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1 **Terminal Mesoproterozoic (1.1–1.0 Ga) shallow ocean oxygenation and the rise of**
2 **crown-group eukaryotes**

3
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28

29 **Abstract**

30 At the end of the Mesoproterozoic Era (1.1–1.0 Ga), crown-group eukaryotes
31 including rhodophytes and chlorophytes diversified and began to dominate the marine
32 ecosystem. It is commonly thought that the oxygenation of Earth's surface environment
33 was the driver behind this eukaryotic evolution and ecosystem change, but there is
34 currently little evidence for an increase in biospheric oxygenation across the Meso-
35 Neoproterozoic transition. Here, we report mineralogical and geochemical data from
36 the ca. 1.1 Ga Nanfen Formation, North China, to explore possible causal relationships
37 between marine redox conditions and terminal Mesoproterozoic biotic innovation.
38 Elevated Ba concentrations and the occurrence of authigenic barite in the Nanfen
39 Formation indicate an increase in seawater sulfate concentrations, likely caused by
40 enhanced oxidative weathering of the continents. In addition, carbonate I/(Ca+Mg)
41 ratios of up to 15 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, coupled with a negative shift in carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, indicate
42 oxidation of iodide and dissolved organic carbon as a result of enhanced water column
43 oxygenation on the North China Platform. These geochemical trends occur coincident
44 with increased P/Al ratios, suggesting that enhanced P bioavailability ultimately drove
45 more extensive oxygenation. These results, in combination with highly fractionated
46 carbonate Cr isotope data from time-equivalent strata in West Africa and extensive Mn
47 deposits in Western Australia, suggest widespread oxic shallow ocean conditions during
48 the terminal Mesoproterozoic. This suggests that shallow ocean oxygenation likely
49 created favorable conditions for the diversification of crown-group eukaryotes at ca.
50 1.1 Ga.

51

52 **Key words:** North China; Nanfen Formation; eukaryotic evolution; I/(Ca+Mg); redox
53 conditions

54

55 **1. Introduction**

56 The presence of free O₂ in Earth's surface environment is one of the prerequisites
57 for the evolution of eukaryotes (e.g., [Planavsky et al., 2014](#)). It has been hypothesized
58 that the Great Oxidation Event (2.43–2.22 Ga; [Poulton et al., 2021](#)) paved the way for
59 the origination of eukaryotes, while the subsequent Neoproterozoic Oxygenation Event
60 (0.8–0.5 Ga; [Och and Shields, 2012](#)) triggered the evolution of early animals ([Canfield
61 et al., 2007](#); [Lyons et al., 2014, 2021](#)). However, for the billion-year interval of the mid-
62 Proterozoic (1.8–0.8 Ga), the relationship between the evolution of eukaryotes and
63 marine redox change remains poorly resolved.

64 The general lack of significant chromium (Cr) isotope fractionation in ironstones
65 ([Planavsky et al., 2014](#)) and shales ([Cole et al., 2016](#)), as well as highly fractionated Fe
66 isotopes in ironstones ([Wang et al., 2022](#)), have been suggested to indicate low
67 atmospheric oxygen levels of < 1% PAL (Present Atmospheric Level) during the mid-
68 Proterozoic, which may have led to the evolutionary 'stasis' of eukaryotes and the
69 delayed appearance of animals. However, highly fractionated Cr isotopes in ~1.3–1.1
70 Ga shales ([Canfield et al., 2018](#)) and carbonates ([Gilleaudeau et al., 2016](#)), as well as
71 the development of oxygen minimum zones ([Zhang et al., 2016a](#)) and the lack of
72 recycled carbon in black shales at ~1.4 Ga ([Canfield et al., 2021](#)), suggest higher
73 atmospheric oxygen levels (≥ 4% PAL), at concentrations sufficient for the respiration
74 demands of eukaryotes (including metazoans). Alongside this debate on absolute
75 atmospheric oxygen concentrations, increasing evidence supports pulsed oxygenation

76 events (e.g., ~1.57 Ga and ~1.4 Ga) in mid-Proterozoic shallow oceans (e.g., [Hardisty](#)
77 [et al., 2017](#); [Zhang et al., 2018](#); [Shang et al., 2019](#); [Kendall, 2021](#); [Luo et al., 2021](#);
78 [Fang et al., 2022](#); [Xie et al., 2023](#); [Xu et al., 2023](#)), with eukaryotic evolution being
79 promoted during the oxygenation pulses (e.g., [Zhang et al., 2018](#); [Wei et al., 2021a](#)).
80 However, the identification of global oxygenation ‘events’ is also complicated by
81 emerging evidence for widespread ocean redox heterogeneity linked to regional climate
82 variability ([Zhang et al., 2015](#); [Song et al., 2023](#)).

83 The terminal Mesoproterozoic (1.1–1.0 Ga) represents a critical interval for both
84 eukaryotic and marine redox evolution. Across this interval, early fossils of
85 multicellular chlorophyte (green algae) and rhodophyte (red algae) have been identified
86 from the Nanfen Formation in North China ([Tang et al., 2020a](#)) and from the Hunting
87 Formation in northeastern Canada ([Butterfield, 2000](#); [Gibson et al., 2018](#)), respectively.
88 These fossils represent early forms of crown-group eukaryotes and mark divergence
89 points for several key branches of eukaryotes in geologic history ([Brocks et al., 2023](#)).

