

1 **Are Early Triassic extinction events associated with mercury anomalies? A reassessment of**  
2 **the Smithian/Spathian boundary extinction**

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8 **Abstract**

9 High concentrations of mercury, possibly connected with widespread volcanism of the Siberian Traps,  
10 have previously been associated with the Smithian/Spathian (Early Triassic) boundary (SSB) in the  
11 Sverdrup Basin, Tethyan sections in India and China, as well as with a shallow-water record in  
12 western Spitsbergen. We confirm this Hg/TOC anomaly in the deeper water record at  
13 Wallenbergfjellet, central Spitsbergen. However, both paleontological age control and carbon  
14 isotopes indicate that the Hg anomaly occurred mainly within strata of middle Smithian age.  
15 Therefore, this Hg anomaly is unlikely to be directly causally related to mechanisms contributing to  
16 the late Smithian global extinction of nektonic faunas. The TOC and trace element data suggest  
17 generally more oxygenated conditions during the Smithian compared to the Spathian, which is at  
18 odds with the hypothesis that oxygen depletion may have been a global kill mechanism for the SSB  
19 extinction. Further work is needed to assess if precise timing and paleogeographic distribution of  
20 anoxia shows any consistent pattern or not during the Smithian and Spathian. The very abrupt lower  
21 limb of the positive carbon isotope excursion (CIE) and the coarser grain size immediately below the  
22 boundary between the Lusitaniadalen Member and the Vendomdalen Member indicate a substantial  
23 stratigraphic gap of latest Smithian age, a previously neglected signal shared with many other boreal  
24 SSB sections. Ammonoid age control also indicates that the onset of the late Smithian gap in the high

25 latitudes was earlier than in the Tropics. The gradual end of the positive CIE contrasts with the  
26 frequent spike shape observed in tropical shelf records and is definitively earliest Spathian in age.  
27 The middle Smithian Hg anomaly in the Boreal record is only visible in the Hg/TOC values, and is  
28 associated with a possible shift in organic matter type from terrestrial to marine in the case of  
29 Spitsbergen. This suggests that the middle Smithian Hg/TOC anomaly in Spitsbergen may not  
30 unequivocally originate from volcanism, and calls for additional caution before interpreting Hg spikes  
31 as a volcanic proxy.

32 Key words: Earth crises; volcanism; extinction; carbon isotopes; Spitsbergen

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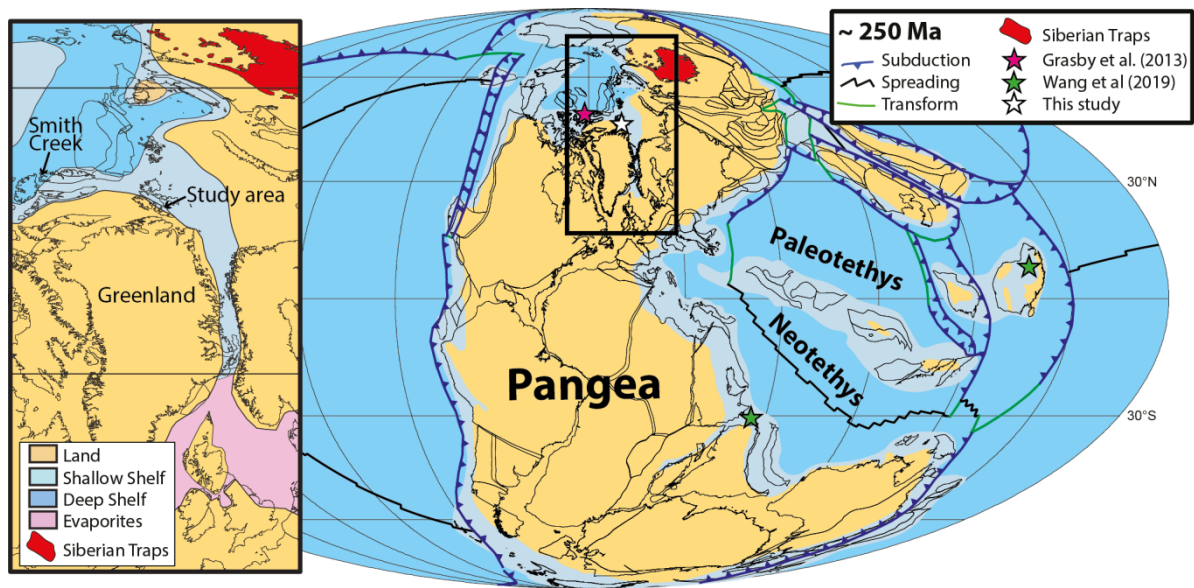
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51 **1. Introduction**

52 The Early Triassic is a fascinating epoch in Earth history, as ecosystems rebuilt and reformed in the  
53 aftermath of the end-Permian extinction event, the most biologically severe mass extinction in the  
54 Phanerozoic (Sepkoski, 1996; 2002). The most commonly cited cause of the end-Permian crisis is the  
55 Siberian Traps large igneous province (LIP), which may have released large volumes of greenhouse  
56 gases and other harmful volatiles to the atmosphere during volcanism and through contact  
57 metamorphism (Black et al., 2012; 2014; Burgess and Bowring, 2015; Ernst and Youbi, 2017; Jones et  
58 al., 2016; Svensen et al., 2009; Figure 1). The end-Permian extinction is marked by a sharp negative  
59 carbon isotope ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) excursion (Baud et al., 1989; Magaritz et al., 1988; Shen et al., 2012), indicating  
60 an environmental disturbance that involved the potential release of  $^{12}\text{C}$ -rich carbon to the ocean-  
61 atmosphere system (Figure 2). The end-Permian extinction was followed by a 5 Myr period of  
62 lingering recovery of the benthos (Hautmann, 2014; Hautmann et al. 2015) and of explosive  
63 recoveries interrupted by massive extinctions of the nekton (Brayard et al., 2009; Brayard and Bucher,  
64 2015; Orchard, 2007). These diverging biodiversity patterns were accompanied by large positive and  
65 negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  fluctuations (Payne et al., 2004; Meyer et al., 2011; Grasby et al., 2016; Song et al.,  
66 2013), including at the Smithian/Spathian boundary (SSB) in the middle of the Early Triassic (Galfetti  
67 et al., 2007b).

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69

70 Figure 1. A paleogeographical reconstruction at around 250 Ma (Early Triassic), after Torsvik and Cocks (2017).

71 Postulated plate boundaries are marked, with solid blue lines denoting subduction zones with teeth on the

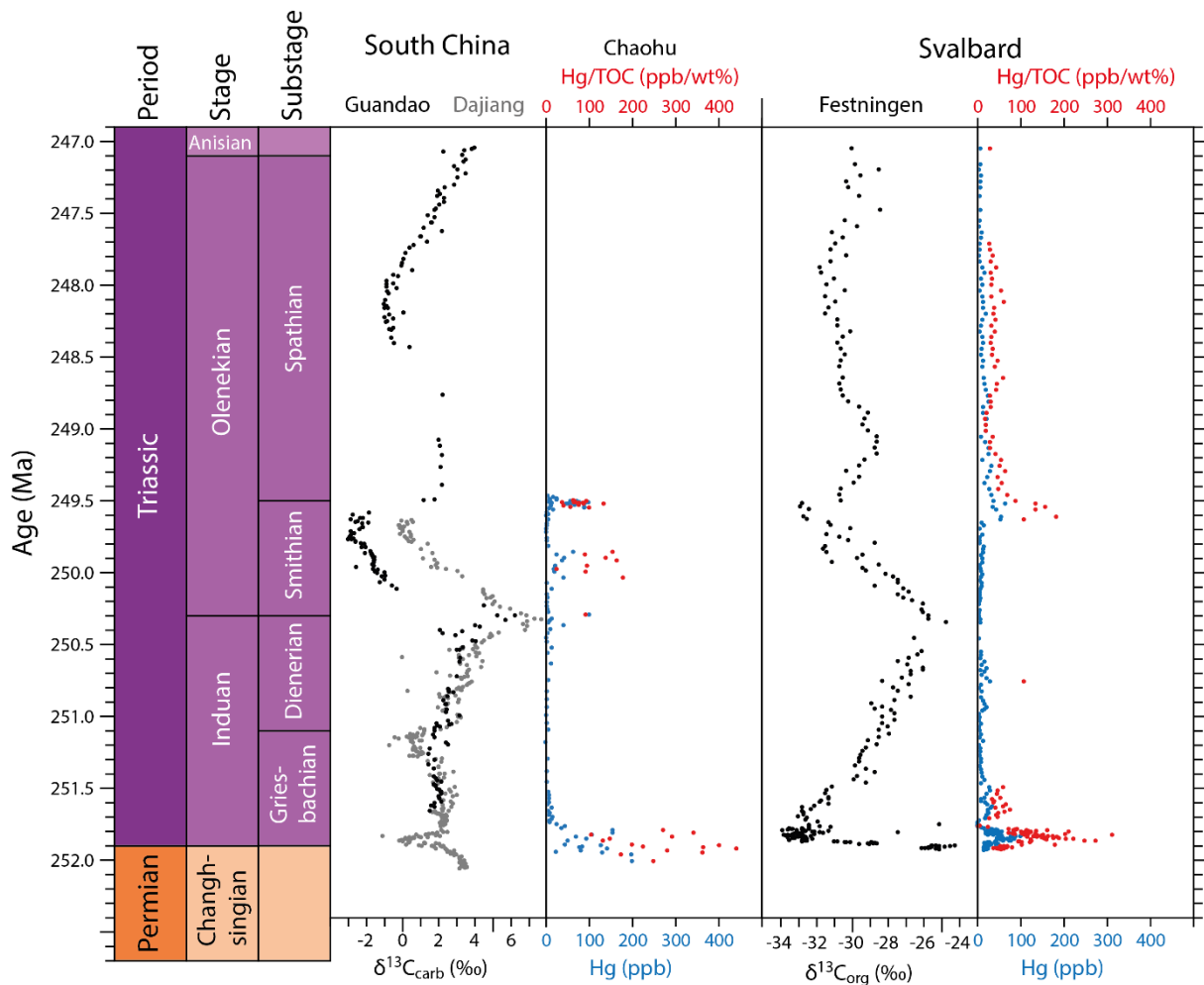
72 upper plate, black lines are spreading centres, and green lines are transform plate margins. Outlines of major

