0.26
LHW27	Dolostone	-22.0	0.65	0.01	0.43	0.05	2.08	11.81	1.06	0.71	0.68	29.65	16.80	0.89
The Baigu	oyuan section													
BGY03	Chert	-20	_'				1.26	95.85	0.12	0.05	0.51	16.74	2.50	0.55
BGY04	Chert	-20.5	0.40	0.20	0.29	0.21	2.34	86.71	0.53	0.26	0.70	71.67	19.80	0.65
BGY05	Chert	-22.5	0.31	0.19	0.22	0.20	-3.39	95.50	0.31	0.10	0.53	51.57	8.23	0.43
BGY06	Dolostone	-23	0.61	0.13	0.39	0.09	0.18	10.89	0.58	0.29	0.26	28.50	8.73	0.66
BGY07	Chert	-27.5	_				-0.34	92.85	0.07	0.02	0.04	3.25	0.92	0.36
BGY08	Chert	-28.7	0.94	0.03	0.61	0.04	1.51	93.50	0.25	0.78	0.18	10.18	2.63	4.13
BGY08	Duplicated	-28.7	0.95	0.02	0.63	0.15								
BGY10	Chert	-29	1.30	0.01	0.89	0.04	4.29	94.76	0.15	0.14	0.07	6.79	2.55	1.23
BGY11	Dolostone	-30	0.25	0.16	0.18	0.10	5.70	14.14	0.88	0.59	0.07	23.13	10.50	0.89
BGY13	Chert	-33	0.73	0.22	0.54	0.20	5.54	82.00	0.13	0.05	0.03	6.80	1.71	0.51
BGY14	Phosphorite	-94	0.79	0.05	0.54	0.02	-5.77	17.77	0.22	0.45	32.12	537.55	14.60	2.70
BGY14	Duplicated	-94	0.74	0.08	0.50	0.06								
BGY27	Phosphorite	-96	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.03	-4.76	14.96	3.78	0.83	30.31	204.59	48.10	0.29
BGY29	Phosphorite	-100	0.12	0.13	0.09	0.01	-2.51	11.55	2.20	0.91	31.54	198.64	32.90	0.55
The result.	s of Geostandards	1												
BCR-2	BCR-2 Basalt			0.116					0.07			Our lab, Zhao et al. (2012)		
			0.116				0.08		0.09	0.01		Craddock and Dauphas (2011		
GSR-3		Basalt	0.23				0.08		0.14 0.09			This study		
			0.232				0.028		0.154	0.022		Craddock and Dauphas (2011		
BHVO-1		Basalt	0.17				0.04		0.11	0.09		This study		
		0.161		1		0.012		0.105		0.008		Craddock and Dauphas (2011		

geostandard (BHVO-1), which suggested that the external long-term reproducibility (2σ) for δ^{56} Fe measurements using this method is $\pm 0.10\%$ (Zhao et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2013).

3.2.3. Fe species extraction

The different iron species including Fe-carbonate, Feoxide and Fe-magnetite, were extracted following the method established by Poulton and Canfield (2005). 200 mg of sample powder was firstly treated with a buffered sodium acetate solution for 48 h to extract Fe-carbonate phase (Siderite and Ankerite). The residual sample was then extracted with a sodium dithionite solution for 2 h to liberate crystalline ferric oxides (e.g. Ferrihydrite, Goethite and Hematite). Finally, the sample was treated with an ammonium oxalate solution for 6 h to dissolve magnetite. Fe contents were measured by Atomic Absorption Spectrometry (AAS). The Fe-pyrite fraction was calculated from Ag₂S produced by the chromous chloride distillation (Canfield et al., 1986).

3.2.4. Carbon isotope analysis

The carbon isotope analysis was carried out at the Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences. About 0.5-5 mg of sample powder was reacted with 10 ml anhydrous H₃PO₄ for 10 min at 90 °C in a Multi-

prep inlet system connected to a Finnigan MAT 253 Mass Spectrometer. Isotopic results are expressed in the standard notation as per mil ($\%_{00}$) deviation from V-PDB ($\delta^{13}C_{carb}$). Uncertainties determined by multiple measurements of NBS-19 (TS-limestone) were better than $0.05\%_{00}$ (1 σ).

4. RESULTS

4.1. Major and trace elements

Most cherts from the two sections usually contain lower Fe_2O_3 (<0.78%), Al_2O_3 (<0.33%), Zr (<1.62 ppm) and total rear earth elements (TREE) (<20.20 ppm), but higher SiO_2 (>67.98%) than dolostones and phosphorites (Table 1). Only two cherts (BGY04, 05) from the BGY section show higher Al_2O_3 (0.31–0.53%) and TREE contents (51.57–71.67 ppm). Fe/Al ratios of all samples are close to or higher than that of average crust (0.55, Lyons and Severmann, 2006).

