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1 **Evaluating episodic hydrothermal activity in South China**
2 **during the early Cambrian: Implications for biotic evolution**

3

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 The early Cambrian (541–514 Ma) was a crucial interval for the evolution of life on
26 Earth, popularly known as the “Cambrian Explosion”. Here, we report the timing of
27 changes in hydrothermal and depositional inputs, as well as paleo-redox state, which
28 may have influenced biogeochemical changes. According to high-resolution petrology,
29 fossil distributions, isotopic records, and inorganic geochemistry, the lower Cambrian
30 of the South China can be subdivided into four intervals: the lowermost Cambrian
31 Zhujiqing Formation (Cam-I); the Cambrian Stage 2 Shiyantou Formation (Cam-II);
32 the lower part of the Cambrian Stage 3 Yu’anshan Formation (CAM-III); and the mid–
33 upper Cambrian Stage 3 and the middle–upper part of the Yu’anshan Formation,
34 continuing into the Canglangpu Formation (Cam-IV). Hydrothermal events are
35 detected during the early Cam-I, Cam-II, and Cam-III intervals. During the early Cam-
36 I and Cam-II intervals, these events coincided with extensive bottom water euxinia,
37 which in turn may have restricted the spread or proliferation of Ediacaran fauna and
38 small shelly fauna. Through the whole Cam-III interval, further hydrothermal events
39 occurred concurrently with euxinic and ferruginous conditions, probably within a single
40 spatially stratified water column, again plausibly restricting the spread of aerobic
41 organisms. In conjunction with the cessation of hydrothermal events and the gradual
42 lowering of sea level during the late Cam-III, oxic water environments gradually spread
43 into relatively deep-water regions, concurrent with the emergence of the Chengjiang
44 and Qingjiang faunas. These data suggest that periodic hydrothermal events may have
45 had a significant impact on the spread, radiation and extinction of macroscopic fauna

46 during the early Cambrian in South China.

47

48 *Keywords:* Yangtze Block, Niutitang Formation, Cambrian Radiation, extinction,

49 hydrothermal event

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52 The late Ediacaran to early Cambrian (551–514 Ma) was one of the most bio-
53 geochemically important periods in Earth history and included a number of significant
54 geological events including the break-up of the supercontinent Rodinia, extinction of
55 the Ediacaran biota, appearance and extinction of small shelly fossil assemblages
56 (SSF1–4), establishment of anoxic and/or sulfidic water conditions, appearances of the
57 Chengjiang and Qingjiang biotas, and the stepwise oxygenation of global oceans
58 (Zhuravlev and Wood, 1996; Johnson et al., 2005; Marshall, 2006; Laflamme et al.,
59 2013; Jin et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2019). Attempts to explain the biological
60 radiation and extinction by co-occurring environmental events have been conducted
61 during the past two decades. Biological evolution during the early Cambrian plausibly
62 exhibited a close relationship with oceanic and atmospheric oxygen levels (Lenton et
63 al., 2014). Although redox conditions of the early Cambrian oceans in South China have
64 been widely studied from inner-shelf to basin settings (Goldberg et al., 2007; Guo et al.,
65 2013; Och et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2014), uncertainties remain as to how to
66 mechanistically connect such data to biological evolution; with some studies
67 questioning the importance of any link between redox conditions and biological
68 evolution (Jin et al., 2016; Xiang et al., 2017). A range of possible causal mechanisms

69 exist for the extinction of small shelly faunas (Darroch et al., 2018), but which of these
70 is likely the most significant is presently unclear.

71 More broadly within the geological record, there is a strong correlation between
72 mass extinction events and the occurrence of Large Igneous Provinces (LIPs) (Wignall,
73 2001; Courtillot and Renne, 2003; Bond and Wignall, 2014; Ernst, 2014). For example,
74 the Permian–Triassic (252 Ma), Triassic–Jurassic (201 Ma), and Cretaceous–Paleogene
75 (66 Ma) mass extinctions were related to the Siberian LIP, Central Atlantic LIP, and
76 Deccan LIP, respectively (Blackburn et al., 2013; Burgess and Bowring, 2015; Schoene
77 et al., 2015; Font et al., 2016; Thibodeau et al., 2016). The general mechanism for this
78 connection is thought to be the large scale input of associated greenhouse gases, leading
79 to temperature extremes and associated climatic cycles, with a knock-on effect on
80 biological growth and diversification (Benton, 2018).

81 In South China, a major marine transgression occurred during the early Cambrian,
82 followed by widespread deposition of organic matter- (OM-) rich shale across the
83 Yangtze Block, which was accompanied by chert, phosphorite, barite, and Ni-Mo
84 polymetallic ores (Coveney and Chen, 1991). Studies from outcrop sections in South
85 China have also demonstrated the presence of frequent hydrothermal (submarine
86 volcanic) deposits (Steiner et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2015; Guo et al.,
87 2016; Han et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2018), typically represented by ore bodies. For
88 example, early Cambrian hydrothermal vent communities were found in Guizhou
89 Province (Yang et al., 2008). However, the effects of hydrothermal events on
90 depositional environments and biological patterns have, by comparison, been largely

91 overlooked.

92 Few investigations of the paleo-environmental impacts of hydrothermal events on
93 Cambrian biotas in a more general sense have been conducted as summarized by Yang
94 et al. (2008). Condon (2005) found obvious signatures of hydrothermal events in shale
95 and dolomite at the bottom of the Ediacaran Doushantuo Formation in South China.
96 This hydrothermal event released a large amount of CH₄, leading to highly ¹³C-depleted
97 carbonate cements ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$ down to -48%), and global warming (Bristow et al., 2011;
98 Sahoo et al., 2012). Extinctions may be the result of a sequence of feedbacks triggered
99 by such greenhouse input, or similar biogeochemical perturbations, including global
100 temperature extremes, oceanic anoxia, ocean acidification, and toxicity resulting from
101 input of metals and gases into oceans (Chen et al., 2009; Wegener and Boetius, 2009;
102 Clarkson et al., 2015). As the timing and duration of hydrothermal events during the
103 early Cambrian also remains unclear, investigations on submarine hydrothermal events
104 during the Cambrian may therefore provide new insights into understanding the driving
105 forces for changes in the composition, distribution and diversity of Cambrian biota.

106 In this study, we established a systematic stratigraphic correlation of 18 lower
107 Cambrian sections across South China, by means of high-resolution petrology,
108 biostratigraphy, isotope dating, and inorganic geochemistry. Our objective was to
109 examine the occurrence, magnitude and extent of the influence of hydrothermal and
110 volcanic events, with particular focus on their likely impact on oceanic environments
111 and biological patterns in South China during the early Cambrian.

