1	Unique Neoproterozoic carbon isotope excursions sustained
2	by coupled evaporite dissolution and pyrite burial
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23 The Neoproterozoic Era witnessed a succession of biological innovations that culminated 24 in diverse animal body plans and behaviours during the Ediacaran-Cambrian radiations. Intriguingly, this interval is also marked by perturbations to the global carbon cycle, as 25 26 evidenced by extreme fluctuations in climate and carbon isotopes. The Neoproterozoic isotope record has defied parsimonious explanation because sustained ¹²C-enrichment 27 (low δ^{13} C) in seawater seems to imply that substantially more oxygen was consumed by 28 29 organic carbon oxidation than could possibly have been available. We propose a solution 30 to this problem, in which carbon and oxygen cycles can maintain dynamic equilibrium during negative δ^{13} C excursions when surplus oxidant is generated through bacterial 31 32 reduction of sulfate that originates from evaporite weathering. Coupling of evaporite 33 dissolution with pyrite burial drives a positive feedback loop whereby net oxidation of 34 marine organic carbon can sustain greenhouse forcing of chemical weathering, nutrient 35 input and ocean margin euxinia. Our proposed framework is particularly applicable to 36 the late Ediacaran 'Shuram' isotope excursion that directly preceded the emergence of 37 energetic metazoan metabolisms during the Ediacaran-Cambrian transition. Here we 38 show that non-steady state sulfate dynamics contributed to climate change, episodic ocean 39 oxygenation and opportunistic radiations of aerobic life during the Neoproterozoic Era.

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The Neoproterozoic Era (1000 - c.540 Ma) marks a turning point in Earth history when groups of morphologically complex multicellular eukaryotes, including algae and animals, attained ecological dominance, irrevocably changing Earth System dynamics¹. These biological radiations took place amid fluctuating climate, including two prolonged episodes of global glaciation during the Cryogenian Period (c.715 - c.660 and c.650 - c.635 Ma) and short-lived, regional ice ages during the Ediacaran Period (e.g. c.580 Ma), interspersed with warmer intervals. The world's oceans also became episodically more oxygenated during the 48 Neoproterozoic with the extent of oxygenated seafloor reaching near-modern levels at times 49 during the early Cambrian². Both climate and oxygenation are regulated by Earth's long-term carbon cycle, and this interval is characterised by extreme carbon isotope instability³ (Fig. 1). 50 For over 30 years^{4–7}, the uniquely high amplitudes of Neoproterozoic δ^{13} C excursions have 51 defied conventional interpretation^{3,8–10}. Here we relate the largest of these anomalies to the 52 53 transfer of oxidant from the evaporite rock reservoir to the surface environment by coupling sulfate weathering, enhanced by the tectonic amalgamation of Gondwanaland¹¹, and pyrite 54 55 burial.

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57 The negative carbon isotope anomaly problem

