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3           **Formation of molar tooth structures in low**  
4                   **sulfate Precambrian oceans**

5  
6           Yang Liu<sup>a, b\*</sup>, Mingyu Zhao<sup>c</sup>, Tianchen He<sup>d</sup>, Xingqi Li<sup>b</sup>, Simon W. Poulton<sup>e</sup>

7           <sup>a</sup> *College of Environmental Science and Engineering, Dalian Maritime University, Dalian*  
8           *116026, China.*

9           <sup>b</sup> *School of Energy resource, China University of Geosciences (Beijing), Beijing 100083,*  
10           *China.*

11           <sup>c</sup> *Key Laboratory of Cenozoic Geology and Environment, Institute of Geology and*  
12           *Geophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100029, China.*

13           <sup>d</sup> *College of Oceanography, Hohai University, Nanjing 210024, China.*

14           <sup>e</sup> *School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK.*

15  
16  
17           *Corresponding Author: [yanqliu@cugb.edu.cn](mailto:yanqliu@cugb.edu.cn)*

## 23 **Abstract**

24 Molar tooth structures (MTS) comprise calcite microspar-filled voids in fine-grained  
25 shallow-water carbonate, and were commonly formed in the Mesoproterozoic and early  
26 Neoproterozoic. However, the origin of MTS and links between the temporal distribution of  
27 MTS and contemporaneous seawater chemistry remains poorly understood. Here we  
28 report elemental and isotopic data for MTS and host rocks from the Mesoproterozoic  
29 Gaoyuzhuang Formation (~1,600–1,550 Ma), North China Craton. The results reveal  
30 similar C, S and Sr isotope signatures between MTS and host rocks, which are close to the  
31 isotopic compositions of contemporaneous global seawater, suggesting an early diagenetic,  
32 seawater-buffered origin for MTS. A small sulfur isotopic fractionation between seawater  
33 sulfate and pyrite ( $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$ ) of  $4.1 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$  in host rocks is consistent with previously  
34 reported data, providing support for sub-millimolar sulfate concentrations in  
35 Mesoproterozoic seawater. Our observations suggest that the widespread occurrence of  
36 MTS through the Mesoproterozoic to early Neoproterozoic was broadly linked to sulfate  
37 scarcity in the ocean. We further propose that in Proterozoic oceans with sub-millimolar  
38 seawater sulfate concentrations, where aerobic and anaerobic methane oxidation was  
39 likely inhibited, methane produced via methanogenesis may have been more prone to  
40 accumulate in sediments, creating voids during escape. The absence of MTS across  
41 periods of higher sulfate concentrations during the Palaeoproterozoic and after the mid-  
42 Neoproterozoic, suggests that elevated sulfate concentrations promoted consumption of  
43 methane via anaerobic methane oxidation, thus preventing methane accumulation and the  
44 formation of sediment voids. Rapid lithification of the substrate as a result of elevated

45 carbonate saturation may have also hindered the formation of MTS during these intervals.

46 The link between MTS and changes in both oceanic sulfate levels and benthic methane

47 fluxes gives a new perspective on temporal fluctuations in Earth's redox state through time.

48

49 **Key words:** Molar tooth structures; Seawater-buffered diagenesis; Seawater sulfate;

50 Mesoproterozoic; Precambrian.

51

## 52 **1. Introduction**

53 Molar tooth structures (MTS) are commonly preserved in Precambrian shallow-water

54 carbonate successions (Shields, 2002; Pollock et al., 2006; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). They

55 occur predominantly within fine-grained, clay rich carbonate rocks, and are more rarely

56 recorded in coarse-grained carbonate and siliciclastic rocks (Pollock et al., 2006;

57 Hodgskiss et al., 2018). MTS exhibit a variety of morphologies, but typically occur as linear,

58 sheet-like ribbons and spheroids (blobs or bubbles). Ribbon MTS can range from a few

59 millimeters to several centimeters in width and a few to tens of centimeters in length,

60 whereas bubble MTS can range from a few millimeters to several centimeters in diameter

61 (Pollock et al., 2006; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). In many cases, MTS with different

62 morphologies intersect in three dimensions to form complex interconnection networks

63 (Furniss et al., 1998; Pratt, 1998; Pollock et al., 2006; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). MTS are

64 filled with uniform, equant calcite microspar crystals ranging from 5 to 15  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter

65 (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Furniss et al., 1998; Pollock et al., 2006).

66 Morphological, sedimentological and geochemical evidence suggests that MTS

67 comprise early diagenetic structures that were formed proximal to the sediment-water  
68 interface (SWI) before sediment compaction and lithification ( Pollock et al., 2006;  
69 Hodgskiss et al., 2018; Kuang, 2014; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). The origin of MTS has long  
70 been debated and various hypotheses have been proposed. The formation of MTS  
71 requires the initial generation of voids within unlithified sediments. Proposed mechanisms  
72 of void formation include gas expansion and migration (Furniss et al., 1998; Shen et al.,  
73 2016), seismic activity (Pratt, 1998), wave-pumping (Bishop and Sumner, 2006), and a  
74 combination of wave loading and shrinking of clay minerals (Hodgskiss et al., 2018). In  
75 addition, a variety of biogeochemical processes are prerequisites for the rapid precipitation  
76 of carbonate microspar into voids before sediment compaction, including iron reduction  
77 (Hodgskiss et al., 2018) and microbial sulfate reduction (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Shen et  
78 al., 2016).

79 Molar tooth structures occur in late Archean and Proterozoic rocks, but are most  
80 abundant and widespread through parts of the Mesoproterozoic to early Neoproterozoic,  
81 becoming extremely rare after ~750 Ma (James et al., 1998; Shields, 2002; Hodgskiss et  
82 al., 2018; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). The disappearance of MTS from the geological record  
83 has variously been linked to seafloor substrate renovation and bioturbation by metazoans  
84 (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Pratt, 1998), a decline in seawater carbonate saturation (Pollock  
85 et al., 2006; Kah and Bartley, 2022; Kriscautzky et al., 2022), an increase in carbonate  
86 precipitation inhibitors (Shields, 2002), deep ocean ventilation and oxygenation (Shen et  
87 al., 2016), and a decrease in smectite abundance in marine sediments (Hodgskiss et al.,  
88 2018). The temporal record of MTS suggests that its occurrence may have been linked to

89 shifts in the biogeochemistry of marine environments (Shields, 2002; Pollock et al., 2006;  
90 Hodgskiss et al., 2018). Hence, MTS have great potential to provide insight into the  
91 evolution of marine environments during the Precambrian. However, both the origin of MTS,  
92 and potential links between MTS formation and the evolution of Earth's surface  
93 environment, remain poorly understood.

94 Here we present carbon and oxygen, carbonate-associated sulfate (CAS), pyrite sulfur  
95 and strontium isotope data, combined with diagenetically-diagnostic elemental data, for  
96 MTS and associated matrix carbonate from the Mesoproterozoic Gaoyuzhuang Formation  
97 (~1,600–1,550 Ma) of the North China Craton. Our approach allows a detailed assessment  
98 of the marine chemical conditions driving the formation of MTS, and provides insight into  
99 potential links between MTS formation and the evolution of marine chemistry through  
100 Earth's history.

101

## 102 **2. Geological setting**

103 The Yanliao aulacogen developed on the eastern margin of the North China Craton (Fig.  
104 1), which was connected to the open ocean during the Proterozoic (Qiao and Gao, 2007).  
105 In the study area, an ~9-km-thick succession of Proterozoic strata was deposited on  
106 Archean-Paleoproterozoic crystalline basement. In ascending order, the strata comprise  
107 the Paleoproterozoic Changcheng Group (~1,650–1,600 Ma), the Mesoproterozoic Jixian  
108 Group (~1,600–1,400 Ma), an unnamed group (~1,400–1,000 Ma), and the unconformably  
109 overlying Neoproterozoic Qingbaikou Group (~1,000–800 Ma) (Fig. 1; Lu et al., 2008).

110 The Gaoyuzhuang Formation (~1,600–1,550 Ma) is the lowermost formation of the Jixian

111 Group, and consists mainly of shallow marine carbonate rocks (dolostone and limestone)  
112 deposited in a supratidal to distal shelf setting (Guo et al., 2015). The Gaoyuzhuang  
113 Formation can be subdivided into four lithological members in the Jizhou area (Luo et al.,  
114 2021; Zhang et al., 2018). In ascending order, Member I (the Guandi Member) consists  
115 mainly of cherty dolomicrite, microbial dolomicrite and stromatolitic dolomicrite, with ripple-  
116 marked sandstone at the base. Member II (the Sangshu'an Member) is composed mainly  
117 of thin bedded, Mn-rich dolomicrite underlying moderate to thick dolostone. The lower part  
118 of Member III (the Zhangjiayu Member) consists mainly of limestone and dolomitic  
119 limestone, with limestone, bedded muddy dolostone, laminated carbonate and interbedded  
120 black shale. The upper part of Member III is dominated by microbial carbonates, including  
121 dolomitic limestone and micritic limestone with molar tooth structures. Member IV mainly  
122 comprises bituminous lamellar dolostone, coarse-grained stromatolitic dolostone,  
123 dolomicrite, and overlying dolostone with cherty concretions (Luo et al., 2021; Zhang et al.,  
124 2018).

125 In the Gaoyuzhuang Formation, MTS are concentrated in micritic limestone of the upper  
126 part of Member III. In outcrop, MTS are visible on weathered rock surfaces and occur as  
127 distinct lithologies with sharp boundaries within micritic carbonate host rocks. The  
128 morphology of the MTS can be divided into several types, including banded, ribbons and  
129 spheroids of varying size (Fig. 2). In plan view, ribbon MTS are typically a few millimeters  
130 to centimeters in width and several to tens of centimeters in length. In vertical profile, they  
131 display ptygmatically folded morphologies and are commonly oriented vertically or  
132 obliquely with respect to bedding. Ribbon MTS occasionally appear as small protrusions

133 from banded and spheroidal MTS. Spheroidal MTS (bubbles or blobs) are typically a few  
134 millimeters to centimeters in diameter and are often connected. The co-occurrence of  
135 multiple MTS morphologies within the same substrate suggests a common origin. In thin  
136 section, MTS have sharp contacts with the surrounding matrix and typically lack detrital  
137 infill, suggesting that molar tooth microspar was precipitated in situ predominantly beneath  
138 the SWI within the shallow substrate (Pollock et al., 2006; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). Molar  
139 tooth microspar is composed of uniform, equant, polygonal, tightly packed, ~10–15  $\mu\text{m}$   
140 microcrystalline calcite. The host rock has a dominantly fine-grained micritic matrix with  
141 sporadic small, non-interlocked, euhedral or subhedral dolomite crystals (Fig. 2).

