187Re–187Os geochronology of Precambrian organic-rich sedimentary rocks

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Abstract: Global correlations of Precambrian stratigraphic successions can be hampered by the coarse resolution of biostratigraphic and chemostratigraphic records, and by the scarcity of reliable U–Pb zircon age constraints. The development of the 187 Re (rhenium)– 187 Os (osmium) radioisotope system as an accurate deposition-age geochronometer for organic-rich sedimentary rocks (e.g. black shales) holds great potential for an improved radiometric calibration of the Precambrian rock record. Here, we review Re–Os isotope data obtained for Precambrian black shales and revisit the discrepancy in Re–Os ages for the Neoproterozoic Aralka Formation (central Australia). In addition, we introduce new Re–Os isotope data for the Late Neoproterozoic Doushantuo Formation (South China) that highlights the necessity of a rigorous sampling protocol for depositional age determinations. Improvements in sampling and analytical methodologies have permitted the determination of precise ages (<1%, 2σ) from Late Neoproterozoic to Late Archaean shales. Whole-rock digestion using a $Cr^{VI} - H_2SO_4$ solution minimizes the release of detrital Re and Os from shale matrices, and selectively attacks organic matter that hosts hydrogenous Re and Os. The Re–Os system in organic-rich sedimentary rocks appears to be robust during hydrocarbon maturation and up to the onset of lowermost greenschist facies metamorphism, but post-depositional hydrothermal fluid flow can result in scattered Re–Os isotope data. The Re–Os black shale geochronometer should find utility for constraining the age of a diverse range of Precambrian geological phenomena. In addition, the initial $187Os/188Os$ composition determined from Re–Os isochron regressions serves as a tracer for the Os isotope composition of Precambrian sea water.

Accurately determining the depositional ages of sedimentary rocks has proven extremely difficult to accomplish using the conventional long-lived radioisotope systems (e.g. Rb–Sr, Sm–Nd, U–Pb, K–Ar). The U–Pb SHRIMP (sensitive highresolution ion microprobe) dating of detrital minerals such as zircon has proven useful for provenance studies and constraining the maximum depositional age (e.g. Bingen et al. 2005). However, authigenic minerals (e.g. apatite, glauconite, illite, K-feldspar, monazite) generally yield diagenetic ages that are variably younger than the depositional age of the host sedimentary rock. Diagenetic age determinations on authigenic minerals are also hampered by low closure temperatures of the applied radioisotope system, resulting in a high susceptibility to thermal resetting even during relatively low-temperature hydrothermal alteration or metamorphism (Dickin 2005). Diagenetic xenotime is found in a wide variety of siliciclastic and volcaniclastic rocks, and represents a robust U–Pb geochronometer with the potential for resolving complex geological histories within sedimentary

basins (Rasmussen 2005). However, U–Pb xenotime dates also reflect the timing of diagenesis rather than deposition. In some cases, Pb/Pb ages from carbonates (e.g. Moorbath et al. 1987; Woodhead et al. 1998; Babinski et al. 2007) and phosphorites (Barfod et al. 2002; Chen et al. 2004) may yield depositional or early diagenetic ages using well-preserved material. However, Pb/Pb ages may be erroneously young or old owing to diagenetic or metamorphic recrystallization and detrital inheritance, respectively, or age information may be lost altogether due to post-depositional mobility of U and Pb (Rasmussen 2005).

Currently, the most reliable method of constraining the depositional age of sedimentary rocks is by U–Pb zircon dating of interbedded tuff horizons. In the case of Phanerozoic sedimentary basins, such U–Pb ages can be used to calibrate highresolution Phanerozoic biostratigraphic, chemostratigraphic and magnetostratigraphic records, thereby facilitating regional and global correlations of stratigraphic successions (e.g. Gradstein et al. 2004). However, the generally coarse resolution of these

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chronostratigraphic methods for the Precambrian rock record does not currently permit this approach, and, in cases where datable ash beds are absent, the ages of Precambrian sedimentary rocks are generally only poorly constrained by radiometric dates from overlying and underlying volcanic or plutonic rocks, and/or cross-cutting plutonic rocks.

The development of the 187 Re 187 Os radioisotope system as a reliable deposition-age geochronometer for organic-rich sedimentary rocks (ORS; total organic carbon (TOC) \geq 0.5%) like black shales (Ravizza & Turekian 1989; Cohen et al. 1999; Creaser et al. 2002; Selby & Creaser 2003; Kendall et al. 2004) has the potential to alleviate the problems associated with radiometric calibration of the Precambrian sedimentary rock record. Improvements in sampling and analytical methodologies, combined with the high precision of isotope dilution–negative thermal ionization mass spectrometry (ID-NTIMS: Creaser et al. 1991; Völkening et al. 1991; Walczyk et al. 1991), have made it possible to obtain a Re–Os age for black shale with a precision of better than $\pm 1\%$ (2 σ), with the absolute uncertainty comparable in some cases to the uncertainties on U–Pb ages derived from SHRIMP or laser ablation MC-ICP-MS (multicollectorinductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry) analyses of zircons from tuffaceous beds (e.g. Kendall et al. 2004, 2006; Selby & Creaser 2005a; Anbar et al. 2007; Creaser & Stasiuk 2007).

Recently, the Re–Os ORS geochronometer has been successfully applied to studies regarding geological timescale calibration (Devonian– Mississippian boundary: Selby & Creaser 2005a), the timing of Proterozoic glaciation (Hannah et al. 2004; Kendall et al. 2004, 2006; Azmy et al. 2008), the Earth's early history of atmosphere and ocean oxygenation (Hannah et al. 2004; Anbar et al. 2007), and sedimentary basin analysis (Hannah et al. 2006; Creaser & Stasiuk 2007; Kendall et al. 2009a). In addition, the initial $R^{187}Os/188Os$ value (I_{Os}) from Re–Os isochron regressions has served as a tracer for the Os isotope composition of Phanerozoic sea water (Cohen et al. 1999, 2004; Creaser et al. 2002; Selby & Creaser 2003; Cohen 2004; Cohen & Coe 2007; Selby 2007). Here, we review recent applications of Re–Os geochronology to Precambrian ORS, and demonstrate how careful sampling and analytical methodologies are essential for precise and accurate depositional age determinations.

The 187Re–187Os system in ORS: a deposition-age geochronometer and sea-water Os isotope tracer

In addition to being siderophilic and chalcophilic (e.g. Shirey & Walker 1998), Re and Os are also

organophilic and redox-sensitive (Ravizza et al. 1991; Ravizza & Turekian 1992; Colodner et al. 1993; Crusius et al. 1996; Levasseur et al. 1998; Selby & Creaser 2003, 2005*b*; Selby et al. 2005, 2007a). This geochemical behaviour of Re and Os in Earth surface environments enables the 187 Re $-$ ¹⁸⁷Os isotope system to be used as a deposition-age geochronometer for ORS and a tracer of palaeo-sea-water Os isotope composition.

Under oxidizing atmospheric conditions, Re is transported to the oceans primarily by rivers (as the highly soluble perrhenate anion ReO_4^- : Colodner et al. 1993). Rhenium is removed rapidly from reducing pore waters at centimetres to tens of centimetres below the sediment–water interface, and is sequestered into suboxic, anoxic and euxinic sediments (Colodner et al. 1993; Crusius et al. 1996; Morford & Emerson 1999; Nameroff et al. 2002; Sundby et al. 2004; Morford et al. 2005). Removal of Re from pore waters occurs by reductive capture $(Re^{VII}O₄⁻$ is reduced to Re^{IV} : Colodner *et al.* 1993), the rate of which is controlled by slow precipitation kinetics (Crusius & Thomson 2000; Sundby et al. 2004).

The 187 Os/ 188 Os isotopic composition of presentday sea water is almost homogenous (c. 1.06: Sharma et al. 1997; Levasseur et al. 1998; Burton et al. 1999; Woodhouse et al. 1999; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Ravizza 2000), consistent with an Os sea-water residence time of approximately $10⁴$ years (Oxburgh 1998, 2001; Levasseur et al. 1999). The dominant source of present-day seawater Os $(c. 70-80%)$ is from the weathering of the upper continental crust (McDaniel *et al.* 2004). Average $\frac{187}{187}$ Os/¹⁸⁸Os for the currently eroding upper continental crust and riverine inputs are between 1.0 and 1.4 (Esser & Turekian 1993; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Jahn 2001; Hattori et al. 2003) and approximately 1.5 (with an uncertainty of $>$ 20%: Levasseur *et al.* 1999), respectively. The remainder of the present-day marine Os budget is derived from extraterrestrial cosmic dust (Peucker-Ehrenbrink 1996) and the low- and hightemperature hydrothermal alteration of oceanic crust and peridotites (Ravizza et al. 1996; Sharma et al. 2000, 2007; Cave et al. 2003). Both sources contribute unradiogenic $187Os/188Os$ to sea water (0.126–0.130: Becker et al. 2001; Meisel et al. 1996, 2001; Walker et al. 2002a, b). Dissolved Os is probably present in sea water as an octavalent oxyanion (e.g. $HOSO₅$, $H₃OsO₆$). Osmium is removed into organic-rich sediments in direct association with organic matter (Levasseur et al. 1998) and/or is rapidly removed to organic-rich sediments first as Os (IV), and then is further reduced to Os (III) by organic complexation (Yamashita et al. 2007). Osmium removal from sea water into reducing sediments may occur below the depth of Re enrichment (Poirer 2006).

