

1 **An extensive anoxic event in the Triassic of the South China Block: a pyrite**
2 **framboid study from Dajiang and its implications for the cause(s) of oxygen**
3 **depletion**

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5 Wei Liao ^a, David P.G. Bond ^b, Yongbiao Wang ^{a,*}, Lei He ^c, Hao Yang ^d, Zeting
6 Weng ^e, Guoshan Li ^a

7
8 ^a *State Key Laboratory of Geological Processes and Mineral Resources, School of*
9 *Earth Sciences, China University of Geosciences, Wuhan 430074, China*

10 ^b *School of Environmental Sciences, University of Hull, Hull, HU6 7RX, UK*

11 ^c *Qingdao Institute of Marine Geology, Qingdao 266071, China*

12 ^d *State Key Laboratory of Biogeology and Environmental Geology, School of Earth*
13 *Sciences, China University of Geosciences, Wuhan 430074, China*

14 ^e *Faculty of Engineering, Wuhan University of Engineering Science, Wuhan 430200,*
15 *China*

16 *Corresponding author: Tel.: + 86 27 6788 4320; fax: +86 6788 3001; *E-mail address:*
17 wangyb@cug.edu.cn (Y. Wang).

18
19 **Abstract**

20 Water column oxygen deficiency has been considered as a potent driver of the
21 extinction of marine benthos, and is a main feature of marine environments in the
22 aftermath of the end-Permian mass extinction. The record of Permian-Triassic anoxia
23 is more complex than previously thought, and is seen to vary between different
24 palaeogeographic settings, but a full understanding is hindered by a paucity of
25 evidence. During the Permian-Triassic interval the South China Block was located
26 equatorially with Palaeotethys to the north and western Panthalassa to the south. This
27 specific configuration provides a unique opportunity to compare the extent and
28 duration of oxygen deficiency in Palaeotethys and Panthalassa under broadly similar
29 climatic conditions. Sedimentary facies and pyrite framboid size-frequency
30 distributions suggest that the oxygen-poor conditions became widespread across the

31 shallow-marine carbonate platform of the South China Block immediately above the
32 Permian-Triassic boundary and mass extinction level. Oxygen deficiency was most
33 intense at the southern margin of the block where it met Panthalassa. Proposed drivers
34 of the expansion of oxygen minimum zones into platform settings include enhanced
35 terrigenous input and/or ocean stratification, or alternatively the upwelling of
36 nutrient-rich deep ocean water. The former mechanisms are theoretically more likely
37 to have operated in the relatively restricted Palaeotethys which was surrounded by
38 ancient lands. In contrast, Panthalassa would likely have experienced stronger oceanic
39 circulation and therefore be more susceptible to the effects of upwelling. Although
40 variations in the record of the South China Block anoxic event might reflect local
41 factors, the greater intensity of oxygen deficiency and a concomitant larger negative
42 shift in carbonate carbon isotopes on its Panthalassan margin point to a key role for
43 upwelling. This mechanism was likely a major driver of the Permian-Triassic global
44 oceanic anoxic event, which itself was at least partly responsible for the ongoing
45 inhospitable conditions and delayed recovery following the end-Permian extinction.

46

47 **Keywords:** Permian-Triassic; microbialite; anoxia; upwelling; mass extinction

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50

51 Globally widespread ocean anoxia has been considered as a potent kill
52 mechanism in the marine end-Permian mass extinction scenario (e.g. [Wignall and](#)
53 [Hallam, 1992](#); [Wignall and Twitchett, 1996](#); [Isozaki, 1997](#); [Grice et al., 2005](#)).
54 However, there is growing evidence that the duration and intensity of the anoxic event
55 are heterogeneous complex ([Bond and Wignall., 2010](#); [Liao et al., 2010](#); [He et al.,](#)
56 [2013](#); [Li et al., 2016](#); [Shen et al., 2016](#); [Xiang et al., 2016](#)). The variability in redox
57 conditions between different sections may be a function of palaeogeography. Thus, in
58 western Palaeotethys, the size distributions of pyrite framboids indicate that oxygen
59 depletion extended into turbulent, shallow water environments characterised by oolite
60 deposition above the mass extinction boundary (MEB, corresponding to the bottom of