90 Although increased ocean oxygenation has been suggested as a potential driver of
91 this evolutionary innovation ([Gibson et al., 2018](#); [Tang et al., 2020a](#)), direct evidence
92 for ocean oxygenation at 1.1–1.0 Ga is lacking ([Mills et al., 2022](#)). Highly fractionated
93 Cr isotopes from ca. 1.1 Ga carbonates in West Africa may suggest atmospheric oxygen
94 levels higher than 0.1%–1% PAL ([Gilleaudeau et al., 2016](#)). However, due to the low
95 oxygen threshold (0.1%–1% PAL) for Cr isotope fractionation, implications for the
96 coeval redox state of the ocean are largely unknown, and indeed, few studies have
97 directly assessed water column redox conditions across the 1.1–1.0 Ga interval (e.g.,
98 [Guilbaud et al., 2020](#)). For example, while there is limited evidence for transitions
99 between ferruginous and euxinic conditions in the epeiric sea setting of the ~1.1 Ga
100 Taoudeni Basin, Morocco ([Beghin et al., 2017](#); [Guilbaud et al., 2020](#)), the extent of

101 shallow water oxygenation has not been investigated. Thus, new geochemical proxy
102 data are required to more specifically elucidate marine redox conditions at 1.1–1.0 Ga.

103 To address this limitation, we have analyzed the mineralogy, I/(Ca+Mg) ratios, Ba
104 concentrations, P/Al ratios and C-O isotope compositions of drill core samples from
105 the Nanfen Formation (ca. 1.1 Ga) in North China. These new data provide constraints
106 on oxygen levels in the terminal Mesoproterozoic shallow ocean with implications for
107 spatiotemporal redox heterogeneity and its potential impact on eukaryotic evolution.

108

109 **2. Geological setting**

110 The Nanfen Formation is well exposed in the Benxi region of eastern Liaoning
111 Province, NE of the North China Craton, and our study focuses on three drill cores from
112 this region. The formation belongs to the Xihe Group, which contains the Diaoyutai,
113 Nanfen and Qiaotou formations in ascending order (Fig. 1; LBGMR, 1989). The
114 Nanfen Formation conformably overlies quartz sandstones of the Diaoyutai Formation,
115 and disconformably underlies sandstones of the Qiaotou Formation. Based on the
116 youngest detrital zircon age peak of 1136 ± 11 Ma ($n = 33$ analysis points) from the
117 Diaoyutai Formation (Zhao et al. 2020), and ~945–920 Ma mafic sills intruded into the
118 Qiaotou Formation (Zhang et al. 2016b; Zhao et al. 2020), the Nanfen Formation is
119 constrained between ~1136 Ma and ~945 Ma (~1.1 Ga; Fig. 1; Zhao et al., 2020).
120 Cyclostratigraphic study indicates that the sampled interval (Fig. 1C) of this study
121 consists of 20.5 long eccentricity (405 kyr) cycles, representing ~8.3 Myr with an
122 average depositional rate of ~21 m/Myr (Bao et al., 2023).

123 In Liaoning Province, the Nanfen Formation is subdivided into three members (Fig.
124 1; LBGMR, 1989). Member I consists of greenish-grey to red siltstones and sandy
125 shales near the bottom, pale blue laminated argillaceous limestones in the middle part,

126 and purplish red limestones near the top. Member II is composed of purplish red, thin-
127 bedded calcareous mudstone interbedded with pale blue limestone. Member III is
128 dominated by yellowish-green shale and sandstone (Zhao et al., 2020; Bao et al., 2023).
129 The shale and argillaceous limestone in this formation show well-preserved horizontal
130 laminations but lack wave-agitated structures or cross-bedding, suggesting deposition
131 in a shallow sea below fair-weather wave base. Based on its distinct lithology, the
132 formation can be correlated across the Benxi region of east Liaoning Province and the
133 Dalian region of south Liaoning Province.

134 Macroscopic fossils have been widely identified in the Xihe Group of Liaoning
135 Province (Fig. 1). This includes abundant carbonaceous compressions of *Chuaria*,
136 *Tawuia* and *Proterocladus* (green algae) in siltstone and shale from the Diaoyutai
137 Formation in the Dalian region (Lin, 1984; Li et al., 2023). In the lowermost Nanfen
138 Formation, abundant *Proterocladus* fossils have been identified in dark grey and
139 yellowish-green silty shale and mudstone in the Dalian region (Tang et al., 2020a). The
140 studied carbonate interval immediately overlies this fossil-bearing interval. Abundant
141 carbonaceous compressions of *Chuaria*, *Tawuia*, *Shouhsienia* and *Proterocladus* are
142 present in yellowish-green shales from the upper part of the Nanfen formation in the
143 Dalian (Duan, 1982; Lin and Xing, 1984) and Benxi regions (LBGMR, 1989). In the
144 upper Qiaotou Formation, *Chuaria* has been identified in shale interbeds (Hong et al.,
145 1991).