Rhenium and Os in ORS are predominantly hydrogenous, and are physically associated with organic matter (Ravizza & Turekian 1989, 1992; Ravizza et al. 1991; Ravizza & Esser 1993; Cohen et al. 1999; Martin et al. 2000; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Hannigan 2000; Pierson-Wickmann et al. 2000, 2002; Creaser et al. 2002; Jaffe et al. 2002). Rhenium and Os are present in natural hydrocarbons (Poplavko et al. 1975; Barre et al. 1995; Woodland et al. 2001; Selby & Creaser 2005b; Selby et al. $2007a$) and bitumens (Selby *et al.* 2005), and bulk organic matter is known to contain a large fraction of the Re and Os in shale source rocks (Ripley et al. 2001; Selby & Creaser 2003).

The fundamental assumptions behind the Re–Os ORS geochronometer include: (1) a hydrogenous origin for all Re and Os in ORS (i.e. negligible contributions from detrital and/or extraterrestrial particulates); (2) the closed-system behaviour of Re and Os in ORS following sediment deposition, such that Re–Os dates reflect the timing of deposition rather than diagenesis; (3) a homogenous I_{Os} derived from the contemporaneous sea water; and (4) the negligible post-depositional mobilization of Re and Os. Obtaining a precise Re–Os age by the isochron method requires a suitable range in initial 187 Re/ 188 Os such that β -decay of 187 Re to $\frac{187}{187}$ Os over time generates a range in present-day $\frac{187}{187}$ Os/¹⁸⁸Os. Although ORS may contain Re and Os concentrations ranging from average upper-crustal abundances $(c. 0.2-2$ ppb Re and $30-50$ ppt Os: Esser & Turekian 1993; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Jahn 2001; Hattori et al. 2003; Sun et al. 2003a, b) to hundreds of ppb Re and several ppb Os (e.g. Cohen *et al.*) 1999), the high Re/Os ratios of ORS derived from sea water (present-day sea-water 187 Re $/188$ Os ratio is $c. 3200-5300$ means that only moderate enrichments in Re are required to generate radiogenic present-day 187Os/188Os ratios for Precambrian ORS (e.g. Kendall et al. 2004, 2006). One significant challenge of Re–Os ORS geochronology concerns the first assumption, which requires an analytical methodology to release hydrogenous Os from shales while minimizing release of detrital Re and Os that could otherwise affect the accuracy and precision of Re–Os age and I_{Os} determinations (e.g. Ravizza et al. 1991). Extraterrestrial material can be a negligible source of Os to ORS (e.g. $\leq 0.2\%$ of total Os for ORS, with Os abundances >150 ppt, sediment accumulation rates $>50 \text{ m Ma}^{-1}$ and meteoritic fluxes comparable to Cenozoic fluxes) (Cohen et al. 1999; Kendall et al. 2004).

Development of the Re–Os geochronometer for ORS

The development of Re–Os ORS geochronology resulted from several studies on Phanerozoic

shales. Using the NiS fire assay for preconcentration of Re and Os (and acid dissolution for Re in some samples), and isotope dilutionsecondary ion mass spectrometry (ID-SIMS), Ravizza & Turekian (1989) obtained Re–Os isotope data for the upper Mississippian Bakken Shale (North Dakota, USA). Regression of their data using Isoplot V. 3.0 (Ludwig 2003) and the value of 1.666×10^{-11} year⁻¹ for λ^{187} Re (Smoliar et al. 1996; Selby et al. 2007b) yields a Re–Os age of 323 \pm 110 Ma (2 σ , Model 3, mean square of weighted deviates $(MSWD) = 5.6$) that is broadly consistent with known biostratigraphic age constraints (c. 360–352 Ma) for the Bakken Shale. The large uncertainty in the Re–Os date reflects in part the poor precision $(3-10\%)$ of 187 Os/ 186 Os ratios measured by SIMS (Luck & Alle`gre 1983). Ravizza & Turekian (1989) suggested that some of the scatter about the regression line resulted predominantly from disturbance of the Re–Os systematics by hydrocarbon maturation.

Using new analytical methodologies, including the Carius tube technique for whole-rock digestions in inverse aqua regia (Shirey & Walker 1995), improved chemical separation and purification protocols for Os (Cohen & Waters 1996) and ID-NTIMS analysis, Cohen et al. (1999) provided the first relatively precise Re–Os age determinations from hydrocarbon immature, high-TOC $(>=5\%)$, Jurassic ORS from the UK. Cohen et al. (1999) obtained Re–Os ages of 207 ± 12 Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 88), 181 ± 13 Ma (Model 3, $MSWD = 17)$ and $155.2 + 4.3$ Ma (Model 3, $MSWD = 11$) for Hettangian (Blue Lias, Dorset), Toarcian (Jet Rock, Yorkshire) and Kimmeridgian (Kimmeridge Clay, Dorset) shales. These ages agree within uncertainty to the respective stratigraphic ages of 198.0 ± 1.5 , 179.3 ± 3.7 and 152.7 ± 1.9 Ma (Gradstein *et al.* 2004). Cohen et al. (1999) established that sampling of stratigraphic intervals representing short intervals of geological time were required to minimize I_{Os} heterogeneity and obtain precise Re–Os depositional ages. Cohen et al. (1999) also considered the selection of immature ORS, which have not undergone hydrocarbon maturation, as a necessary sampling protocol for precise and accurate Re–Os geochronology. However, Creaser et al. (2002) found that regression of hydrocarbon immature, mature and overmature samples gave a Re–Os age of 358 \pm 10 Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 19) for the Late Devonian Exshaw Formation (Western Canada Sedimentary Basin) lower black shale member. The Re–Os age is consistent with a previous U–Pb monazite age $(363.3 + 0.4 \text{ Ma})$ from a tuff at the base of the lower black shale member (Richards et al. 2002). Individual regressions for immature and mature plus overmature samples

yield statistically indistinguishable Re–Os dates (at 2σ uncertainties) and thus hydrocarbon maturation did not grossly perturb the Re–Os system in this ORS. Further, Creaser et al. (2002) showed that non-hydrogenous Re and Os can be liberated by inverse aqua regia whole-rock digestions, and thus negatively impact the precision and accuracy of Re–Os ages derived from low-TOC samples.

To limit the release of detrital Re and Os from ORS matrices, a new whole-rock digestion protocol (using a Cr^{VI} –H₂SO₄ solution) was developed by Selby & Creaser (2003). Using the same Exshaw Formation shale aliquots as Creaser et al. (2002), two subsets with distinctive $I_{OS(364 \text{ Ma})}$ values were identified and separately regressed to yield Re–Os ages of $366.1 + 9.6$ Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 2.2; $I_{Os} = 0.51 \pm 0.06$) and 363.4 \pm 5.6 Ma (Model 1, $MSWD = 1.6; I_{Os} = 0.41 \pm 0.04$. These Re–Os ages are more precise and better correlated than the Re–Os ages for the same subsets derived using the data from Creaser et al. (2002) for inverse aqua regia digestion $(356 \pm 23 \text{ Ma})$, $MSWD = 11.1$; and $356 + 12$ Ma, $MSWD = 5.2$). Selby & Creaser (2003) thus showed that the Cr^{VI} -H2SO4 medium represents a superior digestion protocol to inverse aqua regia for obtaining depositional ages and the $187Os/188Os$ isotope composition

Fig. 1. Re–Os isochron diagram for the Neoproterozoic Old Fort Point Formation, Windermere Supergroup, Western Canada (Kendall et al. 2004). Regression of inverse aqua regia analyses (squares, dashed regression line) yields an imprecise Model 3 age, whereas regression of $Cr^{VI}–H₂SO₄$ digestion analyses (circles, solid regression line) yields a precise Model 1 age. The inset diagram shows the deviation of each point from the $Cr^{VI} - H₂SO₄$ best-fit regression line. Regression used
measured 2σ uncertainties for both 187 Re/ 188 Os and $187Os/188Os$, and, for the first time, the error correlation function (ρ) (Ludwig 1980). Use of the latter is justified by generally significant error correlations between 187 Re/¹⁸⁸Os and 187 Os/¹⁸⁸Os (*c*. 0.4–0.6 in this case).

of contemporaneous sea water. Similarly, Kendall et al. (2004) obtained an imprecise Re–Os age of $634 + 57$ Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 65) with inverse aqua regia digestion, but a precise age of 607.8 \pm 4.7 Ma (Model 1, MSWD = 1.2) was obtained using $Cr^{VI} - H₂SO₄$ digestion of the same shale powders of low-TOC $\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)$ slates from the Late Neoproterozoic Old Fort Point Formation, Windermere Supergroup, Western Canada (Fig. 1). The 607.8 \pm 4.7 Ma age agrees with existing Windermere Supergroup U–Pb age constraints that bracket the Old Fort Point Formation to between approximately 700–667 and 570 Ma (Colpron et al. 2002; Lund et al. 2003; Fanning & Link 2004, 2008). Neither chlorite-grade metamorphism nor low-TOC content precluded a precise Re–Os age determination (using Cr^{VI} – H2SO4 digestion) for the Old Fort Point Formation.