61 the Bed 25 in the Meishan global Stratotype (Yin et al., 2001)) in the well-known
62 Bulla section (Bond and Wignall, 2010). To the south, in Neotethys, anoxia persisted
63 throughout the Late Permian and Early Triassic, at least in deep water settings (Bond
64 and Wignall, 2010). Elsewhere, Wignall et al. (2016) demonstrated that anoxia
65 developed in ‘ultra-shallow’ settings in the Early Triassic of Spitsbergen, far away on
66 the northern margin of Pangaea. In contrast, $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$ compositions and trace fossil
67 assemblages from the nearby Sverdrup Basin of Arctic Canada record persistent
68 well-oxygenated conditions on the sub-storm wave base deep-shelf and in shallower
69 environments across the MEB (Beatty et al., 2008; Proemse et al., 2013). In the
70 modern ocean, oxygen-poor conditions often appear in estuarine environments with
71 high nutrient fluxes (Diaz, 2001; Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Levin et al., 2009;
72 Rabalais and Gilbert, 2009) and in poorly-circulated water bodies such as the Black
73 Sea (Friedrich et al., 2014). Modern manifestations of anoxia are of geographically
74 limited extent, the like of which could not have been responsible for Permian-Triassic
75 marine losses. Instead that interval saw a unique episode of the Phanerozoic during
76 which oxygen-restricted conditions became exceptionally widespread in
77 shallow-marine platform environments where they almost certainly had a causal role
78 in the mass extinction and/or the subsequent delayed recovery. However, this link
79 remains controversial and requires further elucidation from additional
80 palaeogeographic settings.

81 During the Permian-Triassic transition, the South China Block (SCB) was
82 located near the equator with shelves at its margins extending into Palaeotethys to the
83 north and western Panthalassa to the south (Fig. 1). Several studies document the
84 development of oxygen-poor conditions above the MEB on the carbonate platform in
85 the northern part of the SCB (Wignall and Hallam, 1996; Liao et al., 2010; Wang et al.,
86 2016). In contrast, there are few studies of depositional redox conditions on the
87 isolated carbonate platform in the southern part of the SCB. Ostracod assemblages in
88 the Dajiang section from the Nanpangjiang Basin, which connected the SCB to
89 Panthalassa, indicate well-oxygenated conditions across the MEB on a shallow-water,
90 isolated carbonate platform (Forel et al., 2009). The validity of this ostracod-redox

91 proxy has recently been questioned (Brandão and Horne, 2009; Horne et al., 2011;
92 Forel, 2013), and an independent test of depositional conditions above the MEB at
93 Dajiang is needed. Pyrite framboid analysis is a well-established technique for
94 assessing bottom-water dissolved oxygen levels, first calibrated in modern
95 environments (Wilkin et al., 1996, 1997; Wilkin and Barnes, 1997; Suits and Wilkin,
96 1998), and since developed into a palaeo-redox indicator, supported by diverse
97 independent geochemical and palaeocological proxies (Wignall and Newton, 1998;
98 Wilkin and Arthur, 2001; Bond et al., 2004; Racki et al., 2004; Wignall et al., 2010).
99 Here, we present size-frequency distributions of pyrite framboids across the
100 Permian-Triassic transition at Dajiang to re-evaluate depositional redox on this
101 shallow-water, isolated carbonate platform. This permits a comparison of the duration
102 and intensity of oxygen deficiency in shallow-marine environments on the
103 Panthalassan and Palaeotethyan margins of the SCB. Contrasting manifestations of
104 the Permian-Triassic anoxic event in these locations sheds light on its potential
105 drivers.

