Depositional setting of the Late Archean Fe oxide- and sulfide-bearing chert and graphitic argillite in the Shaw Dome, Abitibi greenstone belt, Canada

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Abstract :

Interbedded chert-rich exhalite and graphitic argillite are the only sedimentary rocks deposited in deepwater settings during long-lived hiatuses in mafic to ultramafic volcanism within the Hart area of the Shaw Dome in the Late Archean Abitibi greenstone belt in Canada. The Fe oxide- and sulfide-bearing, but predominantly cherty, exhalite lithological unit in the Hart area can be traced laterally to iron formation elsewhere in the Shaw Dome. Whole-rock as well as Fe and S isotope geochemistry suggest that the exhalite unit was formed as a result of direct precipitation from seawater, distally from hydrothermal centres. Fractionation of Fe isotopes through the precipitation of iron oxyhydroxides in a neutrally buoyant hydrothermal plume removed the heavier isotopes of Fe. resulting in the negative δ56Fe values observed in the exhalite in the Hart area. Archean seawater is generally considered to be anoxic, but moderate Mn enrichments (up to 1.87 weight% MnO) in exhalite along with negative Fe isotope values resulting from partial Fe(II) oxidation suggest the presence of oxygen in the upper part of the water column along the pathway of hydrothermal plumes from their source to the depositional site in the Abitibi greenstone belt. In contrast, the graphitic argillite contains abundant pyrite nodules and bands that exhibit systematic negative Fe isotope values, but does not show Mn enrichment. This unit likely formed in a zone of upwelling of nutrient-rich waters from deeper parts of the basin resulting in high organic productivity. Both exhalite and graphitic argillite have negative $\Delta 33S$ values, suggesting that sulfur was derived from seawater sulfate, which is consistent with an anoxic atmosphere with sulfate aerosols produced by photochemical reactions. Combined, our data indicates disequilibrium between anoxic atmosphere and partially oxygenated upper part of the water column during periods of volcanic quiescence in the ~2.7 Ga Abitibi greenstone belt supporting the existence of oxidized oases within the Archean ocean.

34	Introduction
35	It is widely accepted that the Archean atmosphere contained little or no oxygen (Farquhar et al.,
36	2011), with multiple S isotope data constraining the level of oxygen in the Archean atmosphere to less
37	than 10 ⁻⁵ PAL (e.g., Farquhar et al., 2000, 2001; Pavlov and Kasting, 2002). At the same time, multiple
38	studies using trace element and stable isotope data indicate the presence of low oxygen levels, locally or
39	episodically in the Archean ocean (e.g., Anbar et al., 2007; Kaufman et al., 2007; Reinhard et al., 2009;
40	Riding et al., 2014; Fralick and Riding, 2015), in highly productive areas of continental margins (e.g.,
41	Olson et al., 2013; Planavsky et al., 2014), or in continental settings in association with microbial mats
42	(e.g., Lalonde and Konhauser, 2014). The current view of Archean surface redox conditions is that the
43	anoxic atmosphere was in disequilibrium with locally and/or episodically oxidized continental and
44	nearshore oceanic settings (e.g., Lyons et al., 2014). The extent of these oxidized oases, however,
45	remains uncertain and is still debated (e.g., Lalonde and Konhauser, 2014).
46	Evidence in support of locally developed oxidizing environments includes Mn enrichment in
47	Archean sedimentary rocks (Maynard, 2014). Mn enrichment occurs under most modern and
48	Phanerozoic marine redox conditions due to the precipitation of Mn-oxyhydroxides, and their
49	formation, even though bacterially mediated, requires presence of at least low levels of oxygen. As such,
50	sedimentary Mn deposits and Mn enrichments in sediments are rare in the Archean sedimentary record
51	(Maynard, 2014).
52	As previously suggested (Rouxel et al., 2005; von Blanckenburg et al., 2008; Steinhoefel et al.,
53	2009; Tsikos et al., 2010; Planavsky et al., 2012; Busigny et al., 2014; Kurzweil et al., 2016), anoxygenic
54	phototrophic oxidation could have established significant water column Fe concentration gradients –
55	and therefore Fe isotope trends – through ferric Fe removal during upwelling. However, several cases of
56	Archean and early Paleoproterozoic Mn-rich iron formations with highly negative Fe isotope values have

57 been documented recently (e.g., Rouxel et al., 2005; Tsikos et al., 2010; Planavsky et al., 2012; Haugaard

et al., 2016; Mendes et al., 2016; Lantink et al., 2018), potentially indicating an extreme degree of Fe
depletion in an expanding hydrothermal plume in association with precipitation of iron oxyhydroxides
and, ultimately, Mn oxidation. Recently, Ossa Ossa et al. (2016) found Mn to be present in carbonates,
orthosilicates, oxides, phyllosilicates, and pyrite in Mn-rich shales and BIFs of the Mesoarchean Mozaan
Group within the Pongola Supergroup in South Africa. However, it still remains unknown whether these
rare occurrences of Mn-enrichment reflect short-lived periods of atmospheric oxygenation or localized
marine oxygen oases.

65 The Hart deposit within the Abitibi greenstone belt is a komatiite-associated Ni-Cu-(PGE) magmatic sulfide deposit that has derived much of the sulfur from the underlying metasedimentary 66 rocks (Hiebert et al., 2016). The predominant sulfur source rock has been considered to be sulfur-rich 67 iron formation (Houlé et al., 2010b), but locally it is significantly more silica-rich, and iron oxide-poor, 68 than the typical iron formation leading to it being referred to as a lean iron formation. This unit also 69 70 contains zones of significant sulfide accumulation as pyrrhotite- and pyrite-rich bands and lenses. 71 Although this unit is regionally interpreted as a true iron formation, the prevalence of silica-rich, and iron oxide-poor, assemblage, as well as the abundance of sulfides in the vicinity of the Hart deposit 72 73 suggests that some environmental, depositional, or chemical conditions were different than elsewhere along strike. Additionally, Bekker et al. (2010) argued that true iron formation should not contain 74 75 significant concentrations of sulfides, and that rocks previously classified as "sulfide-facies iron 76 formations" may be actually sulfide-rich shales or barren sulfide (e.g., lacking base-metal mineralization) 77 exhalative deposits formed from hydrothermal fluids either distally from the vent or under low-78 temperature conditions.

In the Abitibi greenstone belt, periods of widespread sedimentation have been shown to
 represent long-lived hiatuses in the rapid accumulation of volcanic rocks, during which siliciclastic and
 chemical sedimentary rocks slowly accumulated (Thurston et al., 2008). These sedimentary rocks thus

82 provide an insight into seawater composition and redox conditions as well as marine processes at the 83 time of magmatic quiescence in the Archean ocean. In this study, we seek to constrain the depositional environment and diagenetic history of the exhalite and graphitic argillite lithologies within the Hart area 84 85 of the Shaw Dome in the Abitibi greenstone belt through the comparison with two end-member 86 processes. As iron formations are thought to be related to hydrothermal activity (Isley, 1995; Beukes 87 and Gutzmer, 2008; Bekker et al., 2010), purely hydrothermal deposition of exhalative chert, iron oxides, and sulfides is considered as one end-member. The second end-member would be precipitation from 88 ambient seawater directly unrelated to hydrothermal processes and may or may not be aided by 89 90 biological activity (e.g., Li et al., 2015). We evaluate these two possible end-members using petrographic 91 analysis of the sedimentary unit as well trace element and rare-earth element (REE) geochemistry to 92 determine the chemical nature of the water column, along with multiple isotopes of sulfur and iron to determine the sources of these elements in the Fe-oxides and Fe-sulfides present in the sedimentary 93 94 rocks. Additionally, we address the possibility that the chert exhalites and graphitic argillites were 95 deposited during volcanic quiescence in the ca. 2.7 Ga Abitibi greenstone belt within a localized, marine oxidized oasis by studying geochemical proxies that constrain atmospheric and local marine redox 96 97 conditions.

98

Geological Setting

99 The volcano-sedimentary succession of the Late Archean Abitibi greenstone belt has been 100 previously subdivided into 9 volcanic and sedimentary episodes, in which long-lived hiatuses in the rapid 101 emplacement of volcanic rocks are represented by slowly accumulated sedimentary deposits (Thurston 102 et al., 2008; Houlé and Lesher, 2011; Thurston et al., 2012). Conventionally, the Abitibi greenstone belt 103 has been interpreted to have been developed autochthonously, with the volcanic sequences tectonically 104 stacked upon each other, with only the younger Temiskaming and Porcupine sequences deposited in 105 transtensional, pull-apart basins (e.g. Thurston and Chivers, 1990). Recently, however, it has been

106	suggested that the volcanic rocks of the Abitibi greenstone belt were formed within a rift environment
107	in which feeder dykes of the younger volcanic units crosscut older units, indicating autochtonous
108	position (Ayer et al., 2002; Ayer et al., 2005; Ketchum et al., 2008; Thurston et al., 2008). Importantly,
109	younger volcanic rocks contain zircon xenocrysts derived from older volcanic rocks suggesting that the
110	volcanic sequences developed on top of each other (Ayer et al., 2002; Ayer et al., 2005; Thurston et al.,
111	2008). In the Shaw Dome, the volcano-sedimentary succession is composed of the following units
112	(Figure 1; Thurston et al., 2008; Houlé and Lesher, 2011; Thurston et al., 2012):
113	1) massive and pillowed, intermediate volcanic rocks and thin, but laterally extensive, iron
114	formations of the 2734–2724 Ma volcanic sequence (Deloro);
115	2) felsic to intermediate, volcaniclastic rocks intercalated with komatiitic dikes, sills, lavas, and
116	less extensive iron formations in the lower part of the 2710 – 2704 Ma volcanic sequence
117	(lower Tisdale);
118	3) intercalated, tholeiitic, mafic, and komatiitic volcanic rocks of the middle part of the 2710 –
119	2704 Ma volcanic sequence (middle Tisdale); and
120	4) calc-alkaline, felsic to intermediate volcanic rocks in the upper part of the 2710–2704 Ma
121	volcanic sequence (upper Tisdale; Houlé et al., 2010a, b; Houlé and Lesher, 2011).
122	Felsic to intermediate, volcanic and sedimentary rocks of the lower Tisdale sequence, overlain
123	by komatiitic and basaltic lava flows of the middle Tisdale sequence outcrop in the Hart area. At the
124	base of the middle Tisdale volcanic package, komatiitic lava flows have thermomechanically eroded a
125	wide (>200 m) channel into its footwall rocks, which are dominantly composed of felsic to intermediate,
126	volcanic and volcaniclastic rocks with lesser amounts of chert, graphitic argillite, and minor iron
127	formation of the regional lower Tisdale volcanic package (Figure 2; Houlé et al., 2010b). The chert and
128	graphitic argillite appear to be interbedded on a meter-scale at and stratigraphically below the channel

in drill cores. For simplicity, the prefix meta- will be omitted in the following description, but all rocks in

the study area have been metamorphosed under lower to upper greenschist facies conditions

131 (Thompson, 2005).