112

113 2. Geological setting and stratigraphy

114 2.1. Geological setting

115 During the Ediacaran–Cambrian transition, South China consisted of the Yangtze
116 and Cathaysia blocks. Sedimentary environments from the northwest to southeast were
117 comprised of platform, inner shelf, outer shelf, slope, and marine basin settings (Fig.
118 1A). The Ediacaran–Cambrian boundary (ECB) is recognized on the basis of small
119 shelly fauna and trace fossils (Goldberg et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2012). Volcanic ash
120 beds have also been discovered near the ECB in some sections across South China (Fig.
121 2, U-Pb dating: 538.2 ± 1.5 Ma, 539.6 ± 1.4 Ma, 542.1 ± 5.0 Ma, 542.6 ± 3.7 Ma, and 545.8
122 ± 0.7 Ma). Shallow-water areas to the northwest are mainly associated with the
123 deposition of dolomite and limestone, whereas deep-water areas to the southeast mainly
124 are dominated by chert and siliceous rocks (Fig. 2).

125 During the late Cambrian Stage 2, as a result of the final break-up of the Rodinia
126 Supercontinent, the Yangtze Block entered into a rifting phase, and a major
127 transgression occurred (Fig. 1B). Black shale was widely deposited across South China,
128 which was developed in the lower Cambrian Yu'anshan and Guojiaba formations and
129 their stratigraphic equivalents, with formations gradually thickening from the northwest
130 to southeast. Super continental break-up and seafloor expansion promoted widespread
131 hydrothermal and volcanic events, as evidenced by extensive trace metal deposition
132 (Steiner et al., 2001; Xu et al., 2011; Han et al., 2017). During the late Cambrian Stage
133 3 (518–514 Ma), the small shelly fossil assemblages subsequently disappeared and the
134 Chengjiang and Qingjiang biotas then flourished.

135 Volcanic ash beds near the ECB suggest that volcanic events may have been
136 extensive and widespread during this time interval (Fig. 2). Obvious unconformities
137 occur in shallow-water carbonate platform settings (mainly in Yunnan and Guizhou
138 provinces), suggesting rapid tectonic uplift near the ECB. The tuff layer at the bottom
139 of the Cambrian in the Songlin section, Guizhou Province has a U–Pb age of $532.3 \pm$
140 0.7 Ma (Fig. 2). However, unconformity surfaces are absent in chert formations
141 developed in deeper-water basin facies (i.e., the Liuchapo and Yanjiahe formations).
142 The ECB may be located in these chert successions. Carbon isotope anomalies of the
143 Longbizui and Three Gorges sections also confirm that the Liuchapo and Yanjiahe
144 formations are diachronous. The lower boundaries of the Niutitang, Guojiaba, and
145 Jiumenchong formations are also diachronous and should be older than 522 Ma. There
146 is also an unconformity between the Yanjiahe and Shuijingtuo formations in Hubei
147 Province.

148 *2.2. Stratigraphic correlation*

149 Stratigraphic correlation of Ediacaran to lower Cambrian successions in the
150 Yangtze Block can be constrained by fossil assemblages, isotope dating and carbon
151 isotope data ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ Fig. 9). Several lower Cambrian sections distributed
152 across inner shelf to basin depositional facies have been studied previously for volcanic
153 and biostratigraphic analyses, including the Xiaotan section in Yunnan Province
154 (Jenkins et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2003; Compston et al., 2008; Och et al., 2013), the
155 Maidiping section in Sichuan Province (Compston et al., 2008; Zi et al., 2017), the
156 Songlin and Bahuang sections in Guizhou Province (Jiang et al., 2009; Pi et al., 2013),

157 the Three Gorges section in Hubei Province (Okada et al., 2014), and the Ganziping
158 and Longbizui sections in Hunan Province (Chen et al., 2009) (Fig. 2). In carbonate
159 platform and shelf facies, the ECB is located in the siliceous dolomite overlying the
160 Dengying Formation. The earliest small shelly fossil assemblage zone (SSF1) in South
161 China occurs in the siliceous interval between dolomite of the Dengying Formation and
162 Cambrian phosphorus-rich strata, and is near a significant carbon negative excursion
163 (Steiner et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2007). The U–Pb geological age of volcanic tuff at the
164 ECB is 542.6 ± 3.7 Ma in Guizhou Province and 542.1 ± 5.0 Ma in Hunan Province
165 (Fig. 2).

166 Integrating lithological and fossil data with isotope dating and inorganic
167 geochemistry, the lower Cambrian strata from the ECB to the Yu'an-shan Formation,
168 (Niutitang Formation) including the Xa1 well, can be divided into four distinct intervals
169 (Fig. 2). Interval I consists of the Zhujiaping limestone and contains the *Anabarites*
170 *trisulcatus*–*Protohertzina unguiformis* (SSF1) and *Watsonella crosbyi* (SSF3) shelly
171 fossil assemblages in shallow platform regions, with only occasional fossil preservation
172 in deep-water areas. In the early Cambrian Stage 2, the upper Zhujiaping Formation is
173 characterized by an obvious positive carbon isotope excursion (Zhujiaping Carbon
174 Isotope Excursion, ZHUCE) (Zhu et al., 2007). The U–Pb age of tuff deposits in the
175 Meishucun section (Yunnan Province) is 538.2 ± 1.5 Ma (Jenkins et al., 2002), close to
176 that of tuff deposits in the Ganziping Section of Hunan Province (Chen et al., 2009). In
177 addition, the zircon U–Pb age of the tuff deposited at the bottom of the Shiyantou
178 Formation in the Xiaotan section is 526.5 ± 1.1 Ma, broadly consistent with base of the

179 Jiulaodong Formation in the Maidiping section (526.2 ± 1.9 Ma) and the Shuijingtuo
180 Formation in the Three Gorges section ($526.4 + 5.4$ Ma) (Fig. 2).

181 Interval Cam-II consists of the Shiyantou sandstone and calcareous shale (Fig. 2)
182 in which the *Sinosachites flabelliformis*–*Tannuolina zhangwentanggi* shelly fossil
183 assemblage (SSF4) occupied shallow-water areas (Steiner et al., 2007), whereas
184 *Sunella* and *Sphenothallus* occurred in slope regions (Steiner et al., 2001; Yang et al.,
185 2003). The boundary between Intervals II and III was characterized by a global
186 transgression, resulting in obvious marker of Ni–Mo layers (Zhu et al., 2003; Och et al.,
187 2013). Total organic carbon (TOC) contents of the lower Cambrian shale near the
188 boundary are generally high (ranging from 8–30 wt.%). In addition, a negative carbon
189 isotopic excursion (the Shiyantou Carbon Isotope Excursion, SHICE) occurs in inner
190 shelf to marine basin facies below a Ni–Mo layer (Jiang et al., 2012). The Ni–Mo layer
191 was deposited in the transition period between Cambrian Stages 2 and 3, and is dated
192 to 521 ± 5 Ma (Xu et al., 2011).