106

107 **2. Geological setting**

108

109 The SCB was a small tectonic plate that broke from Gondwana during the
110 Silurian and existed in isolation until it collided with North China, and became part of
111 Pangaea during the Triassic. According to the previous palaeogeographic
112 reconstruction (Golonka, 2002), and the radiolarian fauna biopalaeogeography of the
113 SCB (He et al., 2005, 2008, 2011), in the Permian-Triassic interval the northern part
114 of the SCB lay in Palaeotethys, whilst the Nanpanjiang Basin to the south opened into
115 western Panthalassa (Fig. 1) (Kershaw et al., 2007). The Great Bank of Guizhou is a
116 large, isolated shallow-marine carbonate platform within the Nanpanjiang Basin (Fig.
117 1; Lehrmann et al., 1998). Numerous outcrops of Permian-Triassic sediments have led
118 to the Great Bank of Guizhou becoming a key region for study of environmental
119 changes during the end-Permian mass extinction. These have focused on
120 sedimentology (Lehrmann et al., 2001, 2003; Liu et al., 2007; Payne et al., 2007;

121 Collin et al., 2009), conodont biostratigraphy (Lehrmann et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2007;
122 Ezaki et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2014), and microfossil (foraminifera and ostracod)
123 assemblages (Song et al., 2009; Forel et al., 2009). Carbon, sulphur and calcium
124 isotopes studies in this area also have been used to constrain the paleoenvironment
125 changes and their connections to the end-Permian mass extinction (Payne et al., 2004,
126 2010; Meyer et al., 2011; H.Y. Song et al., 2013, 2014a).

127 The Dajiang section in Guizhou Province, South China, preserves a detailed
128 record of depositional conditions on a shallow-marine carbonate platform in the
129 southern SCB during the Permian-Triassic. The section exposes one of several
130 isolated shallow-marine carbonate platforms that together comprise the Great Bank of
131 Guizhou (Lehrmann et al., 1998). The Upper Permian part mainly comprises skeletal
132 packstones belonging to the Wuchiaping Formation, which yields diverse fusulinid
133 and non-fusulinid foraminifers, corals, sponges, bryozoans, gastropods, brachiopods
134 and calcareous algae (Lehrmann et al., 2003; Song et al., 2009; Lehrmann et al., 2015).
135 This assemblage suggests that well-oxygenated, warm, tropical shallow-marine
136 conditions persisted in the run-up to the mass extinction. The top surface of the
137 packstone unit is marked by hollows filled by a wackestone that yields the basal
138 Triassic conodont *Hindeodus parvus* (Jiang et al., 2014). This irregular surface has
139 been ascribed to erosion and karstification (Liu et al., 2007; Collin et al., 2009;
140 Wignall et al., 2009) or alternatively to submarine dissolution (Payne et al., 2007;
141 Lehrmann et al., 2015). The Wuchiaping Formation is overlain by ~14 m of
142 microbialites belonging to Daye Formation that rests directly on the packstones, or in
143 places on the hollow-filling wackestones of the Wuchiaping Formation. The MEB is
144 placed at this formational contact. The Daye Formation microbialite is dominated by
145 calcified cyanobacteria, but it also contains foraminifera, ostracods, microconchids,
146 thin-shelled bivalves and microgastropods that record the survival of a simple
147 ecosystem on shallow-marine carbonate platforms following the end-Permian mass
148 extinction (Wang et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011). Several layers of molluscan
149 grainstone, comprising small thin-shelled bivalves, gastropods, and ostracods occur in
150 and on the top of the microbialite. The grainy texture and fragmentary nature of the

151 fossils within these intercalated layers indicate a shallow-marine environment
152 subjected to episodic currents during deposition (Lehrmann et al., 2003, 2015). Above
153 the microbialite and molluscan grainstones lies thin-bedded, poorly bioturbated
154 muddy limestone. The first occurrence of the basal Triassic conodont *Hindeodus*
155 *parvus* at Dajiang is coincident with the MEB (Jiang et al., 2014), suggesting there
156 may have been a short, latest Permian hiatus or stratigraphic gap equivalent to Beds
157 25-27b at the Meishan global Stratotype (where Bed 25 is the MEB and Bed 27c is
158 the first appearance datum of *H. parvus* (Yin et al., 2001)). The onset of microbialite
159 deposition at Dajiang likely corresponds to the base of Meishan Bed 27c.

