

1 Anaerobic nitrogen cycling on a Neoproterozoic ocean margin

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11 Abstract

12 A persistently aerobic marine nitrogen cycle featuring the biologically mediated oxidation of
13 ammonium to nitrate has likely been in place since the Great Oxidation Event (GOE) some 2.3 billion
14 years ago. Although nitrogen isotope data from some Neoproterozoic sediments suggests transient
15 nitrate availability prior to the GOE, these data are open to other interpretations. This is especially so
16 as these data come from deep-water environments that were spatially divorced from shallow-water
17 settings that were the most likely sites for the accumulation of oxygen and the generation of nitrate.
18 Here we present the first nitrogen isotope data from contemporaneous shallow-water sediments to
19 constrain the nitrogen cycle in shallow Late Proterozoic settings. The BH-1 Sacha core through the
20 Campbellrand-Malmani carbonate platform records a transition from a shallow
21 siliciclastic/carbonate ramp to a rimmed carbonate shelf with the potential for reduced
22 communication with the open ocean. In these settings nitrogen isotope ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) data from sub- to
23 peri-tidal and lagoonal settings are close to 0‰, indicating diazotrophy or the complete utilization of
24 remineralised ammonium with an isotopic composition of near 0‰. Our dataset also includes
25 negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values that suggest the presence of an ammonium pool of concentrations sufficient to
26 have allowed for non-quantitative assimilation. We suggest that this condition may have been the
27 result of upwelling of phosphorus-rich deep waters into the photic zone, stimulating primary
28 productivity and creating an enhanced flux of organic matter that was subsequently remineralised

29 and persisted in the dominantly anoxic Neoproterozoic marine environment. Notably, we find only
30 limited evidence of coupled nitrification/denitrification, even in these shallow water environments,
31 calling into question previous suggestions that the Late Archean nitrogen cycle was characterized by
32 widespread aerobic nitrogen cycling. Rather, aerobic nitrogen cycling was likely spatially
33 heterogeneous and tied to loci of high oxygen production while zones of shallow water anoxia
34 persisted.

35 **Keywords**

- 36 • Nitrogen Isotopes
- 37 • Carbon Isotopes
- 38 • Neoproterozoic

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Nitrogen (N) is an essential nutrient for the construction of all biomolecules. Despite the biological
41 importance of N_2 and its abundance in the atmosphere, only diazotrophic (N_2 -fixing) microbes can
42 directly assimilate di-nitrogen into biomass, which ultimately provides the primary source of
43 nitrogen to the biosphere. In the absence of oxygen, the uptake of ammonium (NH_4^+) from
44 remineralised diazotrophic biomass is the primary source of nitrogen for non-diazotrophs. In oxygen-
45 rich waters, NH_4^+ is rapidly recycled or oxidised by nitrifying microbes to nitrite (NO_2^-) and nitrate
46 (NO_3^-). Nitrate is an important component of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) in oxygenated
47 waters, and serves as the dominant nitrogen source for primary productivity in modern surface
48 oceans. In such conditions diazotrophic activity will be reduced due to competition with nitrate
49 assimilators for other nutrients (e.g. Sigman et al., 2009).

50 In low-oxygen settings, such as modern oxygen minimum zones (OMZs), NO_2^- and NO_3^- can also be
51 utilised as electron acceptors in chemotrophic metabolisms. For example, NO_3^- can be used in
52 heterotrophic denitrification or during dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA)

53 (Granger et al., 2008), whilst NO_2^- is utilised in the anaerobic oxidation of ammonium (anammox).
54 Importantly, both anammox and denitrification remove bioavailable nitrogen from the oceanic
55 reservoir and return it to the atmosphere (Cline and Kaplan, 1975), which in extreme cases can lead
56 to nitrate limitation. When bioavailable nitrogen is scarce an expansion of diazotrophy can occur due
57 to reduced competition for nutrients, if other nutrients like Fe or bioactive trace elements are not
58 limiting (Weber and Deutsch, 2013; Sigman et al., 2009).

59 Due to the redox sensitive nature of these N cycling processes, the global N cycle is believed to have
60 evolved over geologic time alongside changes in the redox state of Earth's oceans and atmosphere
61 (e.g., Stüeken et al., 2016). The 2.33 Ga Great Oxidation Event (GOE) (Luo et al., 2016) marked the
62 time when atmospheric oxygen (O_2) first exceeded 10^{-5} times present atmospheric levels (PAL), as
63 constrained by the disappearance of mass-independent fractionation (MIF) of sulphur isotopes
64 (Farquhar et al., 2011; Pavlov and Kasting, 2002). This change in surface redox conditions seemingly
65 coincided with the widespread expansion of aerobic nitrogen cycling in the world's oceans (e.g.,
66 Zerkle et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2018). However, this narrative could be overly simplistic. In particular,
67 small increases of around 2‰ in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values are preserved in the 2.7-2.5 Ga sediments of the
68 Campbellr and-Malmani carbonate platform from South Africa (Godfrey and Falkowski, 2009), a
69 setting that is spatially and temporally correlated to the sediments analysed in this study, albeit
70 further offshore and a deeper depositional setting. Other positive excursions in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are reported
71 from studies of Australian Neoproterozoic sediments (Garvin et al., 2009; Busigny et al., 2013) and in
72 all settings these nitrogen isotope values have been explained by transient or localized aerobic
73 nitrogen cycling. Alternatively, these small positive shifts in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values could represent uptake of a
74 residual pool of ^{15}N -enriched ammonium produced by partial nitrification or partial assimilation, or
75 by nitrogen redox cycling independent of environmental oxygenation (e.g., Thomazo et al., 2011;
76 Busigny et al., 2013; Ader et al., 2016). However, there are currently no $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ records of
77 contemporaneous shallow-water sediments available to distinguish between these alternatives.

78 Here, we investigate $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values preserved in shallow-water sediments from the 2.7-2.5 Ga
79 Campbellrand-Malmani carbonate platform. These sediments, from the BH-1 Sacha core, represent
80 the shallow-water equivalent to previously investigated deeper-water sediments (GKP01 core;
81 Fischer et al., 2009), in which $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values rose by about 2‰ and were interpreted to represent
82 transient aerobic nitrogen cycling (Godfrey and Falkowski, 2009). If aerobic nitrogen cycling was
83 even intermittently pervasive in this basin, we would expect sediments from these shallower water
84 settings to record similar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values to deeper-water sediments, particularly given their potential
85 proximity to surface ocean oxygen oases, as shown by the presence of microbial sedimentary
86 structures (Altermann and Siegfried, 1997).