4.2. Fe isotopic composition

All of the cherts investigated in this study yield more positive δ^{56} Fe values than those of modern oxic deep-sea cherts (-0.48% to +0.23%, Rouxel et al., 2003) (Table

Table 2

Samples	Discription	Depth (m)	Fecar	Feox	Fe _{mag}	Fepy	Fe _{HR}	Fe _{Sili}	Fe_{T}	Fe_{HR}/Fe_{T}	Fe _{py} /Fe _{HR}
			%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
Liuhuiwan	Section										
LHW02	Chert	-3.5	0.003	0.013	0.006	0.006	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.56	0.2
LHW03	Chert	-5.0	0.005	0.006	0.008	0.011	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.75	0.37
LHW04	Chert	-6.0	0.003	0.008	0.011	0.011	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.79	0.34
LHW05	Chert	-6.5	0.003	0.006	0.008	0.006	0.02	0.04	0.06	0.41	0.25
LHW06	Dolostone	-7.0	0.025	0.018	0.016	0.005	0.06	0.23	0.29	0.22	0.08
LHW07	Chert	-8.0	0.005	0.01	0.01	0.004	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.42	0.14
LHW09	Chert	-9.0	0.003	0.008	0.008	0.006	0.02	0.06	0.08	0.29	0.23
LHW10	Chert	-10.5	0.002	0.009	0.005	0.004	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.41	0.19
LHW15	Phosphorite	-13.9	0.001	0.011	0.023	0.002	0.04	0.13	0.17	0.22	0.06
LHW23	Chert	-18.0	0.007	0.017	0.035	0.022	0.08	0.24	0.32	0.26	0.27
LHW23	Chert	-18.0	0.007	0.017	0.035	0.022	0.08	0.24	0.32	0.26	0.27
LHW24	Chert	-19.0	0.009	0.009	0.027	0.006	0.05	0.05	0.1	0.51	0.11
LHW25	Chert	-20.0	0.009	0.008	0.026	0.017	0.06	0.07	0.13	0.47	0.28
LHW26	Chert	-21.0	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.44	0.2
LHW27	Dolostone	-22.0	0.006	0.03	0.08	0.005	0.12	0.38	0.5	0.24	0.04
Baiguoyua	n Section										
BGY03	Chert	-20	0.001	0.006	0.009	0	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.44	0
BGY04	Chert	-20.5	0.003	0.016	0.036	0.011	0.07	0.11	0.18	0.37	0.17
BGY05	Chert	-22.5	0.003	0.011	0.011	0.006	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.43	0.19
BGY06	Dolostone	-23	0.006	0.01	0.013	0.002	0.03	0.17	0.2	0.15	0.07
BGY07	Chert	-27.5	0.003	0.003	0.003	0	0.01	0	0.01	0.71	0
BGY08	Chert	-28.7	0.008	0.015	0.04	0.08	0.14	0.41	0.55	0.26	0.56
BGY10	Chert	-29	0.003	0.007	0.051	0.009	0.07	0.03	0.1	0.72	0.13
BGY11	Dolostone	-30	0.039	0.026	0.09	0.004	0.16	0.25	0.41	0.38	0.03
BGY13	Chert	-33	0.011	0.006	0.004	0.004	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.7	0.17
BGY14	Phosphorite	-94	0.001	0.021	0.026	0.012	0.06	0.26	0.32	0.19	0.2
BGY27	Phosphorite	-96	0	0.033	0.053	0.014	0.1	0.48	0.58	0.17	0.14
BGY29	Phosphorite	-100	0.001	0.03	0.096	0.009	0.14	0.5	0.64	0.21	0.06