160

161 **3. Methods**

162

163 Pyrite framboid analysis has become a widely-used technique for predicting
164 ancient marine benthic redox conditions. In modern environments pyrite framboids
165 form as iron monosulphide aggregates in the narrow iron-reduction zone at the redox
166 boundary. Framboids cease growing in the more intensely anoxic conditions of the
167 underlying sulphate-reduction zone where crystalline and amorphous pyrite forms
168 (Wilkin et al., 1996; Wilkin and Barnes, 1997; Suits and Wilkin, 1998). When bottom
169 waters are euxinic, framboids develop in the water column but are unable to achieve
170 diameters much larger than 5-6 μm before they sink below the iron reduction zone and
171 cease to grow (Wilkin et al., 1996). Euxinic conditions produce populations of tiny
172 framboids with a narrow size range in modern environments, and this signature is
173 preserved in ancient sediments. In contrast, in dysoxic environments, seafloor
174 conditions are weakly oxygenated and framboids form in the surficial sediments
175 where their size is governed by the local availability of reactants, with the result that
176 they are more variable and generally larger in size (Wilkin et al., 1996).

177 The size-frequency distribution of pyrite framboids has been widely employed in
178 studies of marine redox across the Permian-Triassic transition (Wignall et al., 2005;
179 Shen et al., 2007; Algeo et al., 2010; Bond and Wignall, 2010; Liao et al., 2010; He et
180 al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016). However, it is generally considered

181 difficult to apply this technique to microbialites, in which tiny framboids may be
182 bioinduced products that perhaps do not reflect the depositional environment
183 (Cavalazzi et al., 2007). Fortunately, the Dajiang section benefits from numerous
184 molluscan grainstones intercalated with the microbialite above the MEB. These
185 molluscan grainstones provide an opportunity to study benthic oxygenation on the
186 shallow-marine carbonate platform in the aftermath of the end-Permian mass
187 extinction without the need to disentangle the influence of the microbial metabolic
188 effects on framboid formation.

189 In fact, the microbialite comprises two components: sparitic “thrombus” and
190 intervening matrix. The matrix contains small foraminifers, ostracods, microconchids,
191 thin-shelled bivalves and microgastropods and likely formed in open water rather than
192 in an isolated microenvironment within the microbial mats. We have therefore
193 sampled this matrix material in addition to the molluscan grainstones to build up our
194 palaeo-redox history. Seventeen samples spanning the MEB at Dajiang were selected
195 for pyrite framboid analysis. Three samples were taken from the skeletal packstones
196 below the MEB, 8 are from the microbialite, 3 are from intercalated molluscan
197 limestones and 3 are from the muddy limestone that lies on top of the microbialite. A
198 polished block (approximately 2 cm × 2 cm) of each sample was examined for pyrite
199 framboids using an FEI Quanta 200 scanning electron microscope (SEM) in the State
200 Key Laboratory of Geological Processes and Mineral Resources, China University of
201 Geosciences (Wuhan). The spatial resolution of the secondary electron image of the
202 SEM is better than 3.5 nm. In backscattered electron mode, pyrite framboids are
203 easily distinguished by their shape and structure. The diameter of individual
204 framboids was measured directly on the SEM screen to the nearest 0.1 μm. Where
205 possible, at least 100 framboids were counted per sample.

206

207 **4. Results**

208

209 The skeletal packstone of the Wuchiaping Formation lacks pyrite framboids and
210 contains only rare crystalline pyrite. In contrast, the Daye Formation, lying above the

211 MEB, is rich in pyrite framboids (Fig. 2). These are present in the microbialite,
212 molluscan grainstone and muddy limestone facies. Individual microcrysts that build
213 the framboids are clearly discernible and each has approximately the same diameter of
214 less than 1 μm (Fig. 2). SEM observations reveal that the pyrite framboids are
215 dispersed through the intervening matrix rather than in the sparitic “thrombus” of the
216 microbialite facies – a preservation pattern clearly different from one recording
217 framboid formation during later diagenesis.