142 A zircon U-Pb (LA-MC-ICPMS) age of  $1,577 \pm 12$  Ma (Tian et al., 2015) was reported  
143 from a tuff bed in the lower part of Member III in the Jizhou area. A tuff bed in the upper  
144 part of Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang Formation in the Yanqing County, northwestern  
145 Beijing, yielded a zircon U-Pb (LA-MC-ICPMS) age of  $1,560 \pm 5$  Ma (Li et al., 2010). The  
146 Gaoyuzhuang strata has experienced only low-grade (below prehnite-pumpellyite facies)  
147 metamorphism (Chu et al., 2007).

148

### 149 **3. Materials and Methods**

#### 150 **3.1 Sample preparation**

151 Molar tooth structures and associated host carbonate samples were collected from  
152 Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang Formation in Jizhou District ( $40.1451^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $117.4544^\circ\text{E}$ ),  
153 ~100 km east of Beijing, China (Fig. 1). Prior to geochemical analyses, bulk rock samples  
154 were trimmed to avoid veins and weathered surfaces. We did not observe visible pyrite



155 nodules or bands in our samples, although our sampling strategy does not preclude the  
156 possible inclusion of disseminated pyrite. Approximately 100 g of host carbonate rock  
157 sample was crushed using an agate mortar. Sample powders from ribbon MTS were  
158 carefully drilled to a shallow depth to avoid potential contamination from host rock. In view  
159 of the thin and sinuous nature of ribbon MTS, in most cases it was impossible to collect  
160 enough sample powder from a single ribbon sample. Therefore, powders were drilled from  
161 several ribbon MTS from the same hand-sample and homogenized. Ribbon MTS were not  
162 selected for CAS extraction, because the traditional extraction method used here generally  
163 requires >20 g of powder and it was not possible to collect sufficient sample powder without  
164 contamination from the host rock. Bubble and banded MTS samples were carefully split  
165 using a rock saw to separate from the host rock, and then polished to further avoid potential  
166 contamination from the host rock. These polished MTS samples (~50 g each) were then  
167 powdered using an agate mill. All geochemical analyses were conducted at the State Key  
168 Laboratory of Biogeology and Environmental Geology (BGEG), China University of  
169 Geosciences, Wuhan.

### 170 **3.2 Elemental analyses**

171 Approximately 50 mg of sample powder from MTS and host rock was leached  
172 sequentially twice in 0.3% acetic acid (Li et al., 2011). The leached solutions were collected  
173 for elemental analyses and strontium isotope analyses. Major elements were analyzed  
174 using a Thermo Fisher iCAP 7400 inductively coupled plasma optical emission  
175 spectrometry (ICP-OES), and trace elements were analyzed using an Agilent 7700x  
176 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS). Analytical precision was better

177 than 5% ( $1\sigma$ ) for all reported data, based on replicate analyses of two USGS standards  
178 (AGV-2, andesite; BCR-2, basalt) and two Chinese national standards (GSR-1, granite;  
179 GSR-6, carbonate).

### 180 **3.3 Pyrite and CAS extractions, and sulfur isotope analyses**

181 Pyrite sulfur was extracted following the chromium reduction method (Canfield et al.,  
182 1986), which is briefly described here. About 5 g of sample powder from MTS and host  
183 rock was heated under  $N_2$  for 2 h after addition of 20 ml of 12 M HCl and 40 ml of 1 M  $CrCl_2$   
184 solution. The liberated hydrogen sulfide was trapped in ~30 ml of silver nitrate in order to  
185 precipitate silver sulfide ( $Ag_2S$ ). For CAS extractions, ~20–50 g of sample powder from  
186 MTS (bubble and banded) and host rock was treated in 10% NaCl solution for 24 h and  
187 then washed three times with deionized water to remove non-CAS sulphate. This step was  
188 repeated several times (He et al., 2019) until there was no barite ( $BaSO_4$ ) precipitation  
189 from the supernatant upon addition of saturated  $BaCl_2$  solution (~250 g/L). The cleaned  
190 powder was then treated with 4 M HCl to dissolve carbonate, until the reaction was  
191 complete. The filtered solution was treated with 125 ml of saturated  $BaCl_2$  to precipitate  
192 sulphate as  $BaSO_4$ . The CAS concentrations were measured using ICP-OES and  
193 gravimetric methods, and the results showed good agreement between the two methods.

194 The  $Ag_2S$  and  $BaSO_4$  precipitates from pyrite and CAS extractions were filtered, dried  
195 and homogenized, and were then combusted with an excess of  $V_2O_5$  to measure the sulfur  
196 isotopic compositions of pyrite ( $\delta^{34}S_{Py}$ ) and CAS ( $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$ ) on a Thermo Fisher Scientific  
197 Delta V Plus isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) coupled with a Flash elemental  
198 analyzer. The  $\delta^{34}S_{Py}$  data were calibrated using three IAEA standards: IAEA-S1 ( $-0.3\text{‰}$ ),

199 IAEA-S2 (+22.7‰) and IAEA-S3 (−32.5‰), and  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  data were calibrated using three  
200 additional IAEA standards: NBS-127 (+20.3‰), IAEA-SO-5 (+0.5‰) and IAEA-SO-6 (−  
201 34.1‰). Sulfur isotope compositions are reported in  $\delta$ -notation as permil (‰) relative to the  
202 Vienna Canyon Diablo troilite (V-CDT). Analytical precision was better than  $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$  ( $1\sigma$ )  
203 based on replicate analyses of IAEA standards.

### 204 **3.4 Carbon and oxygen isotope analyses**

205 For carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  analyses, about 50–300  $\mu\text{g}$  of dried sample powder from  
206 MTS and host rock was reacted with 100% phosphoric acid at 70°C. The resulting  $\text{CO}_2$   
207 was subsequently introduced into a MAT 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) for  
208 isotopic measurements. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data were calibrated relative to international  
209 reference standard NBS-19 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = +1.95\text{‰}$ ;  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -2.20\text{‰}$ ) and Chinese national  
210 standard GBW04416 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C} = +1.61\text{‰}$ ;  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -11.59\text{‰}$ ). Results are reported in permil  
211 notation relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB), with a precision of better than  $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$   
212 ( $1\sigma$ ).

### 213 **3.5 Strontium isotope analyses**

214 Generally, samples with relatively high Sr concentrations (>600 ppm) and low Mn/Sr  
215 ratios (<0.2) were selected for Sr isotope measurements. However, three samples with  
216 lower Sr concentrations (200–400 ppm) and higher Mn/Sr ratios (0.2–0.4) were also  
217 analyzed for comparison. The leached solutions were dried at 120°C and dissolved in 1 ml  
218 of 3 M double-distilled nitric acid, followed by Sr purification using standard Sr-spec resin  
219 ion-chromatography. Sr isotope compositions were measured on a Nu Plasma II multi-  
220 collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS). Mass fractionation

221 was normalized to an assumed  $^{86}\text{Sr}/^{88}\text{Sr}$  ratio of 0.1194 (Nier, 1938). The NIST SRM 987  
222 standard was analyzed along with the samples and yielded an average  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio of  
223  $0.71022 \pm 0.00001$  (2sd,  $n = 8$ ). Data reported here have been normalized to the  
224 recommended NIST SRM 987 standard value of 0.710248 (McArthur et al., 2012).

225

## 226 **4. Results**

227 MTS and host carbonate rock samples from Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang Formation  
228 generally have low Mn (<150 ppm) and elevated Sr (>300 ppm) concentrations. Mn  
229 concentrations range from 17.1 to 118.4 ppm (mean =  $71.1 \pm 32.4$  ppm) for MTS, and from  
230 35.5 to 124.6 ppm (mean =  $85.7 \pm 30.6$  ppm) for host rocks. Sr concentrations range from  
231 434.5 to 836.8 ppm (mean =  $693.7 \pm 95.4$  ppm) for MTS, and from 272.1 to 983.2 ppm  
232 (mean =  $544.5 \pm 269.8$  ppm) for host rocks. Both the MTS and host rocks generally have  
233 low Mn/Sr (ppm/ppm) and Mg/Ca (wt%/wt%) ratios, but MTS exhibit lower values (Mn/Sr  
234 =  $0.10 \pm 0.04$ , Mg/Ca =  $0.08 \pm 0.02$ ) relative to the host rocks (Mn/Sr =  $0.18 \pm 0.09$ , Mg/Ca  
235 =  $0.25 \pm 0.08$ ).

236 Carbonate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of MTS and host rocks vary within a narrow range (-1.0 to  
237 +0.4‰), with an average of  $-0.3 \pm 0.4$ ‰ ( $1\sigma$ ) for MTS and  $-0.1 \pm 0.3$ ‰ ( $1\sigma$ ) for host rocks.  
238 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values for the MTS and host rocks vary between -6.8‰ and -4.2‰, with  
239 averages of  $-6.0 \pm 0.3$ ‰ ( $1\sigma$ ) and  $-5.3 \pm 0.7$ ‰ ( $1\sigma$ ), respectively. Pyrite concentrations  
240 are generally low in both MTS and host rocks, ranging from values below detection to 135  
241 ppm for MTS (mean =  $88 \pm 23$  ppm), and from values below detection to 142 ppm (mean  
242 =  $81 \pm 31$  ppm) for host rocks. CAS concentrations range from below detection to 109 ppm

243 (mean =  $57 \pm 34$  ppm) for MTS, and from values below detection to 243 ppm (mean =  $94$   
244  $\pm 68$  ppm) for host rocks. Pyrite sulfur isotopes ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{Py}}$ ) have a relatively narrow distribution  
245 (8.0–12.4‰), with an average of  $10.6 \pm 1.5\%$  ( $1\sigma$ ) for MTS and  $9.5 \pm 1.1\%$  ( $1\sigma$ ) for host  
246 rocks. CAS sulfur isotopes ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$ ) range from 9.1 to 16.1‰, with an average of  $13.7 \pm$   
247  $2.7\%$  ( $1\sigma$ ) for MTS and  $12.4 \pm 0.7\%$  ( $1\sigma$ ) for host rocks. Strontium isotope ratios ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ )  
248 range from 0.70524 to 0.70681 for MTS, and from 0.70539 to 0.70753 for host rocks  
249 (Supplementary Table S1).