Accuracy of the Re–Os geochronometer for ORS and the ¹⁸⁷Re decay constant

An accurate and precise determination of the ¹⁸⁷Re decay constant, together with agreement between Re–Os black shale and U–Pb zircon ages from the same rock unit, are necessary prerequisites to qualify the Re–Os system as an accurate deposition-age geochronometer for ORS. The most widely used value of λ^{187} Re (1.666 \pm 0.005 × 10⁻¹¹ year⁻¹), determined by Smoliar et al. (1996), was calculated using the slope of Re–Os data from group IIIA iron meteorites and the Pb/Pb age of 4557.8 ± 0.4 Ma determined for angrite meteorites (Lugmair & Galer 1992) that are assumed to form at the same time as group IIIA irons. This assumption is supported by $53Mn-53Cr$ ages for angrite and group IIIAB meteorites that constrain their formation to be within \pm 5 Ma of each other (Hutcheon & Olsen 1991; Hutcheon et al. 1992). Although the uncertainty in λ^{187} Re was calculated to be $\pm 0.31\%$ (2 σ) by Smoliar *et al.* (1996), the ammonium hexachloro-osmate standard used by these researchers is only stoichiometric to within $+1.2\%$ (Morgan *et al.* 1995) and thus the total uncertainty in λ^{187} Re would be approximately 1% (2σ) for spike solutions not calibrated against the particular Os standard used by Smoliar et al. (1996). Subsequent studies have yielded slightly different values for λ^{187} Re using either direct counting experiments or analyses from meteorites (Shukolyukov & Lugmair 1997; Birck & Allègre 1998; Shen et al. 1998). Recently, Selby et al. (2007b) intercalibrated the Re–Os molybdenite and U–Pb zircon chronometres using 11 magmatic–hydrothermal ore deposits spanning about 2700 Ma of Earth history. Calculated values for λ^{187} Re of 1.6668 + 0.0034 × 10⁻¹¹ year⁻¹

(using U decay constants from Jaffey et al. 1971) and $1.6689 \pm 0.0031 \times 10^{-11}$ year⁻¹ (using λ^{238} U from Jaffey *et al.* 1971; and λ^{235} U from Schoene *et al.* 2006) are nominally higher $(0.1 0.2\%$) than the value determined by Smoliar et al. (1996), but within calculated uncertainty.

To establish the utility of the Re–Os ORS geochronometer for geological timescale calibration, Selby & Creaser (2005a) studied black shales from the Devonian–Mississippian (D–M) boundary of the Exshaw Formation. Black shales obtained along a narrow 10 cm stratigraphic interval straddling the D–M boundary yield a Re–Os age of 361.3 ± 2.4 Ma (Model 1, including a λ^{187} Re uncertainty of $\pm 0.35\%$, MSWD = 1.2) that agrees to within c . 0.2% of a recent calibration $(360.7 \pm 0.7 \text{ Ma})$ for the D–M boundary based on interpolation of U–Pb zircon dates from the lower Exshaw Formation and D–M boundary strata in New Brunswick, Canada, and Germany (Trapp et al. 2004). The excellent agreement between the Re–Os black shale and U–Pb zircon ages thus demonstrates the ability of the Re–Os ORS geochronometer for accurately constraining the timing, duration and rate of geological events and processes associated with sedimentary deposition.

Significance of appropriate sampling protocols for Re–Os geochronology

Another aspect of Re–Os ORS geochronology that deserves close scrutiny concerns the protocol for selecting and sampling appropriate material. This is not simply a matter of targeting ORS that have not been significantly affected by post-depositional processes such as weathering, metamorphism and hydrothermal fluid flow. For example, Selby & Creaser (2004) showed that, for a specific mineral separate, the required analysis aliquant size for obtaining reproducible and accurate Re–Os ages for molybdenite depends critically on the molybdenite grain size and age, and that small analysis aliquant sizes can result in inaccurate and/or non-reproducible Re–Os molybdenite ages. Similarly, it is necessary to determine carefully the optimal sampling strategies in order to avoid the generation of erroneous and/or imprecise Re–Os dates from ORS. The reliability of Re and Os isotope analyses can ideally be checked by replicate analyses of powder aliquots. Reproducible Re and Os abundance and isotope data for replicate analyses of a sample powder suggests a homogenous distribution of Re and Os within that powder. If Re and Os are distributed heterogeneously in a powder aliquot (incomplete powder homogenization during sample grinding), but have otherwise remained part of a closed system since deposition

(negligible post-depositional mobility), then naturally coupled variations in 187 Re/¹⁸⁸Os and 187 Os/¹⁸⁸Os isotope ratios will result in reproducible sample I_{Ω} with the added benefit of introducing additional variation along Re–Os isochrons (Creaser et al. 2002; Kendall et al. 2004). Significant post-depositional mobilization of Re and Os within shale samples may result in reproducible (if sample powders are homogeneous) or nonreproducible (if sample powders are heterogeneous) Re and Os abundance and isotope data for replicate analyses of powder aliquots, but in both cases the Re–Os isotope data will not yield a meaningful regression (e.g. Kendall et al. 2009a). However, it is important to distinguish between small-scale post-depositional diffusion and/or decoupling of Re and Os in otherwise pristine ORS, and large-scale element mobility resulting from some major post-depositional geological disturbance (e.g. weathering, metamorphism and hydrothermal fluid flow). Here, we demonstrate the importance of powder aliquot size for avoiding small-scale diffusion and/or elemental decoupling using ORS from the Neoproterozoic Doushantuo Formation, southern China.

The depositional age of the Doushantuo Formation is constrained by U–Pb zircon ages of 635.2 \pm 0.6 and 551.1 \pm 0.6 Ma from ash beds that occur near its base and top, respectively, in the Yangtze Gorges area (Fig. 2) (Condon et al. 2005). The latter U–Pb zircon age comes from an ash bed in the uppermost Miaohe Member (Jiuqunao section: see Zhou & Xiao 2007 for section locations) that comprises unmetamorphosed organic-rich shales with well-preserved carbonaceous compression fossils of prokaryotes, macroscopic multicellular algae and metazoans (cnidarians) (Xiao et al. 2002). Four samples of pyritic finely laminated black shale from the Miaohe Member (from stratigraphically lowest to highest over a c. 3.5 m stratigraphic interval: H_1O_{18} , H_1O_{19} , H_1O_{20} , H_1O_{21} , each comprising a volume of $40-80 \text{ cm}^3$) were subsampled into fractions of ≤ 10 g and ≥ 20 g of material. The samples are from the Yangtze Gorges area (Huajipo section that is less than 20 km from the Jiuqunao section: Zhou & Xiao 2007). Each subsample was ground to remove cutting marks and any weathered material, broken into small chips without metal contact and processed to a powder $(c. 30 \mu m)$ in an automated agate mill. Rhenium and Os isotope analyses were carried out by ID-NTIMS following the methods outlined in Selby & Creaser (2001, 2003), Creaser et al. (2002) and Kendall et al. (2004), and references therein.

The Miaohe Member black shales are highly enriched in Re (30–566 ppb) and Os (1.14– 8.24 ppb), and show a wide range in 187 Re/ 188 Os

Fig. 2. Late Neoproterozoic stratigraphy, Yangtze Platform, South China. U–Pb zircon ages from ash beds are shown (Condon et al. 2005). The arrow indicates the sampled interval within the Miaohe Member of the uppermost Doushantuo Formation. Modified after Jiang et al. (2003).

 $(169-617)$ and 187 Os/ 188 Os (2.4–6.8) isotope ratios (Table 1). Duplicate analyses of \geq 20 g aliquots of shale show very good reproducibility in Re and Os abundances $(<3\%$ variation), 187 Re/¹⁸⁸Os and $187Os/188Os$ isotope ratios (<2% variation), and I_{Os} (550 Ma) (\leq 5% variation), suggesting that Re and Os are largely distributed homogenously in these aliquots. In contrast, for ≤ 10 g aliquots, larger variations are observed in Re and Os abundances (up to 4% for most samples), 187 Re/ 188 Os (up to 16%) and $187\text{Os}/188\text{Os}$ (up to 8%) isotope ratios, and $I_{Os(550 Ma)}$ (>20 %). These observations are independent of sample powder aliquant size used for dissolution (0.2–0.8 g). Homogeneous

distribution of Re and Os in a \geq 20 g aliquot suggests that $a < 10$ g aliquot derived from the same wholerock hand sample also should have a homogeneous distribution of Re and Os because grinding conditions were the same in all samples. Our samples do not show secondary alteration from weathering or hydrothermal fluid flow (e.g. quartz/carbonate veinlets were not observed), and are unmetamorphosed. Thus, the contrast in reproducibility between the two Miaohe Member subsets most probably results from small-scale post-depositional diffusion and/or decoupling of Re and Os that is preserved within the ≤ 10 g aliquot subset. We interpret these observations to suggest that sample powders representing a larger rock volume $(\geq 20$ g in this case) are required to remove the effect of small-scale diffusion and/or element decoupling.

Regression of all data for the Miaohe Member black shales yields a Model 3 Re–Os date of 598 ± 16 Ma (MSWD = 275; I_{Os} = 0.65 \pm 0.13) (Fig. 3a). Separate regressions of the ≤ 10 and \geq 20 g aliquots yield Model 3 dates of 590 \pm 20 (MSWD = 360; $I_{Os} = 0.69 \pm 0.16$) and 623 \pm 13 Ma (MSWD = 16; I_{Os} = 0.51 \pm 0.10) (Fig. 3b, c). Although the ≥ 20 g aliquot sample subset yields a more precise date, all three Re–Os dates are significantly older than the U–Pb zircon age of 551.1 ± 0.6 Ma from the ash bed within the Miaohe Member. In addition, the $623 + 13$ Ma date is older than Pb/Pb phosphorite ages of 599.3 + 4.2 (Barfod *et al.* 2002) and $576 + 14$ Ma (Chen et al. 2004) for the Upper Sequence of the Doushantuo Formation that stratigraphically underlies the Miaohe Member. We suggest below that this age discrepancy reflects I_{Os} heterogeneity related to temporal changes in sea-water Os isotope composition through the sampled stratigraphic interval of approximately 3.5 m.