218 In total, 1764 pyrite framboids measured in 14 samples from Dajiang, ranging
219 from $n = 81$ to $n = 246$ framboids per sample (Fig. 3). Most pyrite framboids
220 measured are smaller than 15 μm although a few samples exhibited a “tail” of slightly
221 larger framboids. The mean framboid diameter across all samples is between 5.3 μm
222 and 8.3 μm , whilst the minimum diameter of measured framboids is between 1 μm
223 and 2 μm . Mean framboid diameter in the microbialite above the MEB ranges from
224 5.9 μm to 8.3 μm . Similar sized framboids are present in the molluscan grainstone
225 layers (Figs. 3G, 3I, 3K and Figs. 4G, 4I, 4K) that mainly formed by mechanical
226 sedimentation of episodic currents, where mean diameters range from 5.3 μm to 7.2
227 μm . Above the youngest molluscan grainstone, three samples of thin-bedded muddy
228 limestone yielded abundant pyrite framboids with the mean diameters between 6.0 μm
229 and 6.8 μm .

230

231 **5. Discussion**

232 *5.1. Redox history at Dajiang*

233 Pyrite framboid populations in the Dajiang section record a remarkable change in
234 benthic oxygenation across the MEB on the Great Bank of Guizhou (Fig. 4). The
235 absence of framboids in the pre-extinction skeletal packstones suggests that the water
236 column was persistently well-oxygenated in shallow-marine settings in the run-up to
237 the mass extinction. Under such conditions the platform was able to support a diverse
238 community of fusulinid and nonfusulinid foraminifers, corals, sponges, bryozoans,
239 gastropods, brachiopods, and calcareous algae (Lehrmann et al., 2003; Song et al.,
240 2009; Lehrmann et al., 2015). Immediately above the MEB, the sudden appearance of

241 abundant pyrite framboids in microbialite facies suggests an abrupt depletion of
242 water-column oxygen. Using criteria developed by [Bond and Wignall \(2010\)](#) and
243 [Wignall et al. \(2010\)](#), the continuous occurrences of abundant pyrite framboids in the
244 microbialite, molluscan grainstone and muddy limestone with mean values of 5.3-8.3
245 μm supports the onset of persistent lower dysoxic conditions in the water column at or
246 immediately above the MEB. The tight connection between the oxygen deficiency in
247 water column and the faunal mass extinction in this section further confirms the
248 hypothesis that widespread oceanic anoxia acts as a killer for marine benthos in the
249 Permian-Triassic transition (e.g. [Wignall and Twitchett, 1996](#); [Isozaki, 1997](#); [Grice et](#)
250 [al., 2005](#)).

251 Multiple palaeoredox proxies have been applied for the Permian-Triassic
252 transition globally, including pyrite framboids ([Bond and Wignall, 2010](#); [Liao et al.,](#)
253 [2010](#); [He et al., 2013](#); [Li et al., 2016](#); [Wang et al., 2016](#)), Th/U ratios ([Wignall and](#)
254 [Twitchett, 1996, 2002](#)), Ce anomalies ([Kakuwa and Matsumoto, 2006](#); [Fio et al., 2010](#);
255 [Song et al., 2012](#); [Loope et al., 2013](#)), uranium content and its isotopic composition
256 ([Brennecka et al., 2011](#); [Lau et al., 2016](#)), molecular biomarkers ([Grice et al., 2005](#);
257 [Xie et al., 2007](#); [Cao et al., 2009](#); [Luo et al., 2013](#)), and ostracod and trace fossil
258 assemblages ([Crasquin-Soleau and Kershaw, 2005](#); [Beatty et al., 2008](#); [Forel et al.,](#)
259 [2009](#); [Chen et al., 2015](#)). Comparison and validation of different proxies is an
260 important part of evaluating redox conditions across the MEB. Previous studies of the
261 Dajiang section suggested that because its ostracod assemblages were dominated by
262 deposit-feeding taxa, well-oxygenated conditions must have prevailed across the
263 MEB ([Forel et al., 2009](#)). However, the validity of this interpretation based on
264 ostracod assemblages has been questioned ([Brandão and Horne, 2009](#); [Horne et al.,](#)
265 [2011](#)), and the interpretation of persistently oxic conditions requires reassessment.
266 [Forel \(2013\)](#) recognised that the small carapace size of the Dajiang ostracods, and
267 their high intraspecific variabilities, was likely evidence of dysoxic conditions in the
268 aftermath of the mass extinction. This conclusion is clearly consistent with our pyrite
269 framboid data, in which all post-MEB samples preserve framboid populations typical
270 of dysoxic conditions. Besides the ostracods, other biotic indicators of stressed or