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132 Description of Sedimentary Lithologies in the Hart Area

133 Regionally, the exhalite unit is generally continuous on the scale of several kilometers, and has been mapped and classified as iron formation, although in many locations it is described as a lean or 134 chert-rich iron formation (Houlé et al., 2010b). However, based on the predominance of chert and silica-135 136 rich lithologies in the vicinity of the Hart deposit, it has been reclassified as a distal exhalite by Hiebert et 137 al. (2016; Figure 3a), since it is interpreted to have largely been formed through an exhalative process 138 (cf. Ridler, 1971). The exhalite unit typically contains thin laminae of Fe-oxides or sulfides (Figures 3b, c; e.g., sample H11-16-411.4; 86.2% SiO₂, 10.9% Fe₂O₃), but lacks any other sedimentary structures. 139 140 Locally, the chert or silica-rich lithologies grade into typical banded iron formation (e.g., sample H11-141 13C-387.2; 41.73% SiO₂, 37.44% Fe₂O₃) or massive sulfide composed of pyrrhotite and pyrite, but these sulfidic lithologies are thought to extend for only a few tens of meters, and cannot be traced between 142 143 drill holes and outcrops. The sulfides within the exhalite typically contain fine-grained pyrrhotite (0.1 -0.2 mm in size) that appears to have been locally replaced by pyrite (0.25 - 0.6 mm in size), which still 144 145 contains inclusions of pyrrhotite (Figure 3d). The sulfides form lenses or are found to be replacing Feoxide laminae. The unit also contains minor silicates, such as actinolite and chlorite as replacement 146 147 minerals, and calcite as a replacement mineral and, possibly, as cement. 148 The graphitic argillite is only observed in the drill core in the eastern part of the Hart property. 149 Based on visual estimates with optical microscope and geochemical data, it is composed of 35 – 50%

by volume (TS content is up to 47.4 wt.% with the average of 28.0 wt.%), with variable amounts of

graphite by volume (TOC content is up to 17.6 wt.% with the average of 8.5 wt.%) and 10 – 40% sulfide

152 metamorphic chlorite, epidote, actinolite, and quartz (10 – 60 wt.% SiO₂; Figures 4a, b). Sulfide in the

graphitic argillite takes two forms, large (1 – 1.5 cm in diameter) pyrite nodules and bands (Figure 4c), or
 finely disseminated pyrite (<0.1 mm in diameter; Figure 4d).

Multiple S and Fe Isotope Background
 The majority of earlier research attempted to characterize the processes producing the sulfides
 in sedimentary rocks using δ³⁴S values, but the range of sulfur isotope values recorded in Archean
 supracrustal rocks is much smaller than that in Phanerozoic examples, commonly resulting in near-to mantle δ³⁴S values (Ripley, 1999). This can lead to a difficulty in identifying the processes responsible for
 the origin of these sedimentary sulfides. The values of δ³⁴S are expressed in parts per thousand (‰ or
 per mil), and are defined as:

 $\delta^{34}S = 1000 * (\frac{\frac{^{34}S}{^{32}S} \text{ sample}}{\frac{^{34}S}{^{32}S} V - CDT} - 1)$

where V-CDT is a reference scale defined by the isotopic composition of IAEA-S-1, a sulfur reference material distributed by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA, Vienna), and calibrated to have $\delta^{34}S_{IAEA-S-1} \equiv -0.3\%$ based on the historical Canõn Diablo Troilite reference material (Coplen and Krouse, 165 1998). A similar formula is used to calculate $\delta^{56}Fe$, with masses 56 and 54 forming the ratio and IRMM-164 14 used as the reference standard (see recent review by Dauphas et al., 2017).

167 Under oxygenated Earth's surface conditions, sulfur isotope fractionation is controlled strictly by 168 relative isotope mass differences and, therefore, is a completely mass-dependent process. However, as 169 a result of photochemical reactions in the Archean anoxic atmosphere, atmospherically processed 170 Archean sulfur exhibits widespread mass-independent fractionation that can be characterized by the 171 difference between the δ^{33} S value expected from normal mass-dependent fractionation and the 172 measured δ^{33} S value (Farquhar and Wing, 2003). It can be calculated using measured δ^{33} S and δ^{34} S 173 values (in per mil) as:

174
$$\Delta^{33}S = \delta^{33}S - \left[\left(\frac{\delta^{34}S}{1000} + 1 \right)^{\lambda_{RFL}} - 1 \right] \times 1000$$

where the λ_{RFL} has been defined as the slope of the reference fractionation line for ³³S and ³⁴S isotopes equal to 0.515.

Photochemically fractionated sulfur can then be delivered to seawater and ultimately 177 sediments. Two isotopically distinct sulfur pools were formed by the photochemical reactions in the 178 Archean atmosphere: 1) a reduced pool with positive Δ^{33} S and δ^{34} S values, and 2) an oxidized pool with 179 negative Δ^{33} S and δ^{34} S values (e.g., Farquhar et al., 2002; Ono et al., 2003; Figure 5). The reduced pool is 180 inferred to have been delivered to the Archean ocean as either elemental sulfur (S⁰) aerosols or sulfide 181 (S²⁻), which then reacted with Fe²⁺ dissolved in the anoxic seawater and precipitated as disseminated Fe-182 sulfide in sediments (Ono et al., 2009; Maynard et al., 2013; Marin-Carbonne et al., 2014). The oxidized 183 184 sulfur pool, delivered from the atmosphere as sulfate aerosols, is thought to have been either reduced 185 by bacterial metabolism and incorporated into paleosols on the continents (Maynard et al., 2013), or added to seawater as dissolved sulfate (Farquhar et al., 2002). Once delivered to seawater, sulfate was 186 either reduced via bacterial sulfate-reducing metabolism to form eventually pyrite nodules in organic 187 188 matter-rich sediments during diagenesis, or cycled through submarine hydrothermal systems. Under 189 hydrothermal conditions, seawater sulfate is first precipitated as Ca-sulfate (anhydrite), with a 190 remaining fraction becoming eventually reduced at high temperature and vented at the seafloor as H₂S-191 rich hydrothermal fluids forming barren massive sulfide lenses distally and base-metal volcanogenic 192 massive sulfide deposits proximally to hydrothermal centers (e.g., Bekker et al. 2009; Jamieson et al., 2013). A significant fraction of anhydrite is redissolved as aging and cooling oceanic crust is transported 193 194 away from spreading mid-ocean ridges (Alt, 1995).

195 Once in aqueous phase either on the land or in the ocean, the near-to-zero to negative δ^{34} S 196 values of SO₂-derived sulfate could have been further modified by mass-dependent processes; for 197 example, by bacterial or thermochemical seawater sulfate reduction, resulting in nodules or layers of

198	sulfides in sediments with variable $\delta^{^{34}}$ S values, but with consistently negative $\Delta^{^{33}}$ S values (Ono et al.,
199	2003, 2009; Bekker et al., 2009; Marin-Carbonne et al., 2014). Unlike in modern oceans, however,
200	Archean seawater had relatively high iron content, but low sulfate concentrations, less than 80-200
201	μ mol L ⁻¹ (Habicht et al., 2002; Jamieson et al., 2013), which resulted in small sulfur isotopic
202	fractionations during bacterial sulfate reduction in a closed to semi-closed pore-water system due to
203	much faster sulfate reduction with respect to sulfur transport rates (Brunner and Bernasconi, 2005;
204	Detmers et al., 2001). As a result of nearly complete reduction of seawater sulfate in anoxic, organic
205	matter-rich sediments, Archean pyrite does not exhibit the large variations in $\delta^{34}S$ values seen in
206	modern marine sediments.
207	Iron isotope fractionation is thought to be dominantly controlled by redox reactions. Igneous
208	rocks typically have δ^{56} Fe values of ~0.1‰ (e.g., Beard et al., 2003; see also recent review by Dauphas et
209	al., 2017), but redox reactions under surface conditions, as recorded by sedimentary rocks with
210	significant authigenic Fe enrichment (e.g., iron formations and black shales), tend to fractionate Fe in
211	oxidized Fe-mineral species towards positive δ^{56} Fe values (e.g., Planavsky et al., 2012), and in reduced
212	Fe-mineral species towards negative δ^{56} Fe values (e.g., Rouxel et al., 2005). During oxidative
213	precipitation from fluids containing dissolved Fe ²⁺ , redox reactions will preferentially remove the heavier
214	isotopes of Fe with oxidized phases resulting in residual iron in the fluid having a lower δ^{56} Fe value. For
215	example, precipitation of magnetite corresponds to a fractionation factor Δ^{56} Fe _{Fe(II)aq-magnetite} ~-1.3‰
216	(Johnson et al., 2005), while precipitation of goethite and ferrihydrite (HFO) results in Δ^{56} Fe _{Fe(II)aq-goethite} ~-
217	1‰ (Beard et al., 2010) and Δ^{56} Fe _{Fe(II)aq-HFO} ~-3.2‰, respectively (Wu et al., 2011). The "reservoir" effects
218	during partial Fe ²⁺ oxidation have been well demonstrated in biotic and abiotic experimental studies
219	(e.g., Balci et al., 2006; Croal et al., 2004) and in modern redox-stratified aqueous environments (Busigny
220	et al., 2014; Rouxel et al., 2008, 2017). Dissimilatory Fe ³⁺ reduction (DIR), which is known to produce
221	isotopically light Fe in diagenetic environments (Crosby et al., 2007; Tangalos et al., 2010; Percak-