In the Yangtze Gorges area, the Doushantuo Formation is about 250 m thick, but represents a duration of more than 80 Ma. Consequently, average sedimentation rates during Doushantuo time may have been quite slow, although at least two sequence boundaries are known to be present within the Doushantuo Formation (Xiao et al. 1998; Wang et al. 1998; Jiang et al. 2003; Condon et al. 2005; Zhou & Xiao 2007). Assuming relatively uniform sedimentation rates, the sampled stratigraphic interval of 3.5 m from the Miaohe Member could represent more than 1 Ma of elapsed time. Because of the relatively short sea-water residence time of Os (10^4 years) , it is plausible that the Os isotope composition of sea water changed during the time period encompassed by the sampled stratigraphic interval. Of the ≥ 20 g aliquot subset, subsamples H_1O_{18} -3, H_1O_{19} -3, H_1O_{20} -4 and their replicate analyses have similar $I_{Os(550 Ma)}$ (1.17–1.20) values and yield a Re–Os isochron

| Sample* | Aliquot mass (g) | Aliquant mass ^{\dagger} (g) | Re (ppb) | Os (ppb) | 192 Os (ppb) | 187 Re $/188$ Os [‡] | 187 Os/ 188 Os [‡] | ρ | $I_{\rm Os}$ | |
|----------------------|--------------------|---|----------|------------|----------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|--------------|------------------|
| $H_1O_{18} - 1$ | 7.0 | 0.81 | 284.41 | 4.418 | 1.027 | 550.97 (2.30) | 6.0788 (0.0110) | 0.195 | 1.01 | |
| H_1O_{18} -1-rpt | | 0.80 | 275.38 | 4.510 | 1.049 | 522.45 (2.13) | 6.0743(0.0086) | 0.140 | 1.27 | |
| $H_1O_{18} - 2$ | 10.4 | 0.78 | 565.95 | 8.235 | 1.839 | 612.26(2.57) | 6.6343(0.0125) | 0.205 | 1.00 | |
| $H_1O_{18} - 3$ | 39.8 | 0.78 | 402.35 | 6.225 | 1.414 | 566.22 (2.34) | 6.3985(0.0114) | 0.166 | 1.19 | |
| $H_1O_{18} - 3$ -rpt | | 0.50 | 392.22 | 6.094 | 1.387 | 562.52 (2.32) | 6.3655(0.0120) | 0.149 | 1.19 | |
| $H_1O_{19} - 1$ | 7.8 | 0.80 | 388.52 | 5.971 | 1.388 | 556.92 (2.32) | 6.0771(0.0107) | 0.193 | 0.95 | |
| H_1O_{19} -1-rpt | | 0.15 | 374.73 | 6.007 | 1.398 | 533.12 (2.20) | 6.0583 (0.0096) | 0.170 | 1.15 | |
| $H_1O_{19} - 2$ | 6.6 | 0.80 | 392.16 | 5.654 | 1.264 | 617.10 (2.60) | 6.6169(0.0132) | 0.212 | 0.94 | |
| $H_1O_{19} - 2$ -rpt | | 0.15 | 381.80 | 5.642 | 1.256 | 604.69 (2.88) | 6.6769(0.0258) | 0.367 | 1.11 | |
| $H_1O_{19} - 2$ -rpt | | 0.79 | 384.57 | 5.715 | 1.265 | 604.89 (2.46) | 6.7631(0.0091) | 0.137 | 1.19 | |
| $H_1O_{19} - 3$ | 20.5 | 0.78 | 335.93 | 5.539 | 1.302 | 513.12 (2.12) | 5.9227 (0.0109) | 0.161 | 1.20 | 187 Re- |
| $H_1O_{19} - 3$ -rpt | | 0.58 | 338.91 | 5.578 | 1.312 | 513.92 (2.09) | 5.9172 (0.0080) | 0.129 | 1.19 | |
| H_1O_{20} -1 | 4.8 | 0.79 | 160.31 | 2.427 | 0.558 | 571.35 (2.42) | 6.2219(0.0127) | 0.224 | 0.96 | |
| H_1O_{20} -1-rpt | | 0.26 | 154.73 | 2.490 | 0.579 | 531.48 (2.28) | 6.0667(0.0169) | 0.201 | 1.17 | Os GEOCHRONOLOGY |
| H_1O_{20} -2 | 5.9 | 0.78 | 105.69 | 1.776 | 0.434 | 484.54 (2.06) | 5.4170 (0.0118) | 0.229 | 0.96 | |
| H_1O_{20} -2-rpt | | 0.30 | 102.42 | 1.834 | 0.461 | 441.61 (1.96) | 5.0412 (0.0154) | 0.272 | 0.98 | |
| $H_1O_{20} - 3$ | 5.5 | 0.80 | 181.41 | 2.757 | 0.629 | 573.51 (2.41) | 6.3271 (0.0128) | 0.204 | 1.05 | |
| H_1O_{20} -3-rpt | | 0.25 | 178.81 | 2.809 | 0.647 | 549.62 (2.39) | 6.1976 (0.0163) | 0.256 | 1.14 | |
| H_1O_{20} -3-rpt | | 0.80 | 179.73 | 2.768 | 0.633 | 564.62 (2.30) | 6.2948(0.0083) | 0.128 | 1.10 | |
| $H_1O_{20} - 4$ | 22.0 | 0.82 | 167.29 | 2.661 | 0.615 | 541.20 (2.58) | 6.1555(0.0267) | 0.331 | 1.17 | |
| H_1O_{20} -4-rpt | | 0.54 | 165.81 | 2.655 | 0.614 | 536.84 (2.20) | 6.1346(0.0086) | 0.159 | 1.19 | |
| $H_1O_{20} - 5$ | 32.8 | 0.78 | 117.44 | 1.945 | 0.464 | 503.58 (2.26) | 5.7320 (0.0201) | 0.270 | 1.10 | |
| $H_1O_{20} - 5$ -rpt | | 0.54 | 118.57 | 1.973 | 0.474 | 497.93 (2.06) | 5.6414 (0.0093) | 0.184 | 1.06 | |
| H_1O_{21} -1 | 8.9 | 0.67 | 33.76 | 1.185 | 0.368 | 182.28 (0.77) | 2.6444 (0.0056) | 0.180 | 0.97 | |
| H_1O_{21} -1-rpt | | 0.60 | 40.89 | 1.230 | 0.386 | 210.78 (1.01) | 2.5529 (0.0103) | 0.360 | 0.61 | |
| H_1O_{21} -1-rpt | | 0.75 | 39.09 | 1.206 | 0.377 | 206.27 (0.86) | 2.5846 (0.0048) | 0.192 | 0.69 | |
| $H_1O_{21} - 2$ | 4.6 | 0.53 | 32.88 | 1.139 | 0.358 | 182.60 (0.78) | 2.5224 (0.0051) | 0.210 | 0.84 | |
| H_1O_{21} -2-rpt | | 0.62 | 34.52 | 1.175 | 0.373 | 184.00 (0.81) | 2.4290 (0.0071) | 0.246 | 0.74 | |
| H_1O_{21} -2-rpt | | 0.74 | 30.44 | 1.140 | 0.359 | 168.59(0.70) | 2.5037 (0.0043) | 0.187 | 0.95 | |
| $H_1O_{21} - 3$ | 32.2 | 0.49 | 37.09 | 1.176 | 0.368 | 200.68 (0.87) | 2.5825 (0.0065) | 0.279 | 0.74 | |
| H_1O_{21} -3-rpt | | 0.46 | 36.59 | 1.181 | 0.369 | 197.08 (0.89) | 2.5864 (0.0082) | 0.312 | 0.77 | |

Table 1. Re–Os abundances and isotope data for the Miaohe Member, upper Doushantuo Formation, South China

*rpt denotes a replicate analysis.
[†]Used for individual Re–Os analysis.
[‡]Numbers in parentheses denote measured 2σ uncertainty in the isotope ratio calculated by numerical error propagation.
[‡]N_{Os}, initial ¹⁸⁷Os/

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Fig. 3. Re–Os isochron diagrams for the Neoproterozoic Miaohe Member, uppermost Doushantuo Formation, South China. (a) All data. (b) Subset from ≤ 10 g sample aliquots. (c) Subset from ≥ 20 g aliquots. (d) Expanded view of the inset diagram in (c). Three samples $(\overline{H}_1O_{18}-3, H_1O_{19}-3$ and $H_1O_{20}-4)$ have similar $I_{Os(550Ma)}$ of 1.17–1.20 and plot on a 543 \pm 24 Ma Model 1 isochron, but samples H₁O₂₀-5 and H₁O₂₁-3 (not shown) have less radiogenic I_{Os (550 Ma)} of 1.06–1.10 and 0.74–0.77, respectively, and plot below this isochron. Because sample H₁O₂₁-3 ha ¹⁸⁷Re/¹⁸⁸Os and ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os relative to the other samples, it effectively controls the slope of an isochron defining an erroneously old Re–Os date of 623 \pm 13 Ma. Regressions used measured 2 σ uncertainties f $^{187}Os/188}Os$, and the error correlation function (ρ) (Ludwig 1980; Kendall *et al.* 2004).

age of 543 ± 24 Ma (Model 1, MSWD = 0.5; $I_{Os} = 1.26 \pm 0.22$) that is imprecise because of the restricted range in Re/Os, but overlaps the U–Pb zircon age of 551.1 ± 0.6 Ma for the Miaohe Member (Fig. 3d). However, both analyses of sample H_1O_{20} -5 do not plot on this regression, and have less radiogenic $I_{Os (550 Ma)}$ values of $1.06-1.10$ suggesting a possible change in sea water Os isotope composition is recorded within whole-rock H_1O_{20} (volume 80 cm^3). The stratigraphically highest subsample H_1O_{21} -3 has the lowest I_{Os} (550 Ma) values (0.74–0.77) and is characterized by a significantly less radiogenic Os isotope composition compared to the other \geq 20 g aliquots. Thus, this one subsample exerted a large effect on the \geq 20 g aliquot regression, which resulted in an erroneously old age estimate of $623 + 13$ Ma. The Miaohe Member Re–Os data

demonstrate that a deceptively attractive date can be obtained for a sample suite with heterogeneous I_{Os} , especially when there is a large, but skewed, distribution in 187 Re/ 188 Os and 187 Os/ 188 Os isotope ratios.