146

147 3. Materials and methods

148 Carbonate samples were collected from three drill cores in Qianjinling, Benxi City,
149 NE China. Correlations between the drill cores has been discussed in Bao et al. (2023),
150 and is shown in Figure 1. After cleaning in ultrapure (18.2 M Ω) water, dried samples

151 were cut for thin sections and powdered for geochemical analyses. Petrographic
152 analysis was conducted on thin sections with a Zeiss Axio Scope A1 microscope.
153 Microstructures were investigated on thin sections using a Zeiss Supra 55 field emission
154 scanning electron microscope (FESEM) under 20 kV accelerating voltage with a
155 working distance of 15 mm in the FESEM Laboratory, China University of Geosciences
156 (Beijing). A secondary electron imaging detector was used to characterize topographic
157 features, where an AsB detector was used to reveal compositional differences
158 (backscattered electron, BSE, image), and an Oxford NordlysNano electron backscatter
159 diffraction (EBSD) acquisition camera was used to identify the mineralogy. Prior to
160 analysis, samples were coated with ~8 nm thick carbon for better electrical conduction.

161 Major elements were quantitatively analyzed for 122 samples using an Oxford
162 EDS connected to the FESEM, operated at 20 kV and 120- μ m aperture diameter with
163 a working distance of ~15 mm, in the FESEM Laboratory. In order to reduce bias
164 caused by sample heterogeneity, three areas with size of 1.2 mm \times 0.9 mm, rather than
165 points in each thin section, were analyzed for each sample. About one million counts
166 were acquired in ~3 min for each area to reduce the uncertainty on major element
167 concentrations. Apatite, biotite and barite in MINM25-53 were used as reference
168 standards. Duplicate analyses of individual areas of the standards gave an analytical
169 error of <1% (Table S1).

170 Carbonate iodine concentrations in 110 samples were determined using MC-ICP-
171 MS. Major and trace elements, including Ca, Mg, Mn and Sr were analyzed using ICP-
172 MS at the National Research Center for Geoanalysis, Beijing, following the method
173 described in Fang et al. (2024). In brief, ~4 mg of dry powder was rinsed three times
174 in Milli-Q water and digested using 4 mL of 3% nitric acid in 15 mL centrifuge tubes.
175 Following a 0.5-hour digestion, the supernatant was collected and 1 mL was used for

176 iodine analysis, where 3% of tertiary amine solution was added to stabilize the iodine
177 (Lu et al., 2010). The supernatant was then diluted to 1:6000. For Ca, Mg, Mn and Sr
178 contents, 0.2 mL of the original supernatant was diluted to 1:51000 with 3% nitric acid.
179 The analytical uncertainty for iodine, as monitored by the standard JDo-1 and duplicate
180 samples, was $\leq 6\%$ (Table S2). The analytical uncertainties monitored by JDo-1 for Ca,
181 Mg, Mn and Sr were $\leq 5\%$ (Table S2). Samples with high I/(Ca+Mg) were analyzed
182 multiple times to confirm their high values (Table S3).

183 For carbon and oxygen isotope analyses, sample powders were drilled from 110
184 polished slabs, avoiding recrystallized areas and veins. Analyses were conducted at the
185 State Key Laboratory of Biogeology and Environmental Geology, China University of
186 Geosciences (Wuhan). About 150–400 μg of powder was placed in a 10 mL Na-glass
187 vial, sealed with a butyl rubber septum, and reacted with 100% phosphoric acid at 72 °C
188 after flushing with helium. Evolved CO_2 gas was analyzed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ using a
189 MAT 253 mass spectrometer coupled directly to a Finnigan Gasbench II interface
190 (Thermo Scientific). Isotopic values are reported in per mil relative to the Vienna Pee
191 Dee belemnite (VPDB) standard. Analytical precision was better than $\pm 0.1\%$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
192 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ based on replicate analyses of two laboratory standards (GBW 04416 and
193 GBW 04417), where the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ compositions of these standards are +1.6‰ and
194 -11.6% , and -6.1% and -24.1% , respectively. Samples with low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values were
195 analyzed multiple times to confirm their low values (Table S4).

196

197 4. Results

198 Calcite crystals in the studied samples are commonly less than 10 μm in size (Fig.
199 2A and B). Most calcite crystals are rounded in shape without abrasion (Fig. 2A and B),
200 and were likely derived from water-column precipitated carbonate mud (cf. Fang et al.,

201 2022). Globular apatite aggregates are abundant in the pale blue argillaceous limestone
202 (Fig. 2B and C). In addition, barite with anhedral morphology and corrugated
203 boundaries is common (Fig. 2D and E). The lower and upper parts of the studied
204 interval comprise carbonate red beds (Fig. 1B) with abundant authigenic hematite with
205 a euhedral morphology (Fig. 2F–I).

206 The most prominent geochemical feature of the Nanfen Formation carbonates is
207 the presence of two intervals of high I/(Ca+Mg) ratios, up to ~12 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ and ~15
208 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, respectively (Fig. 3; Table S3), which are the highest recorded values from
209 Precambrian carbonates, comparable with those found in modern settings (Fig. 4).
210 Based on fluctuations in I/(Ca+Mg) ratios, the studied section can be subdivided into
211 five intervals (interval I–V) as shown in Fig. 3. The first increase in I/(Ca+Mg) (interval
212 II) lasted for ~3.2 Myr and is associated with an ~6‰ negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion, whereas
213 the second increase in I/(Ca+Mg) (interval IV) lasted for ~1.2 Myr and occurs
214 coincident with an ~2‰ negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion. In both cases, high I/(Ca+Mg) ratios
215 start at the rising limb of the negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion.

