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# Early animal evolution and highly oxygenated seafloor niches hosted by microbial mats

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The earliest unambiguous evidence for animals is represented by various trace fossils in the latest Ediacaran Period (550–541 Ma), suggesting that the earliest animals lived on or even penetrated into the seafloor. Yet, the O<sub>2</sub> fugacity at the sediment-water interface (SWI) for the earliest animal proliferation is poorly defined. The preferential colonization of seafloor as a first step in animal evolution is also unusual. In order to understand the environmental background, we employed a new proxy, carbonate associated ferrous iron (Fe<sub>carb</sub>), to quantify the seafloor oxygenation. Fe<sub>carb</sub> of the latest Ediacaran Shibantan limestone in South China, which yields abundant animal traces, ranges from 2.27 to 85.43 ppm, corresponding to the seafloor O<sub>2</sub> fugacity of 162 μmol/L to 297 μmol/L. These values are significantly higher than the oxygen saturation in seawater at the contemporary atmospheric pO<sub>2</sub> levels. The highly oxygenated seafloor might be attributed to O<sub>2</sub> production of the microbial mats. Despite the moderate atmospheric pO<sub>2</sub> level, microbial mats possibly provided highly oxygenated niches for the evolution of benthic metazoans. Our model suggests that the O<sub>2</sub> barrier could be locally overcome in the mat ground, questioning the long-held belief that atmospheric oxygenation was the key control of animal evolution.

The last 10 million years of the Ediacaran Period (550–541 Ma), at the eve of Cambrian Explosion, experienced dramatic and enigmatic changes in the biosphere<sup>1,2</sup>. The classic Ediacaran biota showed a sharp decline in diversity<sup>3</sup>, and the earliest unambiguous bilaterian animals—represented by various types of trace fossils<sup>4,5</sup>—began to occupy ecological niches on the seafloor. For example, the first U-shaped trace fossil, *Arenicolites* from Western Mongolia, indicates that early animals had the ability to burrow vertically into sediments<sup>6</sup>, and the oldest trackways from South China imply the presence of bilaterian animals with paired appendages<sup>7</sup>.

Recent Uranium (U) isotope studies indicated there was extensive oceanic anoxia (>21% of the seafloor) during terminal Ediacaran, which was associated with the decline of Ediacaran biota<sup>8</sup>. There are also previous studies suggesting that, although atmospheric pO<sub>2</sub> level remained modest, varying between 10–40% Present Atmospheric Level (PAL)<sup>9,10</sup>, the deep ocean remained predominantly anoxic<sup>11</sup>, and the ocean oxidation was episodic throughout the Ediacaran and Cambrian<sup>12,13</sup>. The full oxygenation of the ocean-atmosphere system did not occur until the latter Pleozoic<sup>9</sup>. Although some geochemical evidences have been interpreted as increased oxygenation during the terminal Ediacaran<sup>14–16</sup>, redox conditions adjacent to the sediment-water interface (SWI) is still poorly constrained.

The O<sub>2</sub> fugacity of the modern seafloor is highly heterogeneous (0 ~ >250 μmol/L)<sup>17</sup>, suggesting that atmospheric oxygenation and seawater oxidation does not necessarily mean high seafloor O<sub>2</sub> fugacity. Existing geochemical proxies, such as Fe-S-C systematics<sup>12,18,19</sup>, molybdenum isotopes<sup>20</sup>, Ce anomalies<sup>21</sup>, nitrogen isotopes<sup>22</sup> and abundance of redox-sensitive trace elements<sup>23</sup>, reflect the degree of seawater oxidation, but make no direct inference about the seafloor redox. The earliest mobile animals, represented by the occurrence of Ediacaran and early Cambrian trace fossils, predominantly have benthic rather than pelagic lifestyle<sup>24,25</sup>. Yet, it remains unclear

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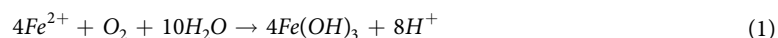
**Figure 1.** Lithology and fossils of the Shibantan Member, Dengying Formation. (a) Dark, laminated organic-rich limestone; (b) Abundant trace fossils (white arrows); (c) *Wutubus annularis*. White arrow points to apex; (d) *Vendotaenia* (white arrows); (e) Typical benthic cyanobacteria *Oscillatoria* from the chert nodules in the Denying limestone (white arrow).

what exactly were the oxygen conditions under which the animals, especially benthos that live on the SWI or even penetrate into the sediment, survived and radiated in the terminal Ediacaran ocean.