Because of the potentially slow sedimentation rates for some condensed black shale sequences $(e.g. < 2 m Ma^{-1}$: Arthur & Sageman 1994), a relatively short sea-water residence time for Os (probably $\lt 10^4$ years in low-O₂ Proterozoic oceans) and potential for rapid variations in sea-water $187Os/188Os$, a thin stratigraphic sampling interval is critical to obtain homogenous I_{Os} . A thin stratigraphic sampling interval, together with a sufficiently large mass of black shale powder (e.g. .20 g), are thus key sampling protocols for precise and accurate Re–Os depositional age

187 Re 187 Os GEOCHRONOLOGY 93

determinations. Recent studies have successfully produced precise Model 1 Re–Os ages for shales from stratigraphic intervals ranging from tens of centimetres to a few metres, and by using powder aliquots comprising $>20 g$ of powdered shale (Kendall et al. 2004, 2006, 2009a, b; Selby & Creaser 2005a; Anbar et al. 2007; Creaser & Stasiuk 2007).

Discrepancy in Re–Os dates for the Neoproterozoic Aralka Formation, central Australia

Using the inverse aqua regia dissolution protocol, Schaefer & Burgess (2003) reported Re–Os dates of 592 \pm 14 (n = 3, MSWD \ll 1; I_{Os} = 0.91 \pm 0.07) and 623 \pm 18 Ma (n = 7, MSWD = 5.2; $I_{Os} = 0.78 \pm 0.10$ for organic-rich dolomitic siltstones (TOC c . 0.5–1%) of the Aralka Formation (Amadeus Basin, central Australia). Because the seven samples defining the 623 ± 18 Ma date spanned a stratigraphic interval of about 10 m that could potentially be characterized by heterogeneous I_{Os} , Schaefer & Burgess (2003) suggested that the regression defined by the three samples in closest stratigraphic proximity $(c. 1.6 \text{ m})$ represented the best estimate of the true depositional age. However, Kendall *et al.* (2006) subsequently obtained a significantly older Re–Os date of $657.2 + 5.4$ Ma $(MSWD = 1.2; I_{Os} = 0.82 \pm 0.03)$ by Cr^{VI} H2SO4 digestion of 18 samples (and two replicates) derived from c. 2 m stratigraphic interval within the larger 10 m interval sampled by Schaefer & Burgess (2003) (Fig. 4).

To determine whether the reason for this age discrepancy was simply the nature of the digestion mediums used (as suggested by Kendall et al. 2004), we reanalysed three of our Aralka Formation samples (BK-04-Wallara-1A, BK-04-Wallara-2A and BK-04-Wallara-5) using inverse aqua regia (Table 2). Our initial analyses used approximately 1.44–1.48 g of shale powder for Carius Tube digestion, and plot near the c . 623 Ma-isochron of Schaefer & Burgess (2003) (Fig. 5). However, replicate analyses for BK-04-Wallara-1A and BK-04- Wallara-5 using the same amount of sample powder were not reproducible in terms of Re and Os abundances, $1\overline{{}^{87}\text{Re}}/188\text{Os}$ and $187\text{Os}/188\text{Os}$ isotope ratios, and $I_{Os (657 Ma)}$. The large degree of scatter indicated to us that sample-spike equilibration had not occurred for these replicate analyses during Carius tube digestion. Subsequently, replicate analyses used 0.50–0.54 g of powder for inverse aqua regia digestion, and these data plot near the c. 657 Ma-isochron defined by the Cr^{VI} - $H₂SO₄$ analyses of Kendall *et al.* (2006). In addition, the c. 0.50–0.54 g inverse aqua regia analyses

Fig. 4. Stratigraphic column for drillhole Wallara-1 (Amadeus Basin, central Australia) showing sampled intervals and Re–Os dates obtained for organic-rich siltstones of the Neoproterozoic Aralka Formation by Schaefer & Burgess (2003) and Kendall et al. (2006). Modified from Schaefer & Burgess (2003).

have broadly similar Re and Os abundances, 187 Re/ 188 Os and 187 Os/ 188 Os isotope ratios, and I_{Os} (657 Ma) as the Cr^{VI}–H₂SO₄ analyses from the same powder aliquots. Regression of our 0.50– 0.54 g inverse aqua regia subset yields a Model 1 Re–Os date of 657 ± 15 Ma (MSWD = 0.7; $I_{Os} = 0.87 \pm 0.09$) that is statistically equivalent to the c. 657 Ma age obtained using $\overrightarrow{Cr}^{VI} - H_2SO_4$ digestion. To obtain a direct estimate of the Re–Os systematics of the detrital component, we carried out an inverse aqua regia attack on the Carius tube residue left behind after $Cr^{VI} - H_2SO_4$ digestion of sample BK-04-Wallara-5. The Re–Os data for this residue have large uncertainty, but plot on the isochrons of both Schaefer & Burgess (2003) and Kendall et al. (2006) near the I_{Os} intercept. However, the residue has a calculated $I_{Os (657 Ma)}$ of 0.85 similar to calculated I_{Os} (657 Ma) values of

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| Sample | Method* | Aliquant mass ^{τ} (g) | Re (ppb) | Os (ppt) | 192 Os (ppt) | 187 Re $/188$ Os [‡] | 187 Os/ 188 Os [‡] | ρ | $I_{\rm Os}$ |
|------------------|---|--|----------|------------|----------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|--------------|
| BK-04-Wallara-1A | $Cr^{VI}-H_2SO_4^a$ | 1.06 | 5.41 | 145.9 | 41.0 | 262.10 (1.23) | 3.7170 (0.0125) | 0.525 | 0.83 |
| | $Cr^{VI} - H_2SO_4$ -rpt ^a | 1.48 | 5.41 | 145.3 | 40.9 | 263.41 (1.20) | 3.7149 (0.0129) | 0.436 | 0.82 |
| | IAR ^b | 1.45 | 6.01 | 145.0 | 40.8 | 293.02 (1.30) | 3.7190 (0.0127) | 0.331 | 0.49 |
| | $IAR-rptb$ | 1.46 | 5.36 | 148.1 | 41.8 | 255.03 (1.38) | 3.6755 (0.0166) | 0.642 | 0.87 |
| | $IAR-rptb$ | 0.54 | 5.33 | 146.7 | 41.4 | 256.18 (3.68) | 3.6721 (0.0660) | 0.747 | 0.85 |
| BK-04-Wallara-2A | $CrVI - H2SO4a$ | 1.02 | 5.18 | 125.3 | 33.9 | 304.28 (1.54) | 4.1659 (0.0164) | 0.596 | 0.82 |
| | IAR ^b | 1.46 | 5.12 | 176.1 | 54.7 | 186.27 (0.91) | 2.6518 (0.0097) | 0.561 | 0.60 |
| | $IAR-rpt^b$ | 0.50 | 4.88 | 122.5 | 33.4 | 291.15 (4.14) | 4.0802(0.0611) | 0.885 | 0.88 |
| BK-04-Wallara-5 | $CrVI - H2SO4a$ | 0.99 | 4.38 | 81.8 | 19.5 | 447.17 (3.28) | 5.7469 (0.0421) | 0.746 | 0.83 |
| | $Cr^{VI} - H_2SO_4$ -rpt ^a | 1.49 | 4.36 | 81.8 | 19.5 | 443.99 (2.71) | 5.7200 (0.0354) | 0.625 | 0.83 |
| | IAR ^b | 1.48 | 4.67 | 87.5 | 22.0 | 421.86 (2.14) | 5.0383 (0.0254) | 0.421 | 0.40 |
| | $IAR-rptb$ | 1.44 | 4.34 | 85.5 | 19.7 | 437.89 (3.77) | 6.2048(0.0517) | 0.843 | 1.39 |
| | $IAR-rptb$ | 0.52 | 4.44 | 84.3 | 20.2 | 438.58 (9.32) | 5.7034 (0.1241) | 0.946 | 0.88 |
| | $IAR-rptb$ | 0.51 | 4.18 | 79.8 | 19.2 | 434.01 (4.48) | 5.6272 (0.0742) | 0.677 | 0.85 |
| | Cr^{VI} -H ₂ SO ₄ -res ^b | 0.87 | 0.01 | 2.3 | 0.8 | 27.26(6.45) | 1.1466 (0.1803) | 0.432 | 0.85 |

Table 2. Re–Os isotope data derived from inverse aqua regia and Cr^{VI} –H₂SO₄ digestions of three Aralka Formation samples

*rpt, IAR and res denote replicate, inverse aqua regia and residue analysis by IAR, respectively; ^adata from Kendall et al. (2006); ^bdata from this study. †Used for individual Re–Os analysis.

[‡]Numbers in parentheses denote measured 2σ uncertainty in the isotope ratio calculated by numerical error propagation.
^{\$}I_{Os} = ¹⁸⁷Os/¹⁸⁸Os isotope ratio calculated at 657 Ma (from Kendall *et al.* 2006).