216 The two intervals with high I/(Ca+Mg) also have particularly high P/Al (wt%/wt%)
217 ratios relative to Post Archean Australian Shale (PAAS; McLennan, 2001), with values
218 of up to 0.2 (interval II) and 0.4 (interval IV) (Fig. 3; Table S5). In other intervals,
219 including the red beds at the base and top of the measured section, P/Al values are much
220 lower (0.01 ± 0.01 wt%/wt% at the base and 0.04 ± 0.04 wt%/wt% at the top; Fig. 3),
221 although many values are still highly elevated relative to PAAS, likely due to the low
222 detrital Al component in these sediments. The Mg/Ca ratios are < 0.12 mol/mol, and
223 Mn/Sr ratios are < 4 ppm/ppm, with neither ratio showing a correlation with I/(Ca+Mg)
224 ratios (Fig. 3). Barium concentrations (0.15 ± 0.47 wt%; Table S5) are commonly
225 higher than PAAS (0.07 wt%; McLennan, 2001) throughout the section, although some

226 samples are below PAAS. However, two peaks in Ba are identified: the first peak in
227 interval I starts at the beginning of the negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ shift and predates the high
228 I/(Ca+Mg) values, while the second peak in interval V postdates the negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ shift
229 and high I/(Ca+Mg) values in interval IV (Fig. 3).

230

231 5. Discussion

232 5.1. Data evaluation

233 Diagenetic processes and dolomitization in pore fluids and during deeper burial
234 mostly occur under anoxic conditions, and may potentially decrease (but not increase)
235 carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratios (Hardisty et al., 2017; Wörndle et al., 2019). In our samples,
236 relatively low Mn/Sr (< 4 ppm/ppm) and Mg/Ca (< 0.12 mol/mol) ratios (Fig. 3), and
237 their lack of covariation with I/(Ca+Mg), suggest that the temporal fluctuations in
238 I/(Ca+Mg) were caused by paleoenvironmental change rather than by diagenetic
239 alteration or dolomitization (cf. Wörndle et al., 2019). It has been proposed that
240 dissolution of apatite would release non-carbonate iodine, resulting in higher I/(Ca+Mg)
241 ratio (Zhang et al., 2024). In this study, although the increase in I/(Ca+Mg) ratios is
242 associated with a general increase in P concentrations, I/(Ca+Mg) ratios do not co-vary
243 with P concentrations ($R^2 = 0.13$; Table S3), indicating that the I/(Ca+Mg) ratios are
244 not obviously contaminated by apatite dissolution.

245 The oxygen isotope data are remarkably constant (ca. -10‰) throughout most of
246 the measured section (Table S3). It is possible that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values reflect analytical
247 artifact by the contamination of H_2O in the laboratory. However, we reanalyzed selected
248 samples and yielded similar results (Table S4). Additionally, two laboratory standards
249 were used to monitor analytical accuracy, further confirming the reliability of these data.
250 While most diagenetic fluids are characterized by low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Brand and Veizer, 1980),

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251 the low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of $\leq -10\text{‰}$ has traditionally been used to indicate strongly diagenetic
252 alteration. However, the well-preserved fabrics (Bao et al., 2023) and minerals (Fig. 2)
253 argue against strong diagenetic alteration. Interestingly, there has been a suggestion of
254 high-latitude glaciation at ca. 1.1 Ga (Geboy et al., 2013), which could potentially
255 explain the low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. The Nanfen Formation has been demonstrated to have
256 formed in a high paleo-latitude area (Zhao et al., 2020), and thus possibly in a cold
257 environment. Equilibrium isotope fractionation during marine ice formation results in
258 isotopically light oxygen in residual seawater (O'Neil, 1968), and carbonate formed in
259 such seawater could record very low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. However, further evidence, such as
260 oxygen isotope studies of contemporaneous carbonates deposited at similar high paleo-
261 latitudes, is needed to substantiate this potential link. Nevertheless, the lack of
262 correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, as well as between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $I/(Ca+Mg)$ (Table S3),
263 suggests that the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $I/(Ca+Mg)$ values were likely not significantly altered and
264 may reflect original seawater signals.

265

266 5.2. Pulsed oxygenation of the shallow ocean

267 Carbonate $I/(Ca+Mg)$ provides a means of evaluating local redox conditions from
268 which carbonates were precipitated, and has been applied to paleoredox reconstructions
269 of shallow seawater from the Archean to the modern (e.g., Lu et al., 2010, 2017, 2018;
270 Hardisty et al., 2014, 2017; Shang et al., 2019; Wörndle et al., 2019). In the modern
271 ocean, iodate (IO_3^-) and iodide (I^-) are the only two thermodynamically stable iodine
272 forms, and the high iodate that characterizes oxic seawater is reduced to iodide under
273 anoxic seawater conditions (Lu et al., 2010). Laboratory experiments demonstrate that
274 only iodate can substitute into the crystal lattice of carbonates by replacing CO_3^{2-} ,
275 whereas iodide is excluded, and this iodate incorporation has a near-constant partition

