

# Post-depositional REE mobility in a Paleoarchean banded iron formation revealed by La-Ce geochronology: A cautionary tale for signals of ancient oxygenation

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1	Post-depositional REE mobility in a Paleoarchean banded iron formation
2	revealed by La-Ce geochronology: A cautionary tale for signals of ancient
3	oxygenation
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#### 24 Abstract

25 Precambrian banded iron formations (BIF) are chemical sedimentary deposits whose trace element signatures have been widely used to interrogate the chemical composition and redox 26 state of ancient seawater. Here we investigated trace element signatures in BIF of the 3.22 Ga 27 28 Moodies Group, Barberton Greenstone Belt (South Africa), which are interbedded with near-29 shore siliciclastic sedimentary rocks and represent one of the oldest known shallow-water occurrences of BIF. Unusual rare earth element signatures, notably with pronounced negative Ce 30 anomalies in shale-normalized spectra, have been previously reported for chemical sediments of 31 the Moodies Group, which we confirm here through an expanded dataset for Moodies BIF 32 spanning three different localities. We find negative Ce anomalies as low as 0.2 Ce/Ce\* that are 33 associated with unusual enrichment of LREE relative to HREE in the sample set. While total 34 REE abundances and certain REE features appear strongly related to the concentration of detrital 35 indicators (e.g., Zr), and are likely primary, other features, notably LREE enrichment, cannot be 36 explained as a primary feature of the sediment. This is better explained by later addition of REE 37 from a LREE-enriched but Ce-depleted fluid that generated the significant negative Ce anomalies 38 observed in surface samples of Moodies Group BIF. This REE addition event influenced both 39 Sm-Nd and La-Ce isotope systematics, the latter yielding an isochron of  $60 \pm 32$  Ma, thus 40 41 constraining the timing of emplacement of the negative Ce anomalies to the past 100 Ma, possibly upon surface exposure of the Barberton Greenstone Belt to wetter conditions during the 42 Cenozoic. Our findings constitute a cautionary tale in that even the most immobile elemental 43 44 redox proxies may be more sensitive to post-depositional modification than previously thought, and demonstrate the clear advantage offered by paleoredox proxies coupled to radiometric 45 geochronometers to enable the direct dating of ancient signals of Earth surface oxygenation. 46

- **Keywords**: Trace element signatures, Ce anomalies, La-Ce geochronology, rare earth element
- 48 mobility.

#### 49 1. Introduction

50 Banded iron formations (BIF) are chemical sediments deposited throughout much of the Precambrian. They consist primarily of iron oxide minerals (hematite, magnetite) and 51 cryptocrystalline quartz (chert), along with lesser amounts of carbonates, iron-rich clays, and 52 53 other secondary alteration minerals, depending on the metamorphic grade (Bekker et al., 2010; 54 Konhauser et al., 2017). The precursor chemical minerals thought to have initially formed BIF 55 (amorphous Fe(II)- and Fe(III)-hydroxides, carbonates, and silicates) are unstable, and have 56 universally recrystallized to a more stable metamorphic assemblage of dehydrated minerals. 57 Nonetheless, BIF have been widely considered a useful proxy for the chemical composition of 58 ancient seawater and porewaters in which they formed (see Konhauser et al., 2017, for review). 59 Being highly non-porous and impermeable, BIF are conventionally thought to be relatively robust against significant disturbance during metamorphism or metasomatism (e.g., Robbins et al., 60 61 2019a. Indeed, millimeter scale variations in trace elements (e.g., Bau, 1993; Bau and Dulski, 62 1996) and in iron isotope compositions in BIF (e.g. Frost et al., 2007), along with experiments simulating BIF diagenesis (e.g. Posth et al., 2013), have been used to argue for general elemental 63 immobility, even for samples that have experienced complete recrystallization during 64 amphibolite-facies metamorphism. 65

Rare earth element (REE) patterns, and in particular anomalies in the abundance of cerium (Ce) relative to its neighbors, are commonly used to interrogate redox conditions of ancient seawater. Cerium is particularly prone to fractionation from other REE because oxidation of Ce(III) to Ce(IV) under mildly oxidizing conditions greatly reduces Ce solubility, resulting in its preferential removal from solution onto Mn(IV)-Fe(III)-oxyhydroxides, organic matter, and clay particles (Byrne and Sholkovitz, 1996). Under oxidizing conditions, seawater is thus

characterized by a strong negative Ce anomaly. Accordingly, the presence of negative cerium 72 73 anomalies in chemical sediments has often been used to infer oxidative conditions during deposition. Despite the potential for significant insight into the primary REE chemistry of ancient 74 seawater, the interpretation of cerium anomalies in ancient sedimentary rocks requires caution. 75 76 Post-depositional REE modifications have been described in several studies, showing that cerium may behave differently from other REE (Mongelli et al., 1993; Cotton et al., 1995). Hayashi et al. 77 (2004) were the first to use La-Ce isotope systematics in an attempt to constrain the timing of 78 emplacement of a cerium anomaly in ancient sedimentary rocks. Ce-138 is produced by the decay 79 of <sup>138</sup>La ( $T_{1/2}$ =292.5 Ga). The use of <sup>138</sup>La-<sup>138</sup>Ce systematics is challenging because of the long 80 half-life of <sup>138</sup>La but is extremely powerful for dating La/Ce fractionation. The first La-Ce isotope 81 82 measurements obtained by Hayashi et al. (2004) on samples from the Barberton Greenstone Belt (BGB) show that the presence of cerium anomalies must be interpreted with caution. They 83 attributed Ce anomalies in the BGB, including a single BIF sample from the Moodies Group with 84  $Ce/Ce^* = 0.93$  (calculated by Hayashi et al. in the absence of Pr data as the chondrite-normalized 85 projection between La and Nd) to post-depositional remobilization of REE prior to ca. 1.1 Ga 86 (Hayashi et al., 2004). 87

In this paper we present major and trace element measurements in 48 BIF outcrop samples collected at three localities in the Moodies Group, dated at 3.22 Ga (Heubeck et al., 2013). Measurements of the La-Ce and Sm-Nd isotope systematics are presented in samples characterized by a large range of cerium anomalies. This dataset permits (1) direct dating of the formation of the cerium anomaly, and (2) to resolve whether REE spectra represent primary features or were later modified during secondary events, such as surficial weathering of exposed outcrop. Here we demonstrate that the negative cerium anomalies in Moodies BIF were produced 95 by relatively recent fluid addition and that this signature cannot be used to discuss redox96 conditions during their deposition.