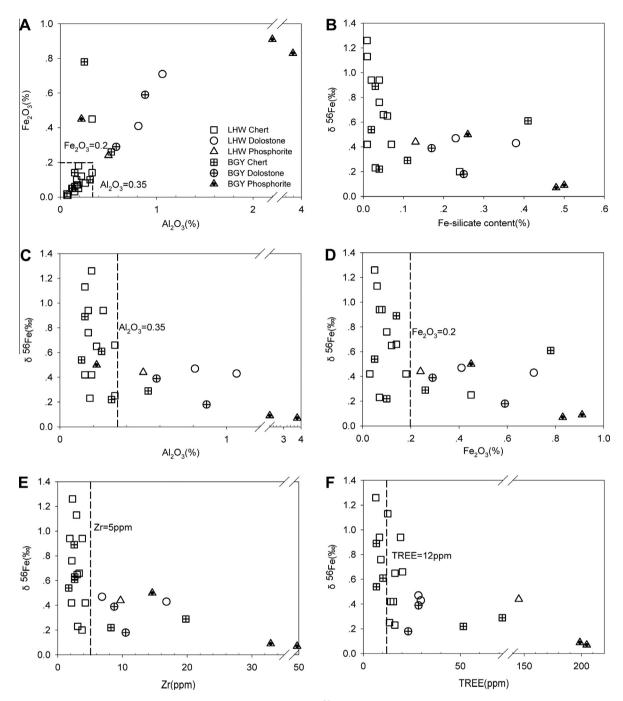


Fig. 3. Crossplots of Fe₂O₃ content against Al₂O₃ content (A), and δ^{56} Fe value versus Fe-silicate content (B), Al₂O₃ content (C), Fe₂O₃ content (D), Zr content (E) and TREE content (F) show two Fe isotopic end-members including detritus Fe with near zero δ^{56} Fe value and highly reactive Fe (Fe_{HR}) with positive but variable δ^{56} Fe value. These dash lines represent a criteria of negligible contamination of detritus, Al₂O₃ < 0.35%, Fe₂O₃ < 0.20%, Zr < 5 ppm and TREE < 12 ppm, following Ling et al. (2013) and based on our data.

1). The δ^{56} Fe value of the cherts from the LHW section varied in a wide range from 0.20 ± 0.04 to $1.26 \pm 0.10\%$. The cherts from the BGY section also show a broad range of δ^{56} Fe values ranging from 0.22 ± 0.20 to $0.89 \pm 0.04\%$. The δ^{56} Fe values of dolostones from two sections cannot be distinguished, with an average of $0.37 \pm 0.13\%$. One of the phosphorites from the BGY section shows the same δ^{56} Fe value (0.44%) as those from the LHW section.

Another two phosphorites from the BGY section show near zero δ^{56} Fe values (on average 0.08‰).

4.3. Carbon isotopic composition

A narrow range of $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ values were obtained, varying from 2.87% to -2.03% for all samples from the LHW section, whereas those from the BGY section show a broader range from 5.70% to -5.77% (Table 1). There are two negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions preserved in upper cherts (BGY05) and lower phosphorites of the BGY section. The upper negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion of the BGY section could easily correspond with the negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion in the LHW section, which is consistent with published data (Zhu et al., 2013).

4.4. Fe speciation

Fe species data (Table 2) indicates that most of the highly reactive Fe (Fe_{HR}) is present as ferric oxides (hematite, goethite and magnetite) rather than ferrous pyrite (generally <15%, except LHW03, 04) and carbonate in cherts, dolostones and phosphorites. In addition to highly reactive Fe, abundant Fe-silicate was observed in dolostones, phosphorites and three cherts (LHW09, 23, BGY08). These samples commonly show lower Fe_{HR}/Fe_T ratios (generally <0.29). The higher Fe_{HR}/Fe_T ratio samples (>0.38) were recorded in most of the cherts from two investigated sections. Most of our samples show very low Fe_{Py}/Fe_T ratios (generally <0.37, except BGY08).

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Fe isotopic composition

The δ^{56} Fe values of the whole rock analyses were controlled by the relative amounts of different Fe-bearing minerals, such as ferric oxides (hematite, goethite and magnetite), ferrous pyrite and carbonate, and Fe-silicate from continental detritus. Although Fe isotopic fractionation was dominantly produced by redox reaction of different Fe-minerals, previous studies suggested that early diagenetic processes and later alteration could also result in Fe isotopic fractionation. In this section, effects of different processes on Fe isotopic composition of whole rocks will be discussed in detail.

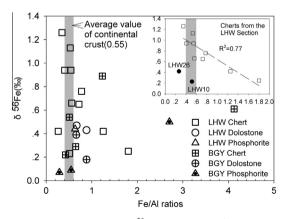


Fig. 4. Relationship between δ^{56} Fe value and Fe/Al molar ratio. Samples show a broad range of δ^{56} Fe value at near-continental crust Fe/Al ratio. A negative correlation ($R^2 = 0.77$, except LHW10, 26) has been observed in the LHW section which could reflect weak diagenetic effect. Nonetheless, these observations indicated that early diagenetic alteration had not produced significant Fe isotopic fractionation in our samples.