271 post-extinction environments proliferated in the microbialite above the MEB. This
272 facies is characterised by a low diversity and high abundance of small body-size
273 “opportunists” or “disaster” species, such as some foraminifers (*Earlandia* sp. and
274 *Rectocornuspira kalthori*) (Ezaki et al., 2003; Galfetti et al., 2008; Song et al., 2009;
275 Yang et al., 2011), microconchids (*Helicoconchus* aff. *Elongates*, *Microconchus* aff.
276 *Aberrans* and *Microconchus* aff. *utahensis*) (Yang et al., 2015a, b), and small
277 gastropods and bivalves (Wang et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011). This unusual
278 microbialite ecosystem can be interpreted as a result of oxygen deficiency in the
279 bottom water. Modern oxygen-stressed marine ecosystems are dominated by small
280 body-size opportunists that have rapid growth and short life cycles (Nilsson and
281 Rosenberg, 2000; Levin, 2003; Gutiérrez et al., 2008).

282 Other published geochemical proxies are in broad consensus with our
283 framboid-based interpretation of the redox history at Dajiang. $S_{\text{pyrite}}/\text{TOC}$ ratios and
284 degree of pyritization values from Dajiang indicate dysoxic-anoxic condition in
285 bottom water above the MEB (H.Y. Song et al., 2014b). The concentration of uranium
286 and its isotopic composition from Dajiang and Guandao sections of South China and
287 the Taşkent section in Turkey suggest a hundred-fold increase in the extent of seafloor
288 anoxia above the MEB (Lau et al., 2016). The covariation of pyrite S and carbonate
289 carbon isotopic compositions from the Nhi Tao section of Vietnam record recurrent
290 upwelling of anoxic deep-ocean waters to the shallow carbonate platform in the
291 Nanpanjiang Basin after the mass extinction event (Algeo et al., 2007, 2008). The
292 interpretation of each of these studies is consistent with our pyrite framboid data and
293 indicates the expansion of oxygen-poor water to the shallow-marine carbonate
294 environment immediately above the MEB.

295

296 5.2. Comparison with wider redox record

297 Whilst the Dajiang section testifies to the expansion of dysoxic waters onto the
298 shallow-marine carbonate platform immediately above the MEB in the southern SCB,
299 pyrite framboids of the Laolongdong and Cili sections suggest a similar event also
300 occurred on the block’s northern margins (Liao et al., 2010; He, 2013; Wang et al.,

301 2016). Oxygen-poor conditions were widespread across shallow-marine carbonate
302 platforms of the equatorial SCB (Fig. 5). Further afield, in the Bulla section of
303 western Palaeotethys, the shallow-water, post-MEB Tesero Oolite also contains
304 abundant pyrite framboids indicative of dysoxic conditions in that region (Bond and
305 Wignall, 2010). Tiny framboids are also abundant in the Early Triassic of Spitsbergen,
306 which was located in a north-facing Boreal seaway, where they indicate the
307 development of ultra-shallow marine anoxia on a clastic ramp (Wignall et al., 2016).
308 The co-occurrence of oxygen-poor conditions in shallow-marine environments in
309 diverse palaeogeographic locations shows the global significance of this anoxic event
310 in the Permian-Triassic transition. Nevertheless, the extent of oxygen deficiency
311 varied between locations. Even with the SCB, pyrite framboid populations from
312 Dajiang (mean values, 5.3-8.3 μm) are clearly smaller than those from the Cili (mean
313 values, 7.3-11.1 μm) and Laolongdong (mean values, 7.6-9.5 μm) (Fig. 6). According
314 to the redox continuum laid out by Bond and Wignall (2010), the variation in pyrite
315 framboid sizes across the SCB indicates a greater intensity of oxygen deficiency at its
316 southern, Panthalassan margin than in its northern, Palaeotethyan areas. The anoxic
317 event may therefore have originated in Panthalassa. Pyrite framboid size distributions,
318 and by inference redox, are relatively stable above the MEB at Laolongdong and Cili,
319 whereas they appear to be more variable at Dajiang, where there are modest
320 fluctuations between populations typical of lower dysoxic, and anoxic depositional
321 conditions. This may be a consequence of recurrent upwelling of anoxic deep-ocean
322 waters in Panthalassa (Algeo et al., 2007, 2008). By the time this water reached
323 Palaeotethys and the northern part of the SCB, its chemistry was likely somewhat
324 more homogenised, hence the more stable redox record from Cili and Laolongdong.