276 coefficient (Lu et al., 2010). Therefore, carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratios can record iodate
277 concentrations in the seawater from which the carbonate formed. The standard
278 reduction potential of IO_3^-/I^- is very close to that of $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Rue et al., 1997), making
279 carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) a particularly useful proxy for reflecting the oxygenation state of
280 shallow seawater (Lu et al., 2010). In general, higher I/(Ca+Mg) ratios in carbonate
281 commonly implies higher seawater oxygen concentrations (Shang et al., 2019). A
282 statistical study of the Precambrian carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) distribution has suggested that
283 a value of 0.5 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ can be used as a baseline for Precambrian carbonates (Lu et
284 al., 2017). When there is no other independent evidence indicative of seawater
285 oxygenation, this baseline represents more than 95% of Precambrian carbonate
286 I/(Ca+Mg) ratios formed under anoxic to suboxic seawater conditions. Therefore, if
287 I/(Ca+Mg) ratios in Precambrian carbonates are persistently higher than this baseline
288 value, an increase in oxygen concentrations above a low background level is indicated
289 (cf. Shang et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2021a). In addition, based on comparative studies of
290 modern oxic seawater with that within oxygen minimum zones, an upper I/(Ca+Mg)
291 threshold value of 2.6 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ has been established (Lu et al., 2016; Hardisty et al.,
292 2017), where ratios higher than 2.6 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ indicate oxic seawater with $[\text{IO}_3^-]$ higher
293 than 0.25 μM (Lu et al., 2016; Hardisty et al., 2017). Therefore, the elevated I/(Ca+Mg)
294 ratios ($> 2.6 \mu\text{mol/mol}$) in intervals II and IV indicate well-oxygenated shallow water
295 conditions, whereas the low I/(Ca+Mg) ratios ($< 0.5 \mu\text{mol/mol}$) in other intervals
296 suggest suboxic to anoxic conditions.

297 As noted above, some of the I/(Ca+Mg) ratios in the Nanfen Formation samples
298 are particularly high, up to $\sim 15 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ (Fig. 3), which are the highest values recorded
299 for the Precambrian to date (Fig. 4). There are two possible explanations for these high
300 I/(Ca+Mg) ratios. The first is that shallow water oxygen concentrations may have been

301 as high as in the modern ocean, but this appears unlikely given the relatively low
302 atmospheric oxygen concentrations proposed for the entirety of the mid-Proterozoic
303 (Lyons et al., 2021). A second explanation is that the high $I/(Ca+Mg)$ ratios were
304 primarily due to relatively high oxygen concentrations in shallow seawater, with the
305 release of iodine from organic matter remineralization also partially contributing to the
306 elevated $I/(Ca+Mg)$ values (Fig. 5; cf. Wörndle et al., 2019). Prior to the peak in
307 $I/(Ca+Mg)$ ratios in interval II, the negative $\sim 6\%$ carbon isotope excursion and the ~ 0.8
308 wt% positive shift in Ba concentrations in interval I (Fig. 2) imply that enhanced
309 continental input of sulfate (cf. Cui et al., 2022) activated the remineralization of
310 organic carbon through bacterial sulfate reduction (cf. Xie et al., 2023), resulting in the
311 accumulation of iodide below the redoxcline (cf. Wörndle et al., 2019). This
312 accumulated iodide may have subsequently been oxidized to iodate, resulting in the
313 exceptionally high $I/(Ca+Mg)$ ratios observed in interval II (Fig. 3).

314 While there is no direct counterpart to this scenario in the modern ocean, the
315 degradation of organic matter can release iodine and increase its concentration locally
316 (Martin et al., 1993), since recycled iodine from marine primary productivity is the most
317 significant source of iodine (Lu et al., 2010). A similar scenario likely occurred at ~ 0.81
318 Ga, as recorded in Bitter Springs carbonates, where an increase in $I/(Ca+Mg)$ of up to
319 $\sim 8 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ is associated with a negative carbon isotope excursion of $\sim 8\%$ (Wörndle
320 et al., 2019). Prior to the peak in $I/(Ca+Mg)$ in interval IV, the negative excursion in
321 carbon isotopes (up to $\sim 2\%$) is less prominent than in interval I (Fig. 2). This likely
322 indicates that less iodide was transformed from remineralization of organic matter,
323 suggesting that higher oxygen concentrations (likely $\geq 20\text{--}70 \mu\text{M}$; Shang et al., 2019)
324 in shallow seawater were required to result in the higher $I/(Ca+Mg)$ ratios in this
325 interval (Fig. 3). However, dissolved oxygen concentrations were likely still far below

326 modern levels, since remineralization of organic matter would also have contributed to
327 the high I/(Ca+Mg) ratios.

328 The elevated Ba concentrations (Fig. 3) and occurrence of barite (Fig. 2)
329 throughout the studied interval provide independent evidence for oxygenation of
330 Earth's surface environment. During the mid-Proterozoic, the ocean was persistently
331 rich in Ba, due to low sulfate concentrations in seawater, but authigenic barite
332 precipitation was rare (Wei et al., 2021b; Cui et al., 2022). Therefore, the occurrence of
333 authigenic barite in the Nanfen Formation implies elevated sulfate concentrations (cf.
334 Cui et al., 2022), likely caused by increased atmospheric oxygen levels and enhanced
335 oxidative weathering of the continents (cf. Daines et al., 2017). This is because,
336 although the oxygen levels required for pyrite oxidation are extremely low, simulations
337 suggest that as atmospheric oxygen levels increase, sulfate input from terrestrial
338 oxidative weathering to the ocean also continues to rise until oxygen levels reach
339 approximately 10% PAL (Daines et al., 2017). The occurrence of barite is consistent
340 with highly fractionated Cr isotope results documented in contemporaneous carbonates
341 from West Africa (Gilleaudeau et al., 2016), and large-scale Mn deposition in West
342 Australia, which exceeds the size of Mn deposits during the Neoproterozoic and during
343 most of the Paleoproterozoic and Phanerozoic (Spinks et al., 2023). However, since low
344 mid-Proterozoic atmospheric oxygen levels were commonly not in equilibrium with the
345 shallow ocean (Reinhard et al., 2016), a direct covariation between Ba contents and
346 I/(Ca+Mg) ratios is not observed.