73 crustal units are shown in black. Predicted paleoshorelines are from Golonka (2011). The known extent of the

74 Siberian Traps LIP is shown in red. The pink star shows the sample locality used by Grasby et al. (2013), also the

75 type locality of the Smithian substage at Smith Creek, Ellesmere Island. The green stars show the sample

76 locations of Wang et al. (2019), while the white star shows the locality used in this study (see Figure 3).



77

78 Figure 2. A summary of carbon isotope excursions and Hg anomalies in the Early Triassic. The South China  
 79  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  data is from Meyer et al. (2011) and Payne et al. (2004), with the Guandao data points shown in black  
 80 and the Dajiang data points shown in grey. Hg (blue) and Hg/TOC data from Chaohu are also shown (Wang et  
 81 al., 2019). The Festningen  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ , Hg (blue), and Hg/TOC (red) data from Svalbard are from Grasby et al. (2013;  
 82 2016). Hg/TOC values only shown where TOC > 0.2 wt.% (Grasby et al. 2016), as TOC concentrations below this  
 83 threshold result in errors in Hg/TOC values larger than any potential anomalies. These datasets have been  
 84 calibrated with the latest generation of radio-isotopic ages (Burgess et al., 2014; Ovtcharova et al., 2015;  
 85 Baresel et al., 2017). Constant sedimentation rates are assumed within each substage. Equal durations of the  
 86 Griesbachian, Dienerian and Smithian substages are arbitrary because of the lack of radio-isotopic age dates.  
 87 The duration of the Spathian is derived from the older generation of U-Pb ages (Galfetti et al., 2007b).

88

89 The Smithian was a period of intense carbon cycle instability, with a prolonged (100's kyr) and  
90 significant (4-10 ‰) negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion (Figure 2; Payne et al., 2004; Tong et al., 2007). In  
91 contrast, the SSB is marked by a sharp positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion (Payne et al., 2004) and a drastic  
92 extinction of marine nektonic organisms (Orchard, 2007; Brayard and Bucher, 2015). Wang et al.  
93 (2019) placed the SSB well after the onset of the CIE in South China, based on the first occurrence of  
94 the conodont index *Novispathodus pingdingshanensis*. However, the first occurrence of this species  
95 appears to be globally diachronous (Zhang et al., 2019), as it has been shown to co-occur with late  
96 Smithian taxa as well (e.g., *Xenoceltites*, Komatsu et al., 2016; Goudemand et al., 2012; Orchard &  
97 Zonneveld, 2009; *Glyptophiceras*, Romano et al., 2013; *Scythogondolella milleri*, Leu et al., 2018). The  
98 late Smithian extinction unfolded in a stepwise pattern, with a first diversity decrease of ammonoids  
99 during the early late Smithian *Wasatchites tardus* Zone (Brühwiler et al., 2010). It was followed by a  
100 further decrease during the late late Smithian *Glyptophiceras sinuatum* Zone (Brühwiler et al., 2010),  
101 where diversity was at its lowest (Brayard and Bucher, 2015), even lower than in the Permian-Triassic  
102 boundary bottleneck (Brayard et al., 2009). At least in the low paleolatitudes, ammonoids  
103 experienced an explosive re-diversification during the early Spathian (Brayard et al., 2006). The  
104 diversity of conodonts followed a roughly parallel trend (Orchard, 2007) and this clade experienced  
105 its last major evolutionary radiation from the SSB onward. Ecological communities of terrestrial  
106 plants were most profoundly affected during the middle Smithian as manifested by the presence of a  
107 spore spike (Hermann et al., 2011). Floras indicate a relatively more humid climate before the early  
108 late Smithian *W.tardus* Zone compared to drier climatic conditions during and after the same zone,  
109 but their ecological recovery was already well under way from the middle-late Smithian boundary on  
110 (Hermann et al., 2011; Hochuli et al., 2016). The composition of marine vertebrate apex predators  
111 was also reshuffled during the end-Smithian extinction, with the replacement of amphibians by  
112 reptiles (Scheyer et al., 2014).

113 Zhang et al. (2019) provided a thorough review of the available definition(s) of the SSB by means of  
114 ammonoids, conodonts, and carbon isotopes. In terms of ammonoids, these authors tacitly endorsed

115 the discrete and “natural” approach of biochronological boundaries as advocated by Lucas (2018),  
116 which was and still is successfully employed and refined in Early and Middle Triassic ammonoid  
117 biochronology. For the low latitudes, the current understanding in terms of ammonoids is that the  
118 SSB is within the interval of separation bounded by the *Glyptophyseras-Xenoceltites* zone below  
119 (Brühwiler et al., 2010) and the tirolitid n. gen. A beds above (Galfetti et al., 2007b). By no means  
120 does this definition exclude the future intercalation of one or several additional zones within this  
121 interval of separation. This can be anticipated from sections where the SSB global regression was  
122 outstripped by local tectonic subsidence (Bucher, ongoing work). However, this definition is not  
123 directly transferable to the high latitude record because: 1) correlatives of the late Smithian  
124 *Glyptophyseras-Xenoceltites* zone are always absent in the boreal record where it has been removed  
125 by the earlier onset of the SSB gap, and 2) the explosive diversification of tirolitids is restricted to low  
126 latitudes. Our recent finding of the oldest tirolitid (= tirolitid n. gen. A in Galfetti et al. 2007b)  
127 associated with *Bajarunia euomphala* in Nevada (Bucher, ongoing work) combined with the here  
128 newly reported occurrence of *B. euomphala* 0.60 m above the base of the Vendomdalen Member at  
129 Stensiöfjellet considerably narrows down the interval of separation containing the SSB in the  
130 Spitsbergen record. There, the SSB is now bracketed by the top of the *Wasatchites tardus* Zone  
131 below and the new base of the *Bajarunia euomphala* Zone above.

132 In terms of conodont Unitary Association zones, ongoing work by Leu et al. in several low latitude  
133 records leads to improved accuracy and precision, but this is not directly relevant to the Spitsbergen  
134 data presented here which rely on ammonoid age control.

135 Last but not least, the utilization of the carbon isotope record as a surrogate in the absence of age-  
136 diagnostic fossils is directly dependent on the completeness of the record and sedimentation rates.  
137 Considering the evidence for a global regression straddling the paleontologically defined SSB, great  
138 care is needed when attempting detailed chemostratigraphic correlations during the late Smithian  
139 and basal Spathian. We also presently document that the onset of the positive CIE is still within the

140 middle Smithian in Spitsbergen, thus newly highlighting an earlier inception of the CIE in the high  
141 latitudes. We additionally confirm that in Spitsbergen, the positive maximum of the CIE is within the  
142 basal Spathian.