In order to understand the environmental conditions experienced by the earliest benthic animals, we propose a method of retrieving the seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity from sections where the earliest animals evolved. The Ediacaran Dengying Formation (551–541 Ma), Yangtze Block, South China, contains abundant trace fossils together with both canonical and atypical Ediacaran fossils<sup>4,26,27</sup>. These fossils are particularly well known from in the bituminous limestone of the Shibantan Member (Fig. 1). In addition, the earliest biomineralized organism, *Cloudina*, has been discovered in the Baimatuo Member of the uppermost Dengying Formation<sup>28–31</sup>. As one of the few terminal Ediacaran fossiliferous carbonate successions in the world, the Dengying limestone may provide a unique window to view the environmental and ecological background of the latest Ediacaran evolution. In this study, we developed a new proxy, carbonate associated ferrous iron ( $Fe_{carb}$ ), to constrain the seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity during the emergence of the earliest benthic animals in the latest Ediacaran Dengying Formation in South China.

### $Fe_{carb}$ As A Proxy of Seafloor $O_2$ Fugacity

Ferrous Fe [Fe(II)] is thermodynamically unstable in oxic conditions, and would be oxidized to ferric Fe [Fe(III)], resulting in the precipitation of iron oxides or iron oxyhydroxides at neutral to alkaline pH conditions. The redox equilibrium between  $Fe^{2+}$  and  $O_2$  could be expressed as:



Thus, modern oxic seawater have extremely low dissolved Fe content (0~1.5 nmol·L<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>32</sup>. Ferric Fe can be reduced by iron reducing microbes (IRM) in suboxic-anoxic sediments by process collectively known as the dissimilatory iron reduction (DIR)<sup>33</sup>. The chemical reaction of DIR can be expressed as:



DIR generates Fe<sup>2+</sup>, increasing Fe<sup>2+</sup> concentration in sediment porewater (0~500 μmol·L<sup>-1</sup> in modern ocean)<sup>34,35</sup>. As such, high porewater Fe<sup>2+</sup> content and low seawater Fe<sup>2+</sup> content generate a Fe<sup>2+</sup> concentration gradient, which results in the upward diffusion of dissolved Fe<sup>2+</sup> and a benthic Fe<sup>2+</sup> flux. The concentration gradient of Fe<sup>2+</sup> ( $\nabla_{\text{Fe}}$ ) can be expressed by the following simplified equation:

$$\nabla_{\text{Fe}} = \frac{([\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}} - [\text{Fe}]_{\text{sw}})}{l_{\text{Fe}}} \quad (3)$$

where  $l_{\text{Fe}}$  is the depth of the upper boundary of DIR zone below SWI.  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}$  and  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{sw}}$  are Fe<sup>2+</sup> concentration in porewater (within the DIR zone) and seawater, respectively.  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}$  is determined by the availability of ferric Fe oxides/oxyhydroxides and organic matter (Eq. 2). Considering the large difference in the order of magnitudes between  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}$  and  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{sw}}$ , the concentration gradient is mainly controlled by  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}$  as follows:

$$\nabla_{\text{Fe}} = \frac{[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}}{l_{\text{Fe}}} \quad (4)$$

The benthic flux of Fe<sup>2+</sup> ( $\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}}$ ) can be expressed as:

$$\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}} = \nabla_{\text{Fe}} \times D_{\text{Fe}} \quad (5)$$

where  $D_{\text{Fe}}$  is the diffusivity coefficient of Fe<sup>2+</sup> in porewater. At equilibrium, Eq. 1 can be written as:

$$K = \frac{[\text{H}^+]^8}{[\text{Fe}^{2+}]^4 \times [\text{O}_2]} \quad (6)$$

where K is the equilibrium constant. The Fe<sup>2+</sup> concentration shows an inversely exponential relationship with the O<sub>2</sub> content. Rearranging Eqs 4–6, we arrive at:

$$\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}} = D_{\text{Fe}} \times \frac{[\text{H}^+]^2}{l_{\text{Fe}} \times (K \times [\text{O}_2])^{1/4}} \quad (7)$$

Thus, in theory, when pH and temperature remain unchanged, there is an inversely exponential relationship between benthic iron flux ( $\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}}$ ) and bottom water O<sub>2</sub> ( $\text{O}_{2-\text{BW}}$ ) adjacent to the SWI, which can be expressed as an empirical equation:

$$\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}} = a \times (\text{O}_{2-\text{BW}})^b \quad (8)$$

In the modern ocean, there exists a negative correlation between  $\text{O}_{2-\text{BW}}$  and  $\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}}$ <sup>36–38</sup> (Supplementary Fig. 6). Instead of using *in situ* fluxes, we collected the benthic flux data measured by non-invasive benthic chambers<sup>39</sup>. Strong benthic bioturbation related with water depth in the modern ocean can elevate the iron flux (Supplementary Fig. 6). In order to recede the influence of benthos, we choose the data collected from locations with water depth greater than 500 m. Thus, the best fitted power function can be expressed as follows (see supplementary text; Supplementary Fig. 7; the units of  $\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}}$  and  $\text{O}_{2-\text{BW}}$  are mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·Myr<sup>-1</sup> and mol·L<sup>-1</sup>):

$$\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}} = 10^{-4.98 \pm 0.72} \times (\text{O}_{2-\text{BW}})^{-1.71 \pm 0.16} \quad (9)$$