58 Conventional carbon isotope mass balance is based on the principle that the isotopic composition of carbon input via outgassing and weathering, and that of sedimentary carbon 59 60 outputs are equal on time scales of >10⁵ years. This δ^{13} C value is considered to be unchanging at -5‰, which is taken to be the average composition of crustal carbon. Because organic matter 61 is depleted in ¹³C, and carbonate rocks precipitate in isotopic equilibrium with ambient 62 63 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), the mean δ^{13} C value of carbonate rocks and fossils can be 64 used to determine the proportion that sedimentary organic matter makes up of the total sedimentary carbon sink. This proportion is generally referred to as f_{org} , which has varied over 65 Earth history between 0.1 and 0.3^{12} . During the Neoproterozoic Era, globally correlative 66 marine carbonate rocks from at least three intervals (~720 Ma Garvellach¹³, ~650 Ma 67 Trezona^{14,15}, ~560 Ma Shuram^{5,16}/Wonoka⁷/DOUNCE¹⁷ anomalies) are characterised by δ^{13} C 68 values below -5% (Fig. 1), which can, using a conventional mass balance approach, only be 69 70 explained by negative rates of organic burial. This is particularly true of the late Ediacaran Shuram excursion, during which δ^{13} C remained below -8‰ for at least ~10 Myr^{18,19}. In order 71 72 to address this quandary, it was proposed that the pool of dissolved organic matter (DOM) in 73 the Proterozoic ocean was much larger than today, and that negative excursions represent non-74 steady-state remineralisation of that pool³. However, later numerical treatments of this model^{20,21} pointed out that the Earth system cannot remain out of oxygen (and carbon) balance 75 76 for such a long period of time. In other words, there is insufficient oxidant even in the modern atmosphere and oceans to remineralise enough organic matter to drive a -8‰ δ^{13} C excursion 77 78 for several million years. As a result, many authors have interpreted extreme negative anomalies as diagenetic alteration²², authigenic cements¹⁰ or as regional phenomena²³. 79 80 However, such arguments appeal to an inexplicable sampling bias, whereby globally 81 correlative isotopic signatures are presumed to be unrepresentative of the global carbonate sink. Here we take a different approach to the problem of negative δ^{13} C excursions by viewing them 82 in terms of a linked carbon-sulfur-oxygen system, whereby changes in oxidant dynamics 83 84 caused an excess of organic carbon oxidation over burial, resulting in a smaller DOM reservoir. For steady state to be maintained throughout a negative δ^{13} C excursion, shrinkage of the DOM 85 pool would need to match surplus oxidant production for the duration of the anomaly. If we 86 consider plausible δ^{13} C values of -10‰¹⁷ and -35‰ for deposited carbonates and kerogen 87 (globally averaged carbon sinks), respectively, and $-30\%^{24}$ and -5% for the DOM reservoir 88 89 and crustal carbon (globally averaged carbon sources), respectively, then organic carbon 90 oxidation would need to increase over the background rate by approximately a factor of three 91 (Methods 1). This oxidant imbalance then requires three times as much oxygen as could have been supplied by organic burial alone. Therefore, it can only plausibly be sustained via the 92 93 other major net source of oxygen to the Earth system: pyrite burial.

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95 A coupled sulfate dissolution and pyrite burial solution

96 Although bacterial sulfate reduction coupled with pyrite burial releases on a mole-for-mole 97 basis almost twice as much oxygen as organic burial²⁵, it is generally assumed that the oxygen 98 released by pyrite burial is approximately matched by the oxygen consumed during pyrite 99 weathering. However, most riverine sulfate derives from the weathering of evaporites²⁶, rates 100 of which due to the sporadic and regional nature of evaporite deposits, will vary considerably over time²⁷. During parts of the Proterozoic, when oceans were both iron-rich and anoxic²⁸, 101 102 and so prone to sulfate reducing conditions (euxinia) at productive margins, one might 103 realistically suppose that the amount of oxidising power transferred from rock sulfate to the 104 surface environment would also have varied considerably, particularly during times when no 105 basin-scale evaporite deposits were forming.

106 By writing a simple steady state mass-balance for the surface carbon cycle (Methods 1) we can 107 map the broad relationship between the evaporite sulfate input rate, net DOM oxidation and δ^{13} C composition of the ocean-atmosphere system (Fig. 2). These calculations show that an 108 evaporite weathering flux of around 1.1×10^{13} mol S yr⁻¹ (around 10 times the modern flux, 109 as proposed for the dissolution event during the early Cenozoic²⁷) could sustain a carbon 110 111 isotope excursion of between -10‰ and -15‰, depending on the proportion of the riverine 112 sulfate flux that is eventually buried as pyrite. Thus, the amount of oxidant required to achieve 113 a deep negative carbon isotope excursion through net organic carbon oxidation may reasonably 114 result from basin-scale evaporite dissolution.