250

## 251 **5. Discussion**

### 252 **5.1 Evaluation of diagenetic alteration and dolomitization**

253 We evaluate the degree of diagenetic alteration and dolomitization using petrographic  
254 analyses, and element and oxygen isotope systematics. Petrographic analyses can  
255 provide a first-order assessment of diagenesis. In our samples from Member III of the  
256 Gaoyuzhuang Formation, the host rock mainly consists of micritic matrix with sporadic  
257 small, non-interlocked, euhedral or subhedral dolomites that show little evidence for  
258 increased crystal sizes associated with recrystallization, suggesting very early  
259 dolomitization. The MTS are composed of uniform, equant calcite microspar and generally  
260 lack more coarsely crystalline phases (Fig. 2). The finely crystalline nature of MTS and host  
261 rock suggests limited diagenetic alteration.

262 The oxygen isotope composition of carbonate rocks is generally considered a sensitive  
263 indicator for diagenetic evaluation (Banner and Hanson, 1990). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of most  
264 MTS and host rock samples range from  $-5$  to  $-7\%$ , which are similar to those recorded by

265 most well-preserved, non-evaporitic Mesoproterozoic carbonate rocks (e.g., Kah et al.,  
266 2012; Gilleaudeau and Kah, 2013; Guo et al., 2015). Furthermore, all samples show  
267 consistently low Mg/Ca ratios, and a lack of correlation between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
268 Mg/Ca (Fig. 3) suggests that MTS and host rocks formed with only limited diagenetic  
269 alteration or dolomitization. Strontium is typically rapidly lost during post-depositional  
270 diagenesis (Brand and Veizer, 1980, Banner and Hanson, 1990). Generally elevated Sr  
271 concentrations in the MTS (434.5 to 836.8 ppm) and host rock (272.1 to 983.2 ppm),  
272 combined with oxygen isotope compositions within the range of well-preserved marine  
273 carbonate rocks, suggest a primary aragonitic phase. The consistently lower Mn/Sr and  
274 Mg/Ca ratios of MTS compared to those of the host rocks (Fig. 3) could be due to minor  
275 dolomitization in the host rock phase, consistent with petrographic observations. These  
276 systematic differences are consistent with those previously reported for MTS strata  
277 worldwide (Table 1, Shen et al., 2016; Hodgskiss et al., 2018), suggesting that MTS were  
278 more resistant to post-depositional alteration than the penecontemporaneous host rocks.  
279 This is further supported by lower  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values in MTS relative to those of the host rocks  
280 (Fig. 5), because diagenetic alteration of carbonate generally results in elevated  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$   
281 ratios (e.g., Kaufman et al., 1993).

282 Carbonate-associated sulfate (CAS) represents marine sulfate preserved in the  
283 sedimentary carbonate lattice, and its sulfur isotope composition ( $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$ ) in well-  
284 preserved carbonate rocks is commonly considered to represent the contemporaneous  
285 seawater sulfate-sulfur isotopic composition (e.g., Kah et al., 2004; Gill et al., 2008). Indeed,  
286 a direct comparison of the sulfur isotope composition of CAS and coeval barite in marine

287 sediments deposited over the last 25 Myr showed a close consistency of  $\pm 2\%$  (Rennie  
288 and Turchyn, 2014). However, the isotopic composition and abundance of CAS may be  
289 altered by diagenetic processes (Gill et al., 2008; Rennie and Turchyn, 2014) or  
290 experimental contamination during CAS extraction (Wotte et al., 2012). In addition,  
291 complex carbonate components may potentially result in variability in bulk-rock  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$   
292 values across small spatial scales (Fike et al., 2015). Nevertheless, in our MTS and host  
293 rock samples, no statistically significant correlation was observed between  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  and  
294 traditional indicators of diagenesis (e.g., Mn/Sr, Mg/Ca and CAS concentration; Fig. 4),  
295 indicating that the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values are unlikely to have been significantly affected by  
296 diagenetic alteration. In addition, it has also been suggested that while CAS concentrations  
297 generally decrease during diagenesis,  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values are highly resistant to diagenetic  
298 processes (Lyons et al., 2005; Fichtner et al., 2017). Previous studies have shown that  
299 pyrite oxidation may occur during the CAS extraction procedure (Marenco et al., 2008;  
300 Mazumdar et al., 2008), thereby potentially affecting CAS sulfur isotope compositions. In  
301 this study, we applied consecutive NaCl washes before the CAS extraction to minimize the  
302 potential for contamination from pyrite oxidation and other non-CAS phases during the  
303 CAS extraction. If pyrite oxidation affected the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values significantly, contamination  
304 by pyrite-derived sulfate would be expected to lower the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values. However, the  
305  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values of MTS ( $13.7 \pm 2.7\%$ ) and host rock ( $12.4 \pm 0.7\%$ ) are consistent with both  
306 published  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values from Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang Formation (Luo et al., 2015;  
307 Guo et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2023), and a global  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  compilation from  $\sim 1.5\text{--}1.6$  Ga (Luo  
308 et al., 2015, and references therein), suggesting that the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values obtained in this

309 study approximate primary isotopic compositions.

## 310 **5.2 Potential origins of MTS formation**

311 Various models for the formation of cracks and voids in MTS have been proposed. The  
312 seismic model suggests that microspar originated within the host rock as a fine-grained  
313 detrital component and was segregated from the sediment matrix during liquefaction of the  
314 substrate as a result of seismic shaking (Pratt, 1998). However, petrographic evidence  
315 indicates that MTS in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation commonly have a sharp contact with  
316 the host rocks, and microspar is typically distinguishable from the sediment matrix (Fig. 2),  
317 consistent with global-scale observations of molar tooth microspar occurring primarily  
318 within cracks and voids (Kriscautzky et al., 2022). Although recent cathodoluminescence  
319 (CL) petrographic evidence has revealed that molar tooth microspar may also occur in the  
320 form of individual crystals to small patches within the sediment matrix (Kriscautzky et al.,  
321 2022), the two-phase (core and rim) nature of the microspar suggests that it is likely to be  
322 precipitated in situ in pore spaces as a cement phase, rather than being a detrital  
323 component (Pollock et al., 2006; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). Wave loading (Bishop and  
324 Sumner, 2006), or reduction of iron in smectite (and associated conversion of smectite to  
325 illite) coupled with wave loading, have also been proposed to explain the initial formation  
326 of voids in MTS (Hodgskiss et al., 2018). However, MTS in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation  
327 can be up to ~5 cm in width and can extend to over 20 cm in length, significantly exceeding  
328 the millimeter to centimeter-scale cracks commonly generated by wave loading (Forristall  
329 and Reece, 1985), as well as the scale of microcracks formed during conversion of  
330 smectite to illite (Meng et al., 2021).



331 Despite the lack of direct evidence, a gas generation and migration model has generally  
332 been considered to be the most plausible mechanism for the formation of MTS voids (Frank  
333 and Lyons, 1998; Furniss et al., 1998; Pollock et al., 2006; Shen et al., 2016). This model  
334 best explains the wide range of void morphologies and also provides a mechanism for void  
335 generation in shallow sediments near the SWI, which is consistent with the inferred  
336 environments and timing of MTS formation (Kriscautzky et al., 2022). The void  
337 morphologies are likely to be controlled by gas pressure and microscale gas-sediment  
338 interactions, with low gas production resulting in the spheroidal void morphologies and  
339 gradually increased gas production resulting in thin sinuous to thick ribbons during gas  
340 migration (Pollock et al., 2006). Our observations for the MTS from Member III of the  
341 Gaoyuzhuang Formation (Fig. 2), including the restriction of MTS to fine-grained micritic  
342 carbonates, a large number of co-occurring MTS morphologies within the same substrate,  
343 and the absence of detrital component infill of molar tooth microspar, are consistent with a  
344 comprehensive investigation of globally distributed MTS spanning different geological time  
345 periods (Pollock et al., 2006; Kuang, 2014; Hodgskiss et al., 2018; Kriscautzky et al., 2022).  
346 Hence, the gas expansion and migration model appears to be the most likely mechanism  
347 for the formation of MTS in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation. This model is also supported by  
348 a simulation experiment of gas generation and escape in a clay matrix, which reproduced  
349 the ribbon and blob-like voids that resemble the typical morphology of MTS (Furniss et al.,  
350 1998). In addition, voids similar to some MTS morphologies have also been found in  
351 modern freshwater sediments in association with gas production and effusion (e.g., Miller  
352 et al., 2018).

353 A variety of gases responsible for the formation of MTS have been proposed, including  
354 H<sub>2</sub>S associated with microbial sulfate reduction (Furniss et al., 1998), CO<sub>2</sub> associated with  
355 the microbial oxidation of organic matter (Furniss et al., 1998) or destabilization of CO<sub>2</sub>  
356 clathrates within the sedimentary substrate (Marshall and Anglin, 2004), and CH<sub>4</sub>  
357 associated with methanogenesis (Shen et al., 2016). It is generally thought that the vast  
358 majority of these gases responsible for the MTS formation are associated with microbial  
359 activity near the SWI within the shallow substrate (Frank and Lyons 1998, Furniss et al.,  
360 1998; Shen et al., 2016). We explore these potential microbial processes in further detail  
361 below.