325

326 5.3. Causes of the anoxic event

327 Although the Permian-Triassic marine anoxic event has left evidence far and
328 wide, as a variety of proxies in multiple locations testifies, its cause remains
329 controversial. The anoxic event has been attributed to gas hydrate leaks (Heydari and
330 Hassanzadeh, 2003), but there is still insufficient evidence to support this hypothesis.

331 More plausibly, the widespread anoxia above the MEB has been posited to be the
332 result of a rapid increase in sea surface temperature (Joachimski et al., 2012; Sun et al.,
333 2012; Chen et al., 2015); warm ocean waters have reduced dissolved oxygen carrying
334 capacity. The elevated sea surface temperatures may have been responsible for the
335 development of marine anoxia, but the contemporaneous major negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$
336 excursion across the Permian-Triassic transition suggests that other, globally
337 significant factors were also at play. Increased terrigenous influx to the oceans has
338 been proposed as a causal mechanism in the marine anoxic event (Algeo and
339 Twitchett, 2010) and this may have fuelled a cyanobacterial bloom (Xie et al., 2007;
340 Wu et al., 2014) which would have enhanced the consumption of dissolved oxygen
341 via degradation of organic matter produced by the cyanobacteria. The volume of
342 terrigenous influx to a marine environment is generally related to the spatial pattern of
343 the ancient lands that lie nearby, and in theory it should take a long time for
344 terrigenous input to cause anoxia over an entire ocean basin. A relatively slow
345 mechanism for the development of widespread anoxic conditions is inconsistent with
346 a globally isochronous and relatively sudden faunal mass extinction, if indeed anoxia
347 was the (primary) kill mechanism. If terrigenous input were the primary driver of
348 anoxia, one would expect to see the most intense oxygen depletion in areas such as
349 Palaeotethys, which was surrounded and enclosed by ancient lands during the
350 Permian-Triassic interval (Fig. 1). In such a runoff-anoxia scenario, the vast swathes
351 of Panthalassa ought to be less affected by runoff due to its enormous water body and
352 its long distance from the source of terrigenous material. Pyrite framboid analysis
353 indicates that oxygen deficiency was more intense on the Panthalassan margin of the
354 SCB (Dajiang section) than at its northern, Palaeotethyan margin (Laolongdong and
355 Cili sections). This is inconsistent with a terrigenous driver of oxygen depletion.
356 Instead, we invoke an upwelling model.

357 By the latest Permian, Panthalassa spanned a vast area between northern and
358 southern poles (Fig. 1). The variety of water temperatures in this huge ocean (in
359 comparison with e.g. Palaeotethys) might have been a driving factor in the
360 emplacement of deep-ocean waters into shallow-marine environments (Rahmstorf et