Although plausible, we acknowledge that the above steady-state approximation is highly idealised and does not capture the true dynamics of the expected events, which include both positive and negative feedbacks (Fig. 3). For a negative δ^{13} C excursion to be generated, oxidant input needs to be coupled to shrinkage of a marine DOM reservoir, rather than accumulating as an atmospheric oxygen increase. The rate of DOM oxidation is controlled by the deep ocean redox state, which itself is largely controlled by the abundance of atmospheric oxygen. 121 Therefore, the process of DOM oxidation must be self-limiting and it should not be possible to 122 deplete the surface oxygen reservoir beyond the level that causes the deep ocean to become 123 entirely anoxic. Net oxidation of organic carbon should cause a substantial rise in atmospheric 124 CO_2 concentration and hence additional climate feedbacks. Rising CO_2 and temperature would 125 support enhanced continental weathering, with the potential to drive further evaporite 126 dissolution and therefore sustain oxidant delivery.

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128 Biogeochemical modelling results

The network of long-term biogeochemical feedbacks between the sulfur, carbon and oxygen 129 cycles is adequately represented by the COPSE biogeochemical box model²⁹, and in order to 130 131 explore how changes in the evaporite sulfate weathering flux might affect the oxidant balance in a Proterozoic marine environment, we modify COPSE to include a dynamic reservoir of 132 133 deep-ocean DOM (modelled as DOC) and an extra input flux of sulfate from weathering (Methods 2 and SI). The model is first set up for an 'Ediacaran like' steady state ($pO_2 = 0.05$ 134 PAL, $pCO_2 = 13$ PAL, SO₄ = 0.1 of present ocean level and a mostly anoxic deep ocean). This 135 is achieved by fixing background tectonic parameters (uplift, degassing) at assumed values for 136 600 Ma, while lowering the phosphorus input rate by $50\%^{30}$. 137

We then perturb the system by adding a weathering pulse of sulfate from evaporite dissolution, and a smaller pulse of sulfate from pyrite oxidation, assuming that pyrite-bearing sediments would also be exposed during uplift. These pulses follow simple stepwise increases and decreases²⁷, but also include a dependence on climate through runoff as summarized in figure 3 (see methods for details). Figure 4a shows the overall amount of S delivery from evaporite dissolution (~50 - ~100 × 10¹⁸ mol), which is chosen to be similar to that proposed for basin-scale evaporite dissolution in the Cenozoic (~1.1 × 10¹³ mol S yr⁻¹ for ~5 Myrs)²⁷, 145 although we use a longer timeframe to compare to the long duration of the Shuram excursion. The control model run with no DOC reservoir is shown in grey in figure 4. As shown 146 previously²⁷, this level of sulfate input raises ocean sulfate concentration considerably. 147 Increased burial of pyrite leads to a substantial increase in pO_2 and less prevalence of anoxia 148 149 (shown as fraction of anoxic seafloor). Oxidative weathering of fossil organic carbon increases as O₂ rises, causing a small reduction in δ^{13} C and increase in *p*CO₂. Seawater δ^{34} S decreases 150 during the evaporite dissolution event as the combined δ^{34} S value of inputted evaporite and 151 pyrite sulfur is lower than the initial seawater value (we set $\delta^{34}S_{pyr} = 0\%$ and $\delta^{34}S_{evap} = 15\%$ 152 for the weathered material cf.³¹). The increase in pyrite burial buffers against this change by 153 driving δ^{34} S to more positive values (manifest as a 'hump' in the model δ^{34} S curve), but is 154 155 insufficient to reverse the overall trend.