87 **2. Tracking the nitrogen cycle through time**

88 Transformations in the marine nitrogen cycle can modify nitrogen isotope signals ($^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$; $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)
89 = $((^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{sample}} / (^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{air}} - 1) \times 1000$), leading to fractionation effects between the reactants and
90 products (Casciotti, 2009; Sigman et al., 2009; Zerkle et al., 2008; Brunner et al., 2013; Möbius, 2013;
91 Zhang et al., 2014; McCready et al., 1983; Ader et al., 2016). However, in modern settings, most
92 nitrogen assimilation or redox transformations utilise all available substrates, leading to no apparent
93 fractionation effects (Sigman et al., 2009). The exceptions are diazotrophy and nitrate/nitrite-
94 reduction processes, including denitrification, DNRA, and anammox. Diazotrophy generally produces
95 biomass with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values between $\sim+1$ and ~-1 ‰ (Zhang et al., 2014; Bauersachs et al., 2009),
96 although extreme values as low as ~-4 ‰ have been experimentally demonstrated (e.g., as reviewed
97 in Zerkle et al., 2008). The contribution of diazotrophy to total biomass in modern ocean settings is
98 limited except under oligotrophic conditions, as NO_3^- and NH_4^+ assimilators compete more
99 successfully for other nutrients (Weber and Deutsch, 2013). However, in most oxygen-rich settings,
100 NH_4^+ sourced from remineralised biomass is rapidly oxidized, such that nitrate is the main form of
101 nutrient N. In the modern ocean incomplete denitrification in the water column renders this pool of

102 bioavailable ^{15}N -enriched , leading to marine organic matter (OM) with an average $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of +5 ‰ to
103 +6‰ (Peters et al., 1978; Sigman et al., 2003; Galbraith et al., 2013).

104 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of marine biomass thus records the dominant forms of bioavailable nitrogen utilised for
105 primary productivity, particularly on a local scale. These signals are ultimately archived in
106 sedimentary rocks, either directly in OM or retained as mineral-associated nitrogen derived from
107 degraded OM (e.g., Stüeken et al., 2016; Freudenthal et al., 1999). Variations in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of
108 sedimentary rocks can thus be utilized to track changes in the marine nitrogen cycle through
109 geological time.

110 **3. Geological setting**

111 The Campbellrand-Malmani Platform in South Africa (Fig. 1A, B and C) is part of the Transvaal
112 Supergroup. A ~3,700 m section of these rocks was recovered in the BH1-Sacha core and logged in
113 detail by Altermann and Siegfried (1997). The lowermost recovered strata are a succession of
114 interbedded doloarenites, quartzites, and shales with microbial laminites from the top of the
115 Vryburg Formation (Fm) (Altermann and Siegfried, 1997). Thick (> 10 m) shale beds in the lower part
116 of the core likely represent deeper shelf conditions when marine transgressions mark the beginning
117 of several deepening and shallowing cycles, with carbonates likely representative of the shallowest
118 regressive conditions. Thin (< 10 m) shales interbedded with carbonates throughout the core are
119 mostly likely evidence of slightly deeper lagoonal conditions during generally regressive periods
120 (Altermann and Siegfried, 1997). A major flooding surface defines the base of the overlying
121 Boomplaas Fm, but its top is defined by an oolite bed indicating shallow, wave-agitated conditions.
122 The Lokammona Fm is marked by several, variably developed, shoaling cycles similar to those in the
123 Vryburg Fm (Sumner and Beukes, 2006). These three formations comprise the Schmidtsdrift
124 Subgroup, and are overlain by the Monteville Fm of the lowermost Campbellrand Subgroup, which
125 shows cycles similar to the Lokammona Fm (Sumner and Beukes, 2006). Together, these four

126 formations are interpreted as representing deposition of sediments on an evolving ramp structure
127 (Fig. 1B).

128 From the Reivilo Fm upwards, depositional conditions are considered to have been generally
129 shallow, with subtidal, intertidal or lagoonal conditions dominating as inferred from the presence of
130 domal, columnar, elongate and small, bifurcating, finger-like stromatolites, birds-eye structures, flat-
131 pebble breccias and chert beds (Altermann and Siegfried, 1997; Sumner and Beukes, 2006; Fischer
132 and Knoll, 2009). These facies are considered to represent the replacement of ramp-like conditions
133 with a rimmed-, carbonate-dominated shallow-shelf, platform-top (Sumner and Grotzinger, 2004;
134 Sumner and Beukes 2006). A maximum metamorphic grade of sub-greenschist is reported for the
135 section of the Campbellrand-Malmani Platform studied here (Button, 1973; Miyano and Beukes,
136 1984; Fischer et al., 2009), consistent with minimal alteration of stable isotope values as indicated by
137 our data (see discussion below). A U-Pb zircon age of $2,714 \pm 8$ Ma from the underlying Ventersdorp
138 Supergroup provides a maximum age for the Campbellrand-Malmani Platform (Armstrong et al.,
139 1991) and tuffs within the Schmidtsdrift and Campbellrand subgroups have yielded stratigraphically
140 coherent Neoproterozoic ages (Barton et al., 1995; Walraven and Martini, 1995; Fischer et al., 2009;
141 Knoll and Beukes, 2009; ranges of published dates are in the supplementary material).

142 **4. Methods**

143 Samples were collected from the National Core Repository at Donkerhoek (Pretoria, South Africa).
144 Sampling was predominantly focussed on black shales, which were anticipated to have high-TOC
145 content. Samples were ground into homogenous powders in agate ball mills, and carbonate was
146 removed via two 24 hour digestions in 10 % (vol/vol) HCl. After each digestion the samples were
147 centrifuged and the supernatant was discarded and replaced with fresh 10% HCl. Sample residues
148 were washed until pH neutral using ultrapure water ($18.2 \text{ M}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$) and dried at < 40 °C. Carbonate
149 content was calculated gravimetrically from dry sample residues which were then homogenised
150 using an agate pestle and mortar and stored in glass vials. Several samples of mid-grey carbonate

151 rocks, assumed to contain some OM, were also decarbonated to assess the possibility of extracting
152 kerogen. This method of carbonate abundance determination is prone to inaccuracy. However, here
153 it is used only to provide a broad assessment of lithological characteristics, for example between
154 rocks with high carbonate content (e.g. > 85%), and those with low carbonate concentrations (e.g.
155 <10%). Kerogen was extracted at the University of St Andrews by digestion of decarbonated residues
156 in HF/HCl following established protocols (e.g., Zerkle et al., 2017).