### 362 **5.3 The role of biogeochemical processes in the formation of MTS**

363 Microbial sulfate reduction (MSR) has been invoked for driving MTS formation because  
364 it can generate H<sub>2</sub>S gas that may create voids within the sediment, and MSR can also  
365 elevate porewater alkalinity triggering carbonate precipitation (Frank and Lyons, 1998;  
366 Pollock et al., 2006; Shen et al., 2016). However, MSR is unlikely to be responsible for the  
367 formation of MTS voids, because the inferred low sulfate concentration in the  
368 Mesoproterozoic ocean (Kah et al., 2004; Luo et al., 2015; Fakhraee et al., 2019) would  
369 hinder generation of sufficient H<sub>2</sub>S to create voids within the substrate. This is supported  
370 by the low pyrite content (<142 ppm) of our samples and equally low pyrite contents (~0.01  
371 wt%) observed in a global MTS-bulk rock sample suite (Hodgskiss et al., 2018). However,  
372 MSR may have contributed to the increase in local alkalinity in porewaters, helping to  
373 trigger the precipitation of molar tooth microspar.

374 The marginally elevated  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values ( $13.7 \pm 2.7\text{‰}$ ) of MTS compared to host rocks

375 (12.4 ± 0.7‰) suggests that molar tooth microspar was precipitated in the sulfate reduction  
376 zone within the sediment column, because sulfate reduction would preferentially remove  
377 <sup>32</sup>S from the porewater sulfate pool, leaving the residual sulfate pool enriched in <sup>34</sup>S  
378 (Habicht and Canfield, 1997). This is also consistent with generally lower CAS  
379 concentrations in MTS (57 ± 34 ppm) than in host rocks (94 ± 68 ppm). Although pyrite  
380 grains were rare in our samples, the sporadic occurrence of diagenetic pyrite in MTS (Fig.  
381 2) may reflect the generation of H<sub>2</sub>S in porewater as a result of MSR.

382 The role of MSR in the formation of MTS is theoretically testable by considering the  
383 carbon isotope composition of MTS, because MSR produces dissolved inorganic carbon  
384 (DIC) enriched in <sup>12</sup>C, and thus subsequent carbonate precipitation is generally  
385 characterized by low δ<sup>13</sup>C values (Irwin et al., 1977). However, consistent with observations  
386 from previous studies (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Hodgskiss et al., 2018), the δ<sup>13</sup>C  
387 compositions of MTS (-0.3 ± 0.4‰) and host rocks (-0.1 ± 0.3‰) from the Gaoyuzhuang  
388 Formation are very similar (Fig. 5), with a negligible difference in δ<sup>13</sup>C (Δ<sup>13</sup>C<sub>HR-MTS</sub> = 0.1 ±  
389 0.5‰) in matrix-MTS pairs (Fig. 6). Indeed, a δ<sup>13</sup>C compilation (Supplementary Table S2)  
390 of globally-distributed MTS and associated host rocks (Fig. 7) shows that the MTS values  
391 fall within the range of contemporaneous seawater (Kah et al., 1999; Halverson et al., 2010;  
392 Lyons et al., 2014), suggesting that MTS record the δ<sup>13</sup>C composition of coeval seawater.  
393 The lack of difference in δ<sup>13</sup>C composition between MTS and host rocks has been  
394 interpreted to reflect a large ambient marine DIC reservoir (and thus elevated carbonate  
395 saturation) during the Precambrian, which may have obscured the <sup>13</sup>C-depleted isotopic  
396 signal that would be expected from sulfate reduction (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Bartley and

397 Kah, 2004). It seems unlikely that CO<sub>2</sub> degassing during either microbial oxidation of  
398 organic matter or CO<sub>2</sub> clathrate decomposition is responsible for the formation of MTS,  
399 because both increased CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure and bacterial fermentation tends to lower  
400 porewater pH, favoring calcite dissolution rather than precipitation.

401 Methanogenesis has been considered to be an important biogeochemical process in the  
402 formation of MTS, as evidenced by a slight enrichment of 0.5–1.0‰ in δ<sup>13</sup>C of MTS relative  
403 to the host rock (Shen et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2023). In most cases, however, the δ<sup>13</sup>C  
404 data presented here and from an extensive MTS sample set on a global scale show no  
405 clear difference in δ<sup>13</sup>C between MTS and host rocks (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Hodgskiss  
406 et al., 2018). One possible explanation is that the δ<sup>13</sup>C value of seawater DIC may have  
407 increased due to photosynthesis in the water column (Thompson et al., 1997), resulting in  
408 the measured δ<sup>13</sup>C values of host rocks being higher than that of seawater (Tang et al.,  
409 2023). Alternatively, the similarity in δ<sup>13</sup>C values between MTS and host rocks could be  
410 attributed to the buffering effect of a large marine DIC reservoir, masking the <sup>13</sup>C-enriched  
411 isotopic signal that would be expected from methanogenesis.

412 A recent study suggests that MTS may have formed in a MSR-methanogenesis  
413 convergence zone in sediments deposited under euxinic (sulfidic) bottom water conditions,  
414 where the voids were formed by methane production as a result of methanogenesis, with  
415 subsequent precipitation of carbonate minerals due to MSR (Shen et al., 2016). This model  
416 implies that MSR plays a primary role in the formation of MTS as evidenced by unusually  
417 high bulk rock pyrite contents of 0.05–1.37 wt%, with an average of 0.42 wt% (Shen et al.,  
418 2016). However, this is not the case for MTS in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation, since low

419 pyrite contents in both MTS and host rocks suggests a limited contribution from MSR.  
420 Furthermore, multiple lines of evidence suggest that the Gaoyuzhuang Formation was  
421 deposited under dominantly ferruginous conditions with pulsed oxygenation events (Luo et  
422 al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2018). Although euxinia may have been particularly prevalent at  
423 mid-depths along productive continental margins during the mid-Proterozoic (Planavsky et  
424 al., 2011; Poulton and Canfield, 2011; Poulton et al., 2010), iron speciation data indicate  
425 that at least some MTS-bearing rocks may have been formed under ferruginous water  
426 column conditions (Sperling et al., 2013). Furthermore, MTS commonly occur in shallow  
427 water carbonates where euxinia was rare (Hodgskiss et al., 2018). Indeed, there is a major  
428 peak in the occurrence of MTS during the early Neoproterozoic (Fig. 7), coincident with a  
429 transition to near-global ferruginous conditions (Guilbaud et al., 2015).

430 Recent carbonate iodine data from MTS and host rocks in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation  
431 suggest that MTS may have been formed through mixing of anoxic porewater with  
432 overlying moderately oxygenated seawater (Tang et al., 2023). The low Mn concentrations  
433 in host rocks would then probably result from oxidative removal of  $Mn^{2+}$  from the water  
434 column (Tang et al., 2023). This is consistent with the generally low Mn concentrations  
435 (<150 ppm) we observed in host rock samples from Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang  
436 Formation, which are similar to that preserved within other Mesoproterozoic carbonate  
437 rocks deposited under dominantly oxic conditions (Kah et al., 2012; Gilleaudeau and Kah,  
438 2013). In the Mesoproterozoic to early Neoproterozoic oceans with generally low oxygen  
439 levels (Lyons et al., 2014), oxygen concentrations would have decreased rapidly within the  
440 upper few millimeters of the sediment column, resulting in anoxic porewaters (Kriscautzky

441 et al., 2022). This is consistent with the occasional occurrence of pyrite in our MTS samples  
442 (Fig. 2), suggesting anoxic porewater conditions. In addition, the only slightly higher  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$   
443 values of pyrite in MTS ( $10.6 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$ ) relative to host rocks ( $9.5 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$ ) suggests a more  
444 limited sulfate pool in porewaters, but strongly buffered by seawater. Anoxic conditions and  
445 depleted sulfate in porewaters could have driven methanogenesis as a primary metabolic  
446 pathway.

447 In light of these observations, methanogenesis appears likely to have played a major  
448 role in the formation of voids in unlithified sediments, while molar tooth microspar was likely  
449 formed during seawater-buffered diagenesis in the sulfate reduction zone within the  
450 sediment column. Seawater-buffered diagenesis requires persistent intrusion of seawater  
451 into permeable sediments, which commonly occurs on shallow-water carbonate platforms,  
452 and this may have maintained porewater  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  close to seawater  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$  (Hoffman and  
453 Lamothe, 2019). The similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values between host rocks and MTS observed both in  
454 our samples and in globally-distributed MTS (Fig. 7) suggests that diagenetic fluids were  
455 strongly buffered by seawater, which would be as expected near the SWI. Furthermore,  
456 MTS and host rocks have similar minimum  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios (0.70524 and 0.70539,  
457 respectively), which are close to the Sr isotope ratio ( $\sim 0.705$ ) of Mesoproterozoic seawater  
458 (Fig. 5, Chen et al., 2022; Shields and Veizer, 2002). In addition, the  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values for  
459 MTS ( $13.7 \pm 2.7\text{‰}$ ) are close to those of the host rocks ( $12.4 \pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ), which are similar to  
460 previously reported  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  values for Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang carbonates, with  
461 averages of  $13.0 \pm 1.8\text{‰}$  (Luo et al., 2015) and  $12.4\text{‰}$  (Guo et al., 2015) in the Pingquan  
462 section, and  $14.3\text{‰}$  (Ma et al., 2023) in the Kuancheng section. These values fall within

463 the range of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  estimates ( $14.7 \pm 3.6\text{‰}$ ) for global seawater at  $\sim 1.5\text{--}1.6$  Ga ( Fig. 5,  
464 Luo et al., 2015), supporting a seawater-buffered chemistry for the molar tooth microspar.