156 We view net oxidation of deep ocean DOC as a feedback process driven by other model 157 variables, and model it accordingly. Model runs include a DOC reservoir of size 20 times (light blue) and 30 times (dark blue) the modern DIC reservoir, respectively. The reservoir is assumed 158 to have a carbon isotopic composition of -30‰ and is allowed to be oxidized when the degree 159 160 of anoxia (ANOX) is reduced below a threshold value (see Methods 2). In both runs, oxidation 161 of DOC begins as the deep ocean becomes more widely oxygenated, however, as DOC oxidation is an oxygen sink, ANOX remains at the threshold value until the DOC reservoir 162 163 nears depletion. In this period, the model is in a quasi-steady state wherein the transition to an oxygenated deep ocean is prevented by the net oxidation of DOC. During this state, ocean δ^{13} C 164 165 is around -9‰, close to the value suggested by the simple calculations shown in Figure 2 for 166 this level of sulfate input. Persistent anoxia, nutrient delivery, and the related increase in pyrite burial rates drive δ^{34} S values higher than the control run, but the model still produces a negative 167 excursion in $\delta^{34}S$, consistent with available observations^{16,32}. On depletion of the DOC 168

reservoir, the deep ocean can be oxygenated, and the model gradually returns to follow thecontrol experiment.

171 The duration of the carbon isotope anomaly in our COPSE model reconstruction depends on 172 the size of the DOM pool and on being able to maintain high rates of pyrite burial, but crucially 173 does not depend on (or deplete) the atmospheric O₂ pool, which is predicted to increase during 174 the course of the excursion. A high rate of pyrite burial would be maintained in part due to the 175 effect of organic remineralisation on raising pCO_2 and global temperatures, which produces a 176 positive feedback loop (Fig. 3), whereby high chemical weathering rates and nutrient input can 177 sustain euxinic ocean margins until either the DOM pool or the evaporite weathering flux 178 decreases below a certain threshold value. Our treatment of these aspects is necessarily simple: 179 we assume in the model run shown that 80% of the inputted sulfate is buried as pyrite by a 180 near-shore biota that is sensitive to river inputs³³. We also assume that gypsum, pyrite and 181 organic carbon weathering fluxes are related to the model global rate of runoff (in addition to 182 following a prescribed stepwise increase and decrease for pyrite and gypsum). We show further 183 model runs in the SI in which the climate-weathering effect is not considered, and in which 184 only evaporite inputs are considered, without any weathering of pyrite. We also show runs 185 where differing amounts of P release from DOM oxidation fuels additional primary productivity. Sustained, highly-negative δ^{13} C excursions remain possible in all of these cases, 186 but a closely corresponding negative δ^{34} S excursion can only be achieved when a smaller pulse 187 of pyrite weathering accompanies the evaporite weathering pulse. While pyrite weathering is 188 important in setting seawater δ^{34} S values, pyrite weathering and deposition form an O₂-neutral 189 190 cycle over long timescales so other model processes are relatively unaffected.

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192 Implications for climate and oxygen regulation at other times

193 This evaporite dissolution / DOM oxidation scenario appears to be the most parsimonious 194 solution to the Shuram C-isotope conundrum in that it predicts the extent of oxic seafloor to 195 increase towards the end of the excursion, while maintaining high sulfate concentrations, which is in line with geochemical studies^{34,35}. Furthermore, the Shuram anomaly coincided with 196 orogenic uplift relating to the formation of Gondwanaland³⁶, and in particular the tectonic 197 198 inversion of all major basin-scale evaporite sulfate deposits of Tonian age (see SI 4). Although 199 our model fits best the late Ediacaran Shuram anomaly, coupled evaporite dissolution and 200 pyrite burial may have also played a role in other extreme negative carbon isotope excursions 201 of the Neoproterozoic, which all occurred after one of the largest evaporite depositional events 202 in Earth history between c.830 Ma and c.770 Ma³⁷. The succeeding interval of major carbon 203 cycle disruption from c.770 Ma until c.550 Ma was a time of little or no basin-scale evaporite deposition, suggesting that, as in the Cenozoic⁵, the sulfate weathering-deposition cycle was 204 not in steady-state. However, unlike the Cenozoic, the low atmospheric oxygen and anoxic 205 206 deep ocean of the Neoproterozoic allowed evaporite-derived oxidizing power to be effectively transmitted into a negative δ^{13} C signal. 207