193 Interval III consists of the lower Niutitang black shale (Fig. 2). Towards the end
194 of Interval III, the lithology from outer shelf to carbonate platform facies gradually
195 changes from black shale to gray–green shale, carbonate, and calcareous shale,
196 indicating a gradual regression. Lithological changes in basin to slope facies are not
197 obvious, but can be categorized based on silica contents and enrichments of redox-
198 sensitive trace elements (Jin et al., 2016). Trilobites occur in the upper part of the
199 Niutitang Formation: *Hunnanocephalus* in Hunan Province and *Tusnyidicus* in Guizhou
200 Province (Steiner et al., 2005). Above the Ni–Mo layer, the Cambrian Arthropod

201 Radiation isotope Excursion (CARE) occurs from inner shelf to marine basin facies
202 (Zhu et al., 2007). In addition, formation of barite deposits near the Ni–Mo layer are
203 dated at 520.6 ± 6.1 Ma in Guizhou Province (Wang, 2017). The top of Interval III in
204 the marine basin can be identified by the first appearance of trilobites.

205 Interval IV consists of Yu’anshan yellow shale and includes the Chengjiang biota
206 in Yunnan Province, and the Qingjiang fauna in Hubei Province. The earliest date at
207 which these fauna appear is 518.03 ± 0.69 Ma (Yang et al., 2017). The top of Interval
208 IV is characterized by sandstone in shallow-water areas (Yunnan Province) and muddy
209 limestone in deep-water areas (Guizhou, Sichuan, Hunan, and Hubei provinces). The
210 water depth was shallower in South China than in Interval III.

211

212 **3. Materials and methods**

213 The Xa1 well, located in Anhua County, Hunan Province, South China, was
214 recently drilled. Recovered cores consist of the lower Cambrian Liuchapo, Niutitang,
215 and Wunitang formations, in ascending order. The Liuchapo Formation primarily
216 comprises of gray–black chert. The Niutitang Formation can be divided into three parts
217 on the basis of lithological features. The lower part is mainly composed of dark gray
218 calcareous shale with carbonate nodules, and the top is dolomite. The middle part
219 consists of organic-rich siliceous shale interbedded with gray shale. The upper part
220 principally comprises gray–black shale. In contrast, the overlying Wunitang Formation
221 consists of dark gray muddy limestone intercalated with shale.

222 This investigation is based on 36 samples collected from the Xa1 well. Samples

223 were ground to 200 mesh for total organic carbon, trace and major elements, rare earth
224 elements, and carbon isotope of kerogen.

225 To determine TOC levels, excess hydrochloric acid (volume ratio 1:7) was added
226 to 200 mg of sample to remove inorganic carbon in a combustion crucible. The crucible
227 was then dried for 1 h at 105 °C in an oven under vacuum. TOC content was analyzed
228 using a Germany Multi N/C 3100 Analyzer at Chongqing Institute of Geology and
229 Mineral Resources, Chongqing, China. Analytical errors were better than $\pm 0.2\%$.

230 For elemental analysis, sample powder was dried for 2 h at 105 °C in an oven
231 under vacuum. To measure major elements, 500 mg of the dried sample was oxidized
232 with 7000 mg of lithium borate (mixture of 67% $\text{Li}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$ and 33% anhydrous LiBO_2)
233 for 2 h at 200 °C, then melted to make a fusion glass disk. Measurements were
234 conducted using an Axiosmax pw4400/40 X spectrometer. Major elements were
235 represented by oxides. To determine trace elements, 50 mg of dried sample was
236 weighed and treated using boric acid with a residence time of 30 s. Trace elements were
237 then determined on a Quadrupole Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectroscope
238 (ICP-MS). Analytical precision was better than 5% for major and trace elements.

239 For kerogen separation, hydrochloric acid (6 mol/L) was slowly added into 100g
240 of sample in an acid reaction vessel to remove carbonate minerals. Distilled water was
241 added to remove the acid. Secondly, hydrochloric acid (6 mol/L) and hydrofluoric acid
242 (40 %) (ratio: sample 1 g: HCl 2.4 mL: HF 3.6 mL) were slowly added in the acid
243 reaction vessel to remove the other inorganic minerals. Then, hydrochloric acid (1
244 mol/L) was added to remove the other acids. The above stages were then repeated.

245 Subsequently, distilled water was added to remove the hydrochloric acid. Thirdly,
246 sodium hydroxide (0.5 mol/L) was added into the samples. Distilled water was added
247 to remove the alkalinity. For each sample, 30–60 mg of dried kerogen was measured
248 using a Thermo Fisher Liquid Chromatography-Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer
249 (LC-IRMS) at the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Guangzhou, China. Each
250 sample was tested three times. Analytical precision for $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ was better than $\pm 0.06\%$.

251 For metal mineral observations, samples were cut into one cubic centimeter blocks.
252 The surface was polished and then carbon sprayed. SEM microscopy including EDS
253 elemental spectra were undertaken using an FEI Quanta 200 scanning electronic
254 microscope (SEM), in China University of Geosciences, Wuhan.

255 Enrichment factors (EF) were calculated based on the ratio between trace element
256 concentration and aluminum (Al) of the sample and the same ratio in upper continental
257 crust (McLennan, 2001; Tribouillard et al., 2006). The following formula was used for
258 this calculation: $X_{\text{EF}} = (X_{\text{sample}}/\text{Al}_{\text{sample}}) / (X_{\text{ucc}}/\text{Al}_{\text{ucc}})$. X_{sample} and $\text{Al}_{\text{sample}}$ are
259 concentrations of trace element X and Al samples, respectively; X_{ucc} and Al_{ucc} are
260 concentrations of trace element X and Al in the upper continental crust. $X_{\text{EF}} > 1.0$ and
261 $X_{\text{EF}} < 1.0$ indicate enrichment and depletion of X element, respectively.

262

263 **4. Results and discussion**

264 *4.1. Identification and intensity of hydrothermal activity*

265 To obtain a comprehensive interpretation of hydrothermal events from shallow to
266 deep marine environments in the Yangtze region during the early Cambrian, in [Tables](#)

267 [S1-11](#) we summarize the analytical results of metal minerals and major elements from
268 samples in the Xa1 well (this study) alongside data reported from wells drilled or
269 sections located in the shelf zone. There are four Ba-bearing minerals in the shales of
270 the Xa1 well, hyalophane, celsian, witherite and barite (Fig. 3). Of these hyalophane
271 was also associated with celsian (Fig. 3A, C and F) and they constitute the main Ba-
272 bearing minerals, while barite and witherite are relatively rare. Celsian is an uncommon
273 feldspar, which may be formed by the disintegration of barite in euxinic conditions.
274 Hyalophane can be an important proxy for hydrothermal events. In addition, we also
275 found several hydrothermal minerals at different depths of the Xa1 well including
276 spehalerite and monazite. The hydrothermal minerals are present in the Niutitang shales,
277 which indicate the potential occurrence of multi-stage hydrothermal activity in South
278 China during the early Cambrian.