222 Dennett et al., 2011), may also produce a Fe²⁺pool with negative δ^{56} Fe values. A clear distinction between these two mechanisms (i.e., partial Fe^{2+} oxidation versus partial Fe^{2+} reduction) as the source of 223 isotopically light Fe²⁺ has been generally difficult to draw, even in modern marine or diagenetic 224 225 environments (Severmann et al., 2008; Chever et al., 2015). Both low and high-temperature alteration of oceanic crust by seawater leads to the preferential release of more soluble Fe²⁺, resulting in seafloor 226 hydrothermal fluids having δ^{56} Fe ≤ 0 % (Rouxel et al., 2003; Rouxel et al., 2008). As pyrite is often 227 precipitated through a mackinawite (FeS_{0.9}) precursor, it preferentially incorporates the lighter isotopes 228 of Fe, resulting in δ^{56} Fe values of the sulfide to be 0.3 to 0.9‰ lower than residual dissolved Fe²⁺ (Butler 229 et al., 2005; Guilbaud et al., 2011). Further (i.e., partial) conversion to pyrite might also result in 230 additional fractionation, resulting in final values of δ^{56} Fe that are 1.7 to 3.0% lower than the initial 231 dissolved Fe²⁺. Therefore, Fe delivered to the oceans by hydrothermal fluids, and any Fe-sulfides 232 precipitated from these fluids, typically have slightly negative δ^{56} Fe values, although heavier values of 233 234 the hydrothermal Fe flux are expected in the case of extensive Fe-sulfide precipitation in hydrothermal 235 plume environments (Bennett et al., 2009; Rouxel et al., 2016; Lough et al., 2017). There are several notable exceptions of Fe-oxide iron formations of Archean and Paleoproterozoic age with negative Fe 236 isotope values that are typically Mn-enriched and largely deposited in shallow-water settings (e.g., 237 238 Rouxel et al., 2005; Tsikos et al., 2010; Planavsky et al., 2012; Haugaard et al., 2016; Mendes et al., 2016; 239 Lantink et al., 2018). Their iron isotope values are considered to be the result of reservoir effects (e.g. 240 Rayleigh distillation) associated with the earlier removal of Fe-oxides and oxyhydroxides resulting in negative δ^{56} Fe values of the residual Fe in the spreading hydrothermal plume distally from the 241 hydrothermal vents (Planavsky et al., 2012). 242

Material Analyzed and Analytical Methods

244 Sampling Methodology

245	All samples (n=27) for this project were selected from drill cores and surfa	ce trenches produced
246	by Northern Sun Mining Corp. (Table 1). Sampling of drill cores and surface trench	es was conducted to
247	obtain a wide range of lithologies from the exhalite and graphitic argillite units.	

248 Major and Trace Element Geochemistry

249 Samples were analyzed for major, trace, and rare-earth elements in two laboratories: The 250 Ontario Geological Survey Geoscience Laboratories (Geo Labs; Sudbury, Ontario) and the Acme 251 Laboratories (Acme Labs; Vancouver, British Columbia). All the materials were crushed at the Stable 252 Isotopes for Innovative Research (SIFIR) laboratory at the University of Manitoba to a fine powder (200 253 mesh) using an agate puck mill before the pulps were sent to these laboratories for geochemical 254 analysis. At Geo Labs, major elements were determined by mixing sample powder with a borate flux and 255 heating to create a glass bead, which was analyzed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF), and trace, including 256 rare-earth, elements were measured on an inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) 257 after digestion in a closed vessel using multi-acid technique. At Acme Labs, samples were prepared via a 258 lithium borate fusion and were analyzed for major elements by ICP-ES, and for trace elements by ICP-MS. In both labs, total C and S were determined by oxidation through combustion of the sample in an 259 260 oxygen-rich environment and detection of CO_2 and SO_2 by infrared absorption (LECO elemental 261 analyzer). Both labs use duplicate analyses of samples and certified reference materials to confirm the 262 precision and accuracy of data.

263 Bulk Rock S Isotope Analysis

264 Samples were prepared using the same analytical protocol as that of Hiebert et al. (2015), and 265 analyzed at the Stable Isotope Laboratory of the Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, McGill

- 266 University. The sulfur isotope compositions are reported on the V-CDT scale, and the Δ^{33} S value of
- 267 reference material IAEA-S-1 is taken to be 0.094‰ based on repeated analysis of the standard at this
- 268 facility. Repeat analyses throughout the entire analytical procedure returned 2σ uncertainties on δ^{34} S
- and Δ^{33} S values that are <0.25 and <0.01‰, respectively.

270 Fe Isotope Analysis

- 271 Aliquots of sample powders were dissolved for Fe isotope analysis using the same method as
- described in Rouxel et al. (2005) and Hiebert et al. (2015) at the Pôle Spectrométrie Océan, IFREMER
- 273 (Brest, France). Internal precision of data was determined through duplicate analysis of internal
- 274 reference standards IF-G (iron formation), BHVO-1 (Hawaiian Island basalt), and DTS-1 (Cr-rich
- 275 ultramafic rock), and the long-term external reproducibility is 0.08% for δ^{56} Fe values (2 σ). Fe isotope
- values are reported relative to the standard IRMM-14, using the conventional delta notation (Table 1).

277 Microbeam Analysis

- Two samples were selected for analysis on a Cameca SX100 electron microprobe at the University of Manitoba. These samples (H11-13C-387.2 and H11-08-63.9) were analyzed using energy dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDS) to determine the mineral(s) that host Mn in exhalite.
- 281

Results

282 Major and Trace Element Geochemistry

Major element variations generally reflect the lithology and dominant mineralogy, with chertrich and iron oxide-rich varieties having high SiO₂ and Fe₂O₃ contents (Table 1). Some samples have compositions controlled by the abundance of pyrrhotite and pyrite, with high Fe₂O₃ and SO₂, but low SiO₂. In general, low concentrations of TiO₂ and Al₂O₃ are found in all samples of exhalite, with the exception of high Al₂O₃ (17.01 wt.%) found in a sample of silicate-rich iron formation with high sulfide content. Notably, all exhalite samples are enriched in MnO above the crustal levels of ~0.1 wt. %

289 (Rudnick and Gao, 2014) with values as high as 1.87 wt.%. Graphitic argillite samples have extremely 290 variable compositions depending on the abundance of graphite, pyrite, and silicate minerals. 291 Several trace element concentrations, and rare earth element patterns and anomalies in 292 chemical sediments, including cherts and iron formations, have been used to describe the composition 293 and redox state of the ancient water column in recent publications (e.g., Bolhar et al., 2004; Barrie, 294 2005; Kato et al., 2006; Frei et al., 2008; Bekker et al., 2013; Planavsky et al., 2010; Thurston et al., 295 2012). Graphitic argillite samples from the Hart area typically have low, but variable, Zn concentration, 296 with the range of values from 3 to 734 ppm. Mo concentrations of 0.3 to 10.9 ppm are also comparable 297 to data for shales of similar age (Scott et al., 2008). Importantly, almost all samples have Mo 298 concentrations above average crustal levels of 1 to 2 ppm and 0.07 ppm/wt.%, respectively (Rudnick and 299 Gao, 2014). In addition, concentrations of U are also very low compared to crustal average: 0.03 to 0.77 300 ppm (with the average of 0.22 ppm) for exhalite, and 0.36 to 0.59 ppm (with the average of 0.47 ppm) 301 for graphitic argillite, which is below various estimates for average crustal levels of 1.5 to 2.8 ppm (see 302 Rudnick and Gao, 2014).