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#### 98 2. Geology of Moodies Group BIF

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100 The Moodies Group of the BGB is comprised of approximately 3.5 km of sand- and siltstone, subordinate conglomerate and volcanics, and minor ferruginous sediment that were mostly 101 102 deposited in shallow-water and terrestrial settings (Heubeck, 2019). Dacitic volcanics 103 conformably underlying basal Moodies strata are 3225±3 Ma old (Kröner et al., 1991). The onset 104 of Moodies sedimentation is further constrained by a 3223±1 Ma age for a dacitic tuff in the 105 uppermost Schoongezicht Formation of the underlying Fig Tree Group (Heubeck et al., 2013). Dacitic ash-fall tuffs in the central BGB, approximately mid-section in the stratigraphic column 106 107 (near the BIF unit MdI2, Figure 1), yield an age as low as 3219±3 Ma (Heubeck et al., 2013), 108 similar to a porphyritic dike crosscutting the topmost Moodies units dated at 3219±9 Ma (Heubeck et al., 2013). Thus, Moodies deposition occurred between 3223 and 3219 Ma, and 109 likely within a few Ma of 3222 Ma ago (Heubeck et al., 2013). Regional metamorphic grade is 110 lower greenschist facies (Tice et al., 2004), with evidence for metamorphic overprint during 111 emplacement of the Kaap Valley Pluton at  $3214 \pm 4$  Ma, during late granite plutonism at ca. 3100112 113 Ma (Toulkeridis et al., 1994), and related to fluid circulation associated with Ventersdorp Supergroup volcanism or the Limpopo orogeny at ca. 2650-2700 Ma ago (Toulkeridis et al., 114 1998). 115

In the north-central part of BGB, up to four regionally mappable ferruginous units, 2 to 6m thick and comprised of jaspillite and BIF, are interbedded with fine-grained sand- and

siltstones (Heubeck and Lowe, 1994). Geological mapping and interpretation of sedimentary 118 119 structures suggest that deposition of ferruginous units occurred largely in prodelta- and protected bay / lagoonal settings. The BIF samples examined in this study were collected from surface 120 outcrops at three localities in the Moodies Group (Figure 1); (1) unit MdI2 in the Clutha Creek 121 122 section of the Eureka Syncline (CC; 25°41'52.81"S, 31°5'10.89"E), (2) unit MdI2 from the Devil's Staircase Road section of the Moodies Hills Block (DSR; 25°49'55.82"S, 31°0'50.49"E), 123 and (3) unit MdI1 from the Stolzburg Syncline (SB; 25°54'8.04"S, 30°50'44.90"E). Samples 124 were collected using hammers, chisels, and a sledge, avoiding clear signs of alteration, trimmed 125 for fresh surfaces, and fractured pieces were discarded. All are distal from hydrothermally 126 127 overprinted brittle-ductile shear zones that are common in the northern BGB. In all three sections, BIF occur in thick, conformable sections of thinly bedded, small-scale-slumped siltstones and 128 very-fine-grained sandstone interbedded with rare laminated shale. See supplemental materials 129 130 for a more detailed description of each sample site, including photos of the localities and of selected hand samples, as well as a lithological column for the DSR site situating the samples in 131 stratigraphic context. 132

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#### 135 **3. Methods**

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All samples were prepared using trace-element clean methods (crushing and powdering in pure tungsten carbide and agate, respectively) and all digestions and column separations were performed in clean laboratories at the European Institute for Marine Studies in Brest and at the Laboratoire Magmas et Volcans located at the Université Clermont Auvergne, France. For analysis of major elements, samples were digested at 90° C in PFA vials using concentrated

HNO<sub>3</sub> and HF, followed by immediate neutralization with 20 g  $L^{-1}$  H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub> to retain Si, as per 142 143 Cotten et al. (1995). After dilution by a factor of 400, samples were analyzed using an Yvon Horiba Ultima 2 Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) 144 calibrated against a standard curve comprised of the CRPG reference materials Mica-Fe, UB-N, 145 146 MORB-E, GB2, IF-G, AC-E, and WS-E digested in the same batch, using the working values of Govindaraju (1995), and with replicates of IF-G and AC-E treated as unknowns to monitor 147 accuracy. Precision based on 5 replicate analyses was better than 4.5% (2 relative standard 148 deviations, RSD) for all major elements except for Mg, Ca, and Na, which showed lower 149 precision (14 to 21%) between replicates due to their low concentrations in iron formation. For 150 analysis of trace elements and Nd isotopes, between 80 and 120 mg of powder was digested 151 sequentially in PFA vials at 90° C using concentrated HF-HNO<sub>3</sub>, aqua regia, and 6M HCl. For 152 trace element analysis, aliquots were resuspended in 2% HNO<sub>3</sub> with indium as an internal 153 154 standard and analyzed using a Thermo Scientific Element2 High-Resolution Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer (ICP-MS) at the Pôle Spectrométrie Océan in Brest, France. The 155 156 instrument was tuned to minimize oxide production, and mixed mono-elemental Pr-Nd, Ba-Ce, and Sm-Tb solutions were analyzed to quantify potential oxide interferences prior to the session, 157 which were negligible. Calibration was performed against gravimetrically prepared multi-element 158 solutions, and geostandards IF-G and AC-E were analysed in the same session as unknowns to 159 monitor accuracy, which was better than 5% for REE and 10% for most other trace elements (2 160 RSD). For major and trace method analyses, detection limits were determined using blanks 161 162 prepared alongside samples and are reported in Table S2 as either the detected blank concentration (normalized to the typical amount of rock powder analyzed) or the method 163 detection limit determined by three relative standard deviations of the end-of-rinse intensities that 164 165 were systematically measured prior to each sample. Sm-Nd and La-Ce parent/daughter ratios were calculated from HR-ICP-MS data of non-spiked samples using  $^{147}$ Sm/ $^{144}$ Nd = 0.6045 Sm/Nd and  $^{138}$ La/ $^{142}$ Ce = 0.0080 La/Ce. Propagated relative standard errors on these ratios were constrained to less than 1% by periodic measurements (n=8) of a multi-element solution throughout the session, and to less than 10% for all trace element concentrations, and better than 2–3% for most REE, based on the same repeat analyses.

To assure complete digestion and confirm the REE data acquired after HF-HNO<sub>3</sub>-Aqua Regia digestion in PFA beakers, a selected set of sample powders were re-analyzed by HR-ICP-MS after Na<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-NaOH alkaline fusion in glassy carbon crucibles at 650°C in the presence of a Tm spike, following the protocol and data reduction procedure of Bayon et al. (2009).