157 Nitrogen isotope values for kerogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$) and decarbonated sediments ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$) were
158 determined by nano-EA-IRMS in the GAPP Lab at Syracuse University, USA. Prior to analyses,
159 samples and standards were placed into a vacuum chamber overnight to remove atmospheric
160 nitrogen and flooded with Argon (Ar) prior to analysis. Upon introduction into the EA, tin capsule
161 sealed samples were further purged with helium (He) for 45 seconds prior to combustion in an
162 Elementar Vario Isotope Cube coupled to a Trace Gas analyser. Oxidation and reduction reactor
163 temperatures were 1100 °C and 650 °C, respectively. Helium carrier gas flow was 150 ml/min; and
164 the O₂ pulse was set for 90 seconds. Resultant sample gas was trapped in a liquid-N silica gel filled
165 cryotrap, before release to an Elementar Isoprime 100 IRMS via an Agilent CarboBond capillary
166 column (25 m x 0.53 mm x 5 um) with a He flow rate of $\sim 2 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ (e.g., Polissar et al., 2008; Zerkle
167 et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2018). Data accuracy for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ was assessed using the IAEA N1 (Ammonium
168 Sulphate, (NH₄)₂ SO₄) standard which provided a mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value of $0.11 \pm 0.50\text{‰}$ (1σ ; n=30) versus
169 a certified value of $+0.40 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$ (1σ).

170 The extremely sensitive nature of the nano-EA-IRMS method generates relatively large peak height
171 sizes for the blank, in comparison to standard IRMS techniques. This, coupled with relatively
172 nitrogen-poor kerogen samples, led to blank-sample ratios that could introduce variability in $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$
173 measurements. Blank-corrected $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ were calculated by blank extraction using the following
174 equation:

175
$$\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}} = \frac{(\text{Peak Area}_{\text{sample}} * \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{sample}}) - (\text{Peak Area}_{\text{blank}} * \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{blank}})}{(\text{Peak Area}_{\text{sample}} - \text{Peak Area}_{\text{blank}})}$$

176 The size ($\text{Peak Area}_{\text{blank}}$) and isotopic composition of the blank ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{blank}}$) contribution to each
177 sample measurement was calculated by measuring a blank (without tin cup) before and after each
178 five samples and calculating incremental change for both values between the two blanks. This
179 method was also applied to blank corrections for the standard IAEA N1 and provided robust blank
180 corrections. Duplicates of sample BH1-330, corrected to IAEA N1 indicate reproducibility of $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$
181 was $\pm 0.02\text{‰}$ (1σ), whilst triplicates of samples BH1-1963 and BH1-3144.33 produced values \pm
182 0.49‰ (1σ) and $\pm 0.32\text{‰}$ (1σ), respectively. Duplicates of samples with large blank contributions
183 resulting from exceptionally low N_{org} produced higher variability, resulting in $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ measurements
184 on samples below 0.05 wt. % N being discarded. Error bars for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ plots were calculated using
185 standard deviation of triplicates (BH1-1963.6; 0.49‰) and standard deviation of standards (0.50‰ ;
186 $n=30$), where error bar = $\sqrt{(\text{error of standards}^2 + \text{largest error of corrected sample}^2)}$.

187 Decarbonated sediments were also analysed to measure $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ values. Again, nitrogen abundances
188 in these decarbonated residues (TN_{bulk}) were exceptionally low, ranging from 0.0018 wt. % to 0.017
189 wt. %, so samples were run in triplicate and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ values determined by Keeling plots. These
190 samples were corrected to the reference material NIST1547 – Peach Leaves, which returned a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
191 value of $+1.76\text{‰}$ ($n=8$, determined by Keeling plots) against a certified value of $+1.98\text{‰}$ for
192 measurement of triplicate samples and $+2.10\text{‰}$ ($n=5$) for sample 3364 reruns (Table S4). Error bars
193 for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ reflect the combined standard deviation of standards and the intercept errors of keeling
194 plots for each individual sample triplicate using the same formula. These individual errors are shown
195 in supplementary table four.

196 Organic carbon isotope values ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) for this study were measured at the University of St Andrews
197 via flash-combustion of decarbonated residues using a Costech 4010 EA equipped with a zero blank
198 autosampler and interfaced with a Thermo Finnigan Delta Plus XP IRMS in continuous flow mode.

199 Data accuracy was verified using an internal standard (n=5), and returned values of $-25.07 \pm 0.18\%$
200 (1σ) and $-25.05 \pm 0.11\%$ (1σ) against an accepted value of -25.04% . Nitrogen and carbon isotope
201 values are reported using the standard delta notation showing per mil deviations from V-PDB for
202 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and relative to N_{air} for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

203 The abundance of nitrogen in kerogen (N_{org}) and in decarbonated residues (TN_{bulk}) and the total
204 organic carbon content (TOC) of whole rock powders were calculated by comparing peak areas
205 generated during isotope analyses with those of standards with known abundances (Table S3 and
206 S4). To calculate TOC abundances, the carbon yield was adjusted according to the mass lost during
207 decarbonation.

208 Potassium (K) and iron (Fe) abundances for samples 2709 and 3364 were determined by XRF at
209 Department of Earth and Environment, Franklin and Marshall College, USA. Standards returned 0.51
210 wt. % ± 0.0014 (1σ) against a certified value of 0.52 wt. % for K_2O and 12.42 wt. % ± 0.0135 (1σ)
211 against a certified value of 12.30 wt. % for Fe_2O_3 . Data for the remaining four samples were analysed
212 at University of St Andrews using standard XRF providing a standard deviation of 1σ of 0.02 wt. % for
213 K_2O .

214 **5. Results**

215 Nitrogen isotope values from kerogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$) for BH1-Sacha (Fig. 2; Table 1) range from -2.73% to
216 $+3.18\%$ (mean $-0.23 \pm 1.59\%$ here and elsewhere, 1σ , n=21). With the exception of samples BH1-
217 3113.32 and BH1- 3144.33, all $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values of greater than 0% are from samples with carbonate
218 abundance in excess of 85% (Fig. 2; Table S1). Bulk nitrogen isotope values ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$) range from $-$
219 3.30% to $+2.94\%$ (mean $+0.58 \pm 2.14\%$, n=6). Organic carbon isotope values ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) for BH1-Sacha
220 (Fig. 2; Table S1, including a subset from Izon et al. [2015]) range from -46.09% to -27.36% (mean
221 $-36.69 \pm 3.76\%$, n=26).