#### 465 **5.4 Links between marine sulfate concentration and MTS formation**

466 We propose here that marine sulfate concentrations likely exerted a major control on the  
467 formation of MTS. Methanogenesis would have been particularly important under low  
468 sulfate conditions (Habicht et al., 2002; Pavlov et al., 2003), and the consequent methane  
469 production and migration likely created significant void space for MTS formation. This  
470 appears to have been the case for the Mesoproterozoic Gaoyuzhuang Formation, whereby  
471 relatively higher  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{Py}}$  values coupled with low pyrite contents indicate near quantitative  
472 sulfate reduction from a small seawater sulfate reservoir. Sulfur isotope fractionations  
473 between seawater sulfate and pyrite ( $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$ ) of  $4.1 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$  in our host rock samples  
474 from Member III of the Gaoyuzhuang Formation are comparable to previously reported  
475 data ( $5.4 \pm 1.4\text{‰}$ ) (Fig. 5), which yielded a modelled seawater sulfate concentration  
476 estimate of  $<0.1\text{--}0.35$  mM (Luo et al., 2015). These sub-millimolar seawater sulfate  
477 concentrations inferred from the Gaoyuzhuang Formation are also more broadly consistent  
478 with previous estimates of  $<1$  mM for the earliest Mesoproterozoic (Canfield et al., 2010;  
479 Kah et al., 2004), and  $<0.4$  mM for much of the Proterozoic (Fakhraee et al., 2019).  
480 Furthermore, extensive MTS formation in the early Neoproterozoic occurred coincident  
481 with the development of particularly low marine sulfate concentrations (estimated to be  $0.8$   
482  $\pm 0.2$  mM) from  $\sim 1.0\text{--}0.9$  Ga (Guilbaud et al., 2015). Low oceanic sulfate concentrations  
483 coincide with the widespread occurrence and elevated abundance of MTS (Fig. 7) through  
484 the Mesoproterozoic and early Neoproterozoic (James et al., 1998; Kriscautzky et al.,

485 2022), suggesting that low seawater sulfate concentrations may have played a vital role in  
486 the formation of MTS. Indeed, voids similar to some MTS morphologies occur in modern  
487 freshwater sediments (Miller et al., 2018), where sulfate availability is generally limited  
488 (Lopes et al., 2011).

489 It is noteworthy that in some stratigraphic sections where MTS are developed, the beds  
490 with MTS are commonly interbedded with adjacent beds without MTS (Pollock et al., 2006;  
491 Mei and Tucker, 2011; Shen et al., 2016). The heterogeneity in MTS distribution within a  
492 given strata has also been documented in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation, and is considered  
493 to be controlled by sedimentary cycles, with MTS being rare and absent in more  
494 argillaceous deeper water sediments (Mei and Tucker, 2011). This is consistent with the  
495 environmental distribution of MTS, most of which appear in intertidal to shallow subtidal  
496 environments and are typically absent in deeper water settings (reviewed by Kuang, 2014;  
497 Kriscautzky et al., 2022). One possible explanation is that the local gas pressure resulting  
498 from methane production must be balanced by the hydrostatic pressure (which is  
499 dependent on water depth), and thus greater water depths are not conducive to the  
500 formation of cracks (Shen et al., 2016).

501 We also note that the coexistence of MTS and sulfate evaporites in some strata, such  
502 as the ~1.2 Ga carbonate-evaporite succession of the Society Cliffs Formation, northern  
503 Baffin and Bylot Islands (Kah et al., 2001), may argue against a role for low seawater  
504 sulfate concentrations in the formation of MTS. However, MTS and sulfate evaporites do  
505 not occur in the same stratigraphic interval in the Society Cliffs strata, and the carbonate  
506 facies of the interval containing MTS are significantly different from that of the interval



507 containing evaporites (Kah et al., 2001). Indeed, MTS are typically absent from evaporitic  
508 settings (Bartley et al., 2000; Kah et al., 2001; Kriscautzky et al., 2022). In addition,  
509 evaporite phases were not identified in our samples and there is no evidence of evaporites  
510 in the Gaoyuzhuang Formation. Furthermore, on a microscopic scale, there is no clear  
511 evidence that MTS diagenetically replaced evaporite minerals (Pratt, 1998; Bishop and  
512 Sumner 2006), and molar tooth microspar lacks the petrographic characteristics of a  
513 replacement mineral phase (Pollock et al., 2006). Given that the precise age of MTS and  
514 relationships to potential short-term fluctuations in seawater sulfate concentrations are  
515 poorly constrained, our model for MTS formation is not necessarily inconsistent with  
516 observations of MTS and sulfate evaporites occurring in the same stratigraphic  
517 successions.

518 We further propose a conceptual model to link low marine sulfate concentrations to MTS  
519 formation. Marine sulfate concentrations play an important role in regulating the production  
520 and benthic flux of methane in sediments (He et al., 2020). In Proterozoic oceans with  
521 extremely low dissolved sulfate concentrations, available sulfate would have been rapidly  
522 consumed by organic matter remineralization and sulfate reduction (Fakhraee et al., 2019;  
523 Pavlov et al., 2003), ultimately leading to enhanced methane production. Anaerobic  
524 oxidation of methane (AOM) would have been suppressed by the limited sulfate supply,  
525 allowing methane to accumulate significantly in near-surface sediments, thus creating  
526 voids close to the SWI during methane emission (Fig. 8). Furthermore, with regards to the  
527 lack of AOM in sediments, the MTS would not be expected to show a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  overprint from  
528 extensive methane oxidation, even though the voids were generated by methane leakage.

529 On the other hand, the locally increased alkalinity in porewaters by MSR could have  
530 triggered the rapid precipitation of molar tooth microspar. The large DIC reservoir in  
531 Precambrian oceans (Bartley and Kah, 2004) would have additionally resulted in a small  
532 gradient in carbonate saturation between the water column and sediments, promoting rapid  
533 carbonate precipitation in the void spaces of unlithified sediments near the SWI (Higgins  
534 et al., 2009), where seawater-buffered diagenesis could have prevailed (Fig. 8).

535 The absence of MTS throughout most of the Palaeoproterozoic and after the mid-  
536 Neoproterozoic (Fig. 7) coincides with elevated seawater sulfate concentrations (Canfield  
537 and Farquhar, 2009; Fakhraee et al., 2019). Under higher seawater sulfate conditions,  
538 AOM would more effectively consume methane in the sulfate-methane transition zone,  
539 thereby limiting the accumulation of methane and preventing the generation of voids  
540 required for MTS formation. However, a seawater sulfate control does not explain the  
541 general lack of MTS in the Archean, which may instead be attributed to an overall low  
542 proportion of carbonate deposition (Cameron and Baumann, 1972; Cantine et al., 2020).  
543 Archean carbonates may have been mainly deposited in deeper ocean environments, due  
544 to the lack of an extensive stable continental shelf, and would have been removed from  
545 the geological record as a result of subduction of deep-ocean sediments (Cameron and  
546 Baumann, 1972). The size of the DIC reservoir and therefore the carbonate saturation state  
547 may also have played a role in the formation of MTS (Frank and Lyons, 1998; Bartley and  
548 Kah 2004; Pollock et al., 2006). Cohesive, yet unlithified, sediments were probably rarer in  
549 the Archean and Paleoproterozoic because elevated carbonate saturation would have  
550 resulted in rapid lithification of the substrate (Grotzinger, 1990, Cantine et al., 2020), which

551 likely prevented the formation of voids within the substrate (Pollock et al., 2006; Kriscautzky  
552 et al., 2022). By contrast, a continued decline in carbonate saturation after the mid-  
553 Neoproterozoic was likely insufficient to trigger rapid calcite microspar precipitation  
554 (Shields, 2002; Pollock et al., 2006; Hodgskiss et al., 2018).

555 The MTS record thus provides a potential archive of strong methane effluxes from  
556 sediments in low sulfate Proterozoic oceans. This is consistent with previous suggestions  
557 of large Proterozoic ocean methane fluxes of ~10–20 times the modern global flux  
558 (Fakraee et al., 2019; Pavlov et al., 2003). Indeed, significant benthic methane fluxes from  
559 sediments may have played an important role in maintaining ice-free conditions and low  
560 oxygen levels throughout the Proterozoic (Fakraee et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2018).

561

## 562 **6. Conclusions**

563 Our study of MTS and associated carbonate matrix from the Mesoproterozoic  
564 Gaoyuzhuang Formation of the North China Craton supports a very early formation of MTS  
565 close to the SWI prior to sediment lithification and compaction. The C, S and Sr isotope  
566 signatures of MTS are close to those of host rocks, and are similar to the isotopic  
567 composition of contemporaneous global seawater, indicating a seawater-buffered  
568 diagenetic origin for MTS. Low  $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$  values in Gaoyuzhuang carbonates provide  
569 support for sub-millimolar sulfate concentrations in Mesoproterozoic seawater. In contrast  
570 to previous suggestions, our data therefore suggest a key role for oceanic sulfate levels in  
571 the formation of MTS. The temporal restriction of Proterozoic MTS broadly follows  
572 proposed changes in seawater sulfate concentrations, with low sulfate concentrations

573 occurring coincident with the widespread preservation of MTS during parts of the  
574 Mesoproterozoic to early Neoproterozoic. At very low seawater sulfate levels, limited AOM  
575 would have allowed methane to accumulate significantly, with voids subsequently created  
576 in unlithified sediments during benthic methane escape. These observations suggest that  
577 MTS likely provide a novel record of elevated methane fluxes from sediments.

578

### 579 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

580 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
581 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

582

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593

### 594 **Appendix A. Supplementary Material**

595

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806 Figure captions

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831 contents. Abbreviations: MTS, molar tooth structures; HR, host rocks. No apparent  
832 correlation between  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  and Mn/Sr, Mg/Ca ratio, CAS and pyrite concentration,  
833 suggesting that diagenetic alteration and potential contamination from pyrite oxidation had  
834 little impact on the isotopic composition of CAS.