279 $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ ratios can be applied to determine the origin of siliceous materials
280 (Adachi et al., 1986; Yamamoto, 1987). Silica originating from a pure hydrothermal
281 event has a ratio of 0.01, whereas silica with a pure biogenic origin has a ratio > 0.60
282 (Yamamoto, 1987; Harris et al., 2011). In addition, biogenic shales are characterized by
283 high SiO_2 and P_2O_5 and low Al_2O_3 , TiO_2 , and MgO values, whereas enrichment of Fe
284 and Mn is mainly related to hydrothermal events (Wang et al., 2016; Liao et al., 2018).
285 Similarly, $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$ ratios can also be applied to determine conditions of
286 hydrothermal deposition. The $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ ratio of hydrothermal sediments
287 decreases with increasing hydrothermal input. Typical hydrothermal deposits are
288 characterized by $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe) < 0.4$ and $(Fe+Mn)/Ti > 15$. The Fe/Ti vs. $Al/(Al + Fe)$

289 + Mn) diagram is helpful for testing the possible hydrothermal input into the
290 hydrogenous sediments and their dilution with clastic or volcanic material (Sylvestre et
291 al., 2017). The samples from five wells and sections are located in different zones of
292 the diagram, indicating the range of hydrothermal input (Fig. 5). The samples close to
293 East Pacific Rise Hydrothermal deposits (EPC) have more hydrothermal input during
294 deposition, while the samples close to Pelagic Continental sediments (PC) and Upper
295 Continental Crust (UC) are more related to hydrogenous origin. Here, we define
296 $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ ratio <0.4 or $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$ ratio > 15 as intense hydrothermal conditions,
297 $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ ratio $0.4-0.6$ or $(Fe+Mn)/Ti > 10-15$ as weak hydrothermal conditions,
298 and $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ ratio > 0.6 or $(Fe+Mn)/Ti < 10$ as hydrothermal conditions absent.

299 ***Xa1 well.*** Interval I samples exhibit low $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ (0.12–0.65, mean 0.31)
300 and high $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$ (13.18–29.95, mean 22.72) values, reflecting intense
301 hydrothermal conditions. In Interval II, samples show low $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ (0.43–0.56,
302 mean 0.52) and high $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$ (11.73–15.96, mean 13.49), reflecting dominantly
303 weak with intermittently intense hydrothermal conditions (Figs. 3F and 6). Interval III
304 can be also subdivided into several distinct units. Samples from 859–824.3 and 820.1–
305 790.6 m exhibit low $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ (0.30–0.59, mean 0.50) and high $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$
306 (7.78–32.40, mean 15.74) that imply intense to weak hydrothermal conditions (Figs.
307 3A-E 4, and 6). By contrast, samples from 857–851, 848.2–840.2 and 824.3–820.1 m
308 exhibit high $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ (0.63–0.66 mean 0.64) and moderate $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$ (8.90–
309 12.92, mean 10.47) that imply no hydrothermal conditions. For Interval IV, all samples
310 exhibit high $Al/(Al+Mn+Fe)$ (0.62–0.73, mean 0.68) and moderate $(Fe+Mn)/Ti$ (7.41–

311 11.48, mean 9.81) values, suggesting a continued absence of hydrothermal conditions.
312 Samples from Intervals I, II and III were significantly affected by hydrothermal input,
313 but those from Interval IV appear to show no hydrothermal influence (Figs. 3, 4 and 6).

314 The broad trend illustrated by our results is the occurrence of high intensity
315 hydrothermal events during the early Cam-I, followed by a qualitative decline in the
316 intensity of such events and ultimately their cessation by Cam-IV. From lithofacies
317 analysis, a major transgression occurred during Interval I and a regression occurred
318 during I Cam-II. A global transgression event occurred in the early Cam-III, which was
319 followed by a major regression during the late Cam-III that continued through Cam-IV
320 (Fig. 2).

321 From the geochemical data, there was obvious variability in the frequency and
322 intensity of hydrothermal events across the four intervals (Fig. 6). Samples near the
323 ECB from inner shelf to basin facies were obviously affected by intense hydrothermal
324 events (Fig. 7). This is consistent with the U–Pb ages of tuffs near the ECB in South
325 China, which both indicate volcanic events during the early Cambrian (Fig. 2). The
326 volcanic events (especially LIPs) have affected conditions for biological diversification
327 several times in Earth history. Early in Cam-I, sea level was likely falling based on
328 inferences from lithofacies analysis. Concurrently, there were hydrothermal events in
329 deep basins but not shallow-water regions (Fig. 7), suggesting that overall hydrothermal
330 input gradually weakened or even ceased in Guizhou Province. In the late Cam-I, the
331 ocean gradually regressed, consistent with discoveries of unconformities in Hubei and
332 Guizhou provinces. In the middle Cam-II, hydrothermal events were not obvious

333 throughout South China, which may have been conducive to biological productivity
334 and reproduction. During the late Cam-II, hydrothermal events occurred again from
335 inner shelf to basin areas (Fig. 7).

336 During the whole Cam-III, there were at least three episodes of hydrothermal
337 activity. The first occurred in the early Cam-III and was the most intense, resulting in
338 enrichment of organic matter and metal ores (Fig. 1B). During the next two stages,
339 hydrothermal events were intense in some regions, but were not obvious, including the
340 Xyl and Yk1 wells. During the Cam-IV, hydrothermal events were not obvious across
341 the entire Yangtze region, with normal marine environments and deposition resuming
342 (Fig. 7).

343

344 *4.2. Oceanic redox conditions from carbonate platform to basin environments*

345 As some redox-sensitive trace elements (e.g., Mo, U and V) are sensitive to redox
346 conditions of sedimentary environments and migrate little during diagenesis, they are
347 excellent proxies for reconstructing redox conditions (Algeo and Maynard, 2008; Algeo
348 and Tribovillard, 2009; Algeo and Rowe, 2012; Wu et al., 2016). For instance, previous
349 studies of modern oceans have shown that Mo levels < 25 ppm, 25–100 ppm, and >
350 100 ppm indicate non-euxinic, intermittently euxinic, and euxinic environments
351 respectively (Scott and Lyons, 2012). Uranium is not adsorbed by Fe(Mn)-oxides in
352 oxic environments, and the U content fluctuates in the range 1–10 ppm in sediments
353 (Algeo and Maynard, 2004; Tribovillard et al., 2006). In modern oxygen-depleted or
354 even sulfidic deposits, the V content fluctuates within the range 10–300 ppm (Brumsack,

355 2006; Scholz et al., 2011). Studies have shown that “hyper enrichment” of the element
356 V (> 500 ppm) in the Bakken organic-rich shale (TOC > 10 wt.%) indicated that the
357 dissolved H₂S content in the paleo-environment may exceed 10 mM (Scott et al., 2017).
358 In the reduced environment, Zn occurs in pyrite in the form of zinc sulfide (Algeo and
359 Maynard, 2004). When H₂S exists, Zn is deposited rapidly. When dissolved H₂S was
360 abundant in the bottom water, the “hyper-enrichment” of Zn (> 500 ppm) indicates
361 photic zone euxinia (Scott et al., 2017). Sedimentary iron speciation data have been
362 widely used as an indicator of paleoceanic redox conditions in several outcrops (i.e.,
363 Xiaotan, Shatan, Three George, Xyl well, Jinsha, Songtao, Longbizui, and Yuanjia
364 sections).