For Nd isotopes, aliquots were evaporated and re-dissolved in 2.5M HCl for chemical 175 separation of REE using cationic BioRad<sup>®</sup> AG50X8 200-400 mesh columns, followed by further 176 purification on LnSpec Eichrom resin. Nd isotopic measurements were performed during two 177 178 analytical sessions at the Pôle de Spectrométrie Océan in Brest using a Thermo Scientific Neptune multi-collector ICP-MS and a Thermo Scientific Triton Thermal Ionisation Mass 179 Spectrometer (TIMS, Triton). A <sup>146/144</sup>Nd ratio of 0.7219 was used for mass bias correction. 180 Recovered Nd fractions contained between 1266 and 16 ug of Nd (mean 134 ug) while blanks 181 prepared alongside samples contained less than 140 pg of Nd. For TIMS measurements, analyses 182 were made in static mode using 10 blocks of 10 cycles each, with 1 s integration times and 183 baselines measured for 30 s between each block. For MC-ICP-MS measurements, one block of 184 30 cycles with integration times of 4.196 s was employed, preceded by a 30 s baseline 185 measurement. Results obtained on the international standard JNdi-1 are reported in Table S1. 186 JNdi-1  $^{143}$ Nd/ $^{144}$ Nd ratios measured during the TIMS session are slightly lower (0.512086  $\pm$ 187 0.000017, 2 s.d., n=5) than the accepted value obtained using a dynamic routine over a period of 188 1.5 years on 3 different Triton mass spectrometers  $(0.512099 \pm 0.000005, 2 \text{ s.d.}, n=61, \text{Garçon et})$ 189

al., 2018). Thus, the measured <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd ratios have been normalized. Aside from correction for instrumental drift using sample-standard bracketing with JNdi-1, no further correction is applied to the Nd isotope ratios during the MC-ICP-MS session since the JNdi-1 results are in agreement with the accepted value (0.512095  $\pm$  0.000005, 2 s.d., n=17).

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For Ce isotopes, 100-150 mg of rock powder was digested using a HF-HNO<sub>3</sub> dissolution 195 technique. The chemical separation used to separate the Ce fraction involved four steps of 196 column chemistry (Bonnand et al., 2019). The first step, aimed at removing the Fe fraction, was 197 performed on anionic AG1-X8 resin (100-200 mesh). The sample was loaded onto the resin in 198 strong HCl and Ce was not retained by the resin. The second step was used to separate the REE 199 from other main cations of the matrix. To this end, the samples were loaded in 2.5N HCl onto 200 AG50-X8 resin (200-400 mesh). REE were retained by the resin while major cations were eluted 201 202 in 2.5N HCl, and REE were then eluted in 6M HCl. The third column procedure was designed to separate Ce<sup>4+</sup> from other REE and was performed using Ln spec resin (Eichrom). The samples 203 were loaded in 10M HNO<sub>3</sub> + NaBrO<sub>3</sub>, and  $Ce^{4+}$  was retained on the column while other REE 204 were not. The  $Ce^{4+}$  fraction was eluted in 6M HCl + H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Finally, the samples were processed 205 through the second step to make sure the Ce fraction was cleaned of any remaining matrix 206 cations. Isotopic measurements were performed on a Thermo Scientific Thermal Ionisation Mass 207 Spectrometer (TIMS) at the Laboratoire Magmas et Volcans as described by Bonnand et al. 208 (2019). Together with the samples, Ce<sub>AMES</sub> and Ce<sub>LMV</sub> reference materials were analysed and 209 gave  ${}^{138}$ Ce/ ${}^{142}$ Ce values of 0.0225743 ± 0.0000007 (2 s.d.; n=26) and 0.0225705 ± 0.0000006 (2 210 s.d.; n=48), respectively. The values are comparable to previously published values (e.g. 211 Willbold, 2007). 212

#### 213 **4. Results**

#### 215 4.1 Major and Trace elements

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The Moodies Group BIF are composed of chert, magnetite, and hematite, with minor 217 218 phyllosilicates (likely stilpnomelane and chamosite), goethite, and rare ankerite (see Table S2 for X-ray diffraction method and data). Samples showed a large range in the concentration of detrital 219 indicators, with Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> ranging from 8.5 wt.% to <0.1%, and with correlated concentrations of Sc, 220 Zr, Th, and Hf that reached sub-ppm values in the least contaminated samples (see Tables S3 in 221 the supplementary information for complete elemental dataset). Iron concentrations ranged from 222 73.8 wt.% Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3Total</sub> to 5.8 wt.%; 43 out of 54 samples meet the definition of iron formation of 223 >15 wt.% Fe (James, 1954), including two samples with  $Al_2O_3$  between 6 and 8 wt.%. 224 Phosphorus concentrations averaged 0.11 wt.% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and no apatite or other P-rich phases were 225 detected by X-ray diffraction nor by µXRF scanning (data not shown). Redox-sensitive trace 226 elements, such as U and Mo, are present at sub-ppm levels. Transition metals (e.g., V, Cr, Mn, 227 Co, Ni, Cu and Zn) show a variability of approximately one order of magnitude in absolute 228 229 abundances, similar to other larger BIF datasets (Figure S2; e.g., Konhauser et al., 2011; Robbins 230 et al., 2019b).

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Shale-normalized (SN) spectra for rare earth elements + yttrium (REY<sub>SN</sub>; simplified as REE throughout this manuscript) span a wide range in abundances relative to Post-Archean Australian Shale (PAAS; updated values from McLennan, 1989), ranging from below 0.01 to close to 1 (Figure 2). Total REE concentrations show strong correlation with detrital indicators, such as Zr concentrations (Figure 3). REE spectra are highly diverse, with some showing light REE (LREE) enrichment relative to heavy REE (HREE) enrichment, while others show the reverse. Nearly all

samples show suprachondritic Y/Ho ratios, ranging from 20.5 to 45.5, with an average of 35.0, as 238 239 well as significant positive La and Eu anomalies, and mild positive Gd anomalies. A striking feature of the spectra are highly variable Ce anomalies, with Ce/Ce\* reaching values as low as 240 0.19. A subset of the samples digested by alkaline fusion and analyzed for REE using a Tm spike 241 242 (Bayon et al., 2009) confirm the large range in La/Ce and Ce/Ce\* that is observed for samples digested using concentrated acids in PFA vials (Table S4). The cerium anomaly is calculated here 243 using the formulation of Lawrence et al. (2006) with  $Ce/Ce^* = Ce_{SN}/(Pr_{SN} * Pr_{SN}/Nd_{SN})$ , where 244 La is not considered in the calculation as to avoid false negative Ce anomalies that may arise 245 246 simply as the result of La enrichment.