We suggest that  $\text{Flux}_{\text{Fe}}$  could be recorded by carbonate precipitating on the seafloor. Because Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> have similar ionic radii and charge, Fe<sup>2+</sup> has the tendency to replace Ca<sup>2+</sup> in carbonate minerals<sup>40</sup>.  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  is determined by Fe<sup>2+</sup> concentration in solution that is related to the redox condition (or oxygen fugacity) and the partitioning coefficient that is temperature, pH, Eh and mineralogy dependent<sup>41</sup>. Because  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}$  is at least 3 orders of magnitude larger than  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{sw}}$ , benthic flux (with Fe<sup>2+</sup> flux of 0.02~568 μmol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup> in the modern ocean) would be the major Fe source for benthic carbonates. Equation for  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  of seafloor carbonate precipitation can be expressed as (see supplementary text):

$$\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}} = \frac{K_{\text{Fe}} \times M_{\text{Fe}} \times 10^{-4.98} \times (\text{O}_{2-\text{BW}})^{-1.71}}{s \times \rho} \quad (10)$$

where  $K_{\text{Fe}}$  is the partitioning coefficient of the benthic Fe<sup>2+</sup> flux into the carbonate lattice.  $M_{\text{Fe}}$  is the molecular weight of Fe (56 g/mol),  $s$  is the sedimentation rate, and  $\rho$  is the density of carbonates (2.71 g/cm<sup>3</sup>).

Notably, although  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  content is determined by the seafloor O<sub>2</sub> fugacity, which is controlled—although not uniquely—by the atmospheric  $p\text{O}_2$  level, the quantitative reconstruction of atmospheric  $p\text{O}_2$  level by using  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  is not directly applicable. On one hand, Fe speciation in seawater is complex. In addition to free Fe<sup>2+</sup>, the



dissolved ferrous Fe species also include various Fe-organic complexes, which accounts for the majority of the dissolved Fe in the modern ocean<sup>32</sup>. On the other hand, atmospheric  $pO_2$  level is not the only control of bottom seawater redox. Instead, both organic matter influx and ocean circulation also play important roles<sup>42</sup>. If the water column above the SWI enriches organic matter or ocean circulation is stagnant, there can be decoupling between atmospheric  $pO_2$  level and bottom water  $O_2$  content. Therefore,  $Fe_{carb}$  can only constrain the redox conditions on the seafloor, and not in the atmosphere.

Furthermore, using  $Fe_{carb}$  to reconstruct seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity can only be applied to carbonate that precipitated on the seafloor. Before the evolution of skeletonizing organisms, i.e. Ca-carbonate biomineralization in the latest Ediacaran<sup>43,44</sup>, marine carbonate precipitation derive from biotically induced carbonate precipitation and direct abiotic precipitation from seawater or porewater<sup>45</sup>. The inorganic precipitation, identified by crystal fan and herringbone structures in carbonate, was common in Archean and decreased in abundance after the late Paleoproterozoic<sup>46</sup>. By contrast, biotically induced precipitation is driven by an elevation of carbonate saturation resulting from releasing of microbial metabolite into carbonate producing micro-environments<sup>47,48</sup>. The Shibantan limestone contains abundant organic-rich filaments, and is composed of crinkled microlaminae that have been interpreted as microbial mats<sup>7,27,49</sup> (Fig. 2). It is reasonable to argue that the Dengying carbonate precipitation was triggered by benthic microbes on the seafloor, warranting the application of  $Fe_{carb}$  to reconstruct seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity. Furthermore, before the evolution of pelagic planktonic carbonate secreting organisms in Mesozoic, nearly all marine carbonate in the Paleozoic ocean was generated by benthic calcifiers, such as brachiopods, corals, and echinoderms<sup>50</sup>. Although carbonates precipitation from the water column cannot be completely ruled out, physical and biological abrasions of biogenic carbonate should be the major source of carbonate mud (i.e. micrite) in the Paleozoic ocean<sup>51</sup>. Therefore,  $Fe_{carb}$  of micrite from the Paleozoic carbonate can be used to reconstruct the seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity as well. In this study, we use  $Fe_{carb}$  of the late Paleozoic (late Devonian and early Carboniferous) limestone (see supplementary text; Supplementary Fig. 3) as references. It is reasonable to speculate that the concentration of dissolved oxygen in the late Paleozoic shallow water was in equilibrium with the atmosphere, whose  $pO_2$  levels were at least comparable to or even higher than that of the modern atmosphere<sup>9</sup>.