5.1.1. Detrital effects

Fe speciation data show that abundant detrital Fe-silicate is present in dolostones, phosphorites and some cherts. Silicate minerals commonly contain higher TREE. Al and Zr contents (Nothdurft et al., 2004). Therefore, the positive correlation between Fe and Al (Fig. 3A) indicates the significant influence of Fe-detritus on total Fe content. The correlation between δ^{56} Fe value and Fe-silicate content, Al₂O₃, Fe₂O₃, Zr and TREE contents for all samples (Fig. 3) indicate that Fe-detritus content could play an important role in diluting δ^{56} Fe signal of the whole rocks. There are two end-members that can be recognized to explain δ^{56} Fe values recorded in whole rocks: (1) continental detritus with higher Al, Zr and TREE contents, and near zero δ^{56} Fe values (0.05%, Beard et al., 2003); (2) highly reactive $Fe(II)_{aq}$ with positive but varied $\delta^{56}Fe$ dependent on the redox condition. Following a previous study (Ling et al., 2013) and based on our data, a criteria of negligible contamination of detritus (Al < 0.35%, Fe < 0.20%, Zr < 5 ppm and TREE < 12 ppm) was used to estimate δ^{56} Fe value of our samples. Most of the cherts satisfy the composition criteria and show a broad range of $\delta^{56} Fe$ values, suggesting that δ^{56} Fe values of the whole rocks were not significantly influenced by Fe-detritus from continental sources, but by other processes.

5.1.2. Early Diagenetic effects

Early diagenetic processes could include dissimilatory iron reduction (DIR) (Severmann et al., 2006) and bacterial sulfate reduction (Xiao et al., 2010) associated with organic matter oxidation. DIR could significantly change the Fe isotopic composition of individual Fe-bearing minerals in sediments and diagenetic pore waters (e.g., Severmann et al., 2006; Staubwasser et al., 2006; Frost et al., 2007), although the process can only represent a minimum of total inventory of Fe cycled by bacteria (Heimann et al., 2010). Partial microbial reduction of iron oxide would produce a negative δ^{56} Fe value in the released Fe(II)_{aq} and a positive δ^{56} Fe value in the remaining iron oxide, because of the large isotopic fractionation (-3% to -1.3%) between released Fe(II)_{aq} and the reactive surface layer on the oxide formed during early diagenesis (Beard et al., 2003; Yamaguchi et al., 2005; Johnson and Beard, 2005). The Fe (II)aq released from primary oxides could be oxidized again under oxic conditions and/or transported to a deep water basin under anoxic conditions (Severmann et al., 2008). Most of our samples yield highly positive δ^{56} Fe values, which may be caused by the partial oxidative precipitation of Fe_{HR} and/or loss of the lighter Fe isotope by significant dissimilatory iron reduction in early diagenesis. The loss of the lighter Fe isotope should be accompanied with decreasing Fe/Al ratios (Severmann et al., 2006, 2008; Asael et al., 2013) if there are significant dissimilatory iron reduction in early diagenesis, which is contrary to our samples proximity to continental sources or higher Fe/Al values. A rough negative correlation between δ^{56} Fe values and Fe/ Al ratios has been observed in cherts from the LHW section $(R^2 = 0.77, \text{ Fig. 4})$, which could indicate small loss of the lighter Fe isotope by dissimilatory iron reduction from sediments and subsequent transfer of the lighter Fe isotope from shelf to basin during early diagenesis. Anderson and Raiswell (2004) suggested that about 40% of highly reactive iron initially deposited in modern continental margin sediments can be transformed to dissolved ferrous iron and suspended iron oxides by DIR during early diagenesis, and then transported to deep basin. However, the microbial DIR during diagenesis was significantly decreased by 10 times under alkaline condition with dissolved Si (Wu et al., 2009). Therefore, we proposed that effect of DIR on Fe isotope of whole rocks was significantly discounted.

In addition, the cherts in our study area represent the silicification and replacement of primary carbonate during the early digenetic process (Xiao et al., 2010), although the direct precipitation of authigenic silica from seawater also occurred. Fe isotopic fractionation and chemical cycling during silicification are not well known. Busigny and Dauphas (2007) found that the abiotic dissolution of Fe-oxides did not produce significant Fe isotope fractionation during diagenesis. Regardless, we assumed that silicification grade should be correlated with δ^{56} Fe values and Fe content, if Fe isotopic composition and chemical cycling were directly affected by silicification. However, the absence of correlations between the SiO₂ content and δ^{56} Fe value and Fe/Al ratios suggests that silicification did not produce significant Fe isotopic fractionation during early diagenesis. Therefore, we argue that most of cherts preserved the primary Fe isotopic signature of the whole rocks during deposition, rather than that of diagenetic alteration.