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#### 248 4.2 Nd and Ce isotopes

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Nd isotope compositions (<sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd) of 22 selected samples from all three localities range from 250 0.510836 to 0.511459, while  $^{147}$ Sm/ $^{144}$ Nd ratios range from 0.0911 to 0.1453. Nd isotope model 251 ages span 3597 to 2246 Ma, with a mean value of 3161 Ma, assuming a source with CHUR 252 composition (147Sm/144Nd=0.1960 and 143Nd/144Nd=0.512630; Bouvier et al., 2008). Three 253 samples, all from the SB locality, show significantly younger model ages than the rest of the 254 dataset (mean  $\tau_{Nd CHUR} = 2487$  Ma); when these three samples are excluded, mean  $\tau_{Nd CHUR}$  value 255 of the rest of the dataset average 3267 Ma. On a  $^{147}$ Sm/ $^{144}$ Nd –  $^{143}$ Nd/ $^{144}$ Nd plot, samples from the 256 257 SB locality do not show any correlation. Samples from the DSR locality are tightly clustered. 258 With such a small range of Sm/Nd ratios, it is not possible to calculate a robust isochron. Samples 259 from the CC locality show a positive correlation that yields an errorchron with an apparent age of 260 2770±530 Ma (MSWD=16), considering measured uncertainties.

262	$^{138}$ La/ $^{142}$ Ce ratios for the five DSR samples analyzed range from 0.004 to 0.013, while the SB
263	sample analyzed showed a value of 0.004 (Figure 4b). Cerium isotope compositions ( $^{138}$ Ce/ $^{142}$ Ce)
264	ranged from 0.02257053 to 0.02257522 (Table S5). On a $^{138}$ La/ $^{142}$ Ce vs. $^{138}$ Ce/ $^{142}$ Ce plot, the five
265	analyzed DSR samples define an isochron that yields an apparent age of 60±32 Ma based on
266	measured uncertainties. The single analyzed SB sample overlaps the range defined by the DSR
267	samples.
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270	5. Discussion
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273	5.1 Unusual REE signatures in Moodies Group BIF
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Hayashi et al. (2004) in three samples from the Moodies and underlying Fig Tree Groups. One might be tempted to equate these anomalies with oxic Ce cycling at the time of deposition; however, Hayashi et al. (2004) suggested that such anomalies may instead represent postdepositional mobilization of REE with a maximum age of 1.1 Ga.

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291 Another unusual feature of the REE spectra is the highly variable degree of LREE vs. HREE enrichment. Modern seawater, and most detritus-free ancient chemical sediments (both BIF and 292 293 carbonates; e.g., Bohlar et al., 2004), generally shows HREE enrichment relative to LREE due to 294 lanthanide contraction and the decrease in ionic radii going from LREE to HREE as the result of 295 an increasingly filled f-electron shell. This contraction results in a more important extent of 296 aqueous carbonate complexation for HREE relative to LREE (Lee et al., 1992), leaving a greater proportion of LREE available for adsorption to reactive particle surfaces, thus decreasing their 297 298 concentration in seawater relative to the more strongly carbonate-complexed HREE. Another consequence of the lanthanide contraction is that LREE are more efficiently mobilized by 299 300 alteration fluids bearing important REE ligands such as fluoride, phosphate, and carbonate (e.g., 301 Wood, 1990; Bilal and Langer, 1989).

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Both syn-depositional and post-depositional processes may influence REE systematics. BIF, however, have generally been considered robust against post-depositional alteration of their REE signatures (Bau, 1993), even by protracted high-grade metamorphism (Bolhar et al., 2004). Nonetheless, the highly atypical nature of the REE signatures observed in this study, and the fact that all samples were obtained from surface outcrop, lead us to examine these assumptions more closely. We first consider controls over REE systematics that can be confidently linked to syndepositional processes, such as the seawater precipitation of iron and silica chemical components and the admixture of detrital contaminants, before examining alternative explanations forchemical features that are difficult to explain as primary.

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5.1 Syn-depositional control over REE signatures: chemical sedimentation vs. detrital
 contamination

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For the original protolith, prior to any post-depositional alteration, it is reasonable to assume that 317 REE were derived from two contrasting sources; (1) those scavenged directly from seawater onto 318 the surface of the original chemical precipitates, and (2) those delivered physically in association 319 320 with detrital components. Distinguishing these two sources can be difficult as both primary depositional processes and post-depositional alteration processes have the potential to generate 321 correlations that do not imply causation. For example, total REE concentrations in this dataset 322 show mild but notable correlations with major elements which are typically associated with a 323 predominately chemical sedimentary origin (e.g., Fe, Si, Mn, P; Pearson's correlation coefficients 324 325 of 0.21, -0.41, 0.28, and 0.59, respectively). However, even stronger correlations are observed between total REE concentrations and the concentrations of detrital indicators (e.g., Al, Ti, Zr, 326 Hf, Th; Pearson's correlation coefficients of 0.91, 0.86, 0.94, 0.91, and 0.95, respectively). A 327 variety of processes may induce such correlations. These include early depositional and 328 diagenetic processes such as REE adsorption to iron oxide precipitates or sequestration of REE 329 330 into early diagenetic phosphate minerals. However, multiple features of the REE spectra show no relation to the inferred chemical sedimentary component. For instance, there exists no good 331 correlation between Ce/Ce\* nor LREE/HREE (evaluated as Nd/Yb, for example) and the 332 concentrations of Fe, Si, Mn, or P. 333