Fig. 5. Re–Os isochron diagram for the Aralka Formation showing the inverse aqua regia and Cr^{VI} -H2SO4 linear regressions from Schaefer & Burgess (2003) and Kendall *et al.* (2006) , respectively. For clarity, only individual sample analyses of BK-04-Wallara-1A, BK-04-Wallara-2A and BK-04-Wallara-5 are shown. Circles, $Cr^{VI} - H₂SO₄$ analyses (Kendall et al. 2006); error ellipses, inverse aqua regia analyses using an aliquant size of c . 0.5 g (this study); squares, inverse aqua regia analyses using an aliquant size of c . 1.4–1.5 g (this study). Regression of the c. 0.5 g inverse aqua regia subset yields a Model 1 Re–Os date (not shown) of 657 ± 15 Ma (MSWD = 0.7; $I_{Os} = 0.87 \pm 0.09$) that is equivalent within 2σ uncertainties to the Cr^{VI} –H₂SO₄ isochron age reported by Kendall *et al.* (2006). The inverse aqua regia analysis of the residue from $Cr^{VI} – H₂SO₄$ digestion of sample BK-04-Wallara-5 (Wal-5-res) provides an estimate of the detrital Re–Os systematics in the Aralka Formation and is shown for comparison.

 $0.81-0.84$ for $Cr^{VI}-H₂SO₄$ analyses (Kendall *et al.*) 2006), but is more radiogenic than calculated I_{Os} (657 Ma) values of $0.47 - 0.71$ from the data of Schaefer & Burgess (2003). The similar ages derived here using the two dissolution mediums, together with the Re–Os data for the residue, suggests the detrital component in the Aralka Formation is minor and/or has similar I_{Ω} as the hydrogenous Os fraction. Accordingly, the discrepancy between the Re–Os data of Schaefer & Burgess (2003) and Kendall et al. (2006) may relate to incomplete sample-spike equilibration during inverse aqua regia digestion of large (e.g. 1.4–1.5 g) aliquant fractions. In contrast, reproducible Re–Os data diagnostic of complete sample-spike equilibration during $Cr^{VI} - H_2SO_4$ digestions was obtained for the Aralka Formation using up to 1.5 g of sample (Kendall *et al.* 2006). Because sample details were not provided by Schaefer & Burgess (2003), further comparison with the data reported here and in Kendall et al. (2006) is not possible.

The $187\text{Os}/188\text{Os}$ isotope composition of Precambrian sea water

The value of I_{Os} from a Re–Os ORS isochron regression may record the $^{187}Os/^{188}Os$ isotope composition of the contemporaneous sea water at the time of sediment deposition if the hydrogenous Os fraction dominates the detrital/extraterrestrial Os fraction of ORS (Ravizza & Turekian 1989, 1992; Ravizza et al. 1991). This tenet is supported by the similar Os isotope composition of recent organic-rich sediments $(^{187}Os/^{188}Os = 0.98-1.07$ based on data from three localities in the Pacific and Atlantic oceans) compared to present-day sea water (Ravizza & Turekian 1992). Similarly, Ravizza & Paquay (2008) show that Eocene–Oligocene organic-rich sediments yield initial Os isotope ratios (calculated using depositional ages derived from biostratigraphy) that agree well with Os isotope data from pelagic carbonates (which do not require correction for *in situ* decay of 187 Re to 187 Os). Because the present-day sea-water residence time of Os $(10⁴ \text{ years})$ is long compared to the ocean mixing time $(2-3$ ka), large global variations in the $187Os$ ¹⁸⁸Os isotope composition of sea water are suggested to have occurred during the Cenozoic and Mesozoic. These variations result from major changes in the proportion of radiogenic Os (from oxidative weathering of upper continental crust) and unradiogenic Os (from dissolution of cosmic dust and hydrothermal alteration of oceanic crust and peridotites) delivered to the oceans (Peucker-Ehrenbrink et al. 1995; Pegram & Turekian 1999; Ravizza et al. 2001; Cohen & Coe 2002, 2007; Ravizza & Peucker-Ehrenbrink 2003; Cohen 2004; Cohen et al. 2004).

Determination of the Os isotope composition of Precambrian sea water is limited to a handful of I_{Os} determinations from precise Re–Os isochron regressions of Proterozoic and latest Archaean ORS (Hannah et al. 2004, 2006; Kendall et al. 2004, 2006, 2009a, b; Anbar et al. 2007; Creaser & Stasiuk 2007; Yang et al. 2009). The sea-water residence time of Os was probably low under conditions of a predominantly anoxic Archaean atmosphere and ocean prior to the 2.45–2.32 Ga Great Oxidation Event (Farquhar et al. 2000; Pavlov & Kasting 2002; Bekker et al. 2004; Goldblatt et al. 2006), or in a stratified Proterozoic ocean with oxidizing surface waters and suboxic, anoxic or euxinic deep waters after the Great Oxidation Event (Canfield 1998; Farquhar & Wing 2003; Slack et al. 2007). The deep ocean may not have become fully oxygenated until the Neoproterozoic (e.g. Fike et al. 2006; Kennedy et al. 2006; Canfield et al. 2007). On the modern Earth a restricted or semi-restricted (e.g. intracratonic) depositional environment can lead to preservation of I_{Os} in

ORS that reflects local sea water, but not the contemporaneous global sea water (Ravizza et al. 1991; Martin et al. 2000; Poirer 2006). Thus, a significantly shorter residence time of Os in Precambrian sea water would likely be accompanied by regional variations in sea-water Os isotope composition.

Nevertheless, some interesting insights can be gained from the limited information available for the Os isotope composition of Precambrian seawater. Weathering of ORS represents a major source of radiogenic Os to the Phanerozoic oceans (Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Hannigan 2000; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Ravizza 2000; Jaffe et al. 2002; Pierson-Wickmann et al. 2002). However, for a predominantly anoxic Archaean atmosphere and oceans, riverine transport of soluble Re and radiogenic Os from weathering and erosion of crustal rocks would be negligible, resulting in deposition of Archaean shales with low Re abundances and 187 Re/ 188 Os and 187 Os/ 188 Os ratios (Yang & Holland 2002; Siebert et al. 2005; Wille et al. 2007). There may also have been a time lag between the Great Oxidation Event and appreciable riverine transport of radiogenic crustal Os to the oceans because of the low Re abundances in uplifted Archaean shales and/or insufficiently oxidizing conditions (Hannah et al. 2004). Chondritic or near-chondritic I_{Os} compositions may be typical of marine shales deposited under an anoxic weathering regime or under the conditions of a weakly oxygenated [e.g. $10^{-5} - 10^{-2}$ PAL (present atmospheric level) for c. 2.45–2.00 Ga (Ga is 10^9 years): Farquhar & Wing 2003] or anoxic atmosphere with stratified oceans containing oxygenated shallow waters and anoxic or euxinic deep waters (Hannah et al. 2004, 2006; Siebert et al. 2005; Anbar et al. 2007; Wille et al. 2007). Chondritic I_{Os} values (e.g. c. 0.11) obtained from the 2.7 Ga Joy Lake Sequence, Superior Province, USA (Yang et al. 2009), the 2.50 Ga Mt McRae Shale, Hamersley Group, western Australia (Anbar et al. 2007) and 2.32 Ga Rooihoogte and Timeball Hill Formations, Transvaal Supergroup, South Africa (Hannah et al. 2004) are consistent with dominance of the late Archaean–early Palaeoproterozoic marine Os budget by extraterrestrial and magmatic/ hydrothermal inputs (Fig. 6). If Earth's atmosphere and oceans were fully anoxic for most of the Archaean, depositional age determinations for most Archaean shales would not be feasible. In this case, the fundamental basis behind the Re–Os ORS geochronometer, namely the reductive capture of dissolved Re from an oxygenated water column into reducing ORS, breaks down. Such shales would be characterized by a subequal mixture comprising meteoritic and hydrogenous components with low Re/Os and chondritic $187Os/188Os$, and a

detrital component with relatively higher Re/Os (radiogenic sulphides would persist as detrital phases during anoxic weathering and erosion: e.g. Fleet 1998; Rasmussen & Buick 1999; England et al. 2002) and elevated $187Os/188Os$.

Of particular interest is a precise determination of the time when pO_2 in the atmosphere rose sufficiently to allow oxidative weathering of continental crust and the development of a significant riverine flux of radiogenic Os to the oceans. The limited information available for the Os isotope composition of Precambrian sea water does not yet provide this information. A chondritic I_{Os} value of $0.133 + 0.020$ for c. 2.0 Ga sea water ('Productive Formation', Pechenga Greenstone Belt, Russia) may reflect a minimal riverine flux of radiogenic Os and/or dominance of mantle inputs in a rift-related tectonic setting (Hannah et al. 2006). A large time gap in the curve for Precambrian sea-water Os isotope compositions (see Fig. 6) exists until 1.54 Ga, where a I_{Os} determination of 0.51 ± 0.03 for the Douglas Formation (Athabasca Basin, western Canada) clearly indicates that crustal weathering and transport of radiogenic Os to sea water was possible during the Mesoproterozoic (Creaser & Stasiuk 2007). Two Re–Os isochron ages from the c. 1.4 Ga Velkerri Formation (McArthur Basin, northern Australia) yield I_{Os} values of 0.29 ± 0.18 and 0.06 ± 0.22 (Kendall et al. 2009a) that also permit some contribution of dissolved radiogenic crustal Os to c. 1.4 Ga oceans. By Late Neoproterozoic time, however, crustal Os fluxes from rivers exerted a significant control on the $187Os/188Os$ isotope composition of sea water. This is evidenced by moderate or radiogenic I_{Os} from the c. 657 Ma Aralka Formation, central Australia (0.82 ± 0.03) , c. 643 Ma Tindelpina Shale Member, Tapley Hill Formation, southern Australia $(0.95 + 0.01)$, c. 640 Ma Black River Dolomite, northwestern Tasmania $(1.00 + 0.05)$, c. 608 Ma Old Fort Point Formation, western Canada (0.62 \pm 0.03) and c. 551 Ma Miaohe Member, Doushantuo Formation (1.26 ± 0.22) (Kendall *et al.* 2004, 2006, 2009*b*; this study). Delineation of the broad features of the Proterozoic sea-water $187Os/188Os$ curve will depend upon further determination of I_{Os} values from precise Re–Os age determinations of ORS.