5.1.3. Redox environment effects

Discussion of detrital effects suggested that although the presence of abundant Fe from detritus could produce a significant effect on the δ^{56} Fe values of our whole rocks, detrital Fe participates little in redox cycling. In addition, the lighter Fe isotopes are preferentially incorporated into Fecarbonate phase at isotopic equilibrium conditions (Yamaguchi et al., 2005; Frost et al., 2007; Von Blanckenburg et al., 2008). Fe-carbonate extracted from shales and dolostones in our study area also show negative

and uniform Fe isotopic composition (on average -0.4%Yan, 2009). The Fe-carbonate content measured in our samples is low and does not show any relation against δ^{56} Fe values, which indicates that the δ^{56} Fe values of the whole rocks were not controlled by Fe-carbonate. In the discussion of the effect of redox condition on Fe isotopic composition, Fe-carbonate and Fe-silicate phases have been cut out based on a simple mass balance equation $(\delta^{56}Fe_T = f_{Silicate} * \delta^{56}Fe_{Silicate} + f_{Carbonate} * \delta^{56}Fe_{Carbonate} +$ $f_{Pvrite+Ferric oxide} *\delta^{56}Fe_{Pyrite+Ferric oxide}$. The fractions of different Fe-bearing phase were taken from Table 2. The δ^{56} Fe_{Silicate} value was given as the value of Bulk Silicate Earth (0.05%) from Beard et al. (2003), and the δ^{56} Fe_{Car-} bonate value was assumed based on the average δ^{56} Fe value (-0.4%) of Fe-carbonates from Doushantuo Formation in our study area (Yan, 2009). Although the two assumed number could be arbitrary in natural condition, it is should be homogeneous in our local condition. The recalibrated δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} represents mixing of the δ^{56} Fe values of pyrite and ferric oxide, which should be strongly controlled by the match ratio of pyrite and ferric oxide.

Experimental studies suggest that ferric oxides are enriched in heavier Fe isotopes by 0.9% to 3.0% in abiotic oxidation processes relative to initial Fe(II)_{aq} (Bullen et al., 2001; Johnson et al., 2002; Welch et al., 2003), and by 1.5% in anoxic photosynthetic processes (Croal et al., 2004). The Fe isotopic equilibrium fractionation between Fe(II)_{aq} and Fe(III)–Si co-precipitates would be enlarged to -3.51% ~-3.99% depending on different Fe/Si molar ratios (Wu et al., 2012b). By contrast, Fe-sulfides become enriched in the lighter Fe isotopes by -0.3% to -0.9% in FeS_{m} phases (Butler et al., 2005) and -3.0% to -1.7% in pyrite during kinetic fractionation processes (Guilbaud et al., 2011). The Fe isotope fractionation associated with FeS precipitation can be $0.32 \pm 0.29\%$ relative to initial Fe(II)_{aq} when kinetic isotopic fractionation evolves towards equilibrium (Wu et al., 2012a). Recently, Busigny et al.(2014) suggested that kinetic fractionation of Fe isotope is not significant for pyrite formed under ferruginous

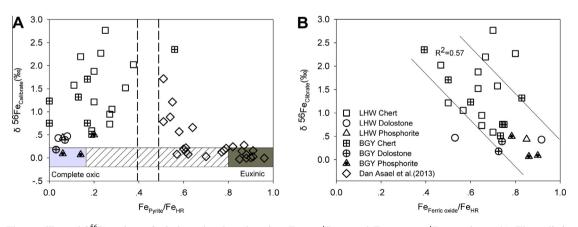


Fig. 5. The recalibrated δ^{56} Fe values of whole rocks plotted against Fe_{Pyrite}/Fe_{HR} and Fe_{Ferric oxide}/Fe_{HR} values. (A): Three distinct redox conditions can be recognized: (1) the oxic condition, (2) the anoxic/ferruginous condition, (3) the euxinic condition. The recalibrated δ^{56} Fe could reach a peak value in dash lines zone. (B): The rough negative correlation between δ^{56} Fe values and Fe_{Ferric oxide}/Fe_{HR} values indicated that highly positive δ^{56} Fe values reflect lower oxidation degree of Fe(II)_{aq} in seawater column, in turn, lower and near zero δ^{56} Fe values point to higher oxidation degree. R^2 was calculated from samples located between two straight lines.