347

348 5.3. Causes of oxygenation and deoxygenation in shallow 1.1–1.0 Ga oceans

349 Our data provide insight into the causes of oxygenation and deoxygenation in the
350 1.1–1.0 Ga shallow ocean. The observed increases in P/Al in intervals II and IV (Fig.

351 2) may have been caused by an increase in either the source or sink of P. Precipitation
352 of iron (oxyhydr)oxides in ferruginous settings can effectively uptake P from seawater
353 (e.g., [Guilbaud et al., 2020](#)), potentially resulting in an increase in the P content of
354 sediments during transitions to ferruginous conditions ([Alcott et al., 2022](#)). However,
355 in the Nanfen Formation, red beds rich in hematite, which likely formed under weakly
356 oxygenated conditions via oxidation of Fe(II) (cf. [Tang et al., 2020b](#)), are not associated
357 with an increase in P/Al ([Fig. 2](#)), indicating that an increase in the P sink was not the
358 main cause for increased P/Al ratios. In addition, the more prominent positive excursion
359 in P/Al ratios correlates with a less pronounced negative excursion in carbon isotope
360 values (e.g., interval IV in [Fig. 2](#)), suggesting that organic carbon remineralization was
361 not the primary source of phosphorus.

362 Instead, it is most likely that enhanced continental weathering of P was the main
363 cause for the increased P/Al ratios. Phosphorus is a major bio-limiting nutrient and
364 likely played a pivotal role in modulating net primary productivity, and therefore redox
365 conditions, over geological timescales ([Tyrrell, 1999](#); [Tang et al., 2022a, 2022b](#); [Xie et al., 2024](#)). In the Nanfen Formation, P/Al begins to increase (from 0.01 wt%/wt%) with
366 the onset of the first I/(Ca+Mg) pulse in interval II, and continues to increase (up to
367 0.17 wt%/wt%) through this interval ([Fig. 2](#)). Following this, there is a second major
368 increase in P/Al at the end of interval III and into interval IV (from 0.01 to 0.39
369 wt%/wt%), and although values then start to decrease through this interval of highly
370 elevated I/(Ca+Mg), P/Al ratios nevertheless remain very high. The peak in P/Al occurs
371 slightly earlier than the I/(Ca+Mg) peak ([Fig. 2](#)). This implies that an enhanced
372 continental influx of P caused the pulsed ocean oxygenation ([Fig. 5](#)).

374 It is worth noting that the first peak in Ba concentrations (interval I) predates the
375 peak in I/(Ca+Mg), whereas the second peak (interval V) postdates the peak in

376 I/(Ca+Mg) (Fig. 2). It is likely that the first increase in I/(Ca+Mg) reflects a response
377 to an increase in atmospheric oxygenation, and this led to increased oceanic
378 oxygenation in the studied region owing to the enhanced chemical weathering influx of
379 P and subsequent stimulation of primary productivity. The second peak (interval IV)
380 then represents an additional increase in atmospheric and oceanic oxygenation, which
381 subsequently led to even more oxidative weathering and a further enhanced influx of
382 Ba, but this oxidative weathering took time to become evident in the rock record and
383 occurred after the peak in oxygenation.

384 Negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ anomalies could be a result of oxidation of organic carbon in the
385 ocean (e.g., Rothman et al., 2003) or other forms of reduced carbon such as methane
386 (e.g., Bjerrum and Canfield, 2011), terrestrial organic matter (e.g., Kaufman et al., 2007)
387 and petroleum (e.g., Kroeger and Funnell, 2012), authigenic carbonate precipitation
388 (e.g., Higgins et al., 2018), and/or low primary production (e.g., Kump, 1991), and/or
389 diagenesis (e.g., Oehlert and Swart, 2014). Oxidative weathering of terrestrial organic
390 matter is one possible cause of the negative carbon isotope excursion. If this is the case,
391 this process should be associated with the oxidation of organic iodine, leading to a
392 concurrent increase in the carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratio. However, the data indicate that
393 the carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratio only begins to increase as the carbon isotope values
394 recover from their lowest point (Fig. 3). Therefore, although other possibilities may
395 also exist, the most parsimonious interpretation for this negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ anomaly
396 accompanied by a positive shift in I/(Ca+Mg) is the oxidation of the oceanic organic
397 matter (Shang et al., 2019; Wörndle et al., 2019). With the expansion of shallow
398 seawater oxygenation, oxidation of organic carbon was enhanced and became one of
399 the significant oxygen-consuming processes (cf. Shang et al., 2019; Wörndle et al.,
400 2019). In interval II, the negative excursion in carbon isotopes (Fig. 3) suggests that