Re–Os geochronology of Precambrian ORS

With rigorous sampling and analytical protocols, the $187\text{Re} - 187\text{Os}$ system can yield precise and accurate depositional ages for Precambrian ORS. In many Precambrian sedimentary basins (e.g.

Fig. 6. Precambrian sea-water Os isotope compositions derived from black shale Re–Os isochron regressions of ORS. The suggested timeline for Precambrian Earth surface oxygenation is also shown for comparison. See text for discussion and sources of data. Grey squares, isochron regression I_{OS} derived from Cr^{VI} – H_2SO_4 digestion of ORS; black square, isochron regression I_{Os} derived from synsedimentary–early diagenetic pyrite in ORS; grey and black square, isochron regression I_{Os} derived using both methods. The 2.5 Ga Mt McRae Shale Re–Os age gave a subchondritic I_{Os} of $0.04 + 0.06$, but this age was derived from two sample subsets that were separated by more than 15 m of stratigraphy (Anbar et al. 2007). Because it is possible that the two sampled stratigraphic intervals may record distinctive sea-water Os isotope compositions, only the I_{Os} derived from $Re-Os$ isochron regressions of the individual subsets $(I_{Os} = 0.86 \pm 0.86$ and 0.06 ± 0.09) may represent a robust estimate of the sea-water Os isotope composition. The more precise determination ($I_{Os} = 0.06 \pm 0.09$) is shown in the figure.

Neoproterozoic Windermere Supergroup, Mackenzie Mountains, Canada: Narbonne & Aitken 1995), ORS are typically more common than volcanic tuff horizons suitable for U–Pb zircon dating, so Re–Os ages from ORS may hold great promise for radiometric calibration of the Precambrian geological timescale. Nearly all precise Re–Os ages obtained from Precambrian ORS (described later) have been obtained using drill core, which avoids the issue of post-depositional mobility of Re and Os from ORS during oxidative surface weathering (Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Hannigan 2000; Jaffe et al. 2002; Pierson-Wickmann et al. 2002). Development of programmes for the acquisition of drill cores from Precambrian sedimentary successions (e.g. the Astrobiology Drilling Program of the NASA Astrobiology Institute) and preservation of drill core from petroleum exploration wells are thus important for successful Re–Os ORS geochronological studies and an improved Precambrian chronostratigraphy. Furthermore, organic-rich shales of Proterozoic age are increasingly being targeted as hydrocarbon source rocks for petroleum exploration. Several major oil-producing fields are known (e.g. Huqf Supergroup of Oman, Centralian Superbasin of Australia and the Siberian Craton: Peters et al. 2005) and exploration in Proterozoic basins is underway on most continents (e.g. Lottaroli & Craig 2006). Here, we review recent applications of the Re–Os system to Precambrian ORS that have constrained the timing of Proterozoic glaciations, Earth surface oxygenation and the depositional age of organic-rich shales with potential for generating hydrocarbons.

Timing of Neoproterozoic glaciation

Fine-grained siliciclastic sedimentary rocks such as siltstones and shales are commonly deposited during the post-glacial, eustatic sea-level rise that accompanies the end of major episodes of glaciation. If such mudrocks are organic-rich and were deposited under oxygen deficient, anoxic or suboxic conditions, they represent attractive targets for Re–Os geochronology because a Re–Os age would provide a minimum age constraint on the end of glaciation. This approach was one solution proposed to counter the large degree of uncertainty surrounding the number, timing, extent and duration of Neoproterozoic glaciations. These uncertainties result from a scarcity of suitable acid igneous rocks for U–Pb zircon dating of most Neoproterozoic glacial deposits (Schaefer & Burgess 2003; Kendall et al. 2004, 2006).

Kendall et al. (2004) obtained a Model 1 Re– Os age of 607.8 ± 4.7 Ma (see Fig. 1) for the Old Fort Point Formation (OFP), a widespread postglacial marker horizon interpreted as the deepwater facies equivalent of cap carbonates overlying glacial deposits in the middle Windermere Supergroup (Ross *et al.* 1995). The significance of the Re–Os age for dating post-glacial sedimentation relied on lithostratigraphic correlations between the dated OFP interval from the Rocky Mountains, western Alberta (where no glacial deposits are preserved) and stratigraphic successions in northeastern British Columbia and the Mackenzie Mountains, N.W.T., that contain the glaciogenic Vreeland and Ice Brook formations (and their cap carbonates), respectively (Ross et al. 1995). Based on the geochronological database available for Neoproterozoic glaciation, Kendall et al. (2004) suggested that the Vreeland–Ice Brook glaciation represents part of a c. 620–600 Ma glaciation (e.g. represented, in part, by the Nantuo Formation, southern China: Barfod et al. 2002). Subsequently, new precise U–Pb zircon age constraints have been obtained for the Doushantuo Formation cap carbonate overlying the Nantuo Formation $(635.23 + 0.57)$ Ma: Condon et al. 2005) and the Ghaub Formation, Namibia $(635.51 \pm 0.54 \text{ Ma: Hoffmann} et al.$ 2004). In light of these new age constraints, it is possible that the Vreeland–Ice Brook glaciation may have been wholly or partly younger than c. 635 Ma. Alternatively, if the Vreeland–Ice Brook glaciogenic diamictites represent part of a global glaciation that ended at c . 635 Ma (Condon et al. 2005), then the Re–Os age of 607.8 ± 4.7 Ma for the OFP may simply reflect a relatively condensed section (c. 80–120 m thick: Ross et al. 1995) and the underlying coarse-grained sandstones that are laterally equivalent to the Vreeland diamictites (Hein & McMechan 1994; McMechan 2000).

Prior to the study by Kendall et al. (2006), direct age constraints for the Sturtian and Elatina Formation glacial deposits of southern Australia were particularly poor, with the best age constraint being a U–Pb zircon age of 777 \pm 7 Ma from volcanic rocks more than 6 km below Sturtian glacial deposits (Preiss 2000). Nevertheless, the Sturtian and Elatina Formation glacial deposits have served as marker horizons for global correlation schemes based largely on litho- and chemo-stratigraphy (Kennedy et al. 1998; Walter et al. 2000; Halverson et al. 2005). Kendall et al. (2006) tested proposed correlation schemes for a putative global 'Sturtian' ice age by obtaining Re–Os ages from post-glacial black shales immediately overlying Sturtian and Areyonga glaciogenic diamictites in drill cores from southern and central Australia, respectively. Two Re–Os ages of 647 ± 10 (Model 1, MSWD = 0.79) and 645.1 ± 4.8 Ma (Model 1, $MSWD = 1.2$) were obtained for the Tindelpina Shale Member (basal Tapley Hill Formation, Adelaide Rift Complex, southern Australia) from two separate drill cores (Fig. 7a). The sampled intervals from the two cores can be correlated on the basis of carbon isotope chemostratigraphy. Thus, combining the Re–Os data from both drill cores resulted in a depositional age of 643.0 ± 2.4 Ma (Model 1, MSWD $= 1.1$) for the Tindelpina Shale Member. A Re–Os age of 657.2 ± 5.4 Ma (Model 1, MSWD $= 1.2$) was also obtained for the Aralka Formation (Amadeus Basin, central Australia) from a single drill core. Because both diamictite– shale contacts appear conformable, the Re–Os ages were interpreted as tight minimum age constraints for the end of Sturtian and Areyonga glaciation. The new Re–Os ages suggested that the Sturtian and Areyonga glacial intervals were significantly younger than other radiometrically dated $(c. 685-750$ Ma) glacial intervals previously regarded as possible correlatives. A U–Pb SHRIMP zircon age of 659 \pm 6 Ma from a tuffaceous bed within the glaciogenic Sturtian Wilyerpa Formation (Fanning & Link 2008) supports the interpretations of Kendall et al. (2006). Thus, the Sturtian ice age was diachronous and/or there were multiple episodes of 'Sturtian' glaciation between about 750 and 643 Ma, each of uncertain duration and extent.

Late Mesoproterozoic glaciation in Brazil?

The Vazante Group of the Sao Francisco Basin (east-central Brazil) represents another Precambrian sedimentary succession with glaciogenic

Fig. 7. Examples of Re–Os isochrons for Precambrian ORS. (a) Neoproterozoic Tindelpina Shale Member, basal Tapley Hill Formation, Adelaide Rift Complex, South Australia (Kendall et al. 2006). Triangles, Blinman-2 drillhole; squares, SCYW-1a drillhole. (b) Late Mesoproterozoic Lapa Formation, upper Vazante Group, Brasilia Fold Belt, Brazil (Azmy et al. 2008). Exclusion of the three low Re- and Os-samples (squares) yields a nominally older date of 1100 \pm 77 Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 16; I_{Os} = 0.33 \pm 0.30; circles). (c) Late Archaean M McRae Shale, Hamersley Basin, western Australia (Anbar et al. 2007). Depth intervals refer to two stratigraphic horizons (represented by error ellipses and circles) sampled from the ABDP-9 drillhole. (d) Mesoproterozoic Velkerri Formation (upper organic-rich interval), McArthur Basin, northern Australia (Kendall et al. 2009a). All regressions used measured 2σ uncertainties for 187 Re/ 188 Os and 187 Os/ 188 Os, and the error correlation function (ρ).