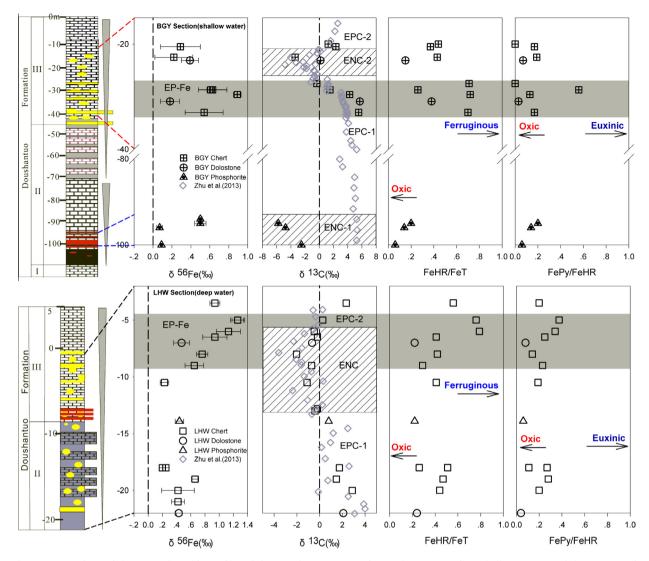


Fig. 6. Comparison of chemostratigraphic profiles of the Doushantuo Formation at the BGY section (shallow water) and the LHW section (deep water), with proposed chemostratigraphic correlation for Fe isotopic composition (grey shading). The major features of the calibrated δ^{56} Fe (EP-Fe), $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ value (ENC, ENC1, ENC2, EPC1 and EPC2) and Fe species (relative redox trend) are labeled.

system. The quantitative oxidation and sulfidation of $Fe(II)_{aq}$ in modern oxic/euxinic oceans can minimize the fractionation of Fe isotopes. However, significant Fe isotopic fractionation has been observed during partial oxidation and sulfidation of $Fe(II)_{aq}$ from the Archean ocean with abundant $Fe(II)_{aq}$ (Johnson et al., 2003, 2008; Rouxel et al., 2005). Positive δ^{56} Fe values for Archean oceanic sedimentary ferric oxide is generally considered to result from partial oxidation of $Fe(II)_{aq}$ in anoxic seawater (Johnson et al., 2008; Heimann et al., 2010; Fabre et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013).

Fig. 5 shows that the δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} values of our samples were strongly controlled by different redox conditions: (1) an oxic condition with the δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} values near that of seawater, abundant ferric oxide and little pyrite, metrics that reflect quantitative oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq} in a completely oxic seawater column; (2) an anoxic/ferruginous condition (transition between euxinic and oxic) with the positive but varied δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} values, intermediate ferric oxide and pyrite content, implying partial oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq} by free O₂ and other oxidants in anoxic seawater; 3) an euxinic condition with the δ^{56} Fe values near that of seawater, abundant pyrite and little ferric oxide, representing complete sulfidation of Fe(II)aq under H2S-rich conditions (Rouxel et al., 2005; Duan et al., 2010; Asael et al., 2013). The positive correlation of δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} with Fe_{Pyrite}/ Fe_{HR} (Fig. 5A) and the rough negative correlation between δ⁵⁶Fe_{calibrate} and Fe_{Ferric oxide}/Fe_{HR} (Fig. 5B) suggest that the δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} values were controlled by the relative proportion of pyrite and ferric oxide. Recently, a dispersion/ reaction model (Czaja et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013) was applied to estimate the $\mbox{Fe}(II)_{aq}$ and $\mbox{Fe}(OH)_3$ content and Fe isotopic values along water profiles (200-500 m) based on the oxygen level (0.02–2% of modern $\mathrm{O}_2)$ and the rate of Fe(II)_{aq} oxidation $(10^{-4} \text{ to } 10^{-2} \text{ mmol } \text{L}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1})$. The major conclusion is that quantitative oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq}