835

836 Figure 5. Isotopic compositions of molar tooth structures and host rocks from Member III

837 of the Mesoproterozoic Gaoyuzhuang Formation. (a)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, where the dotted line  
838 represents the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $\sim 0\text{‰}$ ) of the Mesoproterozoic Jixian Group (Chu et al.,  
839 2007). (b)  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values, where the dotted line represents the Sr isotope ratio ( $\sim 0.705$ )  
840 of Mesoproterozoic seawater (Shields and Veizer, 2002; Chen et al., 2022). (c) S isotopic  
841 compositions of pyrite and CAS from molar tooth structures and host rocks. (d) Average S  
842 isotopic compositions of pyrite and CAS from molar tooth structures and host rocks and  
843 average  $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$  values based on paired sulfate and pyrite measurements. The average  
844  $^{34}\text{S}_{\text{Py}}$ ,  $^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  and  $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$  values in the grey band represent previously reported data  
845 from Member III of the 1.56 Ga Gaoyuzhuang (GYZ) Formation and the compiled data from  
846  $\sim 1.5\text{--}1.6$  Ga (Luo et al., 2015, and references therein). Abbreviations: MTS, molar tooth  
847 structures; HR, host rocks.

848

849 Figure 6. Carbon isotope differences ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{HR-MTS}}$ ) between paired host rock and molar  
850 tooth structures show a negligible difference in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{HR-MTS}} = 0.1 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$ ) in matrix-  
851 MTS pairs. Abbreviations: MTS, molar tooth structures; HR, host rocks.

852

853 Figure 7. (a) Carbonate carbon isotope record through Earth history (Lyons et al., 2014)  
854 and compiled  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data for molar tooth structures and associated host rocks. Black and  
855 red dots represent the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data of molar tooth structures and host rocks from the  
856 Gaoyuzhuang Formation, respectively. Grey and yellow dots represent the compiled  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
857 data from global molar tooth structures and associated host rocks, respectively  
858 (supplementary Table S2). (b) Histogram showing the distribution and abundance of molar



859 tooth structures through time (Kriscautzky et al., 2022), with the age of the Godavari  
860 Supergroup, Gaoyuzhuang and Wumishan formations based on Amarasinghe et al. (2015),  
861 Li et al. (2010, 2014), Tian et al. (2015). (c) Changes in oceanic sulfate concentration  
862 through time. Dark grey band represents the estimated seawater sulfate concentration from  
863 Fakhraee et al. (2018), green band represents the estimate from Fakhraee et al. (2019),  
864 light grey band represents the estimate from Canfield and Farquhar (2009). Evaporite  
865 depositional records from Evans (2006) and Blättler et al. (2018).

866

867 Figure 8. Conceptual model for molar tooth structures formation. (a) In Proterozoic oceans  
868 with extremely low sulfate concentrations (<1 mM), sulfate would have been rapidly  
869 consumed, restricting microbial sulfate reduction (MSR). Anaerobic oxidation of methane  
870 (AOM) was suppressed by limited sulfate supply, and the methane produced by  
871 methanogenesis could have accumulated and subsequently created voids during escape.  
872 (b) The large dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) reservoir in the Precambrian oceans  
873 (Bartley and Kah, 2004) would have resulted in a small gradient in carbonate saturation  
874 between the water column and host sediment, promoting rapid precipitation of carbonate  
875 microspar in the void spaces of unlithified sediments near the SWI.

876

877 Table captions

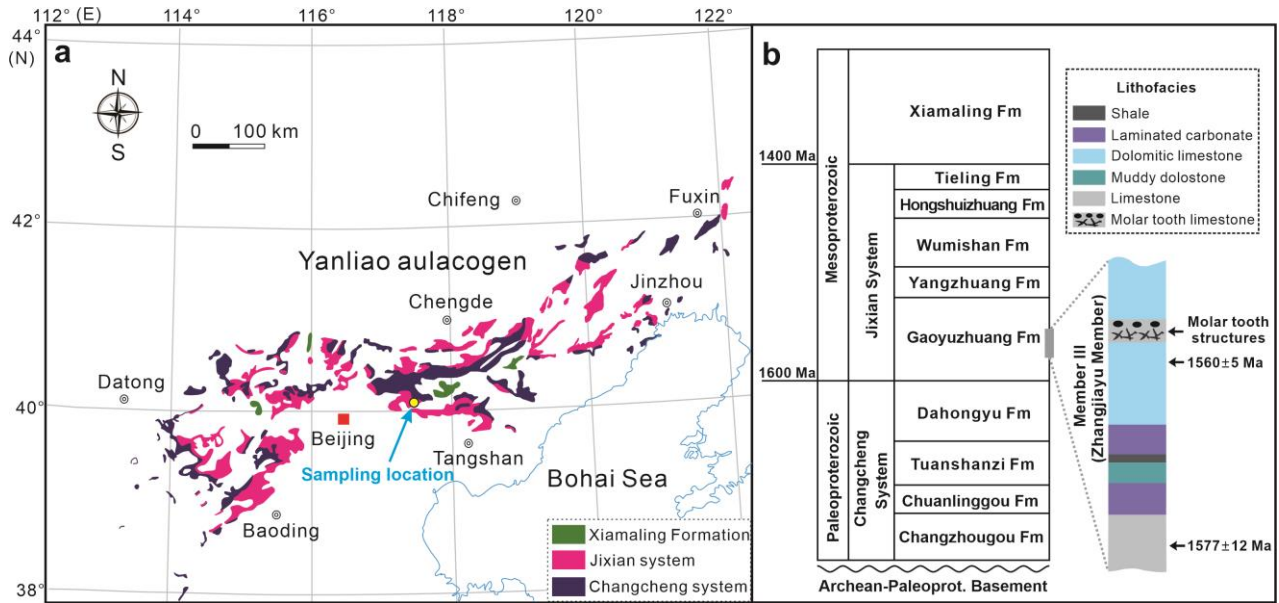
878 Table 1. Comparison of geochemical signatures between MTS and host rock.