361 [al., 2003, 2006](#)). In the end-Permian palaeogeography, the southern part of the SCB is
362 the border where it met the western Panthalassa. Previous oceanic modelling results
363 favored a ventilation in most parts of the Panthalassa, upwelling in the peri-equatorial
364 western Panthalassa ([Winguth et al., 2002](#); [Kidder and Worsley, 2004](#); [Winguth and](#)
365 [Maier-Reimer, 2005](#); [Winguth and Winguth, 2012, 2013](#)). This fits with the data
366 presented here: although local anoxia can be caused by several factors, the greater
367 intensity of carbonate platform oxygen deficiency on the Panthalassan margin of the
368 SCB suggests that upwelling of deep-ocean water may have been the key driver of
369 Permian-Triassic anoxia. This hypothesis is supported by evidence from Nhi Tao in
370 Vietnam, which also faced Panthalassa, and records recurrent upwelling of anoxic
371 deep-ocean waters to the shallow carbonate platform above the MEB ([Algeo et al.,](#)
372 [2007, 2008](#)). In modern ocean, upwelling of oxygen deficient deep water onto the
373 inner shelf resulted in the development of severe hypoxia in the open coast, with the
374 shallowest reaches to the 30-m isobath in the northeast Pacific ([Grantham et al., 2004](#);
375 [Bograd et al., 2008](#); [Chan et al., 2008](#)). Moreover, it has been suggested that
376 upwelling of highly alkaline deep waters into shallow-water environments may lead to
377 the formation of great thickness of anachronistic limestones within relatively short
378 time interval ([Deng et al., in press](#)). Such a model may fit the Daye Formation.

379 The well-known, globally widespread negative shift in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ during the
380 Permian-Triassic transition has also been ascribed to numerous causes (for a review
381 see [Korte and Kozur, 2010](#)) including volcanogenic CO₂ emission ([Payne and Kump,](#)
382 [2007](#); [Xie et al., 2007](#); [Luo et al., 2011](#); [Shen et al., 2012](#)), gas hydrates release ([Erwin,](#)
383 [1993](#); [Krull et al., 2004](#)), and the upwelling of anoxic deep-ocean waters ([Grotzinger](#)
384 [and Knoll, 1995](#); [Knoll et al., 1996](#); [Algeo et al., 2007, 2008](#)). During the Late
385 Permian, black shales (e.g. the Dalong Formation) are widespread in the deep basins
386 of Palaeotethys, and these may have provided the material base for gas hydrates
387 accumulation. Away from platform margin areas, the lack of black shale in the much
388 of Panthalassa would have inhibited the accumulation of gas hydrates in that ocean. If
389 the negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ excursion was generated by gas hydrates release, it is predicted to
390 have been of greater magnitude in Palaeotethys than in Panthalassa. In fact, a more

391 marked $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ shift is recorded at Dajiang than at Laolongdong or Cili (Fig. 6).
392 Interestingly, the intensities of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ shift correlate positively with the intensity
393 of oxygen deficiency on the SCB carbonate platform (Fig. 6). Thus, the intensity of
394 each increases from Laolongdong to Cili, and reaches a peak at Dajiang (Fig. 6).
395 Whilst volcanogenic CO_2 emissions were probably the major driver of the negative
396 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ excursion, one would expect its effects to be homogeneous over a wide area.
397 Shifts of different magnitude observed on the SCB implicate another factor: the
398 coupling between the intensities of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ shift and water-column oxygen
399 deficiency was probably a result of differing degrees of upwelling of anoxic
400 deep-ocean waters in different palaeogeographic settings in the region.

401

402 **6. Conclusions**

403

404 The size distribution of pyrite framboids from the Dajiang section, located on the
405 Panthalassan margin of the southern South China Block, indicates that oxygen-poor,
406 dysoxic water invaded the shallow-marine carbonate platform environment
407 immediately above the MEB, and further demonstrates its killer role in the
408 Permian-Triassic mass extinction event. Comparison with data from the Laolongdong
409 and Cili sections from the Palaeotethyan margin of the northern SCB reveals that
410 mean framboid diameters are smaller at Dajiang. Thus, the Panthalassan margin of the
411 SCB experienced a greater intensity of oxygen deficiency than the Palaeotethyan
412 margin.

413 The intensity of oxygen depletion on the SCB is closely coupled to that of the
414 well-known Permian-Triassic $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ negative shift. At Dajiang, both are of greater
415 magnitude than at Laolongdong and Cili. The close correlation between the intensities
416 of the negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ shift and oxygen deficiency during the Permian-Triassic
417 transition of the SCB suggests that the anoxic events on the shallow-marine carbonate
418 platform were mainly caused by the upwelling of anoxic deep-ocean waters from
419 Panthalassa. We therefore invoke upwelling as a key factor in the spread of marine
420 anoxia and the major changes in the carbon isotope record across the Permian-Triassic

421 boundary.

422

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