208 The existence of a series of negative carbon isotope excursions during much of the 209 Neoproterozoic Era indicates that the DOM pool underwent dynamic size changes throughout 210 this time, and served as a buffer against oxygenation and climate change, but only when the 211 pool was sufficiently large. Exhaustion of the DOM pool may have occurred during the Shuram 212 anomaly, suggesting that the expansion of aerobic Ediacaran fauna at that time was an 213 opportunistic radiation in response to a transient oxidant surplus. We conclude that a greatly-214 reduced DOM pool continued to wax and wane well into the Cambrian Period, during which 215 seafloor redox conditions episodically reached modern proportions for the first time².

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320 Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the NERC-NSFC programme 'Biosphere Evolution, Transitions and Resilience' through grant NE/P013643/1 and NSFC/41661134048 to G.A.S. and M.Z. and NE/P013651/1 to T.M.L., by grant NE/R010129/1 to G.A.S. and B.J.W.M., a University of Leeds Academic Fellowship to B.J.W.M., and by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (41661134048) and Strategic Priority Research Program (B) of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDB1800000) to M.Z.

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328 Author contributions

G.A.S. and B.J.W.M. conceived the project. B.J.W.M. created the model, which was revised
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Figure 1. Carbonate carbon isotope record (reproduced from ³⁸). Grey area indicates values below the average continental crust and mantle value of between -5‰ and -6‰ with three major excursions at ~720 (Garvellach anomaly¹³), ~650 (Trezona anomaly¹⁴) and ~560 Ma (Shuram anomaly^{5,16}). Smaller post-glacial excursions occur after Cryogenian (Sturtian and Marinoan) low latitude glacial events (blue bars). Black dashed line indicates progressive deep ocean oxygenation between ~580 and ~520 Ma^{2, 39-40}. Note that excursions to below the mantle value occur before and during deep-ocean oxygenation and climate events.

344

345 Figure 2. Negative $\delta^{13}C$ excursion driven by net oxidation of a dissolved organic carbon

346 reservoir via coupled evaporite weathering and pyrite burial. The magnitude of the $\delta^{13}C$

347 anomaly depends on the O_2 production rate from pyrite burial, which results from the

348 evaporite weathering flux and the fraction of this flux that is buried as pyrite.

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350 Figure 3. Feedback diagram illustrating the effects of evaporite weathering on ocean 351 oxygenation and $\delta^{13}C$. Boxes show quantities, ovals show processes, solid arrows show 352 positive effects and dashed arrows show negative effects in sulfur cycle (yellow) and carbon 353 cycle (red). Increased sulfate dissolution results in more pyrite burial, which increases 354 atmospheric and ocean O₂. Resultant depletion of the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) reservoir represents a negative feedback on ocean oxygenation, driving ocean $\delta^{13}C$ lower. 355 356 Red arrows show potential for positive feedback: DOC oxidation increases atmospheric CO₂, surface temperature, precipitation and runoff, fuelling further evaporite dissolution and 357 358 nutrient delivery.

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- 361 Figure 4. COPSE Model forced with sulfate input and including differently sized DOC
- 362 reservoirs. A. Input rates of sulfate from gypsum and pyrite weathering. B. Size of DOC
- 363 reservoir in moles of carbon. C. A. Relative atmospheric oxygen concentration. D. Degree of
- 364 ocean anoxia. E. Relative atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration. F. Relative ocean sulfate
- 365 concentration. G. Calculated $\delta^{13}C$ of new carbonate. H. Calculated seawater $\delta^{34}S$.