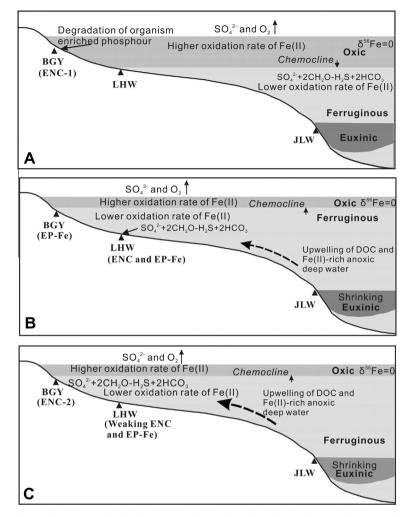


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram illustrating redox chemical change and negative carbon isotopic excursion at the lower Member II and middle Member III in Doushantuo Formation from the Baiguoyuan and Liuhuiwan sections, based on Fe isotopic and speciation and C isotopic data from our study and previous publications. (A): a strongly redox stratified structure is preserved although increasing of sulfate and oxygen had lowered the chemocline depth. During the interval, higher oxidation rate of Fe(II)_{aq} occurred under oxic shallow water, and lower rate was presented under ferruginous deep water. A negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion (ENC-1) recorded in phosphorites from the Baiguoyuan section could result from oxidation of organism containing phosphorus. (B): During times of increased supply of Fe(II)_{aq} and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) from upwelling anoxic deep water, chemocline fluctuations and oxidation of DOC in oxic shallow seawater resulted in a negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion (ENC) at the Liuhuiwan section, and lower oxidation rate of Fe(II)_{aq} leads to positive Fe isotopic shift (EP-Fe) at the two studied sections. (C): Continuously increased upwelling of Fe(II)_{aq} and DOC-rich anoxic deep water leads to a lagging negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion (ENC-2) at shallower Baiguoyuan section and weaking negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion and positive δ^{56} Fe excursion at deeper Liuhuiwan section. Meanwhile, exhaustion of sulfate by oxidation of upwelling Fe(II)_{aq} and DOC-rich anoxic deep water in oxic shallow water results in less sulfate penetration downward to deep water, which would shrink euxinic zone at Jiulongwan section (B and C).

by both high oxygenic conditions and/or high activity of anoxygenic photosynthesis would result in near zero δ^{56} Fe values recorded in precipitated Fe(OH)₃. In contrast, partial oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq} would produce Fe(OH)₃ with a highly positive δ^{56} Fe value (Czaja et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013). Therefore, the positive δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} values, high pyrite content and low Fe-oxide content in most of cherts from the two studied sections reflects limited oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq} in an anoxic, Fe(II)-rich water body. Highly positive δ^{56} Fe values of Achaean Marble Bar Chert were also reported by Li et al. (2013) who proposed that extreme positive δ^{56} Fe values (1.5–2.6‰) require a low level of oxidation under Fe(II)_{aq}-rich seawater. Conversely, low δ^{56} - Fe_{calibrate} values, low pyrite content and abundant Feoxides in all of our phosphorites and dolostones should be consistent with completely oxic conditions.

When the pyrite content was dominant in samples, the same range of δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} values occurred on the right side of the two dash lines. However, this zone reflects more oxygen-depleted conditions or even euxinic conditions (Fig. 5A), which can be confirmed by recent studies (Duan et al., 2010; Asael et al., 2013). The rough negative correlation between δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} and Fe_{Py}/Fe_{HR} values indicates that δ^{56} Fe_{calibrate} was controlled by the increase of syn-sedimentary pyrite in more O₂-depleted water. Under H₂S-rich conditions, the Fe(II)_{aq} in seawater

becomes rapidly fixed as FeS_m , and then precipitated as pyrite that inherits the Fe isotopic composition of the ambient seawater (Rouxel et al., 2005; Nishizawa et al., 2010).

5.2. Constrains for oxygenation of Edicaran Ocean

A recent study has suggested that the Ediacaran Ocean was characterized by a redox chemical stratification model, with oxic surface water underlain by a thin ferruginous layer, an euxinic wedge and ferruginous deep water based on Fe species data (Li et al., 2010). Fe isotopic and speciation data (Fig. 6) suggest that phosphorite deposits interlaminated with dolostones at the lower part of the BGY section were formed under completely oxic conditions (Fig. 7A). These phosphorites deposited on the shallow shelf may have been associated with high productivity areas fertilized by weathering inputs. High sulfate availability could then promote phosphogenesis through organic matter degradation and enrichment of phosphorite through Fe-redox pumping (Jiang et al., 2011). Higher detrital Fe and ferric oxide contents, near zero δ^{56} Fe values, and negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions preserved in phosphorite also provide potent evidence for the model. Dolostones from the lower part of the LHW section also recorded an oxic condition.

However, cherts from the basal LHW section reflect a ferruginous condition (Fig. 6), consistent with widespread ferruginous water in a shallow continental basin, outer shelf and deep basin, as proposed by Canfield et al. (2008). The redox fluctuation between oxic and ferruginous conditions and strongly variable Fe/Al ratios at the basal LHW section indicate that the LHW section was located near the boundary of an oxic and anoxic layer (Fig. 7A). Episodic euxinic conditions have been recorded at the lower part of Member II of the Jiulongwan (JLW) section (Li et al., 2010). Therefore, the redox chemical stratification model with oxic and ferruginous shallow shelf water suggests that oxic conditions did not dominate the Early Ediacaran Ocean (Fig. 7A).