It should be noted that there are limitations and assumptions when applying  $Fe_{carb}$  to reconstruct the seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity. First, considering the short residence time of dissolved iron in seawater (on the order of 100–200 yr)<sup>52</sup>,  $Fe_{carb}$  only reflects the local seafloor redox rather than the global state which can be estimated by uranium isotopes<sup>53</sup>. Second, Eq. 10 is based on the assumption of unlimited benthic  $Fe^{2+}$  flux. However, benthic  $Fe^{2+}$  flux would be finite when there are deficient supplies of reactive Fe or organic matter. In this case, low  $Fe_{carb}$  could also be generated at low seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity with insufficient supplies of reactive Fe or organic matter. Thus, the interpretation of  $Fe_{carb}$  data should also consider siliciclastic and TOC contents in carbonate so as to guarantee sufficient Fe flux from sediment porewater. Third, we suggest that  $Fe_{carb}$  can only be applied to limestone rather than dolostone. Generally higher  $Fe_{carb}$  of dolostone may not only be the consequence of Fe-enriched dolomitization fluid, but also result from higher miscibility between Mg and Fe in carbonate lattice than between Ca and Fe<sup>40</sup>. Possibly multiple stages and fluid origins of dolomitization also interfere  $Fe_{carb}$  as a seafloor redox indicator. Thus, we recommend samples with low Mg/Ca (<0.05) should be selected. Finally, authigenic carbonate precipitation within DIR zone that has high  $Fe^{2+}$  content could also contribute to higher  $Fe_{carb}$ . Therefore,  $Fe_{carb}$  represents the minimum estimation of the seafloor  $O_{2-BW}$ .

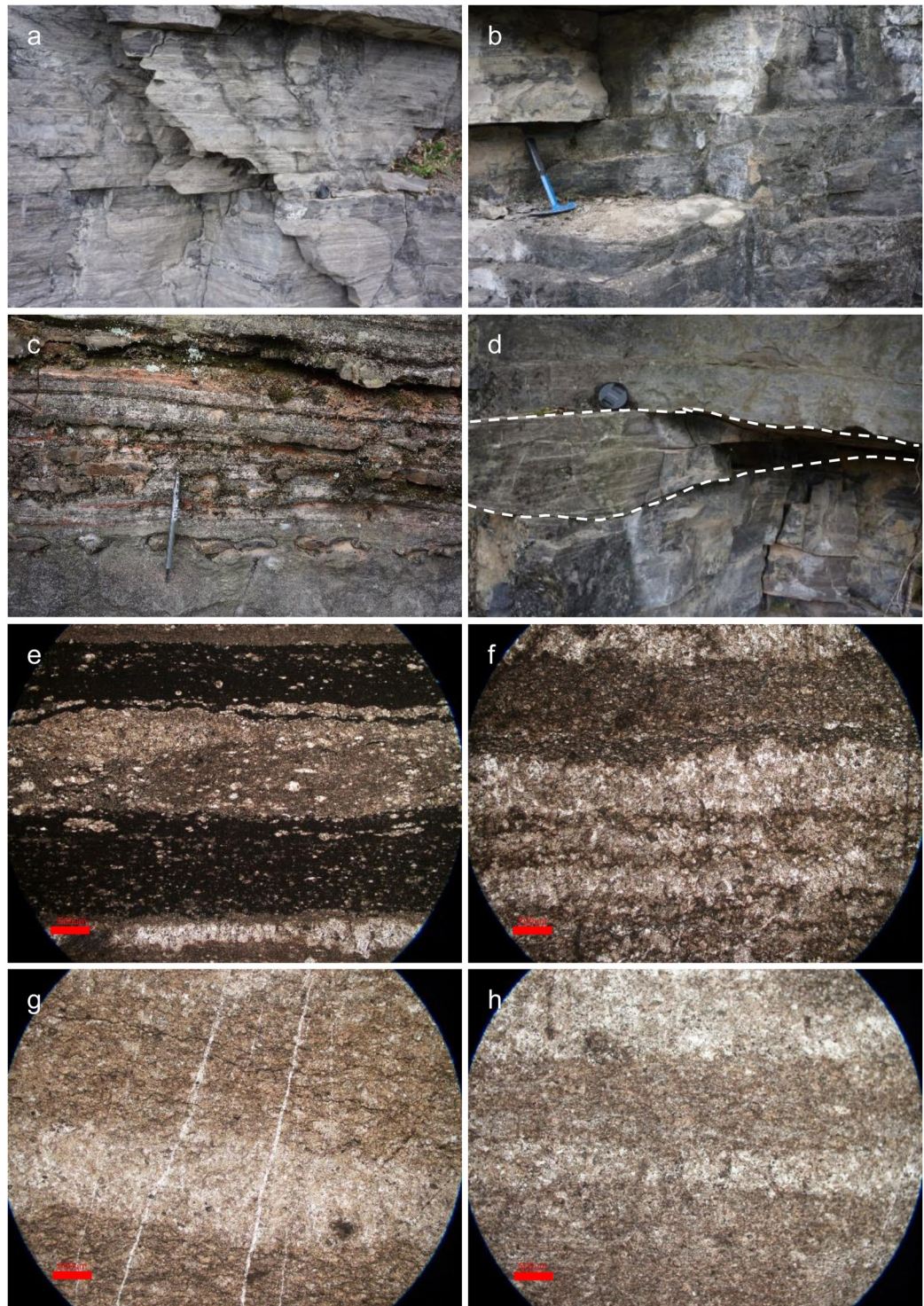
## Geological Setting and Sample Description