143 Several studies have suggested the occurrence of late-phase volcanic activity of the Siberian Traps  
144 around the time of the SSB as a cause for “lethally” hot climate (e.g. Paton et al., 2010; Orchard 2007;  
145 Xie et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2012; Shen et al., 2019a). However, these studies rest on age controls that  
146 have been cast into doubt by recent literature, especially the hypothesis that the first occurrence of  
147 the conodont index *Novispathodus pingdingshanensis* is a synchronous marker defining the base of  
148 the Spathian (Goudemand et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2019). Some other studies with correct age  
149 control also suggested that acidification through volcanogenic volatiles may have contributed to the  
150 late Smithian extinction (Galfetti et al. 2007). At present, the available radiometric ages of the  
151 Siberian Traps basalts are confined to close to the Permian-Triassic boundary (Burgess et al., 2014;  
152 Kamo et al., 2003). This may be a sampling bias due to the focus on this key horizon as over 1000 m  
153 of Early Triassic flows post-date this sequence (Kamo et al., 2003). Therefore, while there is evidence  
154 of continued Siberian Traps volcanism after the Permian-Triassic boundary, there are currently no  
155 time constraints on these eruptions and no direct evidence of elevated volcanic activity around the  
156 SSB.

157 One method used as a proxy for major volcanism in sedimentary sequences that has received  
158 considerable recent attention is the use of mercury (Hg) anomalies (Sanei et al., 2012). Mercury  
159 deposition is primarily driven by complexation with organic matter, such that a strong positive  
160 correlation exists between Hg and total organic carbon (TOC) in many sedimentary sequences  
161 (Outridge et al., 2007; Ruiz and Tomiyasu, 2015; Sanei et al., 2014). It is assumed that positive  
162 anomalies of Hg/TOC values occur when elevated Hg emissions are released into the environment,  
163 resulting in alternate modes of Hg deposition to organic matter drawdown, such as in sulfides or  
164 adhered to clays (Sanei et al., 2012; Shen et al., 2019b). Volcanic activity is one of the primary



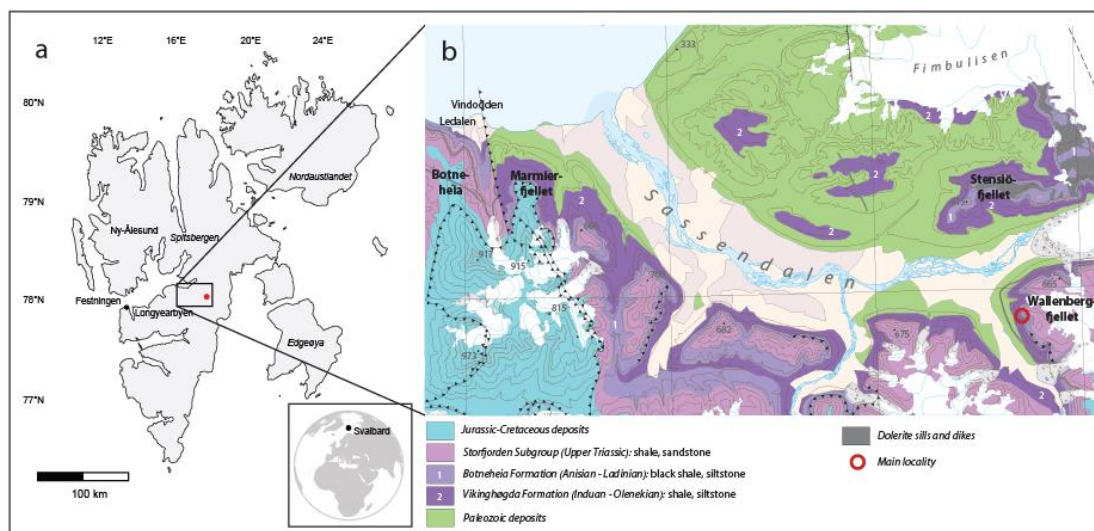
165 atmospheric Hg sources in the present time (Pyle and Mather, 2003). Therefore, sharp increases in  
166 Hg/TOC values preserved in the sedimentary record have been traditionally interpreted as a proxy  
167 for enhanced volcanism. Hg/TOC anomalies have been reported from several of the major  
168 environmental crises, including the end-Permian (Sanei et al., 2012; Grasby et al., 2013; 2016), end-  
169 Triassic (Thibodeau et al., 2016; Percival et al., 2017), Cretaceous-Paleogene (Sial et al., 2013; Font et  
170 al., 2016; Keller et al., 2018) and the Paleocene-Eocene (Keller et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2019).

171 However, several recent studies have suggested Hg/TOC anomalies can be caused by non-volcanic  
172 factors. Clay mineral surfaces and sulfides can also host Hg (Ravichandran, 2004; Selin, 2009), so  
173 conditions that favour Hg-uptake into these fractions may be important. Measurements across  
174 Jurassic and Cretaceous Oceanic Anoxic Events (Percival et al., 2018; Them II et al., 2019) suggest that  
175 Hg/TOC anomalies correlate with proximity to paleoshoreline, potentially indicative of clay-hosted Hg  
176 (Them II et al., 2019). The redox properties of depositional waters are also a key factor, as reducing  
177 conditions favour the formation of HgS and incorporation of Hg into iron sulfides (Bower et al. 2008,  
178 Duan et al., 2016). Euxinic conditions appear to favour sulfide-hosted Hg over organic-hosted Hg,  
179 which can create the appearance of Hg/TOC anomalies in pyrite-dominated successions such as in  
180 Ordovician/Silurian boundary sections (Shen et al., 2019b). Finally, changes to organic matter  
181 sourcing can result in apparent Hg/TOC 'anomalies', due to variations in Hg-uptake into organic  
182 matter in numerous marine and terrestrial ecosystems (Percival et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2019). It is  
183 therefore of great importance to investigate multiple sections across a specific time interval to gain a  
184 true understanding of the origins of any Hg/TOC anomalies in marine sediments (Them II et al., 2019;  
185 Jones et al., 2019).

186 In the case of the SSB marine extinction and associated ecological turnover of floras, a detailed  
187 stratigraphic relationship between Hg/TOC anomalies, anoxia, organic matter, and the distribution of  
188 global stratigraphic gaps is required to fully assess the possibility of volcanism as a primary trigger of  
189 the environmental disturbances. Several studies have published Hg/TOC variations through the Early

190 Triassic (Figure 2). Grasby et al. (2013) measured Hg/TOC values at Smith Creek, Sverdrup Basin,  
191 Arctic Canada (Figure 1), which is the type section of the Smithian substage (Tozer, 1967). Modest  
192 Hg/TOC anomalies are recorded from the middle Smithian (Figure 2), which overlap with the onset of  
193 the large negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion (ca. 470 to 550 m). Background Hg/TOC values are observed in the  
194 early late Smithian and across the SSB, with a brief return to modest Hg/TOC anomalies in the early  
195 Spathian (ca. 590 to 610 m; Fig. 3 in Grasby et al., 2013). At Smith Creek (Tozer, 1967), late Smithian  
196 ammonoids occur in a somewhat condensed carbonate horizon near 570 m and are exclusively  
197 assigned to the early late Smithian *Wasatchites tardus* Zone. Together with the very abrupt lower  
198 flank of the positive carbon isotope excursion, it strongly suggests the presence of a hiatus straddling  
199 the latest Smithian (*Glyptophiceras sinuatus* Zone of Brühwiler et al., 2010). Subsequently, Grasby et  
200 al. (2016) described extensive geochemical records from the Permian Kapp Starostin Formation up to  
201 the Spathian Tvillingodden Formation at Festningen, western Spitsbergen. This locality represents a  
202 near-shore, shallow water setting (Mørk et al., 1982; Wignall et al., 2016) that lacks adequate  
203 biostratigraphic control. There are pronounced Hg/TOC anomalies that begin close to the peak of the  
204 late Smithian negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion and continue to the peak of the positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion of the  
205 early Spathian (Figure 2). These results and interpretations stand in marked contrast with the  
206 Tethyan SSB records from Guryul (Kashmir) and Chaohu (South China), which do not reveal any clear  
207 Hg/TOC anomaly concomitant with the late Smithian positive CIE (Wang et al., 2019). However, a  
208 limiting factor with both of these data sets (Grasby et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019) is that TOC  
209 concentrations for much of the Early Triassic are extremely low in these sections (Figure 2). The  
210 recommended limit for interpreting Hg/TOC concentrations is 0.2 wt% (Grasby et al., 2016), with  
211 errors below this arbitrary threshold considered greater than potential Hg/TOC anomalies. While the  
212 latest Smithian Hg/TOC values appear to be anomalously high compared to early Spathian strata  
213 (Figure 2; Grasby et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019), it is not possible to assess whether these elevated  
214 latest Smithian Hg/TOC values are an isolated event. It is possible that similar Hg/TOC values are  
215 present in mid Smithian sections with higher TOC concentrations.