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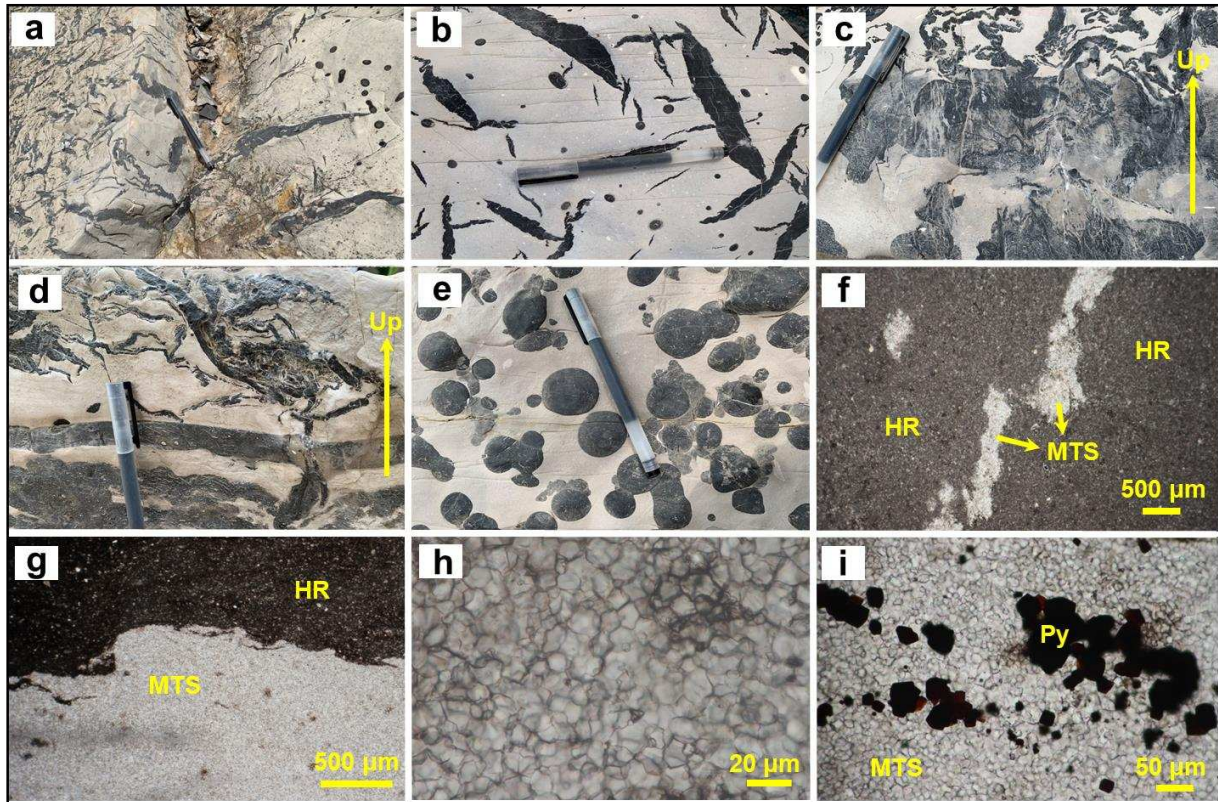
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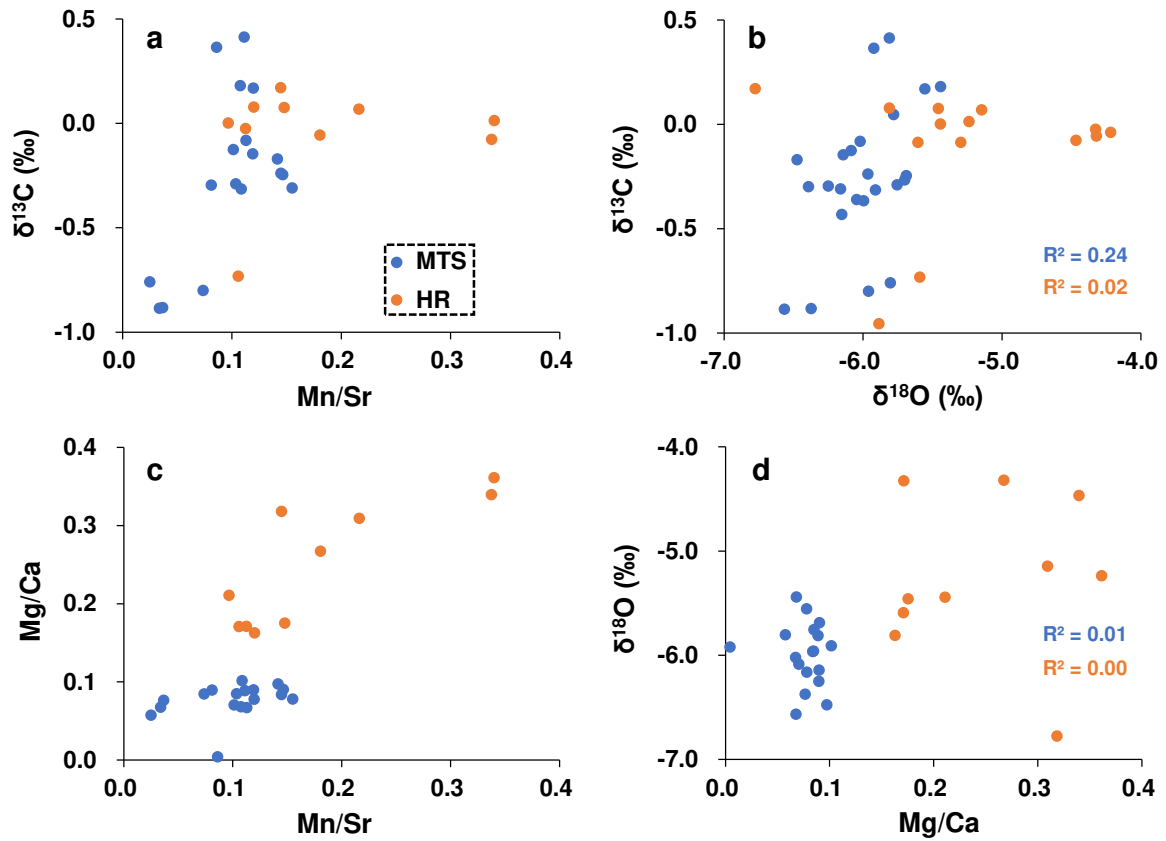
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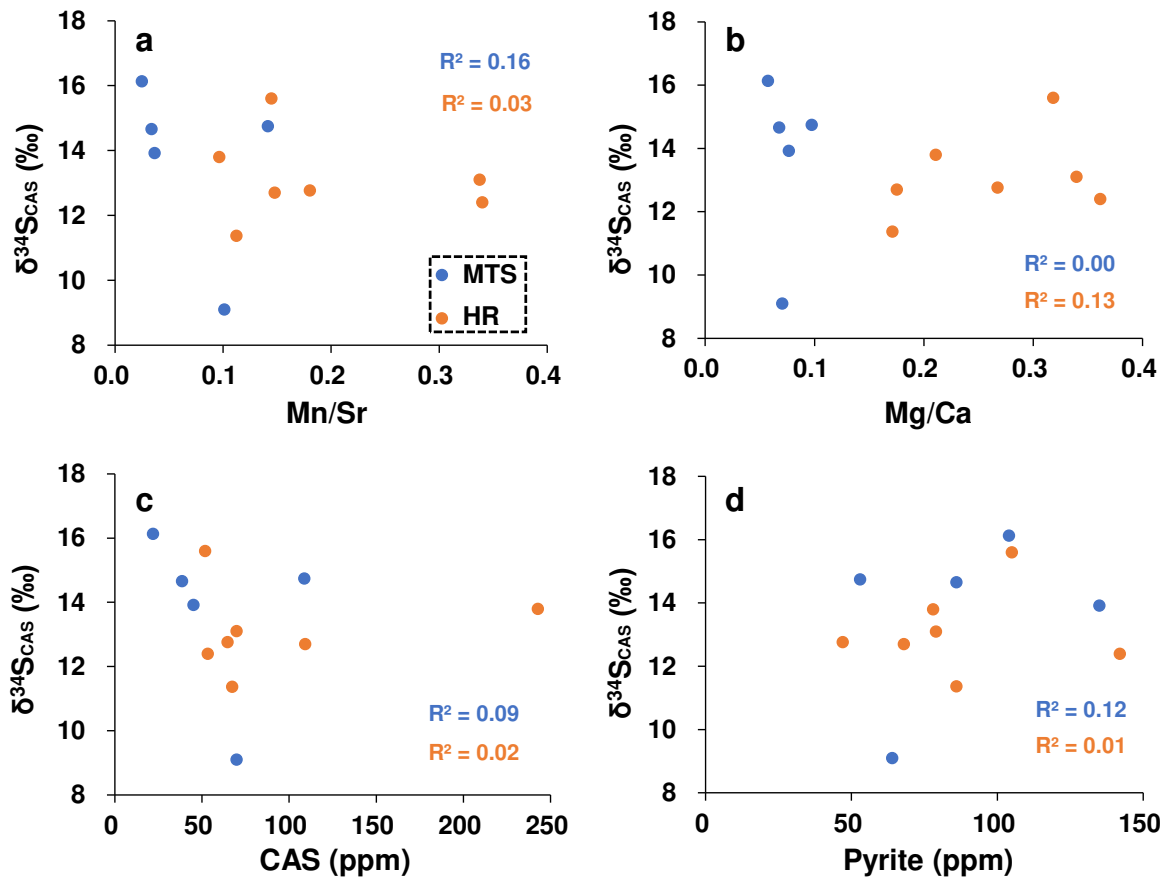
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918 Crossplot of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  versus CAS concentrations. (d) Crossplot of  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  versus pyrite

919 contents. Abbreviations: MTS, molar tooth structures; HR, host rocks. No apparent

920 correlation between  $\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  and Mn/Sr, Mg/Ca ratio, CAS and pyrite concentration,

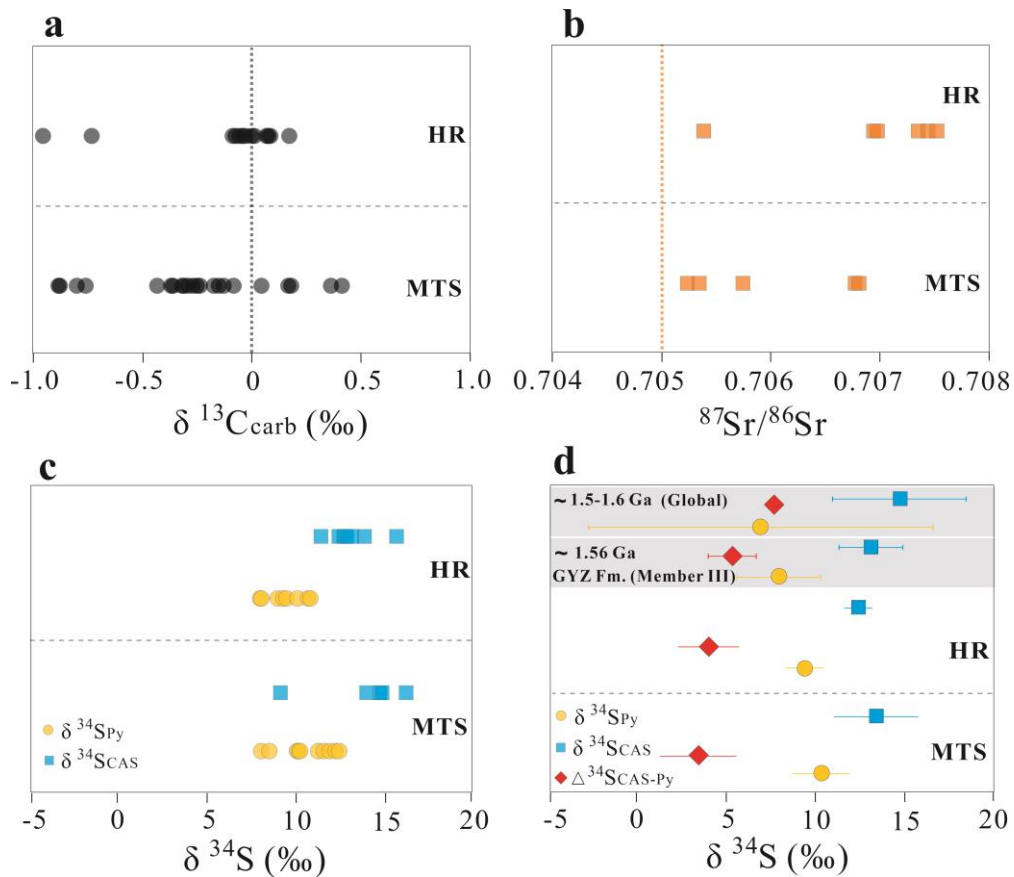
921 suggesting that diagenetic alteration and potential contamination from pyrite oxidation had

922 little impact on the isotopic composition of CAS.

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927 Figure 5. Isotopic compositions of molar tooth structures and host rocks from Member III

928 of the Mesoproterozoic Gaoyuzhuang Formation. (a)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, where the dotted line

929 represents the average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value ( $\sim 0\text{‰}$ ) of the Mesoproterozoic Jixian Group (Chu et al.,

930 2007). (b)  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values, where the dotted line represents the Sr isotope ratio ( $\sim 0.705$ )

931 of Mesoproterozoic seawater (Shields and Veizer, 2002; Chen et al., 2022). (c) S isotopic

932 compositions of pyrite and CAS from molar tooth structures and host rocks. (d) Average S

933 isotopic compositions of pyrite and CAS from molar tooth structures and host rocks and

934 average  $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$  values based on paired sulfate and pyrite measurements. The average

935  $^{34}\text{S}_{\text{Py}}$ ,  $^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$  and  $\Delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS-Py}}$  values in the grey band represent previously reported data

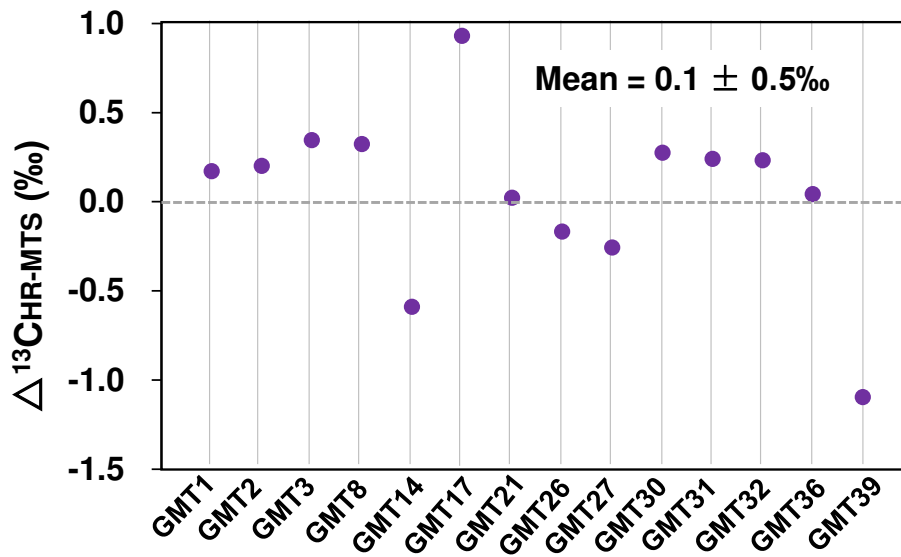
936 from Member III of the 1.56 Ga Gaoyuzhuang (GYZ) Formation and the compiled data from

937  $\sim 1.5\text{--}1.6$  Ga (Luo et al., 2015, and references therein). Abbreviations: MTS, molar tooth

938 structures; HR, host rocks.