It is important to note that the positive δ^{56} Fe and negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions were observed in the uppermost portion of the two studied sections (Fig. 6). These negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursions have been previously observed in many sections from the Yangtze Gorges area (Jiang et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2013) that correspond with the second negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion (ENC2) in the JLW section (Jiang et al., 2007; McFadden et al., 2008; Li et al., 2010). It is generally considered that the ENC2 resulted from a large pulse of oxidation of the oceanic DOC pool by sulfate reduction in at least mildly oxygenated deep ocean waters, rather than the mixing of detrital organic carbon or alteration and diagenesis (Fike et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2007, 2011; McFadden et al., 2008; Bjerrum and Canfield, 2011). The model of DOC oxidation by increasing sulfate and oxygen would lower chemocline of Ediacaran Ocean (Jiang et al., 2007, 2011).

However, Fe isotopic and other geochemical data (Fig. 6) in the upper parts of two studied sections reflect a return to more reducing conditions than that of the lower part of Member II (Fig. 7B and C). This phenomenon is consistent with transgressive systems (Li et al., 2010; Zhu

et al., 2013). An interpretation for the positive δ^{56} Fe excursion occurred at these places is that the upwelling of anoxic Fe(II)aq- and DOC-rich deep water lower the oxidation degree of dissolved Fe(II)aq in shallow water. Meanwhile, a part of the dissolved $Fe(II)_{aq}$ can also be removed from seawater by H₂S, which is product of the upwelling anoxic deep water reacting with sulfates in oxic shallow environment (Fig. 7B and C). These two simultaneous processes are responsible for the increase of Fe_{HR}/Fe_T and Fe_{PV}/Fe_T Fe_T ratios of our samples in this interval. The DOC in upwelling anoxic deep water was also oxidized in the oxic or suboxic shallow water and can explain the negative δ^{13} C_{carb} excursion (Fig. 7B and C). However, it is noted that the negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion occurred prior to the positive δ^{56} Fe excursion in the LHW section but after the δ^{56} Fe excursion in the BGY section (Fig. 6). It suggests that most of the DOC in the upwelling anoxic deep water was oxidized at the LHW location before reaching to the BGY section (Fig. 7B). Only if free oxygen or other oxidants at the LHW place were not enough to oxidized all of DOC in the upwelling anoxic deep water, some of DOC could arrive the BGY section and be oxidized there. In this way, the lagging negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion in the BGY section (Fig. 7C) and the prolonged negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion and the continuous increase of Fe_{HR}/Fe_T and Fe_{Py}/Fe_T ratios in the upper part of the LHW section (Fig. 6) can be well-explained.

The redox status change is also recorded in the JLW section, with a character of fluctuations between euxinic and ferruginous conditions (Fig. 7, Li et al., 2010). The highly positive $\delta^{34}S_{pyrite}$ value (McFadden et al., 2008; Li et al., 2010) can be ascribed to a decrease of sulfate penetration downward into deep water due to the exhaustion of sulfate by oxidation of upwelling DOC-rich anoxic deep water into shallow oxic water body. The oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq} and DOC in upwelling anoxic deep water could result in the shrinking of the euxinic zone and decrease of the DOC pool in the deep water, as well as Fe(II)_{aq} concentrations in the whole ocean, which could result in redox change of Ediacaran ocean.

6. CONCLUSION

This study shows that cherts produced by early diagenesis preserved primitive δ^{56} Fe signatures of its depositional process, rather than the signature of diagenetic alteration. However for some of our samples characterized by high Al contents, continental detritus could dilute the Fe isotopic signal. Highly positive δ^{56} Fe values reflect lower rates of oxidation of Fe(II)_{aq} in ferruginous seawater. In contrast, low and near zero δ^{56} Fe values indicate oxic condition. Together with published geochemical data, our data indicate that oxic conditions had not dominated the Early Ediacaran Ocean, consistent with a redox chemical stratification model proposed by Li et al. (2010).

More importantly, we provide strong evidence for the oxidation mechanism of dissolved organic carbon. Our results do not support the previous hypothesis that the well-known large negative $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ excursion (ENC2) wide-spread in the middle of Doushantuo Formation in South China was caused by the continuous oxygenation of seawa-

ter. It should be resulted from the oxidation of DOC upwelling from anoxic deep water into oxic shallow seawater. The oxidation of upwelling Fe (II)_{aq} and DOC-rich anoxic deep water under oxic shallow seawater could result in the shrinking of the euxinic zone and DOC pool in the deep water and the decrease of Fe(II)_{aq} concentrations in the whole ocean, associated with consumption of dissolved oxygen and other oxidants. At the same time, the upwelling of DOC- and Fe(II)-rich anoxic deep water could also produce strong photosynthesis. The balance between oxygen consumption and production would directly promote the further oxygenation of Ediacaran ocean and the evolution of eukaryotic organisms.

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