The Dengying Formation in the Yangtze Gorges area can be divided into, in ascending order, the Hamajing, Shibantan and Baimatuo members<sup>30</sup> (Supplementary Fig. 2). The Shibantan Member, sandwiched between the peritidal dolostone of the Hamajing and Baimatuo members, is composed of dark, laminated, organic-rich limestone. The Shibantan limestone contains a variety of fossils, including trace fossils, Ediacara fossils (e.g. *Wutubus annularis*), algal fossils (e.g. *Vendotaenia*), as well as benthic cyanobacteria (e.g. *Oscillatoria*) (Fig. 1). The absence of subaerial exposure structures as well as the occasional occurrences of hummocky cross bedding suggests the deposition in a deep subtidal environment, probably below the fair-weather wave base but above the storm-wave base (Fig. 2; see Supplementary Text).

Samples were collected from the Sixi and Huangniuyan sections in the Yangtze Gorges area, South China (Fig. 2a–d; Supplementary Fig. 1). The fine laminae are confined by organic-rich microbial filaments and are composed of alternating micritic and calcspar layers (Fig. 2e–h). The micritic layer normally has higher organic and siliciclastic contents, while the calcspar layer is composed of subhedral-anhedral calcite crystals of up to 100  $\mu m$  in size. The calcspar crystals usually have fuzzy boundaries and contain abundant remaining micrites, suggesting the calcspar might derive from recrystallization of micrite in the early stage of diagenesis.

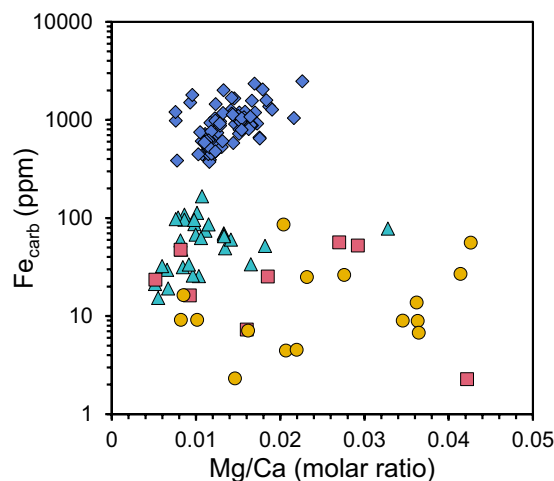
## Results

The micrite and calcspar layers of the Shibantan limestone have comparable  $Fe_{carb}$ , ranging from 2.27 ppm to 157.34 ppm (mean = 47.49 ppm,  $n = 22$ ) and from 2.31 ppm to 260.15 ppm (mean = 57.12 ppm,  $n = 32$ ), respectively (Supplementary Fig. 4; Supplementary Table 1). The limestone samples with Mg/Ca molar ratio < 0.05 have  $Fe_{carb}$  varying between 2.27 ppm and 85.43 ppm (mean = 22.48 ppm,  $n = 24$ ) (Fig. 3). As a comparison,  $Fe_{carb}$  of the late Paleozoic carbonates shows a wide range of variation (Fig. 3; Supplementary Table 2). In general, samples from shallow water carbonate platform environment, including the Panlong, Madao and Dazhai sections, have lower  $Fe_{carb}$ , ranging from 15.28 ppm to 166.26 ppm (mean = 63.44 ppm,  $n = 31$ ), whereas the equivalent deep water samples from the Duli, Xiada and Daposhang sections have significantly higher  $Fe_{carb}$ , varying between 373.01 ppm and 2471.23 ppm (mean = 924.42 ppm,  $n = 83$ ) (Fig. 3; Supplementary Table 2).



**Figure 2.** Field photographs and transmitted light photomicrographs. **(a)** Outcrop photograph showing the well-laminated limestone of the Shibantan Member, Dengying Formation. **(b)** Outcrop photograph showing dark-colored organic rich limestone. **(c)** Outcrop photograph showing the chert nodules in the limestone of the Shibantan Member, Dengying Formation. **(d)** Outcrop photograph showing hummocky cross beddings (dashed lines for orientation). **(e,f)** Photomicrograph showing organic rich micro-laminae of micrite and calcspar. Several calcspar-grains can be seen in the micritic layer. **(g,h)** photomicrograph showing alternating calcspar and micritic layers. The boundary between the laminae is fuzzy. Scale bars are 500  $\mu\text{m}$  for pictures e–h.