303 The abundances of rare earth elements have been normalized to the Post-Archean average 304 Australian Shale (PAAS) as it is the most commonly used reference for normalizing similar lithologies, 305 allowing for easy comparison to previous work (Figure 6; refer to Table 3 for data and formulas used to 306 calculate anomalies). The exhalite has generally positive anomalies for Eu and Y (Figure 6b). A significant 307 positive Eu anomaly (Eu/Eu*; see Table 3 for method of calculation of REE anomalies), ranging from 1.2 308 to 8.1, is found in all exhalite samples. Exhalite samples have a wide range of Ce anomalies, both 309 positive and negative, with values ranging from 0.41 to 1.30, with positive Ce anomalies not created as 310 an artifact of a positive La anomaly influencing the calculation (Figure 6a; Table 3). Values for Y/Ho ratio 311 have a wide range from 32.6 to 70.0, but are generally superchondritic, similar to those found in 312 seawater (Bolhar et al., 2004). The rare earth element (REE) patterns also show a general heavy-REE

- 313 (HREE; Figure 6b) enrichment as indicated by normalized Pr/Yb and Gd/Yb ratios ranging from 0.12 to
- 0.99 and 0.51 to 1.76, respectively, similar to modern hydrogenous chemical sediments (Table 1; Bau,
- 315 1999).
- 316 The graphitic argillites lack significant anomalies for Ce and Y, but have positive Eu anomalies
- 317 (1.28 to 2.55; see Figure 7). Values for Y/Ho have a narrow range from 27.3 to 29.0 and are lower than
- those for modern seawater and close to those of chondrites (~26), indicating limited uptake of REE from
- 319 seawater. The rare earth element (REE) data for graphitic argillites also shows a predominantly flat
- 320 pattern (Figure 7b), with only weak HREE enrichment as shown by normalized Pr/Yb and Gd/Yb values
- ranging from 0.92 to 1.09 and 0.61 to 0.78, respectively (Table 3).
- 322 Petrography and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

High Mn concentrations within the exhalite unit were further investigated to determine the mineral host of Mn. The EDS analyses of exhalite samples found that Mn was hosted predominantly in carbonates, chlorite, and actinolite (Figure 8). No significant Mn enrichment was observed in sulfides and oxides. The presence of Mn in carbonates and metamorphic silicates, without significant enrichments in sulfides and oxides, suggests that Mn was not likely to have been hosted in the oxyhydroxides during early diagenesis, but may have been adsorbed to the surface of clay minerals and later incorporated into diagenetic carbonates.

330 Stable Isotopes

Sulfur isotope data have been used as a tracer of biological activity in modern and ancient aqueous environments, and, in the case of Archean rocks, also contain a record of atmospheric reactions (e.g., Farquhar et al., 2000; Ono et al., 2003, 2009). On a plot of δ^{34} S against δ^{33} S values for sediments from the Hart area, the data forms a trend offset from, but generally parallel to the terrestrial fractionation line (TFL) that follows mass-dependent fractionation (Figure 9a). The offset from the TFL is

336	due to non-mass dependent fractionation in the Archean atmosphere (Farquhar et al., 2000), and the
337	magnitude and consistency of this offset is expressed on a plot of $\delta^{34}S$ against $\Delta^{33}S$, where values along
338	the TFL would plot with Δ^{33} S = 0‰ (Figure 9b).
339	Exhalite samples have a large range of δ^{34} S values, -11.4 to +7.6‰ (n=24), and an average value
340	of -2.1‰ (Figure 8b; Table 2). The Δ^{33} S values have a much smaller, and consistently negative, range
341	from -1.37 to -0.34‰, with an average value of -0.62‰.
342	Graphitic argillite samples have much more restricted range of δ^{34} S values than the exhalite,
343	with the range of +1.6 to +5.0‰ (n=3). This positive range, although overlapping with that of the
344	exhalite, has a positive average value of +3.4‰, significantly different from that of the exhalite. The Δ^{33} S
345	values of the graphitic argillite have a small, and consistently negative, range, similar to that of the
346	exhalite, -0.94 to -0.19‰, with an average value of -0.47‰ (Figure 9b). This suggests that sulfur in
347	sulfides in the graphitic argillite was likely derived from the same sulfate source as the exhalite sulfides.
348	The bulk-rock δ^{56} Fe values of both the exhalite and graphitic argillite are systematically negative.
349	The exhalite exhibits a range of -2.13 to -0.85‰ (n=18), with an average value of -1.69‰. The graphitic
350	argillite exhibits a range of -1.96 to -1.66‰ (n=3), with an average value of -1.82‰ (Figure 10).
351	Considering that co-existing Fe-bearing minerals in such samples may have distinctly different $\delta^{^{56}}$ Fe
352	values, it is important to relate bulk-rock δ^{56} Fe signature and mineralogy. For example, the various
353	proportions of isotopically light pyrite (or isotopically heavy Fe-oxides) and lithogenic components with
354	δ^{56} Fe = 0.09‰ may produce a significant range in bulk δ^{56} Fe values (e.g., Duan et al., 2010; Severmann
355	et al., 2008; Rouxel et al. 2016). As shown in Figure 11, there is no significant correlation between δ^{56} Fe
356	values and S concentration, suggesting that variations in δ^{56} Fe are not a result of mixing between
357	isotopically light pyrite and lithogenic components.

Discussion

359 Environmental Implications of Major and Trace Element Data

360	Generally low TiO_2 and Al_2O_3 concentrations in the exhalite unit indicate low detrital input (cf.
361	Slack et al., 2007), and, when plotted against each other (Figure 12a), show no apparent trend. Similarly,
362	Zr versus TiO ₂ plot shows no apparent trend (Figure 12b). The trends found within the graphitic argillite
363	data, however, show the expected pattern for detrital contribution to sediments (Figures 12a and b; cf.
364	Pecoits et al., 2009). When recalculated to elemental weight percent, ratios of Fe/Ti and Al/(Al+Fe+Mn)
365	can be used to show a continuum between the exhalite and graphitic argillite units, suggesting
366	precipitation from a mixture of hydrothermal fluids and seawater for exhalite, and some influence of
367	hydrothermal fluids on the predominantly detrital material in the graphitic argillite (Figure 12c; cf.
368	Bonatti et al., 1972; Böstrom et al., 1969; Böstrom, 1973; Pecoits et al., 2009).
369	The trace element concentrations and ratios, and rare-earth element anomalies in the Hart area
370	sediments provide insight into the composition and redox state of the water column at their
371	depositional site (e.g., Bolhar et al., 2004; Kato et al., 2006; Frei et al., 2008; Bekker et al., 2010;
372	Planavsky et al., 2010; Thurston et al., 2012). When compared to data for Precambrian shales (Robbins
373	et al., 2013; Scott et al., 2008; 2013), the low Zn and Mo concentrations in graphitic argillites from the
374	Hart area, and the ratio of Zn (ppm)/Al $_2O_3$ (wt.%) fall within the range of values compiled by Scott et al.
375	(2008, 2013) for organic-rich shales deposited in the anoxic Archean oceans.
376	Partin et al. (2013a, b) evaluated U concentrations and authigenic U enrichment ($U_{auth}=U - Th/3$)
377	in the Archean, prior to the rise of atmospheric oxygen, for both iron formations and black shales. In the
378	Archean iron formations, before the rise of atmospheric oxygen between ca. 2.45 and 2.32 Ga (e.g.,
379	Bekker et al., 2004; Gumsley et al., 2017), very low U concentrations and U _{auth} enrichments were found
380	(Partin et al., 2013a), and in the Hart exhalites U concentrations are comparable to the typical values
381	found in the similar Archean deposits (Barrie, 2005; Partin et al., 2013a). In the Archean black shales,

382 Partin et al. (2013b) found average U concentration and U_{auth} enrichment of 3.8 ppm and 0.9 ppm, 383 respectively. Graphitic argillites from the Hart area have U concentrations well below the average value 384 for the Archean shale (Partin et al., 2013b). Low, pre-GOE (Great Oxidation Event) levels are also observed in our samples for other trace elements such as Co (cf. Swanner et al., 2014), and Cr (cf. 385 386 Konhauser et al., 2011). Combined, this trace element dataset suggests deposition under a generally 387 anoxic water column, although the rapid precipitation of Fe in modern hydrothermal settings (e.g., in distal part of hydrothermal plume where seafloor microbial mats grow) would be also consistent with 388 389 such signatures (Rouxel et al., 2016, 2017). However, Mn concentrations in exhalite samples are 390 anomalously high for anoxic environments. The possible link between Mn enrichment and localized 391 oxygenated oases in the Archean ocean, proposed in previous studies (cf. Olson et al., 2013; Ossa Ossa 392 et al., 2016; Planavsky et al., 2014), is discussed in more detail below.

393 Positive La, Gd, and Y anomalies have been observed in the modern seawater and have been 394 explained by REE complexation on particle surfaces (e.g., Bolhar et al., 2004). The positive Eu anomalies 395 are common in Archean sediments, and have been interpreted to represent strong influence of high-396 temperature, hydrothermal, anoxic fluids on seawater composition during that time (e.g., Bau and 397 Dulski, 1996; Bolhar et al., 2004; Slack et al., 2007; Bekker et al., 2010, 2014; Planavsky et al., 2010). By 398 analogy, positive Eu anomalies of the Hart area exhalite indicate influence of hydrothermal fluids on 399 seawater composition at the depositional site and, potentially, relative proximity to high-temperature 400 hydrothermal vents. The rare-earth element (REE) patterns of the Hart area exhalites also show a 401 general heavy-REE (HREE; Figure 6b) enrichment as indicated by normalized Pr/Yb and Gd/Yb values 402 ranging from 0.27 to 0.99 and 0.51 to 1.76, respectively (Table 3). These Pr/Yb values overlap with 403 higher values within the range reported for Abitibi BIFs by Thurston et al. (2012), which were 404 interpreted to characterize BIFs formed in shallower water than those with lower Pr/Yb ratios (Kamber,

405	2010; Thurston et al., 2012). Combined, these REE characteristics of the Hart area exhalites record
406	seawater composition dominated by high-temperature hydrothermal flux.
407	In modern environments, negative Ce anomalies are generated under oxidizing conditions in
408	river waters and seawater, but are dominantly produced by Ce scavenging onto Fe-Mn nodules and
409	crusts in deep, oxygenated ocean waters (Bau and Dulski, 1996; Bau, 1999; Slack et al., 2007). As the
410	deep seawater was unlikely to have been oxygenated during the Archean, fractionation may have
411	occurred locally in environments where REE were scavenged by Fe-Mn particles. The presence of small,
412	true positive and negative Ce anomalies in the exhalite samples could suggest redox cycling of REE
413	coupled to formation and dissolution of Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides. Following the model of German et al.
414	(1991) and Slack et al. (2007), Fe-Mn-rich particles generated in local, shallow oxidized environments
415	(and producing negative Ce anomalies in the upper part of the water column) would have been
416	dissolved below the redoxcline in deeper waters, returning the Ce back to the seawater and erasing any
417	negative Ce anomaly, or even producing a positive Ce anomaly. Whether a similar mechanism could
418	operate in hydrothermal plume-influenced environments remains, however, poorly constrained.
419	The near-chondritic values of Y/Ho for the graphitic argillite are lower than those for the
420	modern seawater and the Hart area exhalites, suggesting that their REE composition is dominated by a
421	detrital signal. Positive Eu anomalies however suggest that significant hydrothermal flux continued
422	during deposition of the graphitic argillite.