335 On the other hand, some features of the REE spectra can be explained by the admixture of detrital components. In order to assess the influence of detrital contributions on REE spectra of the 336 Moodies BIF, we modelled the addition of detrital components to a detritus-poor sample. The 337 338 chemical composition of the Archean continental crust, used as a detrital component in our 339 model, is highly debated (e.g. Martin et al., 2005). We chose to use an average composition of TTG and Sanukitoids presented in Halla et al. (2017) as representative of the Archean crust and 340 as a material most likely to increase the LREE/HREE slope. The models are presented in Figure 5 341 342 and the chemical composition of the detrital component is given in Table S6. As shown in Figure 343 5a, Moodies samples are characterized by large variations in La/Yb ratios. The addition of detrital material to a detritus-poor sample results in an increase in the La/Yb ratio as shown in Fig. 5a. 344 The model succeeds in reproducing the general trends observed in CC and SB samples but not 345 346 the high La/Yb ratios in detritus-poor DSR samples. The model also explains variations observed in Yb and Th concentrations (Fig. 5b). This suggests that the increase in Yb in the Moodies 347 samples is primarily controlled by the addition of detrital material. During the addition of detrital 348 material to a detritus-poor sample, the chemical signatures of the REE spectra are modified (Fig. 349 350 5c). For example, the LREE depletion, characteristic of detritus-poor samples, is erased by the 351 addition of about 10-15% detrital material. The addition of detrital material also results in the suppression of the positive Y anomaly (Fig. 5c). However, during the addition of detrital material, 352 the positive Eu anomaly is not affected and remains a characteristic feature of detrital-rich 353 354 samples (Fig. 2). This indicates that the chemical composition of the crustal component is characterized by a positive Eu anomaly, evidence for which is also apparent in Barberton TTG 355 356 rocks (Moyen et al., 2019, their supplementary data). During the addition of detrital components, the La/Ce and Sm/Nd ratios both decrease slightly. 357

Detrital contributions can explain large variations in total REE concentrations and also the correlation between Yb and Zr, but fail to explain certain features in the dataset, notably the high La/Yb ratios seen in DSR samples at low Zr abundances, as well as the presence of Ce anomalies in general. As discussed in the next section, these are better explained by post-depositional alteration processes. Detrital contributions appeared to have modified the sensitivity of both of these features (La/Yb and Ce anomalies) to post-depositional alteration.

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#### 367 **5.2 Fluid addition**

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REE spectra have been clearly affected by a secondary process that resulted in differential 369 370 REE mobilization. Two distinct mechanisms of REE mobilization could be proposed to explain such variations; (1) removal of REE during chemical weathering, and/or (2) addition of REE by 371 fluid circulation. The REE concentrations in aqueous solutions are affected by several 372 parameters, including the original composition of the protolith, the chemical composition of the 373 fluid, and physicochemical conditions during the fluid-rock interaction. For example, during 374 chemical weathering and leaching of REE in basalts, it has been shown that LREE are 375 preferentially mobilized compared to HREE (Cotten et al., 1995). This process results in REE 376 spectra for the fluid that show elevated LREE/HREE ratios relative to the protolith. However, it's 377 378 important to note that the relative enrichment of LREE and HREE can be highly variable as a function of protolith, fluid chemistry, degree of alteration, . Importantly, during chemical 379 weathering and fluid-rock interaction in tropical environments, Ce is oxidized to Ce<sup>4+</sup> and 380 becomes insoluble, leaving the fluid with a strong negative anomaly (Cotten et al. 1995). The 381

removal of REE by chemical weathering would thus result in depletion of the total REE concentration of the protolith, leaving a strong LREE depletion in the residual altered rock and a strong positive Ce anomaly, which is the opposite of what is observed in Moodies BIF. Instead, we propose that fluid addition is largely responsible for generating the unusual REE spectra in the samples. As discussed below, the initial REE content of the iron formations themselves also appears to have played a role in the modification of REE spectra features during fluid addition.

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389 To further explore the possible impact of fluid addition, we have developed two fluid addition models (Fig. 6). The fluid used in these models bears deliberately simple REE spectra and shows 390 391 two main features; (1) a positive linear enrichment from Lu to La, and (2) a strong negative Ce 392 anomaly (Ce/Ce\* = 0.27). The REE concentrations in the model fluid presented in Figure 6 are listed in Table S6. The two models presented in Figure 6 represent the admixing of REE from 393 394 fluids of the same composition to rocks of differing initial compositions. Two end-member cases are presented where the starting compositions were either detritus-poor or detritus-rich, 395 respectively. During fluid addition, the total REE concentration increases, the REE spectra 396 become progressively enriched in LREE, and negative Ce/Ce\* values are produced (Fig. 6). 397 Importantly, the Ce/Yb ratio will either increase or decrease, depending on the composition of the 398 protolith (i.e., detritus-rich or -poor). Similarly, in the case of La/Yb (Figure 5a), detritally 399 400 contaminated samples (high Zr) do not reach La/Yb ratios above crustal values, whereas detritusfree samples (low Zr) show both high and low La/Yb values. Samples showing low La/Yb values 401 402 appear to retain the light REE depletion expected for seawater precipitates. However, samples with high La/Yb ratios cannot be explained by a seawater origin nor by detrital contamination; 403 404 the best explanation for samples found above crustal La/Yb values is late LREE addition.

The REE concentration in the fluid is unknown which prevents us from determining the amount 406 407 of fluid addition necessary to explain the observed variations. Nevertheless, it is clear that the amount of inherited REE required to alter spectra will be greater for a detritus-rich sample than 408 for a detritus-poor sample. The model we present illustrates the late generation of multiple 409 410 features of the unusual REE spectra using relatively simple and plausible assumptions, notably a preferential mobility of LREE compared to HREE. It is possible that the source of the mobilized 411 REE is the host rock itself, in which case the fluid would be expected to carry pre-existing 412 anomalies, such as a positive Eu anomaly. However, when considering fluids of different 413 compositions and relative REE mobilities, it quickly becomes apparent that the system is poorly 414 415 constrained and that diverse fluid compositions may be evoked to explain any given alteration 416 pattern, regardless of the protolith from which REE in the fluids derived. What is apparent, however, is that these fluids were enriched in LREE while at the same time depleted in Ce. 417

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Groundwaters today are characterized by REE concentrations that are generally low, in the 419 420 nanomolar to picomolar range, including deeper (~200m) groundwaters draining REE-rich 421 lithologies such as granite (Janssen and Verweij, 2003; Noack et al., 2014; Munemoto et al., 2015). Mean iron formation Ce and Pr concentrations observed in our dataset are 10 and 1.3 ppm, 422 respectively. Mass balance indicates that to supply an equivalent amount of REE from 423 groundwater, volumes ranging from as little as 200L per Kg of iron formation, to as much as ten 424 million liters, are implied. Acidic geothermal waters may carry higher REE loads, up to  $\sim 0.1$  ppm 425 426 (Wood, 2006), and could supply the necessary REE in as little as 100L per Kg of iron formation. Crucially, the BGB already contains evidence of significant REE mobility during the formation 427 of "ironstone pods" as the result of iron dissolution and reprecipitation in shallow groundwater 428 429 systems (Lowe and Byerly, 2007). Contrary to the samples studied herein, these pods show a range of features that are inconsistent with an Archean origin, namely a lack of deformation, stratification aligned with modern topographic slopes, abundant cavities, and goethite drip features. Importantly, these ironstone pods bear both positive and negative Ce anomalies, reaching as low as 0.2 Ce/Ce\*, and bear concentrations of REE that are similar to those reported here for the Moodies BIF (Hren et al., 2006). They thus offering an attractive analogue for how significant quantities of REE may have been mobilized under near-surface conditions and with sufficient oxygen exposure to generate large Ce anomalies in markedly older rocks.