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368 Methods

1. Steady state mass balance calculations

370 In order to estimate the surplus oxygen flux needed to sustain the late Ediacaran Shuram

- anomaly, we apply standard isotope mass balance, and assume δ^{13} C values of -10‰¹⁷ and -
- 372 35‰ for deposited carbonates ($\delta^{13}C_{carb}$) and kerogen ($\delta^{13}C_{org}$), respectively, and -30‰²⁴ and -
- 373 5‰ for the integrated carbon sources ($\delta^{13}C_{input}$) of DOM oxidation and crustal carbon,
- 374 respectively. Following standard C-isotope mass balance, $\delta^{13}C_{carb} = (\Delta^{13}C_{carb-org}) \cdot f_{org} +$
- 375 $\delta^{13}C_{input}$ at steady state, and so during the excursion when $f_{org} = 0.1^{12}$, then $\delta^{13}C_{input} = -12.5\%$.
- The proportion that DOM oxidation contributed to the global carbon cycle, i.e. f_{DOM} , = 0.3,

377 whereby
$$\delta^{13}C_{\text{excursion input}} = -12.5\% = \delta^{13}C_{\text{pre-excursion input}} (1-f_{\text{DOM}}) + \delta^{13}C_{\text{DOM}}.f_{\text{DOM}}$$
. A

- 378 conservative estimate for the requisite surplus oxygen flux (f_{DOM}) would therefore be about
- 379 three times greater than that supplied by organic burial (f_{org}) alone, thus requiring a
- 380 contribution from other sources, most likely pyrite burial.

In order to explore the potential for evaporite dissolution to drive surface system oxygenation and negative carbon isotope excursions, we first solve a simple isotope mass balance calculation for the δ^{13} C composition of the total combined atmosphere and ocean carbon pool (A). Variations in A over time follow the formulation:

385
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = F_{oxidw} + F_{ocdeg} + F_{carbw} + F_{ccdeg} - F_{ocb} - F_{mccb} - F_{sfw} + F_{DOCox}$$
(1)

Where F_{oxidw} is oxidative weathering, F_{ocdeg} is organic carbon metamorphism and degassing, F_{carbw} is carbonate weathering, F_{ccdeg} is carbonate degassing, F_{ocb} is organic carbon burial, F_{mccb} is marine carbonate burial and F_{sfw} is seafloor weathering (following^{29,21}). We add F_{DOCox} to represent the oxidation of a deep ocean reservoir of dissolved organic carbon. As a general approximation to the expected Ediacaran carbon cycle we take $F_{oxidw} = 2.5 \times 10^{12}$ mol yr⁻¹, $F_{ocdeg} = 0.5 \times 10^{12}$ mol yr⁻¹, $F_{carbw} = 8 \times 10^{12}$ mol 392 yr^{-1} , $F_{ccdeg} = 6 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$, $F_{ocb} = 3 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$, $F_{mccb} = 12 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$, and 393 $F_{sfw} = 2 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$. Here $\frac{dA}{dt} = 0$, thus the carbon cycle is in steady state, and the 394 fraction of carbon buried in organic form (f_{org}) is 0.2.

395 We assume that the sulfur cycle begins at steady state, and allow an addition of sulfate 396 from evaporite dissolution, F_{evap} (in moles S). To maintain long-term steady state this evaporite must leave the system in oxidised (e.g. gypsum) or reduced (e.g. pyrite) forms. We 397 denote f_{py} as the fraction of the evaporite input that exits the system as pyrite and experiment 398 with values of 0.5 and 1. Assuming that DOC oxidation is driven solely by excess oxygen 399 produced by burial of pyrite, we set the flux of DOC oxidation as $F_{DOCox} = 2 \times f_{py}F_{evap}$. To 400 401 maintain long term steady state in the carbon cycle, the flux of additional CO₂ from DOC 402 oxidation must be balanced by burial of carbonates and organic carbon. We assume this 403 occurs at the initial ratio of 4:1 in favour of carbonates (e.g. $f_{org} = 0.2$). Thus the equation 404 for long term carbon isotopic mass balance is:

405
$$F_{oxidw}\delta_G + F_{ocdeg}\delta_G + F_{carbw}\delta_C + F_{ccdeg}\delta_C - F_{ocb}(\delta_A - \Delta B) - F_{mccb}\delta_A - F_{sfw}\delta_A + F_{ccdeg}\delta_C + F_{ccdeg}\delta_C$$

$$F_{DOCox}\delta_{DOC} - 0.2F_{DOCox}(\delta_A - \Delta B) - 0.8F_{DOCox}\delta_A = 0$$
(2)

407 where δ_A is the isotopic composition of atmosphere and ocean carbon, δ_C is the compositions 408 of buried carbonates, δ_G is the composition of buried organic carbon and δ_{DOC} is the 409 composition of the oceanic DOC reservoir. We take $\delta_C = 0\%$, $\delta_G = -25\%$, $\Delta B = 25\%$, 410 $\delta_{DOC} = -30\%$, and solve for δ_A under varying values for F_{evap} . Results are shown in figure 411 2.

412

413 **2. COPSE model reconstructions**

We run the COPSE model²¹ to steady state under assumed Ediacaran forcings, add a
deep ocean reservoir of dissolved organic carbon that responds to the degree of ocean anoxia,
then impose an evaporite dissolution and pyrite burial event.

417 Ediacaran steady state

The 'Ediacaran' steady state is achieved by fixing all model parameters at the assumed values for 600 Ma. In all but two cases, these values are assumed to be the same as at the beginning of the Phanerozoic, but we lower the rate of phosphorus input by 50% to reduce atmospheric oxygen (e.g. as in Daines et al. 2017^{22}) and use a static gypsum burial rate of 50% of the present day to reduce ocean sulfate. The steady state has $pO_2 = ~0.05$ PAL, pCO_2 = ~13 PAL, SO₄ = ~0.1 of present ocean level and a mostly anoxic deep ocean (*ANOX* ≈ 0.9).

424 Dissolved organic carbon reservoir

The size of the model DOC reservoir is set at the beginning of the model run. The reservoir has a single output flux via DOC oxidation, which depends on the degree of ocean anoxia (*ANOX*):

428
$$\frac{dDOC}{dt} = \begin{cases} 0, DOC < 1 \times 10^{12} \ mol \\ \frac{k}{1 + e^{-a(1 - ANOX - c)}} \left(\frac{DOC}{DOC_0}\right), DOC \ge 1 \times 10^{12} \ mol \end{cases}$$
(3)

here a = 300, c = 0.35 and $k = 1 \times 10^{14}$ mol yr⁻¹ are scaling parameters for the sigmoid function, which define the anoxia level at which DOC oxidation begins and the rapidity of the transition. In practice, this function allows for geologically-rapid oxidation of DOC when ANOX < 0.7. The threshold here is chosen to be slightly below the model steady state so that the DOC reservoir is stable under the COPSE Ediacaran setup. DOC oxidation is terminated when the reservoir becomes smaller than 10^{12} moles, rather than zero, to prevent system instability. The rate of DOC oxidation is controlled by O₂ supply and never reaches the value 436 of *k*. This is shown in the SI for different values of *c*. We assume that DOC is oxidised

437 directly by O₂, although oxidation via microbial sulfate reduction is also possible.

438 Sulfate input

An uplift and evaporite dissolution event is prescribed in the model using a simple
 step-forcing that follows previous work on evaporite dissolution⁵. The time-dependent
 forcing function for sulfate input is:

442
$$S_{input} = [0\ 1\ 10\ 16], [0\ 7\ 7\ 0]$$
 (4)

where the first bracket is time in million years and the second bracket is the additional sulfate
input in terms of the background weathering fluxes. For the model run in the manuscript,
steady state 'background' and additional 'pulse' inputs of both pyrite and gypsum are
considered:

447
$$gypw_{background} = k_{gypw} \cdot g_{runoff}$$
(5)

448
$$gypw_{pulse} = k_{gypw} \cdot g_{runoff} \cdot S_{input}$$
(6)

449
$$pyrw_{background} = k_{pyrw} \cdot g_{runoff}$$
 (7)

here k_{gyp} and k_{pyr} are the present day weathering rates of gypsum and pyrite, and g_{runoff} is a climate-dependence representing the effect of global runoff on weathering fluxes, e.g. Berner (1994)⁴¹:

454
$$g_{runoff} = 1 + 0.087(T - T_0)$$
 (9)

455 where T is global average surface temperature and T_0 is the present day value.