222 For data binned by depositional setting, the ramp-top settings of the Schmidtdrift Subgroup and
223 overlying Monteville Fm have mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ values of $+0.11 \pm 2.01\text{‰}$ (n=5) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values of
224 $+0.22 \pm 1.96\text{‰}$, n=7 (Fig. 2; Table S1). The highest $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values measured are from two carbonate-
225 rich facies: $+2.48\text{‰}$ at 3306.3 m core depth, and $+3.18\text{‰}$ at 3114.5 m. The highest and lowest $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$
226 values from siliciclastic facies in this section are $+0.53\text{‰}$ and -2.03‰ , whilst $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ values range
227 from -3.30‰ to $+2.02\text{‰}$. Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values from these ramp depositional settings are $-34.27 \pm$
228 3.63‰ , n=11.

229 In the platform- top/ rimmed-shelf facies from the base of the Reivilo Fm through the Gamohaam
230 Fm, the mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values are $-0.52 \pm 1.36\text{‰}$ (n=15) with a single $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ value of $+2.94\text{‰}$ (Fig. 2;
231 Table S1). Again, the three carbonate samples had significantly higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, up to $+3.17\text{‰}$.
232 Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values for these facies are $-38.13 \pm 3.26\text{‰}$ (n=15).

233 6. Discussion

234 6.1. Preservation of Primary Isotopic Signals

235 Diagenetic and metamorphic processes can produce changes in primary carbon and nitrogen isotope
236 values, generally driving $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values heavier and/or causing a divergence between bulk
237 rock and kerogen $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. At the sub-greenschist facies conditions of the Campbellrand-Malmani
238 Platform (Button, 1973; Miyano and Beukes, 1984; Fischer et al., 2009) such effects should be
239 minimal, and not exceed 1 – 2‰ (Stüeken et al., 2017). However, we examined trends in stable
240 isotope values alongside elemental abundances to evaluate possible contributions from post-
241 depositional alteration.

242 Thermal maturation during diagenetic or metamorphic processes can preferentially remove ^{12}C and
243 ^{14}N from sediments, leading to diagnostic positive correlations between $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, and
244 negative correlations between the abundances of TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, the abundances of TN_{org} and
245 $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$, and the abundances of TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$. We note a weak positive correlation between TN_{org}

246 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ ($R^2 = 0.28$; Fig. 3A) and a moderately positive correlation between TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ ($R^2 =$
247 0.51 ; Fig. 3E). We also note a weak positive correlation between $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ($R^2 = 0.24$; Fig.
248 3B) and a weak negative correlation between $\text{TOC}/\text{TN}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ ($R^2 = 0.37$, Fig. 3C). We note no
249 correlation between TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ($R^2 = 0.10$; Fig. 3D), and no correlation between $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and
250 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ($R^2 = 0.05$; Fig. 3F). Therefore, our data show little evidence for significant post-depositional
251 alteration of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ or $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, consistent with the low metamorphic grade of these sediments. We also
252 examine the potential influence of nitrogen adsorbed onto detrital clays by comparing potassium (K)
253 content with TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ (Figs. 3G and H).

254 We do note that there is a moderate correlation ($R^2 = 0.69$) between K and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ suggesting that
255 higher concentrations of clay-bound ammonium could be associated with more-positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$
256 values, although, this correlation is somewhat influenced by the one sample in this small data set.
257 The sample from 3364m is unusual in that negative (-3.3‰) $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ values are associated with very
258 low K abundances (0.97%) in comparison to the remaining samples (Table S6). When this sample is
259 removed from the analyses the correlation between K and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ is more modest ($R^2 = 0.32$) which
260 more closely reflects the very limited correlation ($R^2 = 0.17$) between TN_{bulk} and K abundances.

261 **6.2. Nitrogen cycling in a marginal marine environment**

262 The majority of samples analysed in this study are from relatively thin shale units that were
263 intercalated with stromatolitic carbonates. These thin shales are interpreted to have been deposited
264 during small marine transgressions, overprinted upon longer-term, relatively shallow, potentially
265 lagoonal conditions in platform and ramp-top settings (Altermann and Siegfried, 1997; Sumner and
266 Beukes, 2006; Ergolu et al., 2017). These thin shales are distinct from thicker shale units that likely
267 represent more open and deeper marine settings. Given the shallow nature of this setting and the
268 presence of microbial mats within the photic zone, such conditions should be prime candidates for
269 pre-GOE oxygen oases. Although the persistence of sulphur MIF in the BH-1 Sacha record indicates
270 that atmospheric oxygen concentrations must have remained less than 1 ppm during this time (Izon

271 et al., 2015), oxygen concentrations could have been sufficiently high in the water column or locally
272 associated with benthic microbial mats to allow for aerobic biogeochemical cycling. Indeed, trace
273 element and iron speciation analyses from Neoproterozoic sediments of the Campbellrand-Malmani
274 Platform suggest a stratified ocean with mildly oxygenated surface oxygen oases (Kendall et al.,
275 2010; Czaja et al., 2012; Eroglu et al., 2015) and localized oxygen production in microbial mats
276 (Zerkle et al., 2012). Previous studies of trends in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ from deeper water sediments from this basin
277 have also been interpreted to represent transient aerobic N cycling (Godfrey and Falkowski, 2009).

278 We find that $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values from siliciclastic sediments deposited in these near-shore settings are
279 inconsistent with widespread coupled nitrification /denitrification. In particular, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values close to
280 0‰ are more consistent with a nitrogen cycle dominated by diazotrophy and the recycling of NH_4^+ ,
281 and suggest that any NO_3^- generated from localized oxidation of ammonium was quantitatively and
282 rapidly removed by denitrification and anammox. Even if NO_3^- was present, it likely provided a
283 secondary nutrient N source given that ammonium could have been persistently available under
284 widely anoxic water column conditions. In modern settings (e.g., Higgins et al., 2012) cyanobacteria
285 can assimilate both NH_4^+ and NO_3^- as a source of nitrogen, and it has been noted that genes
286 controlling the assimilation of oxidised nitrogen sources can be repressed in the presence of
287 ammonium (Flores et al., 2005).

288 The lower part of the BH1-Sacha core (e.g., the Schmidtdrift Subgroup and Monteville Fm)
289 represents depositional conditions that were likely open to the ocean. Both $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$
290 values in these ramp facies (with the exception of samples at 3114.5m and 3306.3m, discussed
291 below) are again consistent with anaerobic nitrogen cycling. Intriguingly, one sample (3364m)
292 provided a $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ value of -3.3‰ , and another sample (3125.05m) a $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ value of -2.0‰ ,
293 showing greater ^{15}N depletion than biomass generally produced by modern marine diazotrophs. This
294 is especially the case when considering that the long-term diagenetic or metamorphic effects could
295 possibly have elevated $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ by a few per mille in comparison to the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of primary organic matter.