365 In this study, we applied iron speciation, redox-sensitive trace element (RSTE)
366 geochemistry (Scott and Lyons, 2012; Scott et al., 2017) and assessment of Mo–U
367 enrichment (M_{OEf} and U_{EF}) (Tribovillard et al., 2006; Algeo and Tribovillard, 2009) as
368 paleoredox proxies. Redox interpretations for the Longbizui and Yuanjia sections, and
369 the Xyl and Yk1 wells have been discussed in detail elsewhere (Li et al., 2015; Wang
370 et al., 2015; Han et al., 2018), so we concentrate on analyses of the other sections and
371 wells in the region and compare the findings with previously published results (Tables
372 S1-11).

373 *4.2.1. Redox conditions in outer shelf regions*

374 **Zigui section.** Almost all samples of the Dengying Formation exhibit low U (1–
375 33 ppm, mean 19 ppm), V (11–118 ppm, mean 90 ppm) and Mo levels (1–11 ppm,
376 mean 3 ppm) indicative of oxic environments. Four samples at the ECB display low U

377 (4–20 ppm, mean 15 ppm) and Mo content (3–33 ppm, mean 16 ppm). However, V
378 content was as high as 1250 ppm (mean 1204 ppm). This “hyper-enrichment” of V
379 content in shale is close to values from the Bakken shale, suggesting that the bottom
380 water may have been extremely euxinic. Samples from Interval I show low levels of U
381 (3–7 ppm, mean 4 ppm), V (14–71 ppm, mean 47 ppm) and Mo (2–4 ppm, mean 3
382 ppm), also reflecting oxic environments. Redox conditions could not be determined for
383 Intervals II and IV due to an absence of RSTE data. Interval III can be subdivided into
384 two units. Samples from the lower units (41.6–53.5 m) show high U (22–105 ppm,
385 mean 43 ppm), V (109–1660 ppm, mean 1029 ppm) and Mo (44–400 ppm, 130 ppm),
386 implying intermittently to permanently euxinic environments, consistent with high
387 Mo_{EF} (63–403, mean 154) and U_{EF} (15–57, mean 27). Samples from the upper unit
388 (53.5–60 m) show low U (3–13 ppm, mean 8 ppm), V (64–130 ppm, mean 97 ppm) and
389 Mo (7–31 ppm, 21 ppm), suggesting oxic with intermittent dysoxic conditions.

390 ***Yd2 well.*** Redox conditions could not be determined for Interval I due to an
391 absence of RSTE data. In Interval II, four samples exhibit high U (40–77 ppm, mean
392 53 ppm), V (144–624 ppm, mean 344 ppm) and Mo content (57–126 ppm, mean 82
393 ppm) that indicate intermittently euxinic environments, consistent with high Mo_{EF} (43–
394 90, mean 62) and U_{EF} (16–30, mean 22). Interval III can be subdivided into three units.
395 Samples from the lower unit (1723.2–1717.6 m) have high U (25–64 ppm, mean 35
396 ppm), V (547–1500 ppm, mean 973 ppm) and Mo content (88–179 ppm, mean 118
397 ppm), suggesting permanently euxinic environments. Samples from the middle unit
398 (1717.6–1702.4 m) exhibit moderate U (6–18 ppm, mean 12 ppm), V (137–420 ppm,

399 mean 258 ppm) and Mo content (13–65 ppm, mean 42 ppm), suggesting ferruginous
400 environments. Samples from the upper unit (1702.4–1692.4 m) exhibit low U (5–8 ppm,
401 mean 7 ppm), V (150–311 ppm, mean 198 ppm) and Mo content (11–26 ppm, mean 18
402 ppm), suggesting dysoxic with intermittent oxic conditions. All Interval IV samples
403 show low U (4–5 ppm, mean 4 ppm), V (101–196 ppm) and Mo (4–10 ppm, mean 9
404 ppm). The Yd2 well is close to the Qingjiang fauna in the Changyang section (Fig. 1).
405 The REST contents and lithology of two sections both indicate oxic environments.

406

407 *4.2.2. Redox conditions in basin region*

408 ***Xa1 well.*** One sample at bottom of Interval I exhibits high U (56 ppm), V (1206
409 ppm) and Mo content (69 ppm), which indicates an intermittently euxinic environment
410 consistent with high M_{OEF} (182) and U_{EF} (80) (Table S8). The other samples of Interval
411 I have low U (1–2 ppm, mean 1 ppm), V (16–230 ppm, mean 76 ppm) and Mo content
412 (1–2 ppm, mean 1 ppm), suggesting oxic environments. Samples from Interval II
413 exhibit low U (4–38 ppm, mean 10 ppm), V (49–210 ppm, mean 76 ppm) and Mo
414 content (1–24 ppm, mean 8 ppm), reflecting oxic to ferruginous environments (Fig. 7).
415 For Interval III, almost all samples exhibit high U (30–726 ppm, mean 120 ppm), V
416 (151–4075 ppm, mean 1568 ppm) and Mo content (22–506 ppm, mean 113 ppm),
417 which indicates intermittently euxinic to permanently euxinic environments, consistent
418 with high M_{OEF} (116–3739, mean 485) and U_{EF} (28–2874, mean 341). Interval IV can
419 be subdivided into two distinct units. Samples from 783.4–740.6 m exhibit moderate U
420 (12–46 ppm, mean 19 ppm), V (145–348 ppm, mean 245 ppm), Mo content (31–76

421 ppm, mean 47 ppm) and Mo_{EF} (31–81, mean 52) > U_{EF} (5–28, mean 12); these values
422 indicate intermittently euxinic environments. Samples from 740.6–730 m exhibit low
423 U (8–14 ppm, mean 11 ppm), V (103–190 ppm, mean 140 ppm) and Mo (24–31 ppm,
424 mean 28 ppm), reflecting ferruginous to oxic environments. In addition, five samples
425 from above Interval IV have low U (1–17 ppm, mean 6 ppm), V (7–183 ppm, mean 73
426 ppm) and Mo (1–48 ppm, mean 15 ppm), reflecting oxic with intermittent suboxic
427 environments.