456 Sulfate burial

457	The COPSE model assumes that sulfate burial fluxes are linearly proportional to the
458	total oceanic sulfate concentration, which means that concentration would have to rise to
459	many times the present day level in order to bury large amounts of pyrite. We add an
460	additional flux of pyrite burial ($mpsb_{additional}$) that is directly related to the pulsed weathering
461	input of sulfate, so pyrite burial is more clearly related to the sulfate supply to high-
462	productivity near-shore environments. A partitioning constant f_{py} is used to determine what
463	fraction of the pulsed sulfate input is buried as pyrite. This is set at 0.8 in the plot shown in
464	the ms. Additional sulfate that is not buried as pyrite is assumed to be buried as gypsum:
465	$mpsb_{additional} = fpy \cdot (pyrw_{pulse} + gypw_{pulse}) $ (10)
466	$mgsb_{additional} = (1 - fpy) \cdot (pyrw_{pulse} + gypw_{pulse}) $ (11)
467	
468	Other model alterations
469	The following alterations are made to COPSE to make the model more applicable to
470	the scenario being tested:
471	
472	1. COPSE uses a sigmoid function to calculate the degree of ocean anoxia, ANOX. A
473	modified version of the function was previously presented ³⁰ , based on the anoxia
474	response of 3D ocean models. Whilst the functions are similar and the choice
475	makes little difference in the Phanerozoic version of COPSE, the Watson et al.
476	version of the function has a more gradual transition to anoxia and allows the
477	model to more easily assume an 'Ediacaran-like' steady state under minimal
478	alteration of other parameters and is therefore used here.
479	2. COPSE predicts low δ^{13} C values for the Ediacaran steady state (~-2‰). In order
480	to clearly test the size of the evaporite-induced excursion, we set the overall
481	crustal carbonate reservoir δ^{13} C value to 2‰, which raises the δ^{13} C value of

482	carbon inputs and makes newly formed $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ is ~0‰. This alteration merely
483	shifts the baseline of δ^{13} C.
484	3. We take crustal values of $\delta^{34}S_{pyrite} = 0\%$ and $\delta^{34}S_{gypsum} = 30\%$ to reproduce
485	Ediacaran pre-excursion baseline values ¹⁶ , and assume that the pulse of evaporite
486	weathering has δ^{34} S _{gypsum} = 15‰.
487	4. COPSE has a relatively high rate of gypsum weathering and burial at present day,
488	we alter the present day reference rate of gypsum weathering to 1×10^{12} mol S yr ⁻
489	¹ , to better represent the background rate used in ref 5, for which our evaporite
490	dissolution scenario is based.
491	3. Additional model experiments
492	See supplementary information 1 for additional model runs where we assume no
493	climate dependence for sulfur weathering fluxes, and consider the role of pyrite versus
494	gypsum weathering, and test uncertainty in the DOC oxidation function.
495	4. Full model description
496	See supplementary information 2 for full modified COPSE model equations and
497	description.
498	
499	Data availability statement
500	The authors declare that data supporting the findings of this study are available within the
501	article and supplementary material.
502	
503	Code availability statement
504	MATLAB code for COPSE is freely available at <u>https://github.com/sjdaines/COPSE/releases</u>

505

506 **References in Methods only**

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- 508 time. Am. J. Sci. (1994). doi:10.2475/ajs.294.1.56