**Figure 3.**  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  concentration of the Dengying Formation and carbonates in late Paleozoic including samples with  $\text{Mg}/\text{Ca} < 0.05$ . Crossplot showing  $\text{Mg}/\text{Ca}$  molar ratio (x-axis) vs.  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  content (y-axis). Low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  content of micrite (red squares) and calcspar (yellow dots) layers of the Dengying Formation shows no significant difference, indicating that carbonates precipitated in Fe-depleted condition.  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  content of shallow water carbonates in late Paleozoic (cyan triangles) is comparable to that of the Dengying Formation. Deep water carbonates in late Paleozoic (blue rhombuses) are characterized by high  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$ .

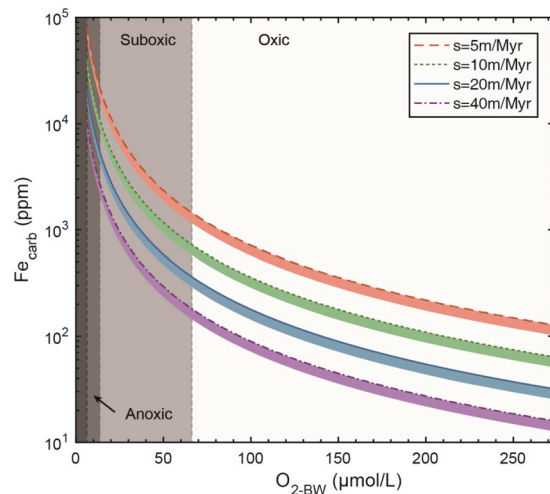
## Discussion

The Shibantan limestone ( $\text{Mg}/\text{Ca}$  molar ratio  $< 0.05$ ) samples have extremely low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  values both in micritic and calcspar layers, with little difference between these two types of layers, supporting the petrological observation that the calcspar mainly derives from recrystallization of micrite (Fig. 3). In addition, the Mn content in the Shibantan limestone is extremely low or even undetectable, suggesting little alteration by meteoric fluids<sup>54</sup> (Supplementary Table 1). Other diagenetic processes, which dominantly occur in anoxic conditions and cause more  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  incorporation into the carbonate lattice, would most likely elevate  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$ . Therefore, low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  of the Dengying limestone may not result from diagenetic processes.

Low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  of the Dengying limestone cannot be attributed to oceanic euxinia as well (i.e.  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  enriched but  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  depleted), because abundant trace fossils and macroscopic Ediacara fossils strongly argue for a non-sulfidic environment<sup>4,26,49</sup>. Neither could the low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  be attributed to low  $[\text{Fe}]_{\text{pw}}$  resulting from insufficient supply of organic matter and reactive Fe. Firstly, the Dengying limestone has high siliciclastic contents (average = 14.34%,  $n = 47$ ; Supplementary Table 4), suggesting sufficient reactive Fe in sediments (Supplementary Fig. 9). Secondly, high organic carbon content (average = 2.47%,  $n = 47$ , Supplementary Table 4) in bituminous limestone warrants DIR in sediment porewater. In addition, low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  of the Shibantan limestone (mean = 22.48 ppm,  $n = 24$ ) is close to, or even lower than that of the late Paleozoic shallow water carbonates (mean = 63.44 ppm,  $n = 31$ ; Fig. 3). Considering the sedimentation rates of the Shibantan limestone (at least 24 m/Myr) and shallow marine carbonates in the Late Paleozoic sections (12.5 m/Myr for the Madao section, 6.4 m/Myr for Panlong section and 28.6 m/Myr for Dazhai section), the Ediacaran seafloor  $\text{O}_2$  fugacity should be comparable to that of the well ventilated seafloor in Late Paleozoic (Eq. 10). Thus, low  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  of the Shibantan limestone can only be explained by high seafloor  $\text{O}_2$  fugacity.

To quantify the seafloor  $\text{O}_2$  fugacity by Eq. 10,  $K_{\text{Fe}}$  should be determined in advance. However,  $K_{\text{Fe}}$  that specifically represents partition coefficient of benthic  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  incorporation into calcite has not been directly determined for modern limestone, although the factors affecting  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  incorporation into calcite in aqueous solution at equilibrium state have been investigated<sup>55,56</sup>. To constrain this unknown, we use  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  data of late Devonian-early Carboniferous shallow marine carbonate samples (Madao, Panlong and Dazhai sections), to calculate the  $K_{\text{Fe}}$ . The calculated  $K_{\text{Fe}}$  value is then validated by the equivalent deep water carbonate samples (Duli, Xiada and Daposhang sections), which were collected from the beddings that contains abundant benthic animal fossils and thus were also inferred to represent oxic conditions (Fig. 3; see supplementary text; Supplementary Table 2). The result shows that the average  $K_{\text{Fe}}$  is 2.32 (1.86 for Madao section, 1.89 for Panlong section and 3.22 for Dazhai section). These calculated  $K_{\text{Fe}}$  values are within the range of values previously determined by experimental studies (1.5–2.3 at 10 °C and 2.8–7.7 at 50 °C)<sup>55</sup>. To reconstruct  $\text{O}_{2\text{-BW}}$  during the deposition of carbonates by Eq. 10, we use  $K_{\text{Fe}} = 2.32$  and  $s = 5, 10, 20, 40$  m/Myr.  $\text{O}_{2\text{-BW}}$  of 6.25  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$  is set as the upper bound of anoxic and euxinic conditions (i.e. microbial sulfate reduction occurs below this threshold)<sup>17</sup> and 68  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$  as the cutoff for the suboxic and oxic conditions<sup>57,58</sup>. The modeling result displays a negatively exponential relationship between  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  and  $\text{O}_{2\text{-BW}}$  (Fig. 4). Indeed, we cannot completely exclude carbonate precipitation from the water column, which will ultimately decrease  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  due to low  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  content in the seawater. Assuming that 80% of carbonate originally precipitates on the seafloor, and the other 20% precipitates from the water column, the colored area in Fig. 4 indicate the range of  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  and  $\text{O}_{2\text{-BW}}$  changes under different sedimentation rates.