428 *4.3. Links between fluctuating redox conditions and hydrothermal activity*

429 As discussed above, hydrothermal events primarily occurred during the early
430 Cam-I, Cam-II, and Cam-III (Figs. 6, 7). Through Cam-I, the depositional
431 environment was mainly oxic in the Yangtze Block, consistent with low RSTE contents
432 in samples. However, samples from the Zigui section exhibit low Mo (3–33 ppm, mean
433 16 ppm) and low U levels (3–20 ppm, mean 15 ppm), but high V contents (66–2540
434 ppm, mean 1204 ppm). The V levels in the basal Cambrian of the Longbizui section
435 and the Xa1 well also exceed 500 ppm, and can be up to 7470 ppm. These
436 measurements imply a brief, rapid period of water euxinia during the early Cam-I
437 period (Ediacaran–Cambrian transition, Table 1). The H_2S content of the water column
438 was more than 10 mM, which would have been extremely harmful to survival of
439 organisms (Wignall and Twitchett, 1996). The lithology of the 11 sections is consistent
440 near the ECB, and is dominated by dolomite/chert, and has not changed during this
441 transition. Therefore, sea-level fluctuations could not have been the cause of the euxinic
442 water-column. Intense hydrothermal events occurred from the inner shelf to the basin

443 around the time of the ECB. Hydrothermal events may be the main causes of euxinic
444 depositional environments in South China. Nutrients (including Fe and Zn) and CO₂
445 generated by hydrothermal activity were conducive to phytoplankton reproduction,
446 which increased OM supply (Uematsu et al., 2004; Duggen et al., 2010). At the same
447 time, toxic elements including Hg, Pb and Cr, as well as volatile gasses including HCl
448 and SO₂, emitted from hydrothermal events inhibited zooplankton growth (Jones and
449 Gislason, 2008; Chambers et al., 2013), while decomposition of OM during the
450 deposition process likely consumed large amounts of oxygen in the water column,
451 contributing to the spread of euxinic conditions. The effect of hydrothermal events was
452 weak in the late Cam-I, where oxic depositional environments were dominant.

453 During the early Cam-II, depositional environments were dominated by
454 ferruginous conditions in Yunnan and Sichuan provinces, oxic conditions in Hunan
455 Province, and intermittently euxinic to permanently euxinic conditions in Guizhou
456 Province (Table 1). Of the selected wells/sections, the Xy1 and Xa1 wells exhibit
457 evidence for weak hydrothermal events. In the late Cam-II interval, the water column
458 was affected by weak to intense hydrothermal events. Lithology transitioned from
459 gray–black shale, sandy shale, and calcareous shale to limestone, dolomite and
460 sandstone as a result of sea-level change. The entire Yangtze Block experienced a
461 regression at this time, the oxygen content of the water column decreased rapidly.
462 Depositional environments exhibited mainly intermittently euxinic conditions, with the
463 exception of oxic conditions in the area of the Xiaotan section. The samples of this
464 interval in the Xa1 well are characterized by low Mo (2–24 ppm, mean 15 ppm), low

465 U (3–38 ppm mean 16 ppm), and high V (113–936 ppm, mean 420 ppm) contents,
466 consistent with the RSTE contents of samples from the Yk1 well (mean U content 15
467 ppm, mean V content 802 ppm), the Longbizui section (mean Mo content 7 ppm, mean
468 U content 9 ppm, mean V content 491 ppm), and the Yuanjia section (mean Mo content
469 25 ppm, mean U content 22 ppm, mean V content 3442 ppm). This pattern is similar to
470 the RSTE contents of samples from near the ECB, indicating that the shallow part of
471 the water column was strongly affected by the euxinia caused by hydrothermal events.
472 Zn contents of samples in the Xa1 well (27–666 ppm), Yuanjia (150–716 ppm) and
473 Longbizui (165–593 ppm) sections are abnormally enriched. The “hyper enrichment”
474 of trace elements and high TOC content of black shale may indicate that dissolved H₂S
475 was intermittently present in the photic zone in the early Cambrian. During the Cam-
476 III, as a result of the final break-up of the Rodinia Supercontinent, a major transgression
477 occurred in South China. Hydrothermal events occurred periodically. In the early Cam-
478 III, the depositional environments of the Yangtze region were mainly euxinic.
479 Hydrothermal events enhanced the reduction potential of the water column, which was
480 conducive to the burial and preservation of organic matter. Consistent with this
481 interpretation, TOC content of the shale at the bottom of Interval III was the highest of
482 the four intervals. The depositional environment began to change, and hydrothermal
483 events became rarer. In the middle Cam-III, the water column near the Xiaotan section
484 became oxic, the areas near the Shatan section and Yd2 well were mainly ferruginous,
485 and the deeper water areas remained euxinic. In the late Cam-III, oxic conditions spread
486 to the Shatan section, the Xy1 and Yd2 wells and the Zigui section, whereas the deep-

487 water areas were still dominated by intermittent euxinic conditions. Although
488 hydrothermal events still occurred in deep waters during this period, their influence on
489 shallow-water areas were insignificant. Throughout Interval III, Zn and V contents of
490 samples from the Yk1, Xa1 well, the Yuanjia, and Longbizui sections are relatively
491 high. This suggests that H₂S was also intermittently present in the photic zone from
492 slope to basin environments. Hydrothermal vents released huge amounts of greenhouse
493 gases (methane) and volcanic-originated H₂S into the ocean and/or atmosphere during
494 the early Cambrian (Chen et al., 2009; Gao et al., 2018).

495 Hydrothermal events were not obvious in South China during the Cam-IV. In the
496 early Cam-IV, oxic environments spread to the outer shelf areas, whereas the slope areas
497 mainly experienced ferruginous conditions. Intermittently euxinic conditions partly
498 existed in slope and basin regions. At this stage, the Chengjiang and Qingjiang faunas
499 thrived in South China. In the late Cam-IV, oxic environments spread to the slope areas,
500 and basin areas experienced ferruginous condition (Table 1). Depositional
501 environments were dominated by an oxic water column over the whole Yangtze Block
502 during the late Cam-IV.

503 *4.4. Biotic evolution in the early Cambrian*

504 The “Cambrian Explosion” represents a significant biological radiation within a
505 short time interval, during which diversity and abundance of macroscopic heterotrophs
506 and other forms of life increased dramatically (Knoll and Carroll, 1999; Vannier and
507 Chen, 2005; Zhu et al., 2006). Within Chinese sections, the first phase of the Cambrian
508 explosion is represented by the Meishucun and Tommotian SSFs, whereas the second

509 phase is represented by the Chengjiang and Qingjiang faunas in South China (Fig. 10).
510 Whether fluctuations in the oxygen content of the atmosphere–ocean system were the
511 key factor controlling biological evolution during the Cambrian still remains
512 controversial (Mills and Canfield, 2014).

513 The carbon isotope composition of marine sediments is mainly controlled by the
514 burial of ^{12}C -rich organic matter and the addition of exotic carbon sources (Holser, 1997;
515 Hayes et al., 1999; Kump and Arthur, 1999). Many major events in Earth history are
516 associated with obvious fluctuations of carbon isotope ratios, reflecting perturbation to
517 the carbon mass balance, often in connection with ecological changes in the marine
518 environment (Saltzman et al., 2000; Wignall et al., 2009). Therefore, carbon isotopic
519 ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) of sediments can be applied to clarify the evolution of early
520 Cambrian oceanic environments and organisms. In the early Cambrian, four obvious
521 carbon isotope anomalies occurred in South China (Fig. 9) (Zhu et al., 2019). Two of
522 the carbon negative excursions correspond to extinctions of the Ediacaran fauna
523 (BACE) and SSFs (SHICE), whereas the two positive carbon excursions (ZHUCE,
524 CARE) mark peaks in early Cambrian organisms event and abundance (Zhu et al.,
525 2007). The carbon isotope ratios of samples from the Xa1 well show an obvious
526 negative carbon isotope excursion (-33.69‰) at the boundary between Intervals II and
527 III. This carbon isotope anomaly is located near the metal layer and corresponds to
528 CARE (Fig. 9).