216 Here, we report on the mercury record, organic carbon isotope, and trace element data across the  
 217 Smithian-Spathian boundary at Wallenbergfjellet in central Spitsbergen. This represents a more distal  
 218 (offshore) depositional setting to the Festningen section (Grasby et al., 2016), with adequate  
 219 biostratigraphic age control.



220  
 221 Figure 3. Map of Svalbard with the studied locality at Wallenbergfjellet, Spitsbergen. a) The location of the  
 222 study area and the Festningen site used by Grasby et al. (2016). b) Geology of the study area, lithologies are  
 223 redrawn from geological maps of Svalbard (Major et al., 2001).

224

## 225 2. Geological setting and age controls

226 A geological map of the study area is shown in Figure 3. In central Spitsbergen the Lower Triassic  
 227 succession is stratigraphically defined as the Vikinghøgda Formation, which represents an offshore (>  
 228 50 km from shore, e.g. Wignall et al. 2016) shelf environment that is the distal continuation of the  
 229 coastal and shallow marine deposits of the time equivalent Vardebukta and Tvillingodden formations  
 230 of western Spitsbergen (Festningen section). The lower member of the Vikinghøgda Formation, the  
 231 Deltadalen Member, is Griesbachian to Dienerian in age and equivalent to the Vardebukta Formation.  
 232 The Lusitaniadalen and Vendomdalen members roughly represent the Smithian and Spathian

233 substages and are time equivalent to the Tvillingodden Formation (Mørk et al., 1999; Wignall et al.,  
234 2016). The Vikinghøgda Formation is a deposit of sandy silts grading into silty grey shales and silty  
235 black shales. Horizons of calcareous nodules and calcareous paper shale are widespread in the  
236 Lusitaniadalen and Vendomdalen members. The formation was deposited on a gently sloping marine  
237 ramp during stepwise deepening (Mørk et al. 1999; Wignall et al. 2016). The stratigraphic boundary  
238 between the Lusitaniadalen Member and the Vendomdalen Member is defined as the top of a  
239 yellow-weathering cemented sandstone (Mørk et al., 1999). The level roughly corresponds to a shift  
240 from grey shale to dark grey paper shale, which is often apparent in the field. At Wallenbergfjellet,  
241 the shift to dark grey paper shale was in some places found to overlie the defined boundary with a  
242 few tens of centimeters.

243 Brühwiler et al. (2010) first established that the latest Smithian *Glyptophiceras sinuatum* Zone  
244 overlies the early late Smithian *Wasatchites distractus* Zone in recently studied Tethyan sections  
245 from the northern Indian margin. The same succession has been subsequently confirmed in several  
246 sections of the western USA basin (Jattiot et al., 2017; Jenks and Brayard, 2018). The *W. distractus*  
247 Zone and the *G. sinuatum* Zone correlate with the lower and the upper parts of the more  
248 comprehensive *Anasibirites multiformis* beds as initially described by Brayard and Bucher (2008) in  
249 the Nanpanjiang Basin. The *A. multiformis* Zone of these authors was synonymous with the entire  
250 late Smithian record preserved in South China, but ongoing work indicates that in fact, the *W.*  
251 *distractus* and the *G. sinuatum* zones consistently occur in superposition within the late Smithian  
252 black shales of the Nanpanjiang Basin, in perfect agreement with other sections from the northern  
253 Indian margin and the western USA. Therefore, the scope of the low paleolatitude *A. multiformis*  
254 Zone must be reduced to the first zone of the late Smithian (Jattiot et al., 2015). The *A. multiformis*  
255 Zone is a strict correlative of the *W. distractus* Zone in the high latitudes. Hence, the low  
256 paleolatitude records show that the *G. sinuatum* Zone systematically occurs within the upper half of  
257 the late Smithian positive CIE, immediately preceding the heaviest values and the abrupt return to  
258 lighter values in the early Spathian. The boundary between the Smithian and Spathian substages in

259 the Boreal Realm was defined by the last occurrence of the ammonoid *Wasatchites tardus*, which is  
260 the oldest of the two late Smithian ammonoid zones (Brühwiler et al., 2010). This definition avoids  
261 the fact that the paleontological boundary between the Smithian and the Spathian is within a longer  
262 gap whose base includes the *G. sinuatum* Zone in the Sverdrup Basin, in northern Siberia, in NE  
263 British Columbia and in Spitsbergen. The onset of the global late Smithian gap is thus earlier in the  
264 Boreal record than within the Tropics.

265 A widely used proxy for the Smithian/Spathian biostratigraphic boundary is the presence of a global  
266 positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion. In Dicksonland, central Spitsbergen, Galfetti et al. (2007a) first established  
267 that the end of the positive CIE is within the lower part of the Vendomdalen Member. At variance  
268 with their earlier paper on the Sverdrup Basin (Grasby et al., 2013), Grasby et al. (2016) placed the  
269 SSB at Festningen, western Spitsbergen, at the minimum of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  curve, i.e. at the base of the  
270 onset of the positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion, and in coincidence with the Hg/TOC anomalies. However, this  
271 placement of the boundary with respect to the CIE at Festningen (Grasby et al., 2016) is in conflict  
272 with other data. In the Tethyan ammonoid and carbon isotope records (Brühwiler et al., 2010;  
273 Galfetti et al., 2007b), the substage boundary is rather associated with the end of the ascending limb  
274 of the positive CIE. Even if the *G. sinuatum* Zone corresponds to a gap in the Boreal record, the  
275 isotope records from Dicksonland (Galfetti et al., 2007a) demonstrate that the maximum of the  
276 positive CIE is within the lower part of the Vendomdalen Member, which is of early Spathian age, and  
277 that it has a gently gradual shape, not a spike shape like in most low latitude records. At  
278 Wallenbergfjellet, the end of this positive CIE is also found in the lower part of the Vendomdalen  
279 Member, whose age is not well constrained in terms of ammonoids. However, at Stensiöfjellet (only  
280 5 km north of Wallenbergfjellet) where the stratigraphic sequence is similar, we found a basal  
281 Spathian ammonoid fauna characterized by *Bajarunia euomphala* 60 cm above the base of the  
282 Vendomdalen Member, i.e. within the maximum of the positive CIE.

283 Thick sills of Early Cretaceous age (the Diabasodden Suite) were emplaced into the Triassic succession  
284 throughout central Spitsbergen. At Wallenbergfjellet, a large intrusion, locally expressed as a 10 m  
285 thick dyke, crops out a few hundred meters away from the studied section. It is possible that this  
286 dyke is connected to a sill underlying the section of similar thickness to the dyke. Based on the  
287 uninterrupted stratigraphic succession for at least 100 m below our studied interval we assume that  
288 such a sill has not disturbed the geochemistry to any serious degree. In the Upper Triassic at  
289 Botneheia in Central Spitsbergen, Hubred (2006) reported little thermal effect on organic matter  
290 outside an aureole of ca. 1.5 times the sill thickness.

291

### 292 **3. Material and methods**

#### 293 *3.1. Sampling*

294 In 2017 we collected 48 shale samples from the Wallenbergfjellet section, from 18 m below the base  
295 of the Vendomdalen Member to the base of the overlying Botneheia Formation (Anisian). The  
296 section was sampled at 2 m intervals, with the exception of the interval from 6 m below to 4 m above  
297 the base of the Vendomdalen Member, which was sampled at 1 m intervals (Figure 4). We collected  
298 ammonoids from throughout the section, although the lower part of the Vendomdalen Member  
299 yielded only few and poorly preserved specimens. Some ammonoids reported in Figure 4 were found  
300 in adjacent sections with the same lithological development.

301



316 house protocols (Percival et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2019), where between 40-60 mg of powdered  
317 sample was weighed before being transferred to the pyrolyzer and heated to 700 °C. Sample peaks in  
318 the spectrometer were calibrated using the NIMT/UOE/FM/001 peat standard with a known Hg  
319 concentration of  $169 \pm 7$  ppb, with repeat calibrations every ten samples to negate any drift in the  
320 instrument. Each sample was run in duplicate, which resulted in an analytical error of  $\pm 5$  %.

### 321 *3.3. Handheld XRF and SEM-EDX*

322 Flat pieces were selected from each sediment sample, washed and analysed using handheld X-ray  
323 fluorescence spectroscopy (HHXRF). The instrument used was a Thermo Scientific Niton XL3t  
324 GOLDD+ with an aperture of 8 mm. Integration time was 120 s in the “Mining Cu/Zn” mode. After  
325 every five samples, a calibration measurement was taken on a pressed powder pellet of the USGS  
326 Columbia River Basalt BCR-2 standard, diluted to four parts powder and one part binder. The diluted  
327 standard has a certified V concentration of  $416 \pm 14$  ( $1 \sigma$ ) ppm. No drift in the V measurement of the  
328 standard was observed, and the variance was relatively small, with average V concentration  $420 \pm 24$   
329 ( $1 \sigma$ ) ppm,  $N = 10$ , i.e. within the error of the certified standard value. Using the same instrument  
330 model, Schovsbo et al. (2018) reported excellent correlation between HHXRF and ICP-MS values for V  
331 and Mo in dark shales ( $R^2 = 0.98$  and  $R^2 = 0.96$ , respectively) over wide ranges. Still, we regard the V,  
332 Mo, Fe and Zr/Rb curves obtained as semi-quantitative.