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## 439 5.3 Applicability of Sm-Nd and La-Ce geochronometers for dating fluid addition

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As discussed above, fluid addition likely had a strong influence on REE elemental ratios. In 441 442 Figure 7, we present the impact of our fluid addition model on the La/Ce and Sm/Nd ratios. The La/Ce ratio is most strongly affected because the added fluid is heavily depleted in Ce. This 443 results in an increase in the La/Ce ratio of the altered samples. In the models presented in Figure 444 7a. the <sup>138</sup>La/<sup>142</sup>Ce ratio evolves from 0.004 to 0.015. During fluid addition, the Sm/Nd ratios are 445 also affected and slightly decrease from 0.13 to 0.10 (Fig. 7b). The modification of 446 parent/daughter elemental ratios during fluid addition has strong implications for the time-447 dependent evolution of Ce and Nd isotopic compositions because the relatively large variations in 448 La/Ce produced during alteration means that it is possible to use Ce isotopes to constrain the 449 450 timing of fluid addition.

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452 A large spread in La/Ce ratios, if ancient, should give rise to a corresponding large spread in the 453  $^{138}$ Ce/<sup>142</sup>Ce ratio, as sufficient time has passed for ingrowth of  $^{138}$ Ce from  $^{138}$ La decay to occur.

However, if the fractionation of La and Ce is more recent, ingrowth of <sup>138</sup>Ce will be small, 454 considering the long half-life of <sup>138</sup>La, and samples will show a restricted range in <sup>138</sup>Ce/<sup>142</sup>Ce 455 despite a large apparent range in La/Ce. We have measured the Ce isotopic compositions of six 456 samples with varying <sup>138</sup>La/<sup>142</sup>Ce ratios (from 0.004 to 0.012), and a plot of <sup>138</sup>Ce/<sup>142</sup>Ce versus 457  $^{138}$ La/ $^{142}$ Ce gives an isochron age of 60 ± 32 Ma (Figure 4b). This suggests that the La-Ce 458 elemental fractionation occurred considerably more recently than deposition of the Moodies BIF. 459 In Figure 8a, we report the theoretical isochrons for two fractionation ages (the known 3.2 Ga 460 U/Pb zircon-constrained depositional age, and the La/Ce fractionation age of 1.1 Ga suggested as 461 a maximum age by Hayashi et al., 2004), anchored for simplicity at the same initial  $^{138}$ Ce/ $^{142}$ Ce 462 value as indicated by our data. As is clearly evident, the data reported in this study does not show 463 the expected <sup>138</sup>Ce ingrowth predicted by a 3.2 Ga isochron, but rather shows a restricted range in 464 <sup>138</sup>Ce/<sup>142</sup>Ce, consistent with a suite of sediments that possessed similar La/Ce ratios for most of 465 466 their history. This confirms that the La/Ce fractionation is not a primary feature of the Moodies BIF, and crucially, the negative Ce anomalies were generated post-depositionally. Our data also 467 show a less inclined slope than the 1.1 Ga isochron, which contradicts the La/Ce fractionation 468 ages proposed by Hayashi et al. (2004). This maximum age was essentially proposed to explain 469 the radiogenic Ce isotopic composition of a banded ferruginous chert from the Fig Tree Group 470 (cCe=9.2). All our samples, on the contrary, plot on the terrestrial Ce-Nd array defined by Israel 471 et al. (2020) with present day ECe and ENd mean values for the less-perturbed DSR samples of 472 3.9 and -33.1, respectively. 473

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The fractionation of La from Ce, and thus the generation of negative Ce anomalies, is more recent than proposed by Hayashi et al. (2004). However, considering the long half-life of  $^{138}$ La, we emphasize that the geochronological resolution of our dataset is limited. It is safe to say that

La/Ce fractionation likely occurred in the last 100 Ma. This is consistent with the findings of 478 479 Lowe and Byerly (2007), who inferred that the "ironstone pods" found in multiple localities in the Barberton Greenstone Belt formed during the Cenozoic, most likely during the Pleistocene. 480 These ironstone pods are composed largely of goethite that would not have survived 481 482 metamorphic temperatures exceeding ~100 °C without recrystallization to hematite. The BIF sampled in this study also contain a small, but non-negligible, quantity of goethite in some 483 samples (Table S2). This similarly indicates that some hydrological modification must have 484 occurred at near-surface conditions. There appears to be no correlation between the magnitude of 485 the Ce anomaly and any feature of sample mineralogy that would indicate a consistent 486 mineralogical pattern of post-depositional alteration (Table S2). While the Moodies BIF show 487 multiple features consistent with an Archean origin (deformation, strike and dip consistent with 488 adjacent siliciclastic units, mineral assemblages consistent with metamorphosed BIF), it is likely 489 that these units were also subject to hydrological modification during wetter periods of the 490 Cenozoic. 491

Fluid addition also played a role in the Sm/Nd variations measured in the Moodies BIF, 492 with consequences for Sm-Nd geochronology. In a plot of <sup>143</sup>Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd versus <sup>147</sup>Sm/<sup>144</sup>Nd, the 493 samples from the CC locality lie on an isochron with an age of  $2770 \pm 530$  Ma whereas the other 494 localities either plot outside of the isochron (most SB samples) or show little variation (DSR). In 495 order to test the influence of fluid addition on the Sm/Nd isochron, we calculated the theoretical 496 3.2 Ga isochron anchored by the sample with the highest Sm/Nd ratio because this sample was 497 498 least affected by detrital input or fluid addition, which both act to decrease the Sm/Nd ratio (Figure 8b). It can be clearly seen that the majority of points lie to the left of the theoretical 499 isochron. This is consistent with the models presented where fluid addition is shown to decrease 500 501 the Sm/Nd ratio and move points to the left of the isochron. The deviation from the 3.2 Ga isochron can be calculated (as the difference in Sm/Nd ratio expressed in %) and plotted as a function of the magnitude of the cerium anomaly (Figure 9). This deviation scales positively with the magnitudes of negative Ce anomalies in the same samples and is consistent with Sm/Nd ratios that have been affected by fluid addition. However, this fluid delivery did not change the Nd isotope composition. SB samples that are the most affected by the suspected fluid addition show  $^{143}$ Nd/<sup>144</sup>Nd ratios in a narrow range (<2 $\epsilon$ ), showing that the fluid may have been internal to the examined BIF units.