296 We suggest that these strongly negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values indicate the generation of biomass from partial
297 assimilation of NH_4^+ , as recently suggested for ~ 2.7 Ga sediments (Yang et al., 2019). Ammonium
298 could have accumulated in deep waters under upwelling zones that supported high rates of
299 diazotrophic productivity and organic matter export (Fig. 4A, B). The remineralisation of this organic
300 matter at depth under anoxic conditions could have led to the formation of a deep-water NH_4^+ pool.
301 In turn, these ammonium-rich waters could have been upwelled, leading to partial NH_4^+ assimilation
302 by primary producers, thus forming ^{15}N -depleted organic matter. Such settings could have included
303 the ramp front during early platform formation (e.g., thicker shale units at 3364m) and later the
304 mature platform front (the latter a depositional setting not recorded in the BH1-Sacha core), both of
305 which represented relatively deeper conditions in contrast to shallow lagoonal depositional settings.
306 Other negative $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (e.g., those associated with thin shales intercalated with carbonates)
307 could represent times when communication between the lagoonal setting and the open ocean was
308 more vigorous and allowed NH_4^+ -rich deep waters to temporarily inundate the lagoon.

309 Sediments at 3364m have high Fe concentrations (14.8%; Table S6) that approach the lower
310 boundary of Fe abundances in banded iron formations, despite being deposited in open-ramp
311 conditions. It is possible that in these Fe-rich conditions, diazotrophs utilizing the FeMo nitrogenase
312 enzyme produced biomass with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values down to -4% , similar to those reported in Zerkle et al.
313 (2008). In addition, diazotrophs using alternative nitrogenase enzymes (e.g., Fe-Fe or Fe-V) have
314 been shown to produced biomass with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values down to -7% when Mo is limited (Zhang et al.,
315 2014). However, large variations in $\delta^{98}\text{Mo}$ have been reported for the lower Campbellrand-Malmani
316 Platform, which provide evidence for a sizeable Mo reservoir (Eroglu et al., 2015). It is therefore
317 unlikely that diazotrophs would have relied on these less efficient alternative enzymes in this
318 environment.

319 Such low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values are unusual, but not unreported in modern oceans and in the more recent
320 geologic past (e.g. Higgins et al., 2012). For example, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of $\sim -5\%$ have been reported for

321 particulate nitrogen, and attributed to the partial utilization of ammonium (Rau et al., 1991) and
322 nitrate (Altabet and Francois, 1994). In the latter case, these low values are associated with
323 incomplete utilisation of nitrate in seasonally upwelling waters. However, this degree of ^{15}N -
324 depletion is not recorded in subsequent sedimentary $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values due to the integration of multiple
325 seasonal signals representing different rates of nitrate utilisation. The fact that some low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
326 values are recorded in the Neoproterozoic sediments studied here suggests that ammonium had
327 accumulated to significant levels to remain under-utilised and that nitrogen limitation was not a
328 significant factor in the wider oceans.

329 Intriguingly, widespread partial assimilation of ammonium could have left the residual pool of NH_4^+
330 relatively ^{15}N -enriched (e.g., Yang et al., 2019). If transported offshore, uptake from a pool of heavier
331 NH_4^+ could generate ^{15}N -enriched organic matter in more distal ocean settings (Fig. 4A, B; e.g.,
332 Busigny et al., 2013). This was illustrated numerically by Yang et al. (2019) using a simple Rayleigh
333 model based on the experimental calibrations of isotope effects during ammonium uptake (Hoch et
334 al., 1992). This scenario provides an alternative explanation for the presence of positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values
335 recorded in relatively distal Neoproterozoic settings in the Grikvaland West Basin (e.g., Godfrey and
336 Falkowski, 2009).

337 The majority of our $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data point to a largely anaerobic marine N cycle, driven by N_2 fixation and
338 varying degrees of ammonium uptake and recycling. However, a handful of carbonate-rich facies
339 show positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values outside the range of typical values for N_2 fixation (up to +3.2‰; Fig. 4,
340 Table S1). Elevated $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values could indicate syn-depositional oxidative degradation (Freudenthal et
341 al., 2001; Möbius et al., 2010). However, these $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ values could hint at the potential influence of
342 nitrification and incomplete denitrification in localised, mildly-oxygenated settings during the
343 deposition of carbonates, potentially periods when waters were likely shallower than when thin
344 muds were deposited. Ergolu et al. (2017) have argued that large differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values
345 between carbonates and mudstones in the shallower parts of the Campbellrand-Malmani Platform

346 were due to different consortia of microbes that comprise microbial mats in the two settings. They
347 suggested that during the deposition of carbonates, microbial mats could have had larger
348 proportions of oxygenic photoautotroph than during the deposition of mudrocks, with anaerobic
349 microbes more prevalent during the deposition of the latter. This scenario could support shallow
350 microbial mat communities as epicentres of highly localised nitrification-denitrification, without a
351 major role for aerobic N cycling in the Late Archean.

352 **6. Conclusions**

353 Here we describe the Neoproterozoic nitrogen cycle in a shallow marginal marine setting, during the
354 evolution of a well-defined carbonate platform into a relatively isolated platform- top/ rimmed-shelf
355 lagoonal environment. Nitrogen isotope values range from -3.3 to +3.2‰ and are consistent with a
356 predominantly anaerobic nitrogen cycle, dominated by N₂ fixation and the assimilation and recycling
357 of upwelling NH₄⁺. Evidence for the presence of oxidised nitrogen species is limited, suggesting that
358 any NO₃⁻ generated during periods of transient oxygen availability was quantitatively removed by
359 anaerobic respiration. However, rare δ¹⁵N values > 0 ‰ recorded in carbonate-rich sediments hint at
360 highly localized areas of nitrification and partial denitrification. In addition, the inclusion of some
361 very light δ¹⁵N values suggest partial assimilation of an upwelling pool of ammonium, leaving a
362 residual pool of ¹⁵N-enriched NH₄⁺ that could potentially explain small increases in δ¹⁵N from
363 contemporaneous open-ocean settings. We thus conclude that N cycling in the shore-proximal
364 marine environment of the Griqualand West basin was controlled by anaerobic processes and
365 recycling of bioavailable nitrogen, and that nitrification/denitrification was unlikely to have been
366 widespread prior to the end of the Neoproterozoic.

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506 **Figure Legends**

507 **Fig 1.** (A) Simplified stratigraphy of BH1-Sacha core (Altermann and Siegfried, 1997). (B) Simplified
508 structure of Campbellrand-Malmani platform-top and ramp showing placement of BH1-Sacha core
509 (Sumner and Beukes, 2006). (C) Position of BH1-Sacha drill site (star symbol) in South Africa (Sumner
510 and Beukes, 2006). Dates in Figs. A and B are from a review in Sumner and Beukes (2009). More
511 dates and references from correlative stratigraphy are presented in the supplementary information
512 which confirm a date of 2588 to 2549 Ma for the Monteville Fm.