423 Formation of the Graphitic Argillite Unit

The negative δ^{56} Fe values in the graphitic argillite unit are surprising considering the high abundance of detrital/lithogenic material. As mentioned above, the lack of correlation between S and δ^{56} Fe values suggests that the range of δ^{56} Fe values is not solely explained by the contribution of isotopically light Fe-sulfides (i.e., mixing between lithogenic and sulfide components). This likely implies that the Fe incorporated into sulfides and other authigenic (including silicate minerals) phases was

429	derived from water masses with isotopically light Fe as is also envisioned for the exhalite deposits except
430	that there was stronger influence of hydrothermal plumes on water masses from which Fe-
431	oxyhydroxides precipitated to form the exhalite. The abundance of carbon in graphitic argillite unit
432	suggests deposition in an area of high organic productivity, possibly in a zone of upwelling from deeper
433	part of the ocean basin. Low P concentrations, which are lower than expected for modern sediments
434	deposited in areas of high biological productivity, are common to Archean organic matter-rich shales
435	(e.g., Reinhard et al., 2017), suggesting that upwelling zones before the GOE did not receive large
436	amounts of P from deep oceans (Bjerrum and Canfield, 2002).
437	Formation of the Exhalite Unit
438	The exhalite unit in the Hart area has many characteristics that distinguish it from typical iron
439	formation. The chert-rich nature with generally low Fe-oxide abundances and abnormally high sulfide
440	and manganese contents suggest that the processes involved in the genesis of the exhalite unit may also
441	differ from those for typical iron formations.
442	As described by Klein (2005), Beukes and Gutzmer (2008), and Bekker et al. (2010), the general
443	model for the genesis of iron formation can be summarized as follows:
ДДД	 Dissolution of Fe from the oceanic crust by hydrothermal fluids and its delivery to the
445	oceans.
446	Precipitation of Fe-oxyhydroxides, following oxidation of Fe indirectly by oxygenic
447	photosynthesis or directly by anoxygenic photosynthesis, siderite, or Fe-rich clays from
117	ambient waters
440	
449	 Development of chert hardgrounds via infilling of pores or sediment replacement during
450	early diagenesis at the sediment-water interface when delivery of iron and deposition of
451	iron compounds slowed or stopped.

This sequence of events typically produced a combination of geochemical characteristics in iron formations such as: high Y/Ho ratio and positive Eu anomaly, which reflect transport and precipitation from aqueous solutions with a strong hydrothermal input (Bolhar et al., 2004), slight HREE enrichment (Bolhar et al., 2004; Planavsky et al., 2010), and positive δ^{56} Fe values reflecting oxidation of Fe prior to deposition (Rouxel et al., 2005; Bekker et al., 2010; Planavsky et al., 2012). Iron formations should also have little to no synsedimentary sulfide present since iron formations reflect ferruginous rather than euxinic water column conditions (Bekker et al., 2010).

The geochemistry and petrography of the exhalite unit in the Hart area suggests a somewhat 459 different genesis. The negative, and highly variable, δ^{56} Fe values from all samples, including those that 460 resemble typical iron formation, are more commonly associated with sulfides from Archean organic 461 matter-rich sediments or carbonate-facies iron formations than oxide-facies iron formations (e.g., 462 Dauphas et al., 2017). Previous studies of Fe isotope fractionation have shown that precipitation of Fe-463 464 sulfides from Fe²⁺ dissolved in an aqueous solution produces fractionations between -0.3 and -0.9‰ in 465 the temperature range of 2 to 40°C (Butler et al., 2005). Under hydrothermal conditions, nonequilibrium Fe isotope fractionation between pyrite in hydrothermal chimneys or Fe-sulfides in buoyant 466 hydrothermal plume and hydrothermal fluid has been found to be about -0.9‰ (Rouxel et al., 2008; 467 Bennett et al., 2009; Rouxel et al., 2016). This suggests that the observed δ^{56} Fe values of -2.0‰ in 468 469 graphitic argillite and -2.1‰ in exhalite were formed as a result of an additional pathway to decrease 470 the δ^{56} Fe value of the water prior to precipitation of Fe-oxides in the exhalite unit, and are unlikely to 471 have been formed just by equilibrium or kinetic isotope fractionation during mineral precipitation in an open aqueous system. Two mechanisms have been proposed to produce isotopically light Fe²⁺ in 472 473 solution, which could be recorded by Archean sedimentary rocks: 1) dissimilatory iron reduction in pore 474 waters by bacteria (Yamaguchi et al., 2005; Archer and Vance, 2006; Heinman et al., 2010), and 2) 475 reservoir effect resulting in Rayleigh-type fractionation due to the early precipitation of isotopically

476 heavy Fe-oxides (Rouxel et al., 2005; Planavsky et al., 2012). A similar model based on Rayleigh
477 fractionation of Si isotopes was proposed by van den Boorn et al. (2010) to explain isotopic patterns in
478 some Archean cherts.

On a plot of Mn/Fe versus δ^{56} Fe (Figure 13), no significant correlation is observed within the 479 480 Hart data alone. However, when plotted with data from other Archean and early Paleoproterozoic iron 481 formations (e.g., Tsikos et al., 2010; Planavsky et al., 2012, 2014), the exhalite data fits to a general pattern with Mn-enriched samples (Mn/Fe > 0.01) having essentially negative δ^{56} Fe values, and Mn-482 depleted samples (Mn/Fe < 0.001) having positive δ^{56} Fe values. The apparent dichotomy in δ^{56} Fe values 483 484 between Mn-enriched and Mn-depleted samples is observed throughout several Archean to Paleoproterozoic units and is also observed in modern seafloor hydrothermal deposits (Rouxel et al., 485 2017). Although mechanisms for separation of Mn and Fe and for Fe isotope fractionation could have 486 differed between pre-GOE and post-GOE deposits, the observed relationships between Mn/Fe and δ^{56} Fe 487 488 values might be attributed to the increasing oxidation potential of the water column, leading to 489 significant oxidation of Fe first and then Mn. An increase in oxidation potential could explain why Mn/Fe ratios negatively correlate with δ^{56} Fe values, which might reflect extensive precipitation of isotopically 490 491 heavy Fe-oxides in less oxidized settings. This process has been invoked for modern Fe-rich 492 hydrothermal systems associated with volcanic seamounts such as Loihi (Rouxel et al., 2017). Additionally, although Eu anomalies are relatively large, the observed Eu anomalies in the Hart area are 493 lower than the highest values recorded for BIFs and cherts from the Abitibi greenstone belt (as high as 494 495 31 in Thurston et al., 2012). As these Eu anomalies are generally attributed to the influence of 496 hydrothermal input (e.g., Bolhar et al., 2004), the exhalite in the Hart area likely formed distally from the 497 hydrothermal source relative to some of the BIFs sampled by Thurston et al. (2012). 498 Applying this model to the Hart deposit exhalite unit (Figure 14) would suggest that both Fe-499 oxides and Fe-sulfides formed in distal hydrothermal plume environments, after significant iron

500 depletion from solution. Precipitation of a relatively small amount of Fe-rich minerals with highly 501 negative Fe isotope values, along with deposition of a small amount of clay minerals enriched in Mn-502 oxyhydroxides and Mn-oxides that were later reacted with organic matter to form Mn-carbonates, was followed by formation of chert hardgrounds developed in pores at or below the sediment-water 503 504 interface and as a replacement of sediments. The observed positive anomalies for La, Gd, and high Y/Ho 505 ratios all suggest precipitation from seawater, whereas both positive and negative Ce anomalies, 506 pronounced positive Eu anomaly, high Fe/Ti, and low Al/(Al+Fe+Mn) ratios together suggest variable redox conditions in a deep-water setting straddling the redoxcline with strong hydrothermal input at the 507 508 time of deposition (cf. Bolhar et al., 2004; Pecoits et al., 2009). 509 Petrographic evidence suggests that, following precipitation of chert, locally Fe-rich laminae were replaced by sulfides, as indicated by variable magnetite and pyrrhotite contents along laminae 510 over 5 – 10 mm length. However, individual grains of magnetite do not show textures suggesting 511 512 replacement by sulfides. This could suggest that sulfides replaced the primary Fe-oxyhydroxides prior to 513 transformation of Fe-oxyhydroxides to magnetite during late diagenesis or metamorphism. The negative Δ^{33} S values and variable δ^{34} S values indicate that sulfides were formed through reduction, potentially 514 bacterial, of sulfate likely derived from a nearly homogenous seawater reservoir. Considering the sign of 515 the MIF anomaly, such sulfate reservoir was likely derived from sulfate formed via photochemical 516 517 reactions in the Archean oxygen-free atmosphere (Ono et al., 2003). The formation of the sulfide phase 518 in these Fe-rich laminae should have been limited by the availability of H₂S, not Fe, and as such, 519 pyrrhotite formed instead of pyrite, as is the case in modern environments where availability of S is the 520 limiting factor (Kao et al., 2004; Larrasoana et al., 2007). Importantly, the pyrrhotite, or amorphous Fe 521 monosulfide precursor to pyrrhotite, did not form at the same time as the exhalite precipitated, but are 522 diagenetic products that must have crystallized before or at approximately the same time as chert 523 precipitated, occluding permeability and porosity and halting bacterial sulfate reduction. Subsequent

- reaction, and recrystallization, of pyrrhotite to form pyrite could have occurred anaerobically under
- 525 conditions of increased S availability or Fe-loss (Qian et al., 2011).