It is important to note that Sm/Nd ratios are less susceptible to fractionation relative to 509 510 La/Ce ratios because neither undergo redox transformation under surface or upper-mantle 511 conditions. The shifts in Sm/Nd produced by fluid addition are thus small, and while perceptible 512 on an isochron plot, may still give an isochron age that is within error of the known depositional age (which is the case of the isochron coinciding with the CC samples in Figure 4). Ultimately, 513 while the influence of fluid addition on Sm-Nd geochronology may be apparent, it is unsuitable 514 515 for resolving the timing of fluid addition due to the muted effects on the Sm/Nd ratio. Sm-Nd geochronology should thus not be used to constrain the timing of emplacement of Ce anomalies 516 517 in ancient rocks, metasedimentary or otherwise.

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#### 519 5.4 Implications for geochemical proxy reconstruction of Archean redox conditions

Redox-sensitive geochemical proxies such as Ce/Ce\* are widely applied to reconstruct the history of Earth surface oxygenation. In Archean black shales, enrichments in redox–sensitive elements (S, Mo, Re, Os), as well as Fe, Mo and C isotopes, all suggest that O<sub>2</sub>-rich niches already existed ca. 2.6 to 3.0 Ga (e.g., Wille et al., 2007; Czaja et al., 2012; Stüeken et al., 2012; Thomazo et al., 2013). In diverse metasediments of the Pongola Supergroup, isotope compositions of S, Fe, Cr, Mo, and U have all similarly been used to indicate the presence of
some free O<sub>2</sub> ca. 2.96 Ga ago (Crowe et al., 2013; Planavsky et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2018;
Eickmann et al., 2018). Sedimentary Fe isotope composition and U enrichment have also been
used to argue for oxygenated surface waters as far back as 3.2 Ga ago (Satkoski et al., 2015).

529 Nevertheless, a Paleo- to Mesoarchean origin for oxygenic photosynthesis remains 530 controversial (e.g., Johnson et al., 2013; Ward et al., 2016). Part of this controversy is related to alternative interpretations of geochemical records suggested as proxies for  $O_2$  in deep time, 531 532 especially emerging metal isotope proxies (e.g., Konhauser et al., 2011; Kaufman, 2014) and to 533 uncertainty in the robustness and syngenicity of these signals (Kirschvink et al., 2012; Kaufman, 534 2014). Indeed, post-depositional oxidation of originally reduced Archean metasediments has been 535 widely demonstrated (e.g., Li et al., 2012; Rasmussen et al., 2014a; Albut et al., 2018). For instance, Hoashi et al. (2009) hypothesized that hematite in the 3.46 Ga Marble Bar chert (Pilbara 536 537 Supergroup, Australia) occurred as a primary precipitate formed in the presence of seawater, yet 538 this was later discounted on petrographic grounds (Rasmussen et al., 2014b). Similarly, Cr 539 isotope fractionation in the 2.96 Ga Singeni IF (Pongola Supergroup, South Africa) that was used to suggest transient atmospheric oxygenation ca. 3.0 Ga (Crowe et al., 2013) was later shown to 540 be present in surface samples but not in fresh drill core (Albut et al., 2018), and since confirmed 541 542 using U-series isotopic disequilibrium to represent modern weathering (Albut et al., 2019). Due 543 to the uncertainties surrounding the timing of oxidation, it appears that geochemical proxy evidence indicating the former presence of  $O_2$  in water may not alone be sufficient to resolve the 544 debate surrounding the origin of oxygenic photosynthesis. 545

546 Several geochemical proxies for  $O_2$  form radiogenic systems that are amenable to dating, 547 and radiogenic approaches for constraining the timing of oxidation have now been successfully

applied using Re-Os (Kendall et al., 2015) and U-Th-Pb (Li et al., 2012; Satkoski et al., 2015). 548 549 The latter approach provides the only direct geochronological support to date for an oxidative 550 proxy signal dating as far back as 3.2 Ga ago. Our study underlines the necessity of such an approach. Ce/Ce\* is considered one of the most robust redox proxies due to the general 551 552 insolubility of REE at Earth surface conditions, by their immobility during greenschist- and 553 amphibolite-facies metamorphism, and by the fact that Ce becomes even more immobile when oxidized. Indeed, with the exception of the Hayashi et al. (2004) study and this work, we are 554 555 unaware of any reports of confirmed late emplacement of negative Ce anomalies in Archean-aged metasedimentary rocks. However, several published datasets in Archean rocks warrant 556 557 reexamination of the inferred syn-depositional origin of negative Ce anomalies. For example, an Archean paleosol from the Singhbhum Craton displays strongly negative Ce anomalies that were 558 used to suggest transient atmospheric oxygenation sometime prior to 3.02 Ga, yet iron loss and U 559 560 immobility within the paleosol, as well as the presence of redox-sensitive detrital pyrite and uraninite in overlying sediments, indicate reducing conditions (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2014). 561 Furthermore, the sample showing the most pronounced Ce anomaly conspicuously shows 562 pronounced LREE enrichment but comparable Ce abundance relative to other samples. In a study 563 compiling REE data from multiple studies, Kato et al. (2006) highlighted that several different 564 565 BIF occurrences deposited prior to 2.5 Ga are characterized by negative Ce anomalies. It would be prudent to re-examine these samples for telltale signs of REE mobilization and the generation 566 of Ce anomalies by fluid addition, which may be indicated by LREE enrichment. While late 567 568 emplacement of a negative Ce anomaly by an alteration fluid simply requires oxic conditions at some point during the fluid's trajectory, it's important to note that this anomaly could persist if 569 conditions became anoxic further along the flow path. Contrary to some redox indicators such as 570 571 uranium that are rapidly scrubbed out of solution at reductive redox boundaries (c.f. Abdelouas et al., 2000, and reference therein), only dilution by non-fractionated REE, or possibly reductive dissolution of minerals that already bore a positive Ce anomaly, would erase a negative Ce anomaly from an alteration fluid. Such a scenario may lead to the emplacement of negative Ce anomalies in rocks that simultaneously bear indicators of anoxia, such as U immobility.