513 **Fig. 2.** Geochemical data for BH1-Sacha core. Nitrogen isotope data $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ (‰) are shown as black
514 dots for silicates and triangles for carbonates, whilst $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ (‰) are shown as open pentagons).
515 Carbonate abundance data (wt. %) are shown as dots. TOC (wt. %) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (‰) data from this
516 study are shown as dots, whilst data from Izon et al. (2015) are shown as open squares. Symbols for
517 lithologies in core diagram as per Fig. 1A. Error bars for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ reflect the combined standard
518 deviation of N1 standards and triplicates of sample BH1-1963.6 using the equation: error bar = v (

519 **Fig. 3.** Cross plots of geochemical data. Filled circles represent data from this study. Open squares
520 include TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ data from Izon et al. (2015). Data shown: (A) TN_{org} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$, (B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$
521 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, (C) $\text{TOC}/\text{TN}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ (D) TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, (E) TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$, (F) $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and
522 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, (G) potassium and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and (H) TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$.

523 **Fig. 4.** Proposed model for facies-dependent nitrogen cycling at the ocean margin. This depositional
524 setting is a well-defined marine marginal ramp and platform-top that could have reduced
525 communication with the open ocean and led to somewhat isolated shallow **depositional settings**.
526 Platform/ramp bathymetry and stromatolite assemblages are based upon idealised Proterozoic
527 ramp and platform settings by Walter et al. (1992). Shown here are: **(A)** a shallow ramp top setting,
528 representing the Schmidtsdrift Subgroup and Monteville Fm; and **(B)** a lagoonal depositional setting,
529 representing the Campbellrand Subgroup overlying the Monteville Fm. The proposed mechanisms
530 include: **(1)** transport of diazotrophic biomass to the seafloor; **(2)** remineralization of OM to NH_4^+
531 and shoreward transport; **(3)** NH_4^+ assimilation, producing OM with -ve $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values; **(4)** transport of
532 a residual pool of NH_4^+ (possibly with +ve $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values); **(5)** open ocean ammonium assimilation,
533 producing OM with +ve $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values; and, **(6)** potential for restricted open-marine influence but **(7)**
534 potential for variability in communication as sea levels fluctuated.

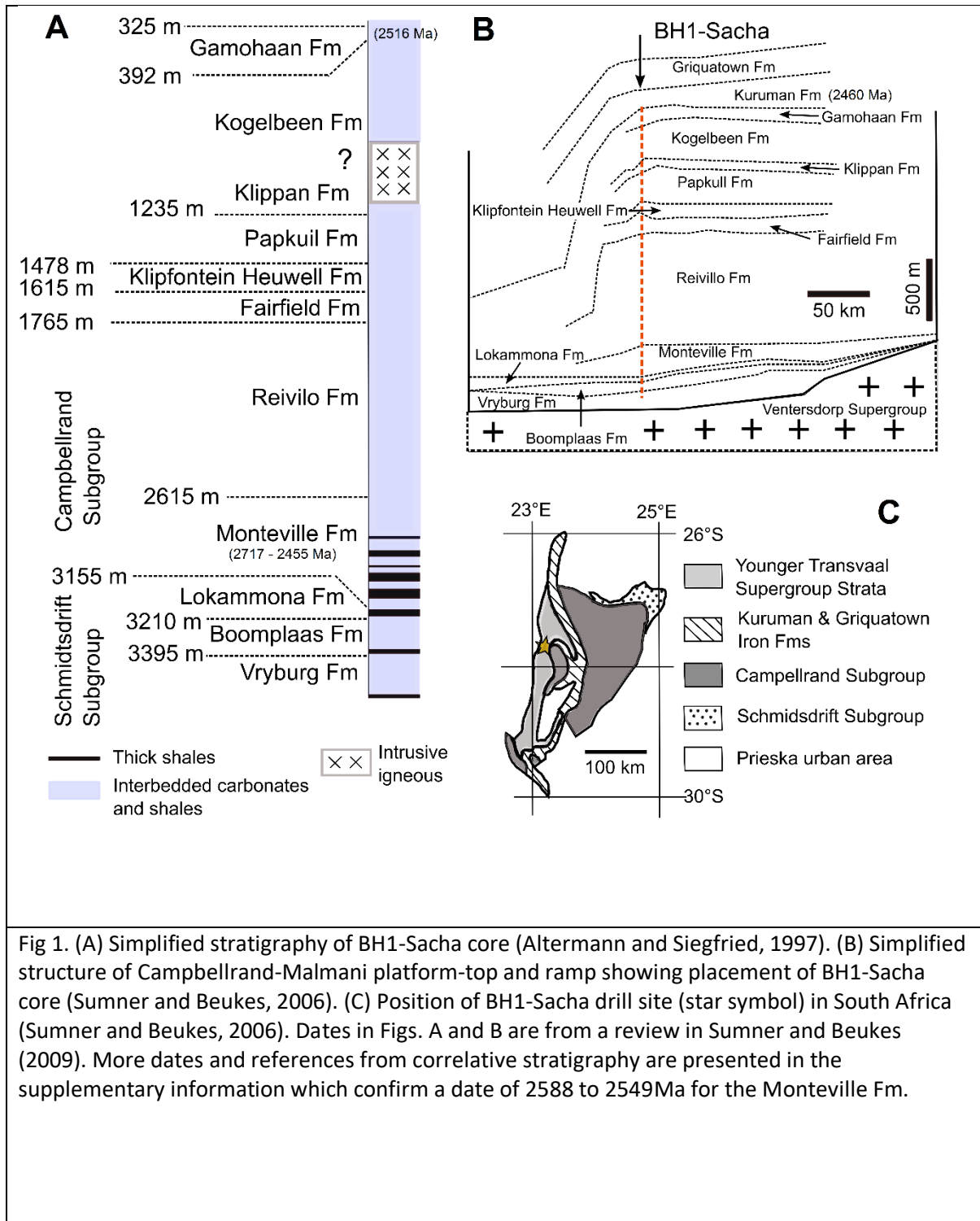
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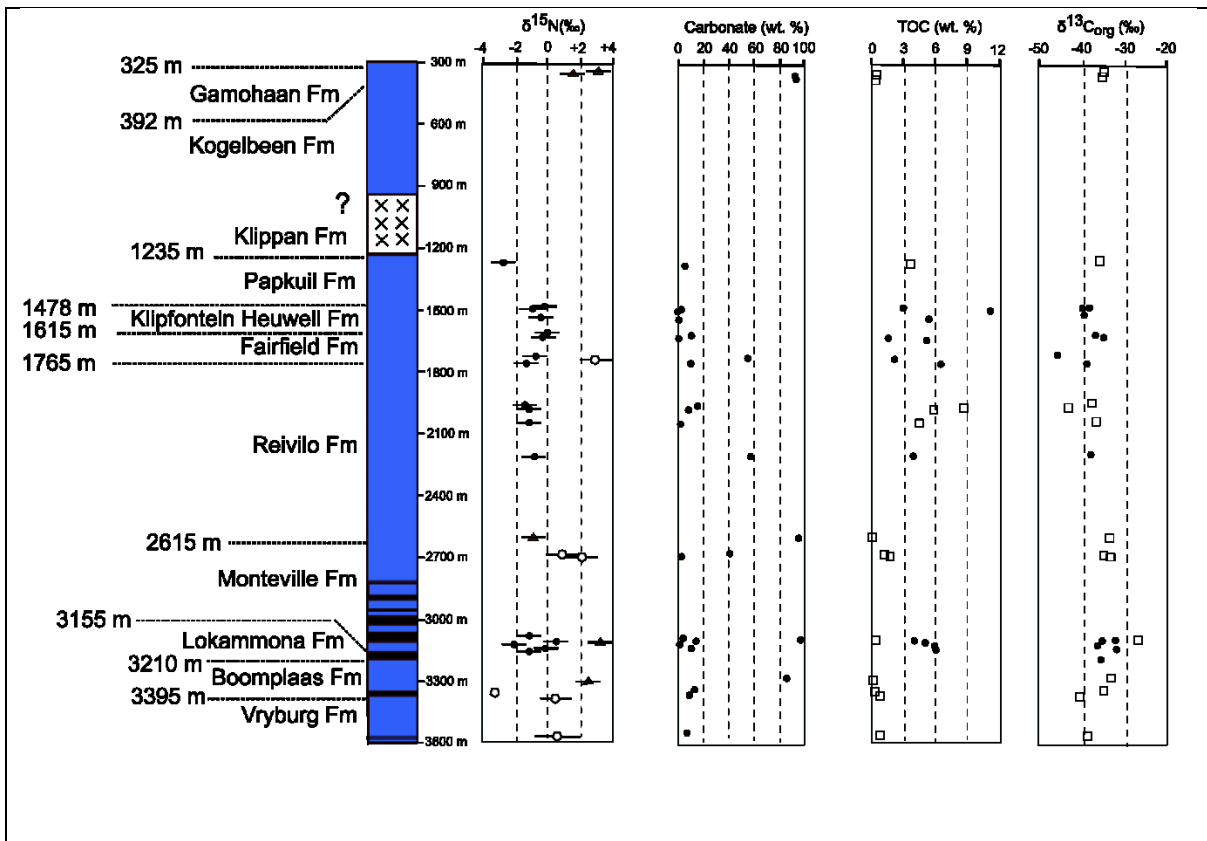