333 SEM and EDX microimaging was carried out on selected samples to investigate distributions of iron  
334 and pyrite, using a Hitachi S-3600N SEM in the backscatter (BSE) mode and with a Bruker XFlash 5030  
335 energy dispersive X-ray detector (EDX), at the Natural History Museum in Oslo.

### 336 *3.4. Organic geochemistry*

337 Total organic carbon content (TOC) was measured by Applied Petroleum Technology, Oslo, Norway,  
338 with a Leco SC-632 instrument. Diluted HCl was added to the powdered sample to remove carbonate.  
339 The sample was then introduced into the combustion oven, and the amount of carbon was measured



340 as carbon dioxide by an IR-detector. Rock-Eval pyrolysis used the Rock-Eval 6 instrument at 300 °C for  
341 3 min, increasing by 25 °C/min to 650 °C. The Jet-Rock 1 standard was run as every tenth sample and  
342 checked against the acceptable ranges according to the Norwegian Industry Guide to Organic  
343 Geochemical Analysis (NIGOGA), 4th edition. The permissible range for TOC in the Jet-Rock standard  
344 is 11.3-12.5 %.

345

### 346 *3.5. Bulk organic carbon isotope analysis*

347 Carbon isotope analysis was carried out at Liverpool University. Approximately 0.5 g of powdered  
348 sample was weighed into a glass beaker and carbonate minerals (and other acid soluble phases) were  
349 removed by reaction with 40 ml of 1M HCl (pH 0.0) at 35 °C for 24 h. Following decomposition the  
350 acid insoluble residue was recovered by centrifugation, washed free of any remaining acid by  
351 repeated cycles of rinsing with deionised water, and freeze-dried.

352

353 Carbon dioxide for mass spectrometric measurement of carbon ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ) isotope ratios in samples of  
354 organic carbon was prepared using a modification of the classical 'sealed tube' combustion  
355 procedure described by Frazer and Crawford (1963) and Sofer (1980). Decarbonated (1M HCl, 35 °C,  
356 24 h) bulk sediment samples (sufficient to yield ~100  $\mu\text{mol}$ s of  $\text{CO}_2$ ) were weighed into silver foil  
357 capsules and loaded into pre-conditioned (650 °C, 24 hrs) quartz tubes together with 3 g of  $\text{Cu(II)O}$   
358 and 0.5g of Cu metal. All tubes were then sealed under vacuum and organic carbon was converted to  
359  $\text{CO}_2$  by combustion at 850 °C for 2 hrs. Following combustion the tubes were allowed to cool to 600  
360 °C (and held for 4 hrs) in order to allow conversion of any nitrous oxide (in contact with Cu metal) to  
361 nitrogen before final cooling (~16 hrs) to room temperature.

362 Product  $\text{CO}_2$  was recovered under vacuum using standard cryogenic separation procedures (to  
363 remove  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{N}_2$ ) and the amounts of the component masses ( $m/z$  44,  $m/z$  45,  $m/z$  46) were  
364 measured with respect to a comparison (reference)  $\text{CO}_2$  using a VG SIRA 10 dual-inlet, gas source

365 mass spectrometer. Resultant delta values ( $\delta_{\text{CO}_2}^{45/44}$  and  $\delta_{\text{CO}_2}^{46/44}$ ) were subsequently corrected for  $^{17}\text{O}$   
366 contributions (Craig, 1957), and calibrated to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) carbon isotope  
367 scale *via* measurement of  $\text{CO}_2$  prepared from multiple aliquots of an in-house Carrara marble (LIVM2)  
368 calcite ( $10^3 \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}} = +1.98$ ) and a polyethylene (IAEA-CH7) international reference material  
369 ( $10^3 \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}} = -32.15$ ) run with each batch of unknowns. Isotopic ratios are reported as conventional  
370 delta values with respect to the VPDB scale ( $\delta_{\text{OC}}^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$ )

371

372 All sample data were normalized against LIVM2-CH7 such that  $\Delta_{\text{LIVM2-CH7}} = 34.13\text{‰}$ . Analytical  
373 precision ( $2\sigma$ ) is estimated to be better than  $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$  based on the replicate measurement of IAEA-  
374 CH7.

375 Data were plotted and analyzed with the software Past, v. 3.18 (Hammer et al., 2001).

376

## 377 4. Results

### 378 4.1. Ammonoid biostratigraphy

379 The lithological log, biostratigraphy and geochemistry are shown in Figure 4. Ammonoids were  
380 collected from carbonate nodules and lenticular horizons throughout the section. Ammonoids  
381 identified at -4.3 m and below in the section are mostly *Arctoceras* cf. *blomstrandi* and *Juvenites*  
382 *spathi* belonging to the comprehensive *E. romunderi* Zone of middle Smithian age. *Euflemingites*  
383 itself was found at -3.0 m, and *Juvenites spathi* at -2.0 m. At -1.3 m, -1.2 m and immediately below  
384 the base of the Vendomdalen Member, an abundant ammonoid fauna from the *W. tardus* Zone  
385 (early late Smithian) was recovered, with *Wasatchites tardus*, *Xenoceltites* spp., *Arctopriionites* sp.  
386 and *Anasibirites kingianus*. The *W. tardus* Zone is therefore recognized from ca. -2.0 m to the top of  
387 the Lusitaniadalen Member.

388 Ammonoids are more scattered and generally poorly preserved in the Vendomdalen Member. A  
389 *Bajarunia* sp. indet. at 12 m is indicative of the *B. euomphala* Zone, early Spathian. *Keyserlingites*  
390 *subrobustus* was found from 39 m almost to the top of the Vendomdalen Member, documenting a  
391 thick late Spathian *K. subrobustus* Zone. An interval with small, gray carbonate nodules near the top  
392 of the member contains a rich, well-preserved late Spathian cephalopod fauna (cf. Mørk et al., 1999)  
393 with *K. subrobustus*, *Svalbardiceras spitzbergensis*, *S. freboldi?*, *Popovites occidentalis*, *Pseudosageras*  
394 sp., *Procarnites* sp. and orthocone nautiloids.

#### 395 4.2. Carbon and trace element geochemistry

396 TOC values are low (< 1.2 wt.%) in the Lusitaniadalen Member (Figure 4). In the Vendomdalen  
397 Member the TOC is variable but higher, averaging 2.3 wt.% and reaching 4.4 wt.% in the upper part.  
398 Vanadium content is below 270 ppm in the Lusitaniadalen Member and the lower 12 m of the  
399 Vendomdalen Member. The upper part of the Vendomdalen Member has variable but higher V  
400 content, with an average of 450 ppm. Molybdenum shows a similar pattern as V, with values below  
401 30 ppm up to 12 m, then increasing to an average of 44 ppm in the upper part. Average 2 $\sigma$  precision  
402 (repeatability) on V across all samples is 48 ppm, on Mo 2.6 ppm.

403 Zr/Rb values are generally below 4 in most of the section, but with elevated values (up to ca. 7) from  
404 -6 to +6 m. As zirconium is more prevalent in coarser, lithic grains and rubidium binds preferentially  
405 to clay particles, the Zr/Rb can be used as a proxy for grain size (Dypvik and Harris, 2001). The higher  
406 Zr/Rb values around the Lusitaniadalen-Vendomdalen member boundary therefore indicate coarser  
407 grain size, compatible with a more proximal depositional setting.