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942 Figure 6. Carbon isotope differences ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CHR-MTS}}$ ) between paired host rock and molar  
943 tooth structures show a negligible difference in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $\Delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{CHR-MTS}} = 0.1 \pm 0.5$ ‰) in matrix-  
944 MTS pairs. Abbreviations: MTS, molar tooth structures; HR, host rocks.

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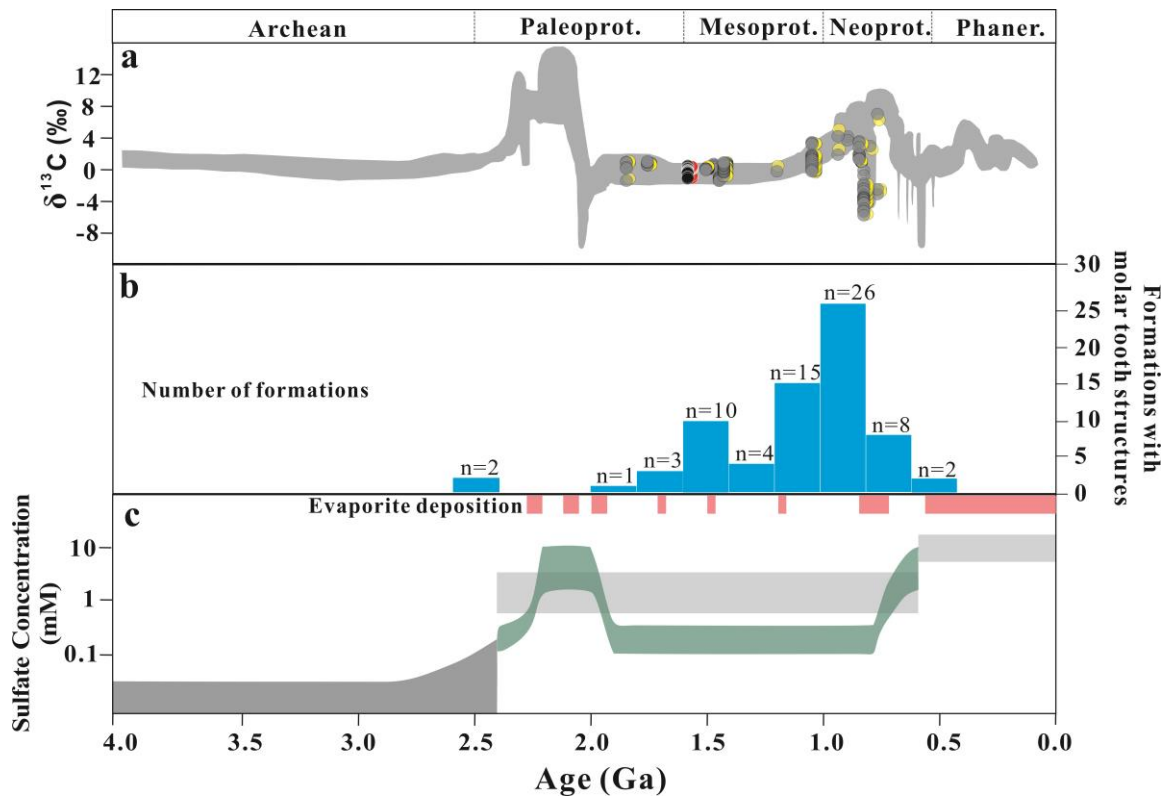
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953 Figure 7. (a) Carbonate carbon isotope record through Earth history (Lyons et al., 2014)

954 and compiled  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data for molar tooth structures and associated host rocks. Black and

955 red dots represent the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data of molar tooth structures and host rocks from the

956 Gaoyuzhuang Formation, respectively. Grey and yellow dots represent the compiled  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

957 data from global molar tooth structures and associated host rocks, respectively

958 (supplementary Table S2). (b) Histogram showing the distribution and abundance of molar

959 tooth structures through time (Kriscautzky et al., 2022), with the age of the Godavari

960 Supergroup, Gaoyuzhuang and Wumishan formations based on Amarasinghe et al. (2015),

961 Li et al. (2010, 2014), Tian et al. (2015). (c) Changes in oceanic sulfate concentration

962 through time. Dark grey band represents the estimated seawater sulfate concentration from

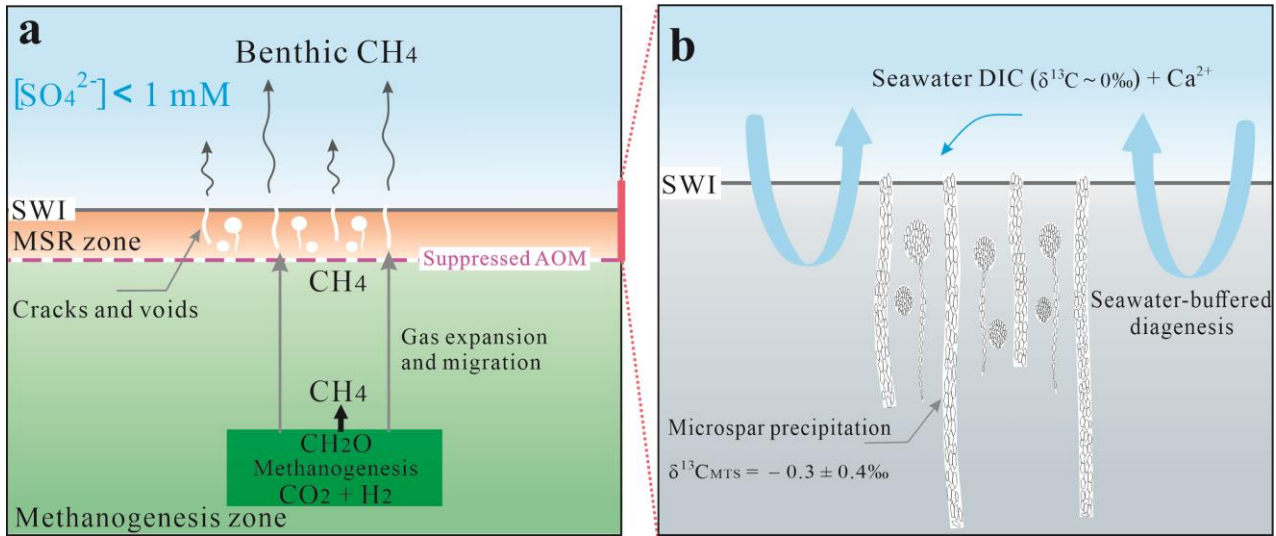
963 Fakraee et al. (2018), green band represents the estimate from Fakraee et al. (2019),

964 light grey band represents the estimate from Canfield and Farquhar (2009). Evaporite

965 depositional records from Evans (2006) and Blättler et al. (2018).



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968 Figure 8. Conceptual model for molar tooth structures formation. (a) In Proterozoic oceans  
969 with extremely low sulfate concentrations (<1 mM), sulfate would have been rapidly  
970 consumed, restricting microbial sulfate reduction (MSR). Anaerobic oxidation of methane  
971 (AOM) was suppressed by limited sulfate supply, and the methane produced by  
972 methanogenesis could have accumulated and subsequently created voids during escape.  
973 (b) The large dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) reservoir in the Precambrian oceans  
974 (Bartley and Kah, 2004) would have resulted in a small gradient in carbonate saturation  
975 between the water column and host sediment, promoting rapid precipitation of carbonate  
976 microspar in the void spaces of unlithified sediments near the SWI.

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Table 1. Comparison of geochemical signatures between MTS and host rock.

Geochemical proxies	Difference between MTS and host rock	References
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Similar ( $\sim 0\text{‰}$ ) MTS > host rock ( $\sim 0.5\text{--}1\text{‰}$ )	This study, Frank and Lyons (1998), Hodgskiss et al. (2018) Shen et al. (2016), Tang et al. (2023)
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	MTS < host rock ( $\sim 1\text{‰}$ )	This study, Hodgskiss et al. (2018)
Mn/Sr	MTS < host rock	This study, Hodgskiss et al. (2018)
Mg/Ca	MTS < host rock	This study, Shen et al. (2016), Hodgskiss et al. (2018)
$\delta^{56}\text{Fe}$	MTS < host rock ( $\sim 1\text{--}2\text{‰}$ )	Hodgskiss et al. (2018)
$\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CAS}}$	Similar ( $\sim 1\text{‰}$ ) MTS > host rock ( $\sim 10\text{‰}$ )	This study Shen et al. (2016)
$\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{Py}}$	Similar ( $\sim 1\text{‰}$ )	This study
$\delta^{26}\text{Mg}$	MTS < host rock ( $\sim 1.6\text{‰}$ )	Shen et al. (2016)
I/(Ca + Mg)	MTS < host rock	Tang et al. (2023)
$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	MTS < host rock	This study, Shields (2002)

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