401 mixing of deep, organic carbon-rich seawater with oxygenated shallow seawater may
402 have contributed to the subsequent transition back to less well-oxygenated seawater.
403 However, the negative carbon isotope excursion stops before the end of high $I/(Ca+Mg)$
404 values, suggesting that this was not the sole cause of the deoxygenation. Instead, since
405 the decrease in $I/(Ca+Mg)$ is associated with decreasing P/Al ratios (Fig. 3), this
406 suggests that a decreased influx of continental P was the major cause of the
407 deoxygenation of shallow seawater. This process likely also contributed to the decrease
408 in $I/(Ca+Mg)$ in interval IV. In this interval, the magnitude of the negative carbon
409 isotope excursion is lower than in interval II, suggesting that oxidation of organic
410 carbon was not the main cause for the subsequent deoxygenation. Following the pulsed
411 oxygenation in interval IV, the carbon isotope profile remains relatively stable, but the
412 lithology changed to marine red beds (Figs. 2 and 3), suggesting that the oxidation of
413 anoxic Fe(II)-rich deep seawater was also partially responsible for the shallow water
414 deoxygenation (cf. Ye et al., 2023).

415

416 5.4. Implications for eukaryote evolution

417 A study of modern ocean eukaryotes suggests that oxygen levels of at least $8 \mu\text{M}$
418 (2.7% PAL) are required for the evolution of crown-group eukaryotes, (Mills et al.,
419 2024), which may be slightly lower than the levels needed for simpler Precambrian
420 eukaryotes. Since the $I/(Ca+Mg)$ proxy is only suitable for application to carbonates,
421 we are not able to use our approach to deduce oxygen levels in the siliciclastics in which
422 the fossils occur (Fig. 1). Nevertheless, our identification of fluctuating oxygenation
423 levels at this time, including transitions to particularly high oxygen levels, suggests that
424 the 1.1–1.0 Ga interval was characterized by the periodic development of conditions
425 that were permissible for eukaryote evolution. Indeed, the initial rise of crown-group

426 eukaryotes, as reflected in the appearance of multicellular chlorophytes in the ca. 1.1
427 Ga Nanfen Formation and the oldest rhodophytes in the ca. 1.05 Ga Hunting Formation,
428 Canada (Butterfield, 2000; Gibson et al., 2018), broadly corresponds to this interval of
429 enhanced pulses of oxygenation (Fig. 4). This reinforces the role of oxygen as a
430 potential evolutionary driver for the initial rise of crown-group eukaryotes in the
431 terminal Mesoproterozoic.

432 It should be noted that our data suggest that enhanced oxygenation of shallow
433 seawater was relatively short-lived, and the redox conditions in shallow oceans
434 fluctuated considerably. According to the astrochronological timescale (Fig. 2; Bao et
435 al., 2023), the first pulse in oxygenation (interval II) persisted for ~3.2 Myr, while the
436 second pulse (interval IV) lasted only for ~1.2 Myr. Although this time allowed for an
437 increase in complexity, it was likely not sufficient for significant changes in diversity,
438 as such changes require the construction and occupation of new morphospace (Lowery
439 and Fraass, 2019) and/or ecosystems (Alvarez et al., 2019) through novel innovations,
440 which are much slower than the development of complexity. Similar scenarios have
441 been observed in other pulsed oxygenation events during the mid-Proterozoic, such as
442 the 1.57 Ga (Zhang et al., 2018; Shang et al., 2019) and 1.4 Ga oxygenation events
443 (Zhang et al., 2016a, 2021). It is therefore likely that the unstable redox conditions
444 impeded the evolutionary trajectory of eukaryotes.

445

446 **6. Conclusions**

447 Two prominent peaks in I/(Ca+Mg) ratios, marking significant oxygenation events
448 in Earth's history, have been identified in the ~1.1 Ga Nanfen Formation, North China.
449 These events are manifest as two pulsed oxygen increases in the shallow ocean, lasting
450 ~3.2 Myr and ~1.2 Myr, respectively. Increased inputs of continentally-derived P likely

451 drove enhanced productivity and ultimately oxygen production across these two
452 intervals. However, subsequent deoxygenation of seawater as the pulsed increases in
453 the supply of P from enhanced continental weathering waned, likely occurred via the
454 oxidation of organic carbon and the intrusion of deep, Fe(II)-rich seawater. Our data
455 thus reveal that the oxygenation state of mid-Proterozoic shallow seawater was highly
456 dynamic, building on a growing body of evidence for highly heterogeneous mid-
457 Proterozoic sub-surface redox conditions. The initial rise of crown group eukaryotes
458 appears to be linked to enhanced pulses of shallow water oxygenation at ~1.1 Ga,
459 suggesting that environmental oxygenation played a crucial role in facilitating early
460 eukaryotic evolution. However, unstable ocean redox conditions on longer timescales
461 likely hindered the evolutionary trajectory of these organisms.

462

463 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

464 All authors have contributed to this work. D.J. Tang designed the study. X.L. Li,
465 H.Q. Zhao and S.H. Zhang collected the samples. D.J. Tang, H.Y. Zhou, L.M. Zhou and
466 H.Y. Song performed the experiments. D.J. Tang drafted the manuscript, which all other
467 authors substantively revised.