526	Conclusions and Basin Scale Implications
527	The low concentrations of Zn, U, and U_{auth} , and non-zero $\Delta^{33}S$ values all suggest that exhalite
528	deposition in the Hart area of the Neoarchean Abitibi greenstone belt took place prior to the rise of
529	atmospheric oxygen (cf. Farquhar et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2008, 2013; Partin et al., 2013a, b; Gumsley et
530	al., 2017). However, Mn enrichment and highly negative Fe isotope values in both the exhalite and
531	graphitic argillite require presence of oxygen at least in the upper part of the water column throughout
532	the spreading path of the hydrothermal plume in a deep-water setting. Trace element data and δ^{56} Fe
533	values indicate that the exhalite formed with the significant influence of a hydrothermal fluid on water
534	composition, although distally from the hydrothermal source with the regionally mapped BIF occurring
535	more proximal to the hydrothermal source.
536	The presence of the interbedded exhalite and graphitic argillite suggests that these rocks were
537	deposited in a relatively deep-water environment, as shown by their fine-grain size and absence of
538	sedimentary structures indicative of deposition above the fair-weather and storm-wave base, possibly at
539	the upslope transition from iron formation to black shales in the basinal profile proposed by Klein
540	(2005), Beukes and Gutzmer (2008), and Bekker et al. (2010), representing shallower water depth than
541	the stratigraphically equivalent BIFs elsewhere in the region. Fractionation of Fe isotopes during
542	precipitation of Fe-oxyhydroxides could have resulted in the heavier isotopes being removed via
543	deposition of iron formations in deeper parts of the basin, as represented by iron formations mapped at
544	the correlative stratigraphic level elsewhere in the Shaw Dome (Houlé et al., 2010b; Figure 14). The
545	basin margins sustained high organic productivity, as indicated by the abundance of carbon in the
546	graphitic argillite. Due to deposition of the exhalite distally to the hydrothermal centres, the iron
547	formation and exhalite in the Hart area are unusually chert-rich, with lower concentration of Fe-oxides,

Fe-carbonates, and Fe-silicates than in typical iron formations. Early diagenetic bacterial sulfate 548 549 reduction at the depositional site of exhalite led to the formation of significant amounts of sulfides, 550 however, the limited availability of sulfur with respect to iron during deposition of the exhalite unit 551 could have resulted in the formation of pyrrhotite instead of pyrite as the primary sulfide mineral. Our 552 study indicates spatial and temporal variability of seawater redox conditions and chemical composition 553 in Archean deep-water settings at ~2.7 Ga, during a time when atmosphere stayed persistently anoxic. 554 Acknowledgements We would like to express our appreciation to Northern Sun Mining Corp. (formerly Liberty Mines Ltd.) 555 556 for their logistical support, access to properties, information, and discussions with staff throughout this 557 project. Financial support for this project has been provided by the Targeted Geoscience Initiative 558 program of the Geological Survey of Canada and Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of 559 Canada (NSERC) Discovery and Accelerator Grants to AB. OR acknowledges the technical support of Y. 560 Germain and E. Ponzevera (Ifremer) and funding from LabexMer (ANR-10-LABX-19-01). The McGill Stable Isotope Laboratory is supported by NSERC through Research Tools and Infrastructure and 561 562 Discovery Grants to BAW as well as operating funds from FQRNT through the GEOTOP research center. We thank Dr. Boswell Wing and Thi Hao Bui for technical assistance in the McGill Stable Isotope 563 564 Laboratory. 565 References Alibo, D.S., Nozaki, Y. 1999. Rare earth elements in seawater: particle association, shale-normalization, 566 567 and Ce oxidation. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta 63, 363-372.

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871	Figure Captions
872	Figure 1: Geological map of the Shaw Dome, Abitibi greenstone belt (modified from Houlé et al., 2010a, b).
873	Figure 2: Geologic map of the Hart deposit area (modified from Houlé et al., 2010b). Drill hole collar locations are indicated.
874	Locations of sampled surface trenches are indicated by the green bars.
875	Figure 3: a-b Outcrop photographs of the exhalite unit, taken along strike from the Hart area; chert (a) and iron formation (b)
876	lithologies. The coin is 18 mm in diameter on figures a and b. c-d Reflected light photomicrographs of exhalite in the footwall of
877	the Hart deposit: oxide-rich laminae in chert (c: sample H11-13C-363) and fine pyrrhotite grains replaced by coarse pyrite grains
878	containing inclusions of pyrrhotite (circled) in a barren sulfide lens within the exhalite unit (d: sample H11-08-58.3).
879	Figure 4: a Core photo of graphitic argillite, showing nodules and bands of pyrite intercalated with chert-rich exhalite above
880	and below. The coin is 18 mm in diameter. b Photomicrographs of graphitic argillite in plane-polarized light, showing quartz
881	(white) and chlorite (grey), and opaque graphite and pyrite (sample H11-13C-357.1). c Photomicrograph in reflected light of
882	pyrite nodule in graphitic argillite, showing growth in concentric bands (sample H11-13C-357.1). d Photomicrograph of graphitic
883	argillite unit in reflected light (sample H11-13C-366.1), showing minor disseminated pyrite (bright grains), opaque mineral
884	(graphite), and silicates (light grey).
885	Figure 5: Approximate fields of Δ^{33} S and δ^{34} S values for the different volcanic, atmospheric, and seawater S pools in the
886	Archean. Purple oval represents composition of mantle-derived volcanic sulfur; blue oval and red circle represent composition
887	of reduced sulfur (S ₈) and oxidized sulfur (SO ₄ ²), respectively. Orange dashed line represents the most likely range in
888	composition of sulfides formed by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) that resulted in a horizontal shift in seawater sulfate
889	composition to higher δ^{34} S values (red oval; fields are after Ono et al. 2003).
890	Figure 6: Ce anomalies (a), and rare earth element patterns (b) of exhalite samples (see Table 3 for method of calculation of Ce
891	and La anomalies).
892	Figure 7: Ce anomalies (a), and rare earth element patterns (b) for graphitic argillite samples (see Table 3 for method of
893	calculation of Ce and La anomalies).
894	Figure 8: Back-scattered electron image of exhalite sample H11-08-63.9, showing the Mn-bearing minerals and the EDS spectra.
895	Chl: chlorite, Act: actinolite, and Cal: calcite. White minerals on image are dense Fe-oxide and sulfide minerals.
896	Figure 9: Sulfur isotope signature of the Hart area exhalite and graphitic argillite. Red line in (a) indicates terrestrial
897	fractionation line (TFL; Farquhar and Wing, 2003). Terrestrial fractionation line corresponds to Δ^{33} S=0‰ jn (b).
898	Figure 10: Fe-isotope composition of the lithologies present in the Hart deposit area. Orange represents the minimum and

899 maximum values of the mantle range (Beard et al., 2003).

- **Figure 11:** Plot of S concentration vs. δ^{56} Fe values shows no correlation, indicating that Fe isotope values are not controlled by sulfide content.
- 902 Figure 12: Diagrams designed to test the significance of detrital input on composition of sedimentary rocks. A positive
- 903 correlation in (a) and (b) indicates some compositional control by detrital material on the graphitic argillite. In (c), plotting in
- 2004 zone I indicates a dominantly hydrothermal source for sediments, plotting in zone II indicates some influence of a hydrothermal
- 905 source mixed with detrital material, and plotting in zone III indicates a dominantly detrital source (Peciots et al., 2009).
- 906 Figure 13: Exhalite data from this study broadly follows the same negative correlation trend as observed from several iron
- 907 formations through time, including the Paleoproterozoic Hotazel Formation, South Africa (Tsikos et al., 2010), the Archean
- 908 Sengeni Formation, South Africa (Planavsky et al., 2014), and several other well-preserved Archean and Paleoproterozoic iron
- 909 formations compiled by Planavsky et al. (2012).

COL

- 910 **Figure 14:** Cartoon cross-section showing the location of the Hart area within the basin during deposition. Iron formations were
- 911 deposited deeper in the basin, with heavier Fe-isotope values, and the Hart exhalite and graphitic argillite formed upslope in a
- 2012 zone of upwelling (based on the models of Klein 2005, Beukes and Gutzmer 2008, and Bekker et al., 2010).