Fig. 2. Geochemical data for BH1-Sacha core. Nitrogen isotope data $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ (‰) are shown as black dots for silicates and triangles for carbonates, whilst $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ (‰) are shown as open pentagons). Carbonate abundance data (wt. %) are shown as dots. TOC (wt. %) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (‰) data from this study are shown as dots, whilst data from Izon et al. (2015) are shown as open squares. Symbols for lithologies in core diagram as per Fig. 1A. Error bars for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ reflect the combined standard deviation of N1 standards and triplicates of sample BH1-1963.6 using the equation: error bar = $\sqrt{(\text{error of standards}^2 + \text{largest error of corrected sample}^2)}$. Error bars are thus $\pm 0.7\text{‰}$. Error bars for $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ reflect the combined standard deviation of standards and the intercept errors of keeling plots for each sample triplicate using the same formula. These are shown in the supplementary tables.

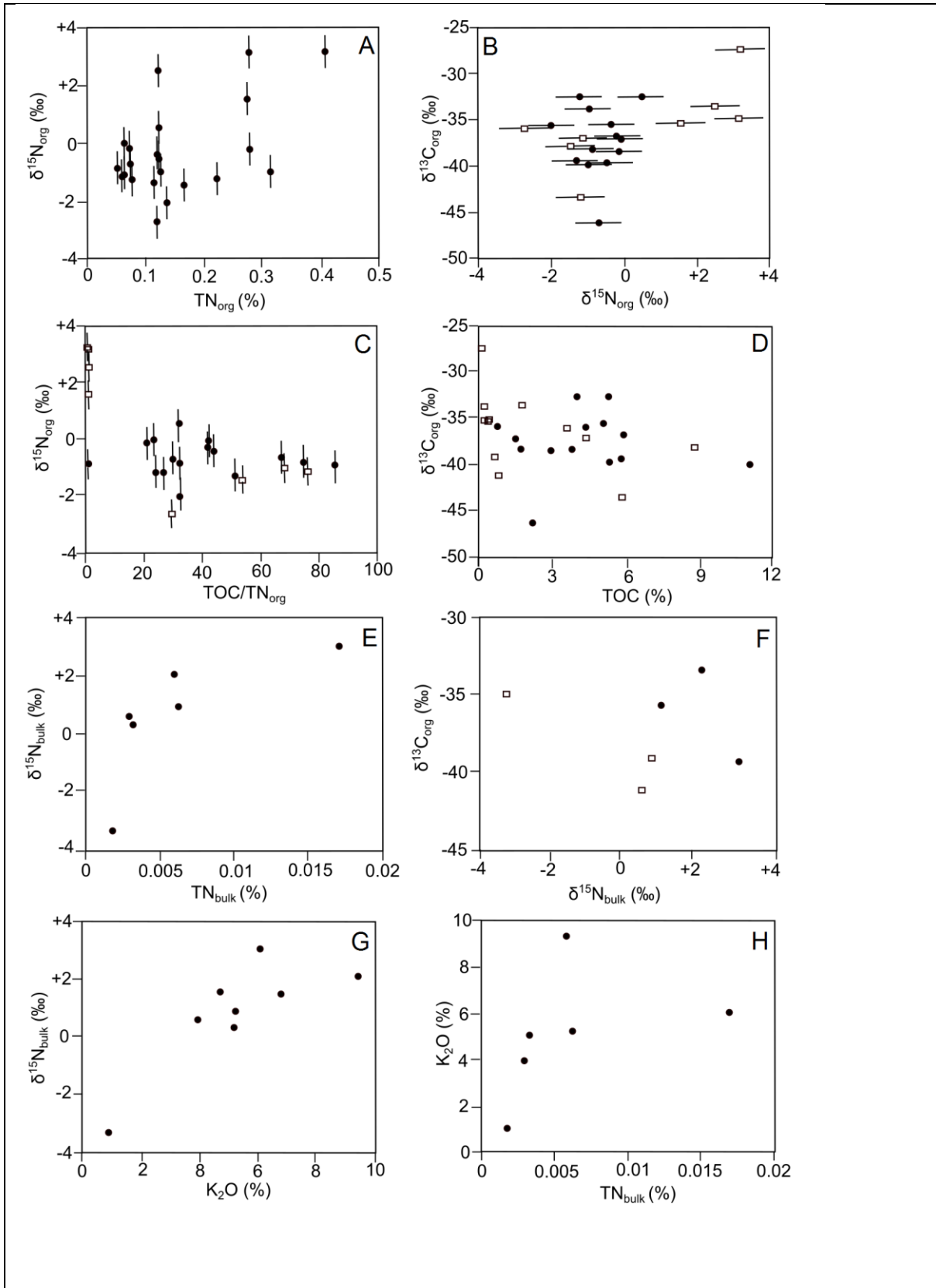


Fig. 3. Cross plots of geochemical data. Filled circles represent data from this study. Open squares include TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ data from Izon et al. (2015). Data shown: (A) TN_{org} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$, (B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, (C) $\text{TOC}/\text{TN}_{\text{org}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{org}}$, (D) TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, (E) TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$, (F) $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, (G) potassium and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$ and (H) TN_{bulk} and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{bulk}}$.

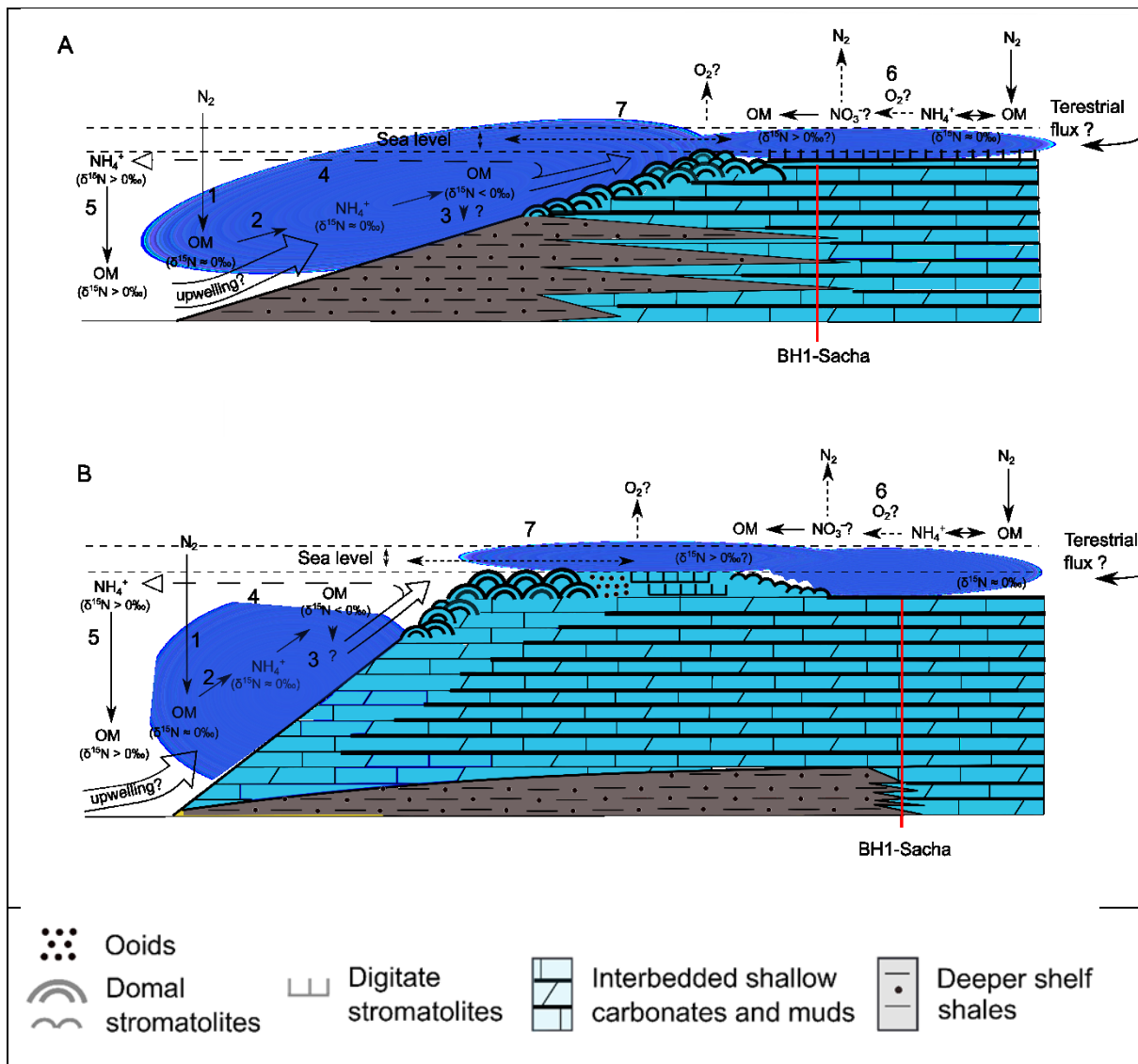


Fig. 4. Proposed model for facies-dependent nitrogen cycling at the ocean margin. This depositional setting is a well-defined marine marginal ramp and platform-top that could have reduced communication with the open ocean and led to somewhat isolated shallow depositional settings. Platform/ramp bathymetry and stromatolite assemblages are based upon idealised Proterozoic ramp and platform settings by Walter et al. (1992). Shown here are: **(A)** a shallow ramp top setting, representing the Schmidrift Subgroup and Monteville Fm; and **(B)** a lagoonal depositional setting, representing the Campbellrand Subgroup overlying the Monteville Fm. The proposed mechanisms include: **(1)** transport of diazotrophic biomass to the seafloor; **(2)** remineralization of OM to NH₄⁺ and shoreward transport; **(3)** NH₄⁺ assimilation, producing OM with -ve δ¹⁵N values; **(4)** transport of a residual pool of NH₄⁺ (possibly with +ve δ¹⁵N values); **(5)** open ocean ammonium assimilation, producing OM with +ve δ¹⁵N values; and, **(6)** potential for restricted open-marine influence but **(7)** potential for variability in communication as sea levels fluctuated.