408 The vanadium values throughout the Wallenbergfjellet section are much higher than the 50 ppm  
409 reported from the Early Triassic of Western Spitsbergen by Wignall et al. (2016), but this difference is  
410 probably due to higher aluminium content in the more distal, finer-grained facies at this locality.  
411 Vanadium is a redox sensitive element (e.g., Tribovillard et al, 2006), indicating relatively more  
412 oxygenated bottom water conditions in the -18 m to +12 m interval than in the upper part of the

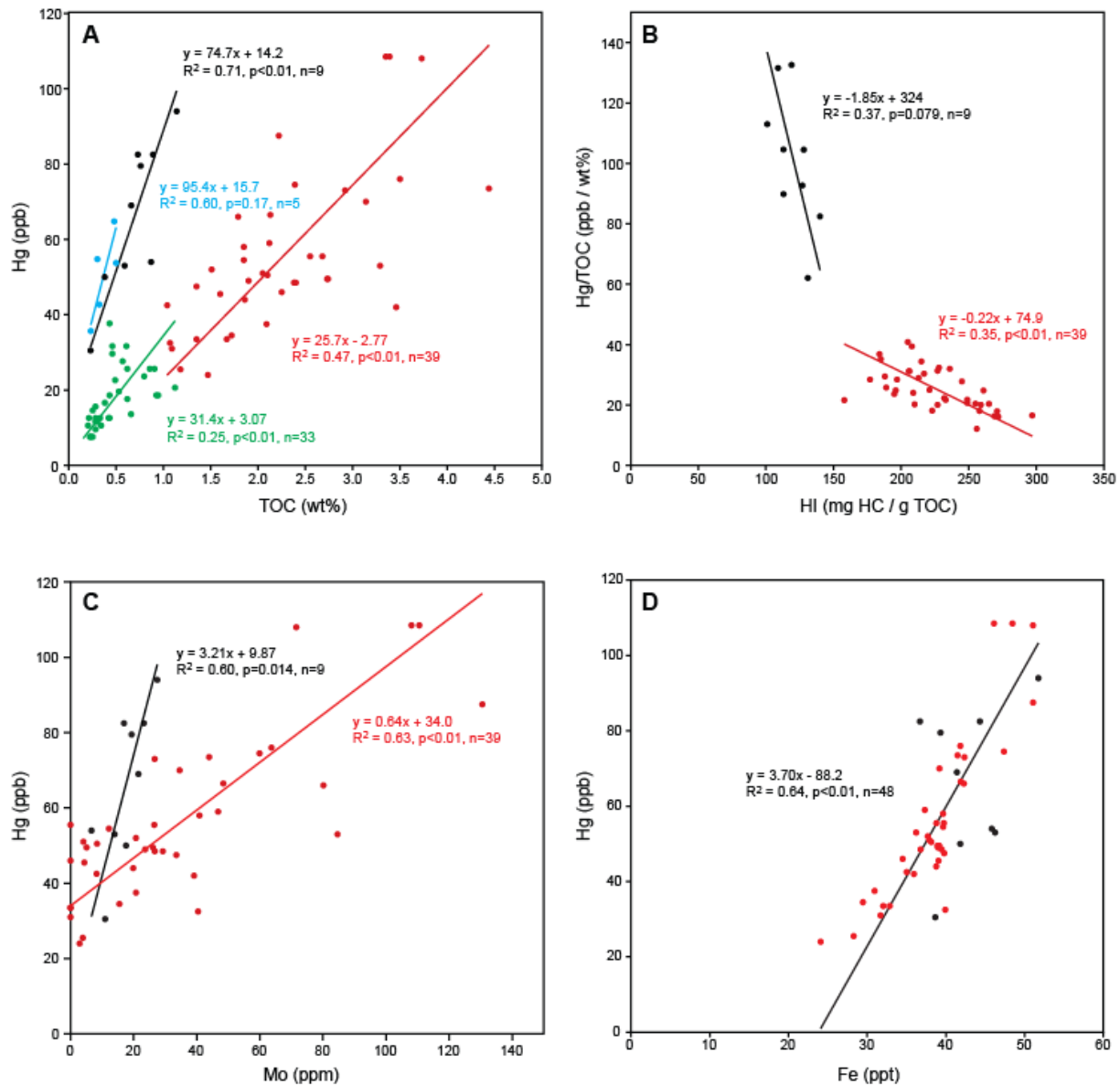
413 section. This is supported by low (< 1.5%) TOC values in the Lusitaniadalen Member, although TOC  
414 increases to almost 3% already at the base of the Vendomdalen Member. V and TOC are positively  
415 correlated through the section ( $R=0.48$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $N=48$ ). Molybdenum shows the same pattern,  
416 correlating strongly with V ( $R=0.65$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $N=48$ ).

417 The Niton HHXRF is known to be imprecise for light elements, and Schovsbo et al. (2018) found very  
418 poor correlation with ICP-MS data for Al. We do therefore not present curves for V/Al, Mo/Al or  
419 Hg/Al. However, the lithology does not vary strongly through our section, and also the measured Al  
420 values vary within only a small range (ca. 6 to 8 %). Normalization for Al would therefore probably  
421 not change the general trends to any large degree.

422 Molybdenum is generally a redox sensitive element (Tribovillard et al., 2006), although only very high  
423 Mo values (> 25 ppm) can be used to infer euxinic conditions, while lower values cannot be  
424 interpreted unambiguously with respect to redox conditions (Hardisty et al., 2018).

425 The hydrogen index (HI) from the Rock-Eval analysis is consistently below 140 (~120 on average) in  
426 the Lusitaniadalen Member, suddenly increasing to above 160 (~225 on average) in the  
427 Vendomdalen Member (Figure 4). The oxygen index (not shown) shows the opposite pattern, with  
428 high values (average 120) in the Lusitaniadalen Member decreasing to an average of 30 in the  
429 Vendomdalen Member. The sudden increase in the hydrogen index at the base of the Vendomdalen  
430 Member is in accordance with the results of Mørk et al. (1999), who noted a shift in type of organic  
431 matter from type III kerogen (i.e. of more terrestrial origin) to mixed type II/III at the same  
432 stratigraphic level. This was accompanied by a reduction in terrestrial palynodebris and a shift to  
433 mainly marine plankton (Mørk et al., 1999). Our preliminary, high-resolution palynological  
434 investigations from Wallenbergfjellet do not indicate a sudden, clear increase in marine organic  
435 matter across the SSB that matches the rapid shift in Rock-Eval values. Another possible mechanism  
436 for the increase in hydrogen index is decreased oxidation and/or decreased bioturbation (e.g.,  
437 Durand and Monin, 1980) in the less oxic (higher TOC) facies of the Vendomdalen Member.

438 The organic  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  curve shows rather negative values in the Lusitaniadalen Member (between -33.84  
439 and -32.55 ‰) with a slight positive trend in the upper part (Figure 4). An abrupt positive shift to -  
440 29.53 ‰ at the base of the Vendomdalen Member marks the onset of a positive excursion in the  
441 interval from 0 to 11.7 m. Isotope values remain fairly stable around -32 ‰ until about 40 m in the  
442 section, followed by a slight negative excursion and a trend towards more positive values from ca. 50  
443 m to the formation top. Interestingly, the gradual onset of the positive CIE starts in the middle  
444 Smithian (Figure 4), which suggests a somewhat earlier inception than in the low paleolatitudes. The  
445 smooth end of the positive CIE is 3-4 m above the base of the Vendomdalen Member, in agreement  
446 with the record from Dicksonland, Spitsbergen (Galfetti et al., 2007a), although the coarser sampling  
447 from Dicksonland does not allow restoring the gradual and smooth shape of the end of the excursion.  
448



449

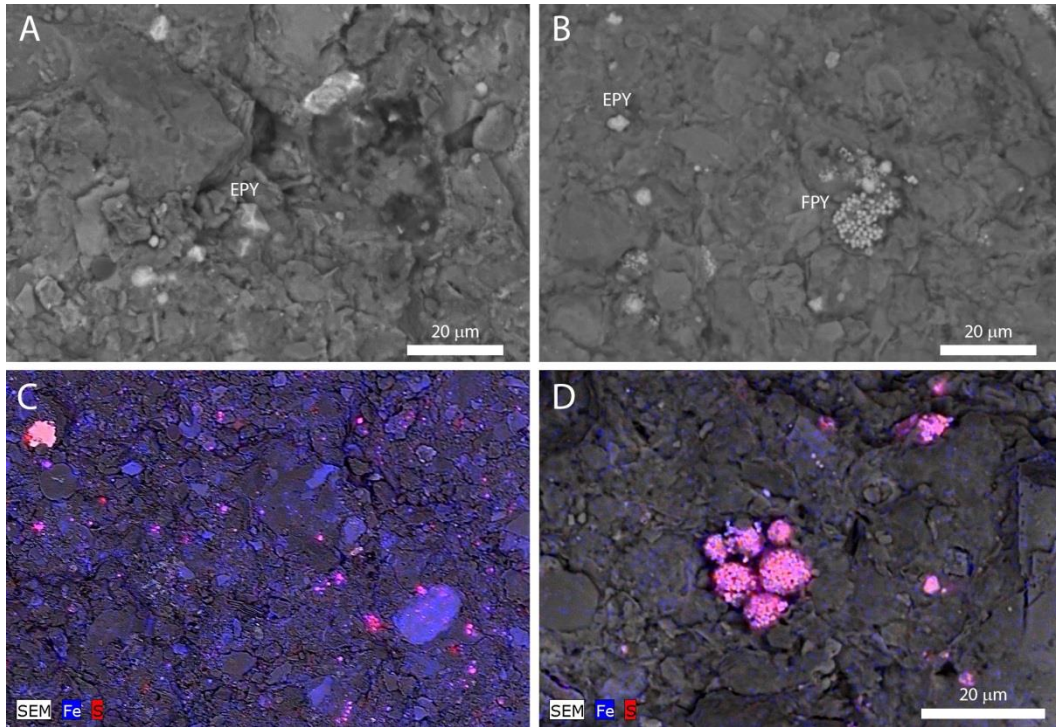
450 Figure 5. A: Cross plot of total organic content (TOC) versus Hg. Black: Smithian samples (below 0 m in the  
 451 section; Lusitaniadalen Mb.) at Wallenbergfjellet, central Spitsbergen (this study). Red: Spathian samples  
 452 (above 0 m; Vendomdalen Mb.) at Wallenbergfjellet. Blue: Smithian at Festningen, western Spitsbergen, data  
 453 from Grasby et al. (2016). Green: Spathian at Festningen. Regression lines are based on the RMA method;  $p$   
 454 values computed by permutation test on  $R^2$ . Slopes are significantly different between the Smithian and  
 455 Spathian ( $\chi^2=11.7$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Slopes are not significantly different between Wallenbergfjellet and Festningen. B:  
 456 Hydrogen index (HI) versus Hg/TOC in the Smithian (black) and Spathian (red) at Wallenbergfjellet. C:  
 457 Molybdenum (Mo) versus Hg in the Smithian (black) and the Spathian (red) at Wallenbergfjellet. D: Fe versus  
 458 Hg in the Smithian (black) and Spathian (red) at Wallenbergfjellet.