Thus, the calculated  $\text{O}_{2\text{-BW}}$  (average  $\text{Fe}_{\text{carb}}$  of 22.48 ppm for the Dengying limestone), i.e., the seafloor  $\text{O}_2$  fugacity during terminal Ediacaran, ranges from 162  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$  to 297  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ , when the sedimentation rate varies between 24 m/Myr and 67 m/Myr (see supplementary text; Supplementary Table 3). The upper bound (297  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ ) exceeds the saturated dissolved  $\text{O}_2$  of 273  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$  in seawater at 1 PAL  $p\text{O}_2$ , while the lower bound



**Figure 4.** Modelling results according to the Eq. 10.  $Fe_{carb}$  trapped in the carbonate lattice (y-axis) varies as a function of the bottom water oxygen level ( $O_{2-BW}$  x-axis). Contour lines indicate different sedimentation rate of carbonates. The lower limit of  $O_{2-BW}$  was set at  $6.25 \mu\text{mol/L}$ , the boundary of euxinia in the water column<sup>21</sup>. The upper limit of  $O_{2-BW}$  was set at  $273 \mu\text{mol/L}$ , the saturated  $O_2$  level in the water column. Vertical dashed lines define the boundary of dissolved  $O_2$  level for oxic ( $>68 \mu\text{mol/L}$ ), suboxic ( $13.6 \mu\text{mol/L} \sim 68 \mu\text{mol/L}$ ) and anoxic ( $6.25 \mu\text{mol/L} \sim 13.6 \mu\text{mol/L}$ ) conditions<sup>49,50</sup>. The color areas suggest the possible relationship between  $Fe_{carb}$  and  $O_{2-BW}$  if we assume that 20% of carbonate formed in the water column. See texts for more information.

( $162 \mu\text{mol/L}$ ) is equivalent to the dissolved  $O_2$  content at 60% PAL  $pO_2$ . If we assume that measured  $Fe_{carb}$  of the Dengying Formation is 20% lower than original benthic carbonates because of seawater carbonate mixing, the minimum seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity is still  $143 \mu\text{mol/L}$ . Thus, even if the Ediacaran atmospheric  $pO_2$  level reaches the maximum estimate of 40% PAL<sup>9</sup>, the seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity during the deposition of the Shibantan limestone was likely oversaturated with respect to the atmospheric  $pO_2$  level.

High seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity during the deposition of the Shibantan limestone seems contradictory with the modest atmospheric  $pO_2$  levels and extensive seafloor anoxia in Ediacaran and Cambrian<sup>8,59</sup>. Local seafloor oxygenation must require a continuous  $O_2$  supply to maintain oxic status under such predominately anoxic condition. Inspired by a modern analog, Los Roques lagoon in Venezuela<sup>60</sup> has low  $O_2$  concentration in water column and is colonized by  $O_2$ -generating cyanobacteria mat in floor, but the  $O_2$  concentration in the mat ground could be four times higher than that in the water column. Here, we suggest that the seafloor oxygenation might result from the development of microbial mats on the seafloor during the precipitation of Shibantan limestone (Figs 1a,e, 5 and 6). Microbial mats generate  $O_2$  that is ready to be emitted into the water column, resulting in partial oxygenation of the adjacent bottom water. In addition, the downward diffusion of  $O_2$  produced by microbial mats would lower the redox boundary of DIR zone, reducing the intensity of benthic flux of  $Fe^{2+}$  (Fig. 6). This model is consistent with the widespread microbial structures, e.g. warty textures<sup>26</sup>, microbial laminae<sup>4</sup>, and benthic cyanobacteria (Fig. 1e) in the Dengying limestone.