529 *4.5. Implications for the “Cambrian Explosion”*

530 Previous studies have shown that several of the major mass extinction events in

531 Earth history were related to large igneous province volcanism (Wignall, 2001; Bond
532 and Wignall, 2014). Volcanism (especially LIPs) could potentially heat OM in
533 sediments and release large amounts of ^{12}C -rich CO_2 and CH_4 (Renne et al., 1995;
534 Retallack and Jahren, 2008; Chen et al., 2009), driving negative carbon isotope
535 excursions. Obvious signatures of hydrothermal events have been found in dolomites
536 at the bottom of the Ediacaran Doushantuo Formation (Condon, 2005), with the
537 hydrothermal activity producing highly ^{13}C -depleted carbonate cements ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}}$ down
538 to -48%), and resulting in global warming (Bristow et al., 2011; Sahoo et al., 2012).
539 Volcanic/hydrothermal activity can be regarded, in conjunction with connected factors
540 such as euxinic events, temperature extremes, and seawater acidification, as triggers for
541 biological mass extinctions (Ganino and Arndt, 2009; Bond and Wignall, 2014).

542 In the early Cam-I, geochemical data suggest that the oxic water column
543 experienced a large-scale, rapid euxinic event due to hydrothermal activity. In addition,
544 the U–Pb dating of tuffs suggests that volcanic events were frequent (Fig. 2). This may
545 have been related to the BACE. Sudden formation of euxinic environments could have
546 restricted the spread of aerobic species and disrupted the original ecological balance,
547 perhaps contributing to extinctions (Fig.10). In the middle of Cam-I, depositional
548 environments in South China were shallow, dominated by oxic conditions and
549 unaffected by hydrothermal events. This coincides with the first positive carbon
550 excursion (ZHUCE).

551 In the early Cam-II, an euxinic event, likely caused by episodic hydrothermal
552 activity emerged in South China again. The redox proxies, hydrothermal proxies, and

553 volcanic tuff dating all correspond to the SHICE. The conditions during this period
554 were likely similar to those recorded during the early Cam-I interval. Two episodes of
555 water-column euxinia with hydrothermal/ volcanic activity occurred in conjunction
556 with the extinction of the Ediacaran fauna and the SSFs in South China (Fig. 10). This
557 fluctuation and regional heterogeneity suggests that at least some environments
558 contained sufficient oxygen to support the needs of animal life well before the
559 “Cambrian Explosion” itself.

560 Recent research has shown that the Chengjiang fauna assemblage began at 518 Ma
561 (Yang et al., 2017). In the early Cam-III, South China experienced euxinic conditions
562 and episodic hydrothermal activity. Then during Cam-III, with gradual marine
563 regression, the water column in the Xiaotan section (inner shelf) became oxic, with oxic
564 water column conditions gradually expanding to Hubei Province in the late Cam-III. In
565 the early Cam-IV, oxic conditions expanded from inner-shelf to outer-shelf areas, whilst
566 intermittently euxinic environments were limited to the basin areas (Table. 1). The
567 Chengjiang and Qingjiang faunas were preserved during this period. Basin areas were
568 mainly occupied by ferruginous environments in the late Cam-IV, which were replaced
569 by dominantly oxic conditions following the end of Cam-IV.

570 The Lantian fauna, dominated by macroscopic algae, thrived in euxinic
571 environments (Yuan et al., 2011), while the Miaohu fauna containing benthic algae
572 thrived in suboxic environments, indicating that phytoplankton can live in different
573 oxygenated conditions and environments. During Cambrian Stage 3, our data suggest
574 that stable and persistent oxic environments (e.g., Xiaotan section) occurred

575 concurrently with a large number of planktonic and benthic trilobites. A small number
576 of benthic trilobites and a large number of planktonic trilobites also appear to have
577 thrived in ferruginous environments (e.g., Three Gorges and Songtao sections). The
578 photic zone does not appear to have contained dissolved H₂S in shallow-water areas.
579 There was no record of biological disturbance in these relatively deep-water areas. The
580 Jinsha section in Guizhou Province, dominated by ferruginous conditions, also recorded
581 a complex benthic assemblage mainly consisting of sponges and arthropods.
582 Depositional environments in the slope to basin areas were mainly euxinic, with
583 dissolved H₂S intermittently present in the photic zone.

584 Depositional environments in South China during Cam-III were affected by
585 hydrothermal events, but an equivalent impact is not obvious in Cam-IV (Figs. 6, 7).
586 Past research has suggested strong stratification of the early Cambrian seawater, as
587 recorded the Yangtze Block (Feng et al., 2014). Surface waters were oxic, the mid-water
588 column was euxinic, and deeper parts of the water column were ferruginous. This
589 stratified redox model describes Cam-III, but not Cam-IV, in which the surface water
590 was oxic, whereas mid- and deep parts of the water column were ferruginous condition.
591 Although the water column in Cam-IV was shallower than that in Cam-III, the
592 formation of a stratified redox model in Cam-III was more influenced by hydrothermal
593 events. In the middle and late Cam-III, depositional environments in Yunnan and Hubei
594 provinces already appear to have been experiencing widespread oxic conditions. It is
595 plausible that these limited regions of habitability may not have been sufficient for the
596 large-scale rapid radiation of organisms (Table 1). The mid- and deep-water

597 environments were still affected by hydrothermal events and intermittent euxinic
598 conditions, which may have restricted the spread of aerobic species. These are obvious
599 similarities between biological radiations during the two stages, with the SSFs and
600 Chengjiang (Qingjiang) faunas both occurring in a persistently oxic environment. We
601 tentatively suggest that the Chengjiang (Qingjiang) fauna radiated gradually whilst
602 progressively colonizing inner shelf to the basin environments, as oxic conditions
603 became more widespread. Above all, our data provides an exploratory record that may
604 help to understand connections between hydrothermal events, variability in ocean redox
605 state and the evolution of Early Cambrian life.

606

607 **5. Conclusions**

608 Hydrothermal events were frequent but episodic in the Yangtze Block during the Early
609 Cambrian of South China, and mainly occurred during the early Cam-I, Cam-II, and
610 through the Cam- III intervals. During early Cam-I, and Cam-II, the water column was
611 strongly affected by the euxinic conditions resulting from hydrothermal events, which
612 were potentially connected to concurrent extinctions of the Ediacaran fauna and SSFs
613 respectively. During the middle Cam-III interval, although inner shelf areas were
614 oxygenated after the global transgression at 521 Ma, the persistence of extensive deep-
615 water euxinic environments appears to have been not conducive to biological
616 diversification. During the early Cam-IV interval, depositional environments in South
617 China were mainly eutrophic and oxic, which was probably favorable for the rapid
618 radiation of the Chengjiang/Qingjiang fauna. There are obvious similarities between

619 the two episodes of biological radiation. The SSF and Chengjiang /Qingjiang faunas
620 lived in oxic environments that were unaffected by hydrothermal fluids. However,
621 intermittent hydrothermal events resulted in euxinic condition, which may have
622 disrupted the ecological balance and restricted the spread of certain species. The fossil
623 evidence of these evolutionary radiations has a complex but likely important connection
624 to the redox changes and hydrothermal conditions recorded by the sedimentary
625 geochemical data. Consequently, the data we present here help us move towards a more
626 mechanistic understanding of the causes of the early “Cambrian Explosion and
627 concurrent extinction of the Ediacaran-Cambrian Shelly fossil faunas in South China.