914 Table 1.

Sam			H07		H07	H07	H07	H08 -	Sam	H08	H08	H11 -05-	H11	H11 -08-	H11	Sam
ple			-10-	H07	-10-	-56-	-56-	106	ple	-80-	-80-	45.5	-05-	52.6	-08-	ple
U			66.3	-10-	86.8	188.	210.	-	U	103.	107.	5	54.2	5	52.6	U
			5	73.6	5	9	6	98.6		2	5		5		6	
			H07	H07	H07	H07	H07	H08		HUS	HUS	н11	н11	Н11	Н11	
DDH			-10	-10	-10	-56	-56	-	DDH	-80	-80	-05	-05	-08	-08	DDH
								106								
	MDL	MD	F 1.	- 1	.	- 1	- 1	- 1		F 1.			5 1	- 1	- 1	
Litho	(Geo	L (A.	Exh	Exh	Exh	Exh	Exh	Exh	Litho	Exh	Exh	Exh	Exh	Exh	Exh	Litho
logy	Labs)	(AC	alite	alite	alite	alite	alite	alite	logy	alite	ante	alite	alite	alite	alite	logy
		me)	11 0		27 1			11 Q		25.4	812	21 5				
SiO2	0.04	0.0	11.0 2	Л 1Л	۲.1 ۵	5 25	1 66	11.0	SiO2	25.4	04.5 ح	6	5.01	7.19	5 73	SiO2
		0.0	2	7.17	5	5.25	1.00	5		5	5	0	5.01	<0.0	5.75	
TiO2	0.01	1	0.02					0.01	TiO2	0.01	0.01	0.01		1		TiO2
AI2O		0.0	0.01						AI2O	0.01	0.01					Al2O
3	0.02	1	0.6	0.25	0.11	0.4	0.12	0.22	3	0.33	0.47	0.19	0.26	0.18	0.15	3
Fe2O		0.0		64.0		55.3	67.0	65.4	Fe2O	48.6		56.4	71.6	76.3		Fe2O
3Т	0.01	4	53.3	8	53.5	7	3	2	3Т	2	9.59	4	9	7	58.6	3Т
MaO	0.01	0.0							MaO			1 06		0.64		MaO
IVIgO	0.01	1	0.07	0.8	2.13	1.02	0.77	3.4	IVIgO	1.57	0.71	1.90	2.27	0.04	0.53	IvigO
MnO	0.002	0.0							MnO			0.19		0.39		MnO
	0.001	1	0.02	0.83	1.37	0.22	0.75	0.45		0.24	0.12	0115	0.17	0.00	0.32	
CaO	0.006	0.0	0.00	- 46		- 00	2.40		CaO	4 70	4 95	1.50		2.23	4.05	CaO
N-2		1	0.08	5.46	5.14	7.09	3.48	2.58	NaD	1.76	1.25		0.97		1.85	N-2
Naz	0.02	0.0	0.01	<0.0	<0.0	0.02	<0.0	0.02	Naz	0.02	0.00	0.07	<0.0	0.06	0.01	Naz
0		1	0.01	Ţ		0.03	T	0.03 20.0	0	0.03	0.08		_0 0		0.01	0
К2О	0.01	0.0	0.17	0.06	<0.0 1	0 16	0 03	<0.0 1	К2О	0.03	0.06	0.03	<0.0 1	0.01	<0.0 1	K2O
P20		0.0	<0.17	0.00	<0.0	<0.10	0.05	<0.0	P20	<0.05	0.00		<0.0		<0.0	P20
5	0.002	1	1	0.03	1	1	0.04	1	5	1	0.02	0.00	1	0.01	1	5
		0.0												42.0		
LOI	0.05	1	34.6	24.3	10.5	24.9	26	16	LOI	21.5	3.2	1/./	19	13.0	32.7	LOI
CO 2	0.02	0.0							603			0.22		2.05		602
02	0.05	2	0.15	1.11	1.23	1.68	0.89	0.03	02	0.32	0.15	0.25	0.09	5.95	0.13	τυz
S	0.01	0.0	38.4	36.9	18.5	36.0	37.6	26.3	s			32.2	28.7	10.6	40.0	S
5	0.01	2	8	9	8	3	6	4	5	27.9	6.46	52.2	1	10.0	5	5
Li	0.4								Li			0.4		0.4		Li
Ве	0.04	1	<1	<1	<1	<1	<1	1	Ве	3	1	0.2	<1	0.1	<1	Ве
Sc	1.1	1	1	12	1	<1	12	3	Sc	<1	1	1.1	1	1.1	<1	Sc
Ті	7								Ті			53		43		Ті
v	0.8	8	<8	<8	<8	<8	10	<8	v	<8	<8	16.9	<8	1.8	<8	v

Cr	3								Cr			11		4		Cr
Со	0.13	0.2	517	/1 3	16	03	71 7	03 5	Со	73.6	37	130. 48	08 /	96.8 9	03.3	Со
NI:	1.0	0.2	119.	41.5	10	109.	140.	149.	N.:	317	261.	980.	398	399.	366.	
NI	1.6	0.1	1	40.7	42.6	6	4	6	NI	2.6	3	4	5.8	8	8	INI
Cu	1.4	0 1	22.2	18.2	13 5	179	25 /	209. 3	Cu	428. 6	702. 7	450. 1	552. 9	93.0	88.6	Cu
Zn	7	1	386	43	13.5	14	2 <u>9</u> .4 8	5	Zn	9	, 124	11	9	10	6	Zn
Ga	0.04	0.5	<0.5	<0.5	<0.5	<0.5	<0.5	<0.5	Ga	<0.5	<0.5	0.48	<0.5	0.35	<0.5	Ga
Rb	0.23	0.1	3.5	3.3	0.3	8.2	1.7	0.5	Rb	1.5	2.1	0.90	<0.1	0.23	<0.1	Rb
Sr	0.6	0.5	1.5	25.8	14.4	75.8	17.1	2.4	Sr	3	12.1	3.7	2.5	14.3	14.9	Sr
Y	0.05	0.1	0.2	4.9	4	2.5	2.3	7.3	Y	5.2	2	8.31	3.5	1.92	1.7	Y
Zr	6	0.1	108.	33.1	44.7	63.1	44.5	32.4	Zr	66.4	3.9	6	22.4	6 0.05	2.3	Zr
Nb	0.028	0.1	0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	Nb	<0.1	0.3	0.05 7	<0.1	4	<0.1	Nb
Мо	0.08	0.1	1.5	2.2	0.5	2.1	0.6	6.3	Мо	0.6	0.3	0.16	0.6	0.79	0.4	Мо
Cd	0.013	0.1	0.2	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	Cd	<0.1	0.3	0.03	<0.1	0.03	<0.1	Cd
In	0.001 8								In	•		0.00 91		0.00 40	•	In
Sn	0.16	1	<1	<1	<1	<1	<1	<1	Sn	<1	<1	0.16	<1	0.16	<1	Sn
Sb	0.04	0.1	1.4	0.8	0.3	0.4	2.2	<0.1	Sb	0.1	<0.1	0.21	0.2	0.33	0.1	Sb
Cs	0.013	0.1	0.2	1.5	<0.1	2.2	0.9	0.3	Cs	0.5	0.2	0.31 6	<0.1	0.05 5	<0.1	Cs
Ва	0.8	1	32	6	5	20	6	3	Ва	5	14	5.3	5	30.6	36	Ва
La	0.04	0.1	0.4	2.1	0.9	2	0.8	2.8	La	3.1	0.7	0.51	1.1	1.04	1.5	La
Ce	0.12	0.1	0.5	3.4	1.4	3.3	1.1	4.3	Ce	4.8	1.6	1.25	1.2	1.62	1.7	Ce
P																
	Table 2.															
c	ы ы	цι		L C	uu	υ ц	υ ц	с⊔	υ υ	υυ	цс	υ ц	υυ	υυ		

	Table	2.																									
S	н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	S	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	S	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	S	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н	Н
а	0	0	0	0	0	0	а	0	0	1	1	1	1	а	1	1	1	1	1	1	а	1	1	1	1	1	1
m	7	7	7	7	7	8	m	8	8	1	1	1	1	m	1	1	1	1	1	1	m	1	1	1	1	1	1
р	-	-	-	-	-	-	р	-	-	-	-	-	-	р	-	-	-	-	-	-	р	-	-	-	-	-	-
I.	1	1	1	5	5	1	Ι	8	8	0	0	0	0	I.	0	0	1	1	1	1	Т	1	1	1	1	1	1

E u	N d S m	L i t h o l o g y	D D H	e I D
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0 0 2	0 3 0 0 5			
0 0 2	0 - 4 < 0 - 0 5	E x h a l i t e	H 0 7 - 1 0	0 - 6 3 5
0 2 4	1 8 0 3 3	E x h a l i t e	H 0 7 - 1 0	0 - 7 3 6
0 1 4	0 7 0 1 7	E x h a l i t e	H 0 7 - 1 0	0 - 8 6 8 5
0 0 9	1 6 0 2 1	E x h a l i t e	H 0 7 5 6	6 - 1 8 9
0 1	0 6 0 0 6	E x h a l i t e	H 0 7 5 6	6 - 2 1 0 6
0 3 5	2 3 0 4 4	E x h a l i t e	H 0 8 - 1 0 6	0 - 9 8 6
E u	N d S m	L t h o g y	D D H	e I D
0 3 3	2 0 4 1	E x h a l i t e	H 0 8 - 8 0	0 - 1 0 3 2
0 0 7	0 8 0 1 4	E x h a l i t e	H 0 8 - 8 0	0 - 1 0 7 5
1 1 5 1	1 2 5 0 3 7 4 0	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 0 5	5 - 4 5 5 5
0 0 8	0 7 0 1 3	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 0 5	5 - 5 4 2 5
1 5 7 0	0 7 2 0 1 6 0 0	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 0 8	8 - 5 6 5
0 1 3	0 8 0 1 1	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 0 8	8 - 5 6 6
E u	N d S m	L i t h o g y	D D H	e I D
0 8 9 1	0 5 5 1 2 0 0	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 0 8	8 - 5 3
2 6 3 3	1 5 4 0 2 4 4 0	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 0 8	8 - 3 9
0 4 9	2 2 0 3 9	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 1 3 C	3 C - 3 6 3
3 1 4 9	1 7 0 3 4 0 0	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 1 3 C	3 - 3 7 6 5
7 1 4 2	1 4 8 7 2 5 7 7 1	E x h a l i t e	H 1 - 1 3 C	3 C 3 7 8 7
6 3 8	7 7 0 1 4 6 0 0	E x h a l i t e	H 1 1 3 C	3 C - 3 8 7 2
E u	N d S m	L t h o g y	D D H	e I D
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8 7 9 6	e 8 4 4 1 7 1 6 0	r a p h i t i c A r g il li t	H 1 - 1 6 G	6 - 3 9 9 1
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7 1 9 1	e 1 2 4 5 2 7 5 8 0	r a p h i t i c A r g il li t	H 1 - 1 6 G	6 - 4 8 0 6