459

### 460 4.3. Mercury

461 Mercury concentrations range from 24 to 109 ppb throughout the section. Although these values are  
462 relatively low, they are generally about two times higher than the nearshore locality in western  
463 Spitsbergen (Grasby et al., 2016). Mercury concentrations are highest in the Lusitaniadalen Member  
464 and sporadic parts of the upper Vendomdalen Member (Figure 4). However, normalizing to TOC  
465 shows a completely different picture with anomalously high Hg/TOC values (62–132 ppb/wt%) in all  
466 Lusitaniadalen Member samples. In contrast, all Vendomdalen Member samples have low Hg/TOC  
467 values (12–41 ppb/wt%). As shown in Figure 5A, there is strong correlation between TOC and Hg in  
468 both Spitsbergen localities, but with considerably higher regression slope in the Lusitaniadalen  
469 Member than in the Vendomdalen Member. The largest Hg/TOC values are documented in the  
470 interval from -6 to -2 m in the section. The plateau-like Hg/TOC anomaly of the Lusitaniadalen  
471 Member is present throughout the middle Smithian, as indicated by the ammonoid age control. The  
472 Hg/TOC anomaly decreases within the early late Smithian and reached background values during the  
473 early Spathian at the latest (Figure 4). The Hg/TOC and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  curves appear discontinuous at this level,  
474 supporting the presence of a hiatus in the uppermost Smithian (i.e. the missing *G. sinuatus* Zone).  
475 The observation that the Hg/TOC anomaly largely precedes the positive CIE is in agreement with the  
476 record obtained from a more proximal setting in West Spitsbergen as analysed by Grasby et al.  
477 (2016). Therefore, this dataset suggests that a clear and sustained Hg/TOC anomaly was present in  
478 the middle Smithian, which had disappeared by the early Spathian. TOC concentrations in the  
479 Choahu section (Wang et al., 2019) are too low in the mid to late Smithian to allow meaningful  
480 analyses of whether Hg/TOC anomalies are present (Figure 2).

481 Iron is present at 25-50 % throughout the section (Figure 4). In the Smithian, SEM-EDX images  
482 indicate that Fe is present both in euhedral pyrite and clastic mineral grains (Figures 6A, C). In the  
483 Spathian, Fe is largely confined to euhedral and framboidal pyrite (Figures 6B, D).



484

485 Figure 6. SEM-EDX images from the Wallenbergfjellet section: A: BSE image from -18 m in the section  
 486 (Smithian). Note euhedral pyrite (EPY). B: BSE image from 60 m (Spathian). Note euhedral (EPY) and  
 487 framboidal (FPY) pyrite. C: BSE and element map (EDX) image showing distribution of Fe (blue) and S  
 488 (red) at -18 m (Smithian). Iron is found both in scattered euhedral pyrite grains and in other minerals.  
 489 D: BSE and element map image from 60 m (Spathian), showing well-developed framboidal pyrite,  
 490 with little Fe in the matrix.

491

## 492 5. Discussion

493 The comparison of the Wallenbergfjellet SSB section and the Festningen section of Grasby et al.  
 494 (2016) strongly suggests the presence of a latest Smithian gap in Spitsbergen. This gap may be coeval  
 495 with that of the Sverdrup Basin (Smith Creek; Grasby et al., 2013). In both basins, the latest Smithian  
 496 *G. sinuatum* Zone is missing. In the well-studied ammonoid record from northern Siberia (Dagys,  
 497 1994) and NE British Columbia (Tozer, 1994), the only documented late Smithian zone is the *W.*  
 498 *tardus* Zone, which consistently suggests an earlier onset of the gap on shelves in Siberia, the



499 Canadian Arctic, NE British Columbia and Spitsbergen. This timing contrasts with the majority of low  
500 paleolatitude SSB sections where the *G. sinuatum* Zone is found above the *A. multiformis* Zone,  
501 which is a strict correlative of the boreal *W. tardus* Zone. This diachronous worldwide gap, along with  
502 the latest Smithian and earliest Spathian temperature and/or salinity changes (Romano et al., 2013;  
503 Goudemand et al., 2019) and the earlier (middle-late Smithian boundary) switch from wet to dry  
504 climate indicated by terrestrial plants (Hermann et al., 2011; Hochuli et al., 2016) are all pointing to a  
505 transition from a greenhouse to a more temperate or even cold climate during the late Smithian,  
506 with a modest extension into the basal Spathian. The middle Smithian recorded the most prominent  
507 negative CIE of the Early Triassic, coeval with changes in temperature and/or salinity (Romano et al.,  
508 2013), a major spore spike (Hermann et al., 2011) and Hg/TOC anomalies only known from the boreal  
509 record (Grasby et al., 2013; 2016). The earlier onset of the gap in the Boreal realm also supports early  
510 cooling at high latitude, thus choking the terrigenous flux towards marine shelves during the *G.*  
511 *sinuatum* Zone. In an equatorial SSB section from the South China block, a multiproxy geochemical  
512 analysis (Zhang et al., 2015) indicated reduced chemical weathering and sedimentation rates  
513 precisely at the SSB, at least locally. These proxies were interpreted as a cooling episode whose  
514 timing brings additional support for a diachronous onset of the cooling across latitude, spanning the  
515 entire latest Smithian *G. sinuatum* Zone. Moreover, the abrupt shape of the positive CIE documented  
516 by these authors conforms to that of most SSB shelf records in south China and in the northern  
517 Indian margin. This suggests again the presence of a gap intercalated between the *G. sinuatum* Zone  
518 and basal Spathian in the low latitudes. Hence, the late Smithian gap is apparently of global  
519 significance but started earlier in the Boreal records. On the other hand, the deep sea pelagic SSB  
520 record from the Panthalassic and near equatorial Mino Tamba Terrane highlights that both limbs and  
521 maximum of the positive CIE are all gradual (Sakuma et al., 2012). This argues against a substantial  
522 hiatus in sedimentation in the deep oceanic record. The age model constructed by these authors is  
523 based on the correlation of their deep sea  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  record with the well dated, but incomplete  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$   
524 shelf records from South China. They inferred that sedimentation rate increased by an order of

525 magnitude during the late Smithian. However, they placed their middle-late Smithian boundary at  
526 the minimum of the negative CIE that is diagnostic of the middle Smithian. With the additional  
527 problem of large error bars on dates and correlations, the late Smithian cannot be distinguished from  
528 the middle Smithian in terms of sedimentation rate in this deep oceanic record. This rare deep sea  
529  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  record nevertheless reveals that most of the interval with elevated sedimentation rate is in  
530 fact within the middle Smithian, in agreement with the shelf records from South China (e.g. Galfetti  
531 et al., 2007b).