It has been proposed that microbial mats might have played a key role in the preservation of Ediacara fossils (the death mask hypothesis)<sup>61</sup>, and the disappearance of Ediacara fossils at the Ediacaran-Cambrian boundary might be related to the disappearance of microbial mats after the evolution of metazoans<sup>2</sup>. Here, our new model proposes an alternative, but not mutually exclusive, interpretation that microbial mats might also provide a more locally oxygenated environment in the context of generally low atmospheric  $pO_2$  level and widespread seafloor anoxia. Thus, microbial mats on shallow marine seafloor may generate an oxygenated oasis that might have stimulated the diversification of metazoans, even when the atmospheric  $pO_2$  level was only 10–40% PAL, barely meeting the threshold for animal evolution<sup>16</sup>. Therefore, it is plausible that the earliest animals would refrain from floating in the ocean that is primarily anoxic and is characterized by dramatic redox oscillation, and prefer utilizing  $O_2$  and food on and within the microbial mat. Such a hypothesis is also supported by the widespread late Ediacaran trace fossils associated with microbial sedimentary structures<sup>4,5</sup>, some of which may indicate activities under microbial mats<sup>49</sup>. Our hypothesis could also support that the majority of the earliest animals were evidenced by trace fossils which record benthic instead of pelagic ethology. The lack of pelagic body fossil records may reflect the ecological constraint of the terminal Ediacaran communities driven by the ocean redox, not just a result of taphonomy or poor preservation.

Finally, the rise of atmospheric  $pO_2$  level, which was thought to provide the upper constraint on the redox of the ocean, has been regarded as the *priori* for the animal evolution. However, our study suggests that local seafloor  $O_2$  fugacity might significantly exceed the saturated  $O_2$  content at a given atmospheric  $pO_2$  level, and the local seafloor oxygenation might be attributed to the development of microbial mats. If this is the case, seafloor oxidation and atmospheric oxygenation might be decoupled. It is highly probable that seafloor might have long been locally oxidized when atmospheric  $pO_2$  level was still low, because oxygenic microbial mats, e.g. stromatolites, are believed to cover the shallow marine seafloor since Archean time<sup>62</sup>. Therefore, we suggest that atmospheric or oceanic oxygenation may not be the crucial control on the emergence of animals; instead, life may have played the central role in the evolution of habitable planet.





## Methods

**Elemental compositions measurement.** Mirrored thin and thick sections were prepared for micro-mill sampling. Sample powders were micro-drilled from the thick section under the guide of thin section observation under optical microscopy. Based on the character of laminated limestone, two types of carbonate fabrics, micrite and calcispar, were sampled from the same specimen. About 50 mg of limestone powder was collected approximately in each sample and placed into a 15 ml centrifuge tube.

The sample preparation followed the sequential extraction procedure for carbonated associated Fe designed by Poulton and Canfield (2005)<sup>63</sup>. A buffer solution mixed by acetic acid (HAc) and ammonium acetate (NH<sub>4</sub>Ac) was prepared, and the pH of 4.5 was adjusted accurately before use. For each sample, about 50 mg of sample powder was weighed and was dissolved in 10 ml buffer solution in a centrifuge tube. In order to ensure the solution has full contact with the sample, tubes were placed in a shaking table at 50 °C for 48 hours. After centrifugation, 0.5 ml supernatant was taken out and was mixed with 4.5 ml 2% nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) in a new centrifuge tube. Finally, elemental compositions were measured with a Spectra Blue Sop Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES) at Peking University. All analyses were calibrated by a series of gravimetric standards with different concentrations (ranging from 0.1 ppm to 10 ppm) that were run before sample measurements.

**TOC measurement.** The limestone of the Dengying Formation was smashed into sample powder and about 100 mg of powder for each sample was weighed and was placed into a 50 ml centrifuge tube. To fully remove the inorganic carbon, 20 ml hydrochloric acid (HCl, 3N) was added to each centrifuge tube, which was then placed in an ultrasonic bath for 1 hour. The reaction was allowed for 12 hours. Then Milli-Q water (18.2 MΩ) was used to rinse the powders until pH reaches 4–5. After that, samples were dried overnight and loaded into capsules for TOC analysis at the Stable Isotope Research Facility (SIRF) at Louisiana State University, USA. Elemental analyzer (Micro Vario Cube, Isoprime Ltd., Cheadle, UK) flash-combust the samples in Tin capsule in a 950 °C furnace. Isoprime 100 (Isoprime 100, Cheadle, UK) gas source mass spectrometer can analyze the resulting CO<sub>2</sub> by continuous flow. The analyzed precision for TOC data is within 0.3%.

## Data Availability

All data is available in the main text or the supplementary materials.

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## Author Contributions

L. Dong conceived the study, W. Ding and L. Dong interpreted the data and drafted the work, W. Ding and H. Ma did the experiment, W. Ding, Y. Sun, H. Ma, R. Yang and Y. Xu collected samples, B. Shen, Y. Peng, and C. Zhou revised the manuscript.

## Additional Information

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