628

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640

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916

917

918 **Figure**

919

920 **Fig. 1.** Paleogeographic maps of the Yangtze Block during the late Ediacaran and early
921 Cambrian. A, latest Ediacaran to earliest Cambrian Fortunian (modified after Jiang et
922 al., 2012); B, early Cambrian Stage 3, the ore sites are (modified from Han et al., 2017).
923 Note that the studied sections are approximately aligned along two shelf-to-basin
924 transects (A–C and B–C). Red squares indicate sections and wells previously published,
925 yellow squares indicates our study area, and green stars indicate occurrences of the
926 Chengjiang and Qingjiang faunas.

927

928 **Fig. 2.** Stratigraphic correlation with biostratigraphic and tuff/ore dating of lower
929 Cambrian (ca. 541–514 Ma) sections across South China. Data sources: 1 – Xiaotan
930 section, Yunnan Province (Jenkins et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2003; Compston et al., 2008;
931 Och et al., 2013); 2 – Maidiping section, Sichuan Province (Compston et al., 2008; Zi
932 et al., 2017); 3 – Songlin section, Guizhou Province (Jiang et al., 2009; Pi et al., 2013);
933 4 – Bahuang section, Guizhou Province (Chen et al., 2015); 5 – Three Gorges section,
934 Hubei Province (Okada et al., 2014); 6 – Ganziping section, Hunan Province (Chen et
935 al., 2009); 7 – Longbizui section, Hunan Province (Wang et al., 2012; Yeasmin et al.,
936 2017); 8 – Xa1 well, Hunan Province (this study).

937

938 **Fig. 3.** Petrographic observations of studied samples in Xa1 well by scanning electronic
939 microscopy. A, celsian and hyalophane in shale (depth 809.3 m); B, sphalerite in shale
940 (depth 818.2 m); C, celsian and hyalophane in siliceous shale (depth 843.3 m); D,
941 monazite, celsian, and V-bearing mineral in shale (depth 849.8 m); E, c hyalophane in
942 siliceous shale (depth 855.2 m); F, celsian, hyalophane, and sphalerite in calcareous
943 shale (depth 863.5 m).

944

945 **Fig. 4.** Al–Fe–Mn ternary diagrams from Intervals I to IV. The positions of cherts with
946 hydrothermal and non-hydrothermal origins are from Adachi et al. (1986) and

947 Yamamoto (1987). These include data from the Xy1 (Li, 2018) and Yk1 wells (Li et al.,
948 2015) in Guizhou Province, the Yd2 well (Chen et al., 2018) and Zigui section (Hu and
949 Chen, 2017) in Hubei Province.

950

951 **Fig. 5.** Fe/Ti vs. Al/(Al + Fe + Mn) diagram of the Xy1 well, Yk1 well, Yd2 well, Zuigui
952 section and Xa1 well, modified after Sylvestre et al. (2017). The curve presents mixing
953 of East Pacific Rise (EPR) deposits with pelagic sediments (PC) whereas the numbers
954 indicate the approximate percentage of EPR in the mixture.

955

956 **Fig. 6.** Stratigraphic distribution of hydrothermal proxies (Al/(Al+Fe+Mn) and
957 (Fe+Mn)/Ti) in the Xy1, Yk1, Xa1 and Yd2 wells and the Zigui section.

958

959 **Fig. 7.** Spatiotemporal variations of hydrothermal and redox conditions. Data from the
960 Xy1 (Li, 2018) and Yk1 wells (Li et al., 2015) in Guizhou Province, the Yd2 well (Chen
961 et al., 2018) and Zigui section (Hu and Chen, 2017) in Hubei province, the Longbizui
962 section (Wang et al., 2012; Han et al., 2018) and Yuanjia section (Guo et al., 2013;
963 Wang et al., 2015) in Hunan Province. Redox conditions are analyzed by iron speciation
964 and redox-sensitive trace elements.

965

966 **Fig. 8.** Spatiotemporal variations of redox conditions. Data from the Xiaotan section
967 (Och et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2014) in Yunnan Province, the Shatan section (Goldberg
968 et al., 2007; Guo et al., 2007) in Sichuan Province, and the Jinsha (Jin et al., 2016) and
969 Songtao sections (Goldberg et al., 2007; Guo et al., 2007) in Guizhou Province. The
970 redox conditions are analyzed by iron speciation and redox-sensitive trace elements.

971

972 **Fig. 9.** Carbon isotope stratigraphic correlation from inner shelf (Xiaotan and Shatan
973 sections), outer shelf (Xy1 well, Changyang section), slope (Ganziping and Longbizui
974 sections), and basin (Xa1 well, Yuanjia section) environments. The red, green, blue and
975 yellow arrows correspond to BACE, ZHUCE, SHICE, and CARE events respectively.

976

977 **Fig. 10.** Summary of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, redox-sensitive trace elements, and episodic
978 hydrothermal events with evolutionary events during the late Ediacaran to early
979 Cambrian (551–514Ma). A, Key bio-events during the late Ediacaran–early Cambrian
980 (Zhu et al., 2007). B, Temporal trends in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ of three sections and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ of ten
981 sections. C, and D, Temporal trends in Mo and V contents in lower Cambrian rocks,
982 respectively. E, Spatiotemporal variations of hydrothermal conditions in various
983 depositional facies on the Yangtze Block. The Mo and V records indicate that the ocean
984 experienced a rapid euxinic process during the ECB and late Interval II period, which
985 can be linked to hydrothermal events. E, episodic hydrothermal events with volcanic
986 tuff dating in lower Cambrian rocks.

987

988 **Table 1.** Summary of redox conditions of 11 sections in various depositional facies on
989 the Yangtze Block. Fe = Ferruginous, Eu = Euxinic, O = Oxic, and / = no data.

990 **Supplementary Data Table**

991 Major element, trace element, iron speciation, and TOC contents of the Xiaotan section
992 (inner shelf, Yunnan province, S1), Shatan section (inner shelf, Yunnan province, S2),
993 Xyl well (outer shelf, Guizhou province, S3), Jinsha section (outer shelf, Guizhou
994 province, S4), Songtao (slope, Guizhou province, S5), Yk1 (slope, Guizhou province,
995 S6), Yuanjia section (basin, Hunan province, S7), Xa1 well (basin, Hunan province, S8),
996 Longbizui (slope, Hunan province, S9), Yd2 wells (outer shelf, Hubei province, S10)
997 and Zigui sections (outer shelf, Hubei province, S11). The locations of wells/sections
998 are shown in Fig. 1.