G d	0 0 9 0	0 0 5	0 0 8	0 4 5	0 3	0 3 5	0 2	0 5 5	G d	0 5 2	0 2 1	0 5 9 4 0	0 2	0 1 8 9 0	0 1 7	G d	0 1 2 5 0	0 2 7 2 0	0 7 5	0 4 6 0	2 5 7 3 0	1 3 0 1 0	G d	0 3 5	0 1 6 0	0 6 8 8 0	1 6 2 1 0	0 4 6	2 7 8 7 0
T b	0 2 3 0	0 0 1	< 0 0 1	0 0 5	0 0 3	0 0 6	0 0 1	0 0 8	T b	0 0 7	0 0 2	1 0 1 6 0	0 0 2	0 2 9 7 0	0 0 2	T b	0 1 6 2 0	0 3 8 1 0	0 0 9	0 6 7 7 0	4 2 8 7 2	1 8 5 7 1	T b	0 0 6	0 1 9 2 0	1 0 9 2 0	2 6 3 1 1	0 0 6	• 4 3 8 9 2
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H o	0 0 2 5 0	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 9	0 0 8	0 0 7	0 0 4	0 1 5	H o	0 1	0 0 5	1 8 1 6 0	0 0 5	0 4 4 7 0	0 0 3	H o	0 2 7 0 0	0 6 2 9 0	0 1 8	1 2 5 0	5 9 3 9 1	2 5 0 0 0	H o	0 1 1	0 2 7 8 0	1 4 0 1 0	3 6 5 9 1	0 1 1	5 6 5 1
E r	0 7 0	0 0 3	0 0 4	0 3 9	0 2 6	0 2 1	0 1 4	0 4 7	E r	0 3 7	0 1 7	5 8 7 0	0 2	1 5 0 0	0 1 2	E r	0 8 3 0	2 1 3 0	0 6	3 7 7 0	7 2 1 0	7 9 4 0	E r	0 3 9	0 8 3 0	4 0 1 0	9 2 0	0 3 8	6 4 9 0
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Y b	0 0 9	0 0 5	0 0 5	0 3	0 2 4	0 1 2	0 1 1	0 4 6	Y b	0 3 4	0 2 5	5 7 5 0	0 2	1 4 0 0	0 1 3	Y b	9 2 0	1 9 8 0	0 5 9	3 5 5 0	5 3 0	7 3 8 0	Y b	0 3 2	0 8 5 0	3 8 2 0	0 7 2 0	0 3 1	6 2 8 0
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	0					1						6		4			4	4		5	0	1			0	8	4		6
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В	•	0	0	1	0	0	0		В	0	0	•	0	•	1	B		•	0	•	•	•	В	0	•	•	•	0	•
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U	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	U	0	0		0		0	U	0	1	0	1	7	4	U	0	1	ר	4	0	5
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Sampla ID	DDU /Tronch	Lithology/Commont	$\delta^{33}S_{V-CDT}$	$\delta^{34}S_{V-CDT}$	Δ ³³ S	$\delta^{56/54}$ Fe _{IRMM-14}
Sample ID	DDH/Trench	Lithology/Comment	±0.3 (2σ)	±0.3 (2σ)	±0.02 (2σ)	±0.06 (2σ)
H07-10-66.35	H07-10	Exhalite	0.1	3.0	-1.37	-2.04
H07-10-73.6	H07-10	Exhalite	-3.4	-5.6	-0.55	-1.80
H07-10-86.85	H07-10	Exhalite	-3.1	-4.9	-0.54	-1.91
H07-56-188.9	H07-56	Exhalite	-0.6	0.7	-0.95	-1.63
H07-56-210.6	H07-56	Exhalite	0.5	2.4	-0.70	-2.13
H08-106-98.6	H08-106	Exhalite	0.6	2.4	-0.69	
H08-80-103.2	H08-80	Exhalite	-2.5	-4.1	-0.42	-1.60
H08-80-107.5	H08-80	Exhalite	-4.4	-7.6	-0.54	-1.60
H11-05-45.55	H11-05	Exhalite	-5.2	-9.0	-0.58	-1.22
H11-05-54.25	H11-05	Exhalite	2.1	5.5	-0.74	-1.40
H11-08-52.65	H11-08	Exhalite	-6.3	-11.4	-0.46	-2.04
H11-08-58.3	H11-08	Exhalite	-5.3	-9.3	-0.45	-1.75
H11-08-63.9	H11-08	Exhalite	3.2	7.6	-0.66	
H11-13C-363	H11-13C	Exhalite	0.6	2.1	-0.46	-1.36
H11-13C- 376.5	H11-13C	Exhalite	-3.4	-5.2	-0.75	-1.90
H11-13C- 378.7	H11-13C	Exhalite	0.6	2.6	-0.79	-1.73
H11-13C- 387.2	H11-13C	Exhalite	-0.5	-0.3	-0.34	-1.96
H11-13C- 389.45	H11-13C	Exhalite	-0.4	0.2	-0.43	-2.08
H11-16-411.4	H11-16	Exhalite	-0.1	0.7	-0.44	-0.85
H11-16-425.5	H11-16	Exhalite	-1.4	-1.7	-0.49	-1.45
MGH502	MGH502	Exhalite	-6.2	-11.0	-0.53	
MGH600A	MGH600	Exhalite	-2.1	-2.8	-0.66	
MGH600B	MGH600	Exhalite	2.1	5.5	-0.73	
MGH601B	MGH601	Exhalite	-5.8	-10.0	-0.61	
H11-13C- 357.1	H11-13C	Graphitic Argillite	0.9	3.5	-0.94	-1.86
H11-16-399.1	H11-16	Graphitic Argillite	0.6	1.6	-0.19	-1.96
H11-16-480.6	H11-16	Graphitic Argillite	2.3	5.0	-0.28	-1.66

923 Table 3.

		H11 -05- 45.5	H11 -08- 52.6	H11 -08- 58.	H11 -08- 63.	H11- 13C- 376.	H11- 13C- 378.	H11- 13C- 387.	H11 -16- 411.	H07 -10- 66.3	H07 -10- 73.	H07 -10- 86.8	H07 -56- 188.	H07 -56- 210.
		5	6	3	9	5	7	2	4	5	6	5	9	6
	Formu													
	la												0	
	used	Evh	Evb	Exh	Exh	Evba	Evba	Evba	Evh	Evb	Exh	Evh	Evb	Evb
٨n	tu Calcul	LXII مtita	حxانا ماناد	alit	alit	LXIId	LXIId	LXIId	تيريم ماناد	CXII ماناد	alit	alito	alito	CXII ماناد
0	ate	unte	unte	е	е	ince	ince	ince	unic	ante	е	ance	unte	ance
m	Anom													
aly	aly													
	La/(3P	-								C				
	r -	5.56	1.27	2.4	1.6	1.56	0.98	1.07	1.36	0.61	1.0	0.88	1.67	1.10
La	2Nd)*	6	2	76	56	5	0	0	2	0	28	4	2	4
	Ce/(2P		0.05			4.05	0.04	0.05	4 6 2	0.40		0.74		
6.	r -	1.46	0.95	1.2	1.0	1.05	0.91	0.95	1.02	0.40	0.8	0./1	1.13	0.74
Ce	Dr/(1/	9	4	04	11	4	U	3	4	ō	01	5	Z	Э
	2Ce +													
	1/2Nd	0.90	1.02	0.9	0.9	0.97	1.05	1.02	0.98	1.50	1.1	1.18	0.94	1.15
Pr)*	5	4	13	94	6	0	3	9	3	11	5	5	0
	Eu/(2/													
	3Sm +													
	1/3Tb)	1.20	4.54	3.8	5.3	4.17	3.21	2.40	2.81		3.6	3.89	1.63	8.04
Eu	*	5	6	56	35	1	4	6	7		34	1	6	7
	G0/(21	1 1 7	1 1 2	16	1 5	1 20	1 1 7	1 7 2	1 20		2.4	1 1 2	0 00	-
Gd	ט - Dv)*	1.17	1.12	1.0	1.5	1.50	1.1Z /	1.25	1.59 Q		2.4 //7	4.15 Q	0.00 Q	2.02
Υ/	Dyj	45.7	42.9	40.	58.	42.9	32.5	33.7	43.8		54.	50.0	35.7	57.5
Ho		60	53	000	347	33	98	20	85		444	00	14	00
Gd														
/Y		0.62	0.81	0.8	0.8	0.79	1.00	1.06	1.18	0.96	0.9	0.75	1.76	1.10
b*		5	7	22	31	4	3	7	2	8	08	6	5	0
Pr														
/Y		0.11	0.42	0.3	0.6	0.36	0.83	0.84	0.95	0.76	0.5	0.26	0.98	0.46
D* *Cal	culated u	/	9	89	68	4	8	9	4	6	00	6	5	5
	S-normali	isilig ized												
valu	es	.200												