468

469 **Declaration of competing interest**

470 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
471 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
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473

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484

485 **Supplementary materials**

486 Supplementary material, including all data, associated with this article can be
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804

805 **Figure captions**

806 **Figure 1.** Geological background and stratigraphic succession of the ca. 1.1 Ga Nanfen
807 Formation in the Benxi region, North China. (A) Tectonic subdivision of the North
808 China Craton (Zhao et al. 2005). (B) Geological map showing the location of the three
809 studied drill cores (Bao et al., 2023). (C) Simplified stratigraphic succession and
810 subdivision of the Nanfen Formation, based on the correlation of three drill cores
811 (modified from Bao et al., 2023). The fossil information is adopted from Duan (1982);
812 Lin (1984); Lin and Xing (1984); LBGMR (1989); Hong et al. (1991); Tang et al.
813 (2020a); Li et al. (2023). The studied drill core interval and depositional environments
814 are marked on the right of panel C.

815

816 **Figure 2.** Representative petrographic features of the Nanfen Formation samples. (A)
817 Photomicrograph (plane-polarized light) of a pale blue argillaceous limestone from the
818 middle Nanfen Formation (Sample ID: B380406A2; Stratigraphic height: 115.66 m),
819 showing its carbonate mud composition. (B) BSE image of the same sample in panel
820 A, showing the composition of carbonate mud (Cal), chert (Qz) and apatite grains (Ap).
821 (C) EDS elemental mapping of panel B, showing the distribution of P, Si, Ca and K. (D)
822 BSE image of red argillaceous limestone (red bed) from the upper Nanfen Formation
823 (Sample ID: A040201A2; Stratigraphic height: 242.80 m), showing the occurrence of
824 anhedral barite crystals (Brt) with corrugated boundaries. (E) EDS elemental mapping
825 of panel E, showing the distribution of Ba, Ca, S and O. (F) Photomicrograph (plane-
826 polarized light) of the sample in panel D, showing red hematite in a carbonate matrix.
827 (G) BSE image of panel F with high magnification, showing hexagonal morphology of
828 a hematite polyhedron. (H) EDS analysis of the hematite particle in panel G (red circle),
829 showing high contents of Fe and O. (I) Electron backscattered diffraction analysis,
830 confirmed the mineralogy of hematite in panel G.

831

832 **Figure 3.** Profiles of $I/(Ca+Mg)$, Mg/Ca , Mn/Sr , $\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{18}O$, Ba, P and P/Al from
833 carbonates in the Nanfen Formation (Member I) at Benxi, North China (see the studied
834 interval in Fig. 1). Long eccentricity cycles (405 kyr; Bao et al., 2023) are shown to the
835 right of the stratigraphic column. The smoothed thick lines represent the LOESS curves
836 (span = 0.1). The vertical red dashed line at 0.5 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ on the $I/(Ca+Mg)$ profile
837 marks the suboxic–anoxic Precambrian $I/(Ca+Mg)$ baseline (Lu et al., 2017), and the
838 red dashed line at 2.6 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ represents the lower limit for oxic conditions ($[O_2] \geq$
839 20–70 μM ; Shang et al., 2019). Positive shifts in $I/(Ca+Mg)$ broadly coincide with the

840 recovery from negative shifts in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and higher [P] and P/Al. The Ba and P/Al
841 composition of PAAS are 0.067 wt% and 0.007 (wt%/wt%), respectively (McLennan,
842 2001).

843

844 **Figure 4.** Secular variation in I/(Ca+Mg) through time (B, modified from Xie et al.,
845 2023) relative to the long-term atmospheric $p\text{O}_2$ curve (A, from Lyons et al., 2021). The
846 I/(Ca+Mg) data are sourced from Glock et al. (2014), Lu et al. (2016, 2018), Hardisty
847 et al. (2017), He et al. (2020), Huang et al. (2022), Shang et al. (2019), Wei et al. (2019,
848 2021), Wörndle et al. (2019), Ding et al. (2022), Yu et al. (2022) and Yuan et al. (2022).
849 (C) Phylogenetic tree of the domain Eukarya with black, red and green lines
850 highlighting crown-group branches (Brocks et al., 2023). LECA – the last common
851 ancestor of all extant eukaryotes, rapidly evolved during the 1.1–1.0 Ga interval
852 (Brocks et al., 2023).

853

854 **Figure 5.** Schematic model showing episodic oxygenation of shallow seawater and
855 fluctuations in I/(Ca+Mg) ratios during deposition of the Nanfen formation. (A)
856 Enhanced continental P input enhanced primary productivity in shallow seawater,
857 resulting in oxygenation. Increased continental sulfate input promoted microbial sulfate
858 reduction below the redoxcline, leading to the accumulation of iodide in anoxic
859 seawater and authigenic barite precipitation. The mixing of oxic shallow seawater and
860 upwelling of iodide-rich, anoxic seawater resulted in the oxidation of iodide to iodate
861 and therefore high I/(Ca+Mg) ratios. This process generated spatiotemporal redox
862 heterogeneity that created niches for crown-group eukaryotes. (B) A decrease in
863 continental P input, oxidation of organic carbon, and the upwelling of Fe(II)-rich
864 seawater led to a decrease in oxygen concentrations in shallow seawater and therefore

865 low I/(Ca+Mg) ratios. The highly fluctuating redox conditions may have prevented
866 continual rapid eukaryote evolution on longer timescales.