576 This work constitutes a cautionary tale in that even the most robust (e.g., least easily 577 reset) elemental and isotopic proxies for ancient oxygenation, such as REE and their isotopes, are 578 susceptible to post-depositional alteration. In the case of REE-based proxies, as described here, 579 there are a variety of supplemental indicators that can be used to reveal such processes, such as 580 modifications to the REE spectra and perturbation to Nd and Ce isotope systematics. This is not 581 the case for all elemental and isotopic redox proxies. Therefore, when inferring the ancient 582 presence of O<sub>2</sub> from elemental and isotopic redox proxies, additional confirmatory information regarding the syn-depositional nature of the signal is required. 583

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#### 586 6. Conclusion

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Some BIF of the Moodies Group show unusual features in their shale-normalized REE spectra, most notably pronounced negative Ce anomalies and variable LREE vs. HREE enrichment, with some samples possessing LREE that are enriched compared to HREE. We examined the origin of these features with respect to potential syn- and post-depositional processes that may have influenced the REE spectra. While total REE abundances scale weakly with the concentrations of elements that were likely derived from the chemical components of the sediment (Fe, Si, Mn, P), there appears to be little relation between their concentrations and the features of the REE spectra

themselves. By contrast, total REE abundances scaled strongly in a positive fashion with the 595 596 concentrations of indicators of detrital contamination, notably Al, Ti, Hf, Th, and Zr. Detrital contamination clearly exerted control over REE features in these samples but cannot explain the 597 598 presence of significant negative Ce anomalies nor extreme LREE enrichments relative to HREE, 599 which we attribute to post-depositional mobilization of REE and addition of REE by alteration fluids. A simple model for the late addition of REE can explain these unusual spectral features for 600 both detritus-rich and detritus-poor samples. The influence of this late REE addition is also 601 evident in the Ce and Nd isotope systematics of these samples. La/Ce ratios were significantly 602 altered by fluid addition, and the samples form a La-Ce isochron that constrains the timing of 603 604 fluid addition to within the last 100 Ma. This is consistent with previous suggestions that negative Ce anomalies in ferruginous sediments of the Barberton Greenstone Belt are not primary features 605 and confirms the utility of the La-Ce isotope approach for constraining the timing of oxidation as 606 expressed by the Ce anomaly redox proxy. Sm/Nd ratios were less perturbed by fluid addition; 607 nevertheless, the effect of fluid addition is evident in the Nd isotopic compositions of the 608 609 samples, with deviation of both the sample set Sm-Nd isochron, as well as Nd model ages, that is 610 proportional to the importance of fluid addition, as inferred by the magnitude of the negative Ce anomaly. This work highlights the need for careful consideration of the potential for post-611 612 depositional alteration to modify elemental and isotopic redox proxies. Caution is warranted when inferring the ancient presence of  $O_2$  in the absence of direct geochronological constraints 613 on the age of the proxy signal. 614

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### 817 Declaration of competing interest:

818 We have no competing financial interests or personal relationship that could have appeared to

819 influence the work reported in this paper.

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### 822 Figures



Figure 1. Location and stratigraphy of Moodies Group BIF in the Barberton Greenstone Belt. (A) Map
showing sampling locations. (B) Stratigraphic columns of the Stolzburg Syncline, Moodies Hills Block,
Dycedale Syncline and Eureka Syncline. Abbreviations of stratigraphic units follow Anhaeusser (1976).



Figure 2. PAAS-normalized REE patterns of Moodies BIF analysed in this study (DSR = Devil's
Staircase Road of the Moodies Hills block, CC = Clutha Creek section of the Eureka Syncline, SB =
eastern Stolzburg Syncline).







Figure 4. (a) Sm-Nd isotope composition of Moodies Group BIF analysed in this study. (b) La-Ce isotope
composition of selected samples from the SB and DSR localities.



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Figure 5. (a) La/Yb ratio versus Zr concentrations for Moodies Group BIF. (b) Yb concentration versus Th concentration of the Moodies Group BIF. (c) PAAS-normalized REE patterns for a detritus-poor sample (CC-14-52) together with models of admixture of detrital input. Dashed lines in (a) and (b) represent the admixing model of detrital material. Values for Archean Crust in (c) are from Halla et al. (2017) (Table S6). The values given in (c) show the amount of detrital material added to the detritus-poor sample. See text for details.



Figure 6. Ce anomaly versus shale-normalised Ce/Yb ratio in Moodies Group BIF. The dashed line
represents the admixing model; arrow indicates increasing admixture of detrital material. The dotted and
solid lines show fluid addition models with detritus-poor and detritus-rich starting composition,
respectively. See text for details.



**Figure 7.** (a) <sup>138</sup>Ce/<sup>142</sup>Ce versus shale-normalized Ce/Yb ratio. (b) <sup>147</sup>Sm/<sup>144</sup>Nd versus shale-normalized Ce/Yb ratio in the Moodies Group BIF analysed in this study. The dotted and solid lines show fluid addition models with a detritus-poor and detritus-rich starting composition, respectively. See text for details.



**Figure 8**. (a) La-Ce isotope composition of selected samples from the SB and DSR localities; (b) Sm-Nd isotope composition of Moodies Group BIF analysed in this study. In (a), the black and red lines are theoretical Sm-Nd isochrons at 1.1 Ga and 3.2 Ga, respectively. In (b), the blue line is the isochron calculated using samples from the CC locality only;the black line is a theoretical isochron calculated using the U/Pb-constrained depositional age. The arrow in (b) indicates the modification induced by fluid addition.

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Figure 9. Degree of Sm/Nd-ratio deviation from the 3.2 Ga isochron (in %) versus magnitude of the Ceanomaly of Moodies Group BIF. See text for details.

- 908 Supplementary Figures



Figure S1. Mean (triangles) as well as maximum and minimum concentrations (red shaded area) of major
elements in Moodies Group BIF (n=48). For comparison (gray shaded area), the range of values provided
by Klein (2005) for a large compilation of Archean and Paleoproterozoic BIF (n=90).





Figure S2. Box-and-whisker plot of selected major elements and transition metals in Moodies Group BIF
 (n=51). Red lines represent mean values, box limits denote 75<sup>th</sup> and 25<sup>th</sup> percentiles, and whiskers show
 the full range of values.

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