diamictites and cap carbonates, and is characterized by a paucity of reliable U–Pb radiometric age constraints. Distinctive negative δ^{13} C isotope excursions in the cap carbonate, together with $87\text{Sr}/86\text{Sr}$ data (Azmy et al. 2001, 2006; Brody et al. 2004; Olcott et al. 2005), were used to correlate the upper Vazante Group diamictite unit and overlying post-glacial cap carbonate (Lapa Formation) with the \leq 746 \pm 2 Ma (Hoffman *et al.* 1996) glaciogenic Chuos Formation and Rasthof Formation cap carbonate on the Congo Craton, Namibia (Azmy et al. 2001, 2006). However, a Re–Os date of 993 \pm 46 Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 35; I_{Os} = 0.75 ± 0.16) was obtained for ORS at the base of the Lapa Formation (Fig. 7b) (Azmy et al. 2008). Exclusion of three samples with low Re

 $(0.4-0.9 \text{ pb})$ and Os $(33-54 \text{ pb})$ abundances (e.g. possible significant detrital component) yields a nominally older Re–Os date of $1100 + 77$ Ma (Model 3, MSWD = 16; $I_{Os} = 0.33 \pm 0.30$). Elevated MSWD in these regressions may reflect post-depositional mobilization (e.g. chlorite-grade metamorphism or hydrothermal fluid flow), and/or heterogeneous sea-water I_{Os} (samples were derived from a c. 15 m stratigraphic interval to obtain a good range of Re/Os ratios). However, the Re–Os dates were suggested to represent a good estimate of the depositional age for the basal Lapa Formation on the basis of reasonable I_{Os} derived from the Re–Os isochron regressions, the absence of upper Vazante Group and basal Lapa Formation detrital zircons yielding concordant U–Pb ages

younger than about 1000 Ma, and stromatolite biostratigraphic evidence (Cloud & Dardenne 1973) for a late Mesoproterozoic age for the upper Vazante Group. In addition, Geboy (2006) has obtained Model 3 Re–Os ages of $1353 + 69$ Ma and 1126 ± 47 Ma for ORS from the upper Vazante Group. Thus, the upper Vazante Group glaciogenic diamictites are not correlative with 'Sturtian' (i.e. 750–643 Ma) glacial deposits, but instead may record a late Mesoproterozoic glaciation.

Timing of Earth surface oxygenation

Anbar et al. (2007) presented a high-resolution chemostratigraphic profile for the late Archaean Mt McRae Shale (Hamersley Basin, western Australia) that showed an episode of enrichment of the redox-sensitive metals Mo and Re in black shales. The suggested mechanism for metal enrichment was oxidative weathering and dissolution of Mo and Re derived from crustal sulphide minerals, transportation within or into an ocean basin, and sequestration into organic-rich sediments. A Re–Os depositional age of $2501.1 + 8.2$ Ma (Model 1, $MSWD = 1.1)$ (Fig. 7c) agrees well with a U–Pb SHRIMP zircon age of $2504 + 5$ Ma (Rasmussen et al. 2005) from a tuffaceous bed within the Mt McRae Shale. Thus, the episode of metal enrichment is a primary sedimentary feature and suggests that shallow-water ocean oxygenation commenced more than 50 Ma prior to the Great Oxidation Event (2.45–2.32 Ga; Bekker et al. 2004). Thus, Re–Os ORS geochronology, together with geological and geochemical redox proxies, holds great potential for radiometrically constraining the timing of stepwise increases in atmosphere and ocean oxygen abundances during the Precambrian Eon.

Application to Precambrian petroleum systems

An example of a Precambrian ORS unit that has been studied for its petroleum source rock potential is the Mesoproterozoic Velkerri Formation (Roper Group, McArthur Basin, northern Australia). Within the Velkerri Formation there are three intervals, tens of metres thick, that are highly organic-rich (TOC $>5\%$) and represent oil source beds (Jackson & Raiswell 1991; Warren et al. 1998). The world's oldest live oil is from the Velkerri Formation and has been observed bubbling from drillhole BMR Urapunga-4 at multiple depths (e.g. Jackson et al. 1986; Crick et al. 1988). Organic matter in the Velkerri Formation is mature, except where affected by a dolerite sill intrusion (Crick et al. 1988; Crick 1992; Summons et al. 1994;

George & Ahmed 2002). During and prior to late Mesoproterozoic–early Neoproterozoic McArthur Basin inversion, the Velkerri Formation was the most likely source rock for multiple episodes of hydrocarbon migration into a cross-cutting dolerite sill and the overlying Bessie Creek Sandstone. The oldest known hydrocarbon migration event occurred prior to 1280 Ma (minimum K–Ar age of a dolerite sill: McDougall *et al.* 1965) and is associated with dolerite sill intrusion, which resulted in flash pyrolysis of kerogen and generation of bitumen. At least one younger hydrocarbon migration event is associated with basin inversion, and is represented by nonbiodegraded fluid inclusion oils (Dutkiewicz et al. 2003, 2004; Volk et al. 2005).

Two Re–Os ages of $1361 + 21$ (Model 1, $MSWD = 1.3)$ and 1417 ± 29 Ma (Model 1, $MSWD = 1.3$) were obtained by Kendall *et al.* (2009a) for the upper and lower organic-rich intervals of the Velkerri Formation, respectively (Fig. 7d). Both ages are internally consistent with stratigraphic position and with a U–Pb SHRIMP zircon age of 1492 ± 4 Ma from tuff within the Wooden Duck Member of the Mainoru Formation $(>=700 \text{ m}$ beneath the Velkerri Formation: Jackson et al. 1999). Thus, the multiple hydrocarbon migration events do not appear to have affected the Re–Os systematics in the Velkerri Formation source rock, consistent with previous studies suggesting the Re–Os ORS geochronometer is robust up to the onset of greenschist facies metamorphism (Creaser et al. 2002; Kendall et al. 2004; Selby & Creaser 2005a). The Re–Os ages constrain the age of biomarkers in the Velkerri Formation and, together with the U–Pb zircon age of 1492 ± 4 Ma for the Mainoru Formation, suggest a duration of more than 100 Ma for the acritarch and microfossil record of the Roper Group (Javaux et al. 2001). In addition, the hydrocarbon migration event associated with the dolerite sill intrusion can be bracketed between the minimum K–Ar age of 1280 Ma and the Re–Os age of $1361 + 21$ Ma.

The Re–Os systematics of ORS source rocks are not grossly affected by hydrocarbon maturation, suggesting minimal fractionation of Re from Os during hydrocarbon generation and/or domination of the Re and Os mass balance by the source rock (Creaser et al. 2002). However, Selby & Creaser $(2005b)$ and Selby *et al.* (2005) have shown that the Re–Os systematics of maturated hydrocarbons may be reset, possibly by some organic mechanism, during the process of hydrocarbon migration to the reservoir rock. In addition, Selby *et al.* $(2007a)$ observed a strong correlation between the Os isotope composition of whole oils with source rock age. Thus, the Re–Os system in hydrocarbon deposits (e.g. bitumen, crude oil and oil sands) may constrain the timing of hydrocarbon migration

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and entrapment, and serve as a tracer for fingerprinting hydrocarbon source rocks. We suggest that a joint application of the Re–Os system to Precambrian ORS source rocks and hydrocarbon deposits may ultimately prove valuable in understanding the age and nature of Precambrian petroleum systems. Such studies would complement more traditional organic geochemical methods such as source rock and hydrocarbon biomarker distributions, and thermal maturity indicators.

Summary and future directions

With rigorous sampling and analytical methodologies, we have shown that the 187 Re– 187 Os isotope system represents a precise and accurate depositionage geochronometer for ORS. However, we emphasize that some uncertainties still remain regarding the limitations of the Re–Os ORS geochronometer. For example, weathering (Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Hannigan 2000; Jaffe et al. 2002; Pierson-Wickmann et al. 2002) and hydrothermal fluid flow (Fig. 8) (Kendall *et al.* 2009 a) are known to result in post-depositional mobilization of Re

Fig. 8. Isochron diagram showing the scattered Re–Os isotope data for the Palaeoproterozoic Wollogorang Formation, McArthur Basin, northern Australia (Kendall et al. 2009a). The imprecise Re–Os date of 1359 ± 150 Ma is significantly younger than the U–Pb zircon ages of 1729 \pm 4 and 1730 \pm 3 Ma from tuffaceous beds within the Wollogorang Formation black shale unit that constrain the age of black shale deposition (Page et al. 2000). A c. 1730 Ma reference line (dashed line) with chondritic I_{Os} (0.115) is shown for comparison. Note the high I_{Os} value of 3.5 \pm 1.5 from this regression that is significantly more radiogenic than currently eroding upper continental crust (e.g. $187Os/188Os$ c. 1.0–1.4: Esser & Turekian 1993; Peucker-Ehrenbrink & Jahn 2001; Hattori et al. 2003). Scattered Re–Os systematics are interpreted to result from post-depositional hydrothermal fluid flow, as evidenced by carbonate veinlets within the shale.

and Os. The robustness, or otherwise, of the Re–Os system in ORS at metamorphic grades above lowermost greenschist facies is not known. In addition, the mechanism controlling the range in initial 187 Re/ 188 Os of ORS is not fully understood, but may relate to the presence of multiple and/or separate organic complexes as host phases for Re and Os (Creaser et al. 2002; Selby & Creaser 2003). However, with further research, these questions should be resolved. If low abundances of Re in Archaean ORS are the norm (Yang & Holland 2002; Siebert et al. 2005; Wille et al. 2007), then the utility of Re–Os geochronology for ORS deposited prior to the Great Oxidation Event may be limited. Nevertheless, the Re–Os ORS geochronometer holds tremendous potential for constraining the rates, duration, timing and extent of geological phenomena during the Proterozoic Eon. Examples include timing of evolution and diversification of eukaryotes (including macroscopic metazoans), significant perturbations of biogeochemical cycles (e.g. positive and negative carbon isotope excursions), radiometric calibration of the Precambrian rock record and sedimentary basin analysis.

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