532 Whatever the respective efficiency and share of potential  $\text{CO}_2$  sinks that may contribute to the  
533 positive CIE (biological pump, buffering by marine carbonate - see Donnadiou et al. 2011; Jones et al.,  
534 2016), their cumulated effects may still be insufficient for bringing down the  $\text{pCO}_2$  to the level where  
535 terrestrial ice can start forming at the poles. Temperature is also expected to closely track the carbon  
536 budget if feedback mechanisms are preponderant. However, in the northern Indian margin the delay  
537 of the temperature decrease (Goudemand et al., 2019) with respect to the earlier inception of the  
538 positive CIE and black shales deposition amounts to the duration of the early late Smithian *W. tardus*  
539 Zone. This delayed cooling suggests that some other primary mechanisms distinct from the feed back  
540 processes must have come into play. A decrease in global volcanism near the middle-late Smithian  
541 boundary is one potential explanation for this delay.

542 The Wallenbergfjellet section confirms that when preserved, the end of the positive CIE is of basal  
543 Spathian age and follows a gentle pot-bellied shape without abrupt jumps akin to that of deep sea  
544 records. The precise shape of the positive CIE is dictated by the distribution of gaps, sedimentation  
545 rates, and sample spacing. If the maximum of the CIE is erased by a gap, the correlation of any  
546 isotopic peak can be misleading in the absence of independent age control.

547 The mercury record from the Wallenbergfjellet section is worthy of particular attention, as it is the  
548 only current record across the SSB where TOC concentrations are regularly above 1 wt.%. This means  
549 that any changes in Hg/TOC ratios cannot be due to errors induced by low Hg or TOC concentrations.

550 The abrupt change from anomalously high Hg/TOC values in the Smithian to low levels in the  
551 Spathian (Figure 4) could be interpreted as a switch from elevated volcanism to little or background  
552 volcanic activity. However, this section differs from other published Hg/TOC anomalies of purported  
553 volcanic origin in that the elevated Hg/TOC values observed in the middle Smithian are moderate in  
554 magnitude, protracted (>18 m of section), and not accompanied by increased Hg concentrations  
555 (Figure 4). It is therefore important to consider alternative non-volcanic possibilities for changes in  
556 Hg/TOC concentrations.

557 Terrestrial and marine ecosystems are inherently different, leading to variations in nutrient cycling  
558 and thereby influencing the degree of Hg enrichments in various organic carbon reservoirs. Therefore,  
559 changes to the dominant source of organic matter could result in variations in Hg/TOC values,  
560 creating false Hg/TOC 'anomalies'. At present, potential differences in Hg/TOC values between  
561 terrestrial and marine sources are poorly understood, as there is a huge range of ecosystems in each  
562 realm that each have differing Hg-uptake pathways. There is some limited evidence to suggest that  
563 terrestrially derived sediments have higher background Hg/TOC values than fully marine sediments  
564 (Percival et al., 2015; 2017). This is corroborated with an apparent correlation of Hg/TOC anomalies  
565 with distance to shore from studies of the latest Triassic and early Toarcian, although it is unclear  
566 whether this represents higher Hg/TOC values in organic matter or another source such as clay  
567 minerals (Them II et al., 2019).

568 In this study, the increase in hydrogen index at the SSB in our data set could be caused by decreased  
569 oxidation and bioturbation, or by a shift to a dominance of marine organic matter. With the latter  
570 interpretation, the close correlation with Hg/TOC anomalies and terrestrially-sourced organic matter  
571 could be a cause for part or perhaps all of the step change in Hg/TOC values observed across the SSB  
572 in our data set (Figure 5B). The smaller Hg/TOC anomalies observed in this study compared to those  
573 observed at Festningen (Grasby et al., 2016) may support the hypothesis of Them II et al. (2019) that  
574 the magnitude of Hg/TOC anomalies are often positively correlated with proximity to paleoshoreline,

575 although the relatively high TOC concentrations throughout the section would suggest this is due to  
576 higher Hg/TOC values of terrestrially derived organic matter rather than adsorption onto clay  
577 surfaces.

578 Redox conditions are also critical to the dominant mode of Hg deposition (Them II et al., 2019), as a  
579 recent study from the Ordovician/Silurian boundary showed that Hg concentrations are governed by  
580 the prevalence of pyrite rather than organic matter under euxinic conditions (Shen et al., 2019b). The  
581 close correlation between Hg and Fe in the Wallenbergfjellet section (Figure 4; 5D) might suggest  
582 that Hg may indeed be partially associated with pyrite instead of organic matter. However, the clear  
583 change in hydrogen index between the Smithian and the Spathian (Figure 5B) could be a result of  
584 decreased oxidization of organic matter, thus suggesting the Spathian is the more anoxic  
585 environment. Moreover, Fe is ubiquitous in the Smithian Lusitaniadalen Member with minor  
586 occurrences of pyrite, while Fe is largely restricted to common framboidal pyrite in the Spathian  
587 Vendomdalen Member (Figure 6). If Hg was dominantly deposited by sulfides, then one would expect  
588 Hg/TOC ratios to be elevated in more anoxic strata, the opposite of what is observed across the SSB.  
589 Based on the data available, it therefore appears that sulfide deposition is not a controlling factor in  
590 variations to Hg/TOC anomalies when comparing Smithian and Spathian strata. However, there is  
591 clearly a correlation between Hg and Fe within the Spathian.

592 The scale and prolonged nature of the Hg/TOC anomalies in the middle Smithian are indicative of  
593 two mutually inclusive possibilities: 1) that terrestrial ecosystems in the Early Triassic have inherently  
594 higher Hg/TOC ratios than marine ecosystems; and/or 2) there was a sustained global Hg-enrichment  
595 that disproportionately affected the terrestrial realm. The magnitude of this protracted anomaly  
596 would suggest that elevated global volcanism, possibly from renewed activity from the Siberian Traps,  
597 is a plausible explanation. What is less clear is whether the low Hg/TOC concentrations observed in  
598 the early Spathian are due to a cessation of environmental Hg-enrichment, a change in organic  
599 matter source with Hg-enrichments limited to the terrestrial realm, or a combination thereof.

600 Unfortunately, there is little information on organic matter type at previously reported localities with  
601 Hg/TOC anomalies near the SSB (Arctic Canada and western Spitsbergen). There is also a substantial  
602 temporal offset (i.e. the *W. tardus* Zone) between the peak in Hg/TOC anomalies and the climax of  
603 the marine extinction at the SSB, challenging the hypothesis that volcanic degassing is the cause of  
604 the environmental crises at the SSB.

605

## 606 **6. Conclusions**

607 Middle -not late- Smithian times witnessed a thermal maximum as suggested by oxygen isotopic  
608 composition, rates of chemical weathering, biogeography of conodonts and the presence of a spore  
609 spike. Nektonic organisms responded to these adverse conditions by producing many short-lived  
610 species, as exemplified by the northern Indian margin ammonoid record (Brühwiler et al., 2010,  
611 Bucher et al. 2013 ). The extinction of the ammonoids and conodonts clearly post dates the middle  
612 Smithian thermal maximum and is intimately associated with a global gap at or close to the SSB and a  
613 late Smithian cooler and dryer climate. The Early Triassic Hg/TOC anomaly previously documented in  
614 Spitsbergen is here shown to be of middle Smithian age (*E. romunderi* Zone), thus questioning the  
615 role of volcanism as a trigger for the late Smithian extinctions and the commonly associated “lethally”  
616 hot scenario. A slight decrease in the Hg/TOC values is seen already in the late Smithian *W. tardus*  
617 Zone, coeval with or slightly predating the positive carbon isotope excursion marking the  
618 Smithian/Spathian boundary. Hg/TOC values then remain low through the Spathian.

619 The cause of this Smithian Hg/TOC anomaly is not fully resolved. Errors induced by low Hg or TOC  
620 values that affect other SSB localities can be discounted for this section due to sufficiently high (>0.5  
621 wt.%) TOC concentrations. Redox proxies suggest less oxygenated conditions coinciding with low  
622 Hg/TOC ratios in the Spathian, which indicates that Hg deposition by sulfides is not a controlling  
623 factor in the difference between Smithian and Spathian strata. Crucially at Wallenbergfjellet, the  
624 termination of the elevated Hg/TOC values coincides with a shift in the hydrogen index, which can be

625 interpreted as a change from predominantly terrestrial to marine organic matter (although a  
626 decrease in oxidation is an alternative explanation). This suggests that it is possible that a change in  
627 the supply of organic matter from more terrestrial to more marine source may account for the  
628 observed differences in Hg/TOC values from the Smithian to the Spathian. This could be due to more  
629 efficient Hg-uptake in terrestrial ecosystems than marine environments at this time, and/or that  
630 there was an elevated Hg source to the environment, such as volcanism, that preferentially impacted  
631 the terrestrial realm. The former scenario does not require elevated volcanism from the Siberian  
632 Traps or elsewhere to account for the observed Hg/TOC record at Wallenbergfjellet, highlighting the  
633 need for caution when interpreting Hg/TOC anomalies in the Early Triassic (and potentially other  
634 time periods) as a signal of volcanism.

635

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