1 Strongly peraluminous granites provide independent 2 evidence for an increase in biomass burial across the 3 Precambrian-Phanerozoic boundary

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18 ABSTRACT

19 Strongly peraluminous granites (SPGs) are generated by the partial melting of 20 sedimentary rocks and can thus provide a novel archive to reveal secular trends in Earth's 21 environmental history that integrate siliciclastic sedimentary lithologies. The nitrogen (N) 22 content of Archean, Proterozoic, and Phanerozoic SPGs reveals a systematic increase 23 across the Precambrian-Phanerozoic boundary. This rise is supported by a coeval increase 24 in the phosphorus (P) contents of SPGs. Collectively, these data are most parsimoniously 25 explained by an absolute increase in biomass burial in the late Proterozoic or early 26 Phanerozoic by a factor of approximately 5 and up to 8. The Precambrian-Phanerozoic 27 transition was a time of progressive oxygenation of surface environments paired with 28 major biological innovations, including the rise of eukaryotic algae to ecological 29 dominance. Because oxygenation suppresses biomass preservation in sediments, the 30 increase in net biomass burial preserved in SPGs reveals an expansion of the biosphere 31 and an increase in primary production across this interval.

32 INTRODUCTION

33 Quantifying changes in biomass burial through time has occupied scientists for decades 34 because organic carbon is a strong reductant, and so biomass burial constitutes an indirect 35 source of O₂ that may have driven atmospheric oxygenation (e.g., Canfield, 2021; 36 Wickman, 1956). Recent studies have relied on complex biogeochemical models to 37 calculate trends in biomass burial over time (Planavsky et al., 2022; Krissansen-Totton et 38 2021). While models advance our mechanistic al. such understanding of 39 paleoenvironmental conditions, their results disagree, and they imply that rates of biomass 40 burial cannot easily be read from the carbon isotope record as was originally envisioned 41 (e.g., Des Marais et al., 1992). Therefore, new empirical approaches are required to 42 provide independent constraints on secular shifts in biomass burial. Some advances have 43 been made with the record of diamictites, which preserve evidence of increased biomass 44 storage in continental crust across the Precambrian-Phanerozoic transition (Johnson and 45 Goldblatt, 2017; Han et al., 2023); however, this approach is limited by the sparse 46 preservation of diamictites in the geological record.

47 We leverage the record of nitrogen (N) in strongly peraluminous granites (SPGs) as an 48 indirect archive of biomass buried in sediments through time. Strongly peraluminous 49 granites (SPGs) are defined as granites with an aluminum saturation index ASI = molar 50 $Al_2O_3/(CaO+Na_2O+K_2O)$ > 1.1 and dominantly formed via the partial melting of 51 sedimentary rocks (e.g., Clarke, 2019; Nabelek, 2020; Bucholz, 2023). Crucially, SPGs 52 integrate large volumes of terrigenous siliciclastic sediments deposited in marine settings 53 through anatexis (most commonly in collisional to post-collisional orogens) and have been 54 shown to record geochemical information about their sedimentary protoliths (e.g., Bucholz 55 et al., 2020; Liebmann et al., 2021). Our approach contrasts with studies of total organic 56 carbon (TOC) and N in sedimentary archives, which emphasize organic-rich shales (Ader 57 et al. 2016). Carbonaceous compounds (CO₃²⁻, CO₂, CH₄) are devolatilized and lost from 58 the system during sediment melting (anatexis) and igneous differentiation because they 59 do not partition into granite-forming minerals. Nitrogen and P, however, can be retained 60 by crystalising mineral phases with NH_4^+ substituting for K^+ and/or Rb^+ (Boocock et al., 2023a) and P being retained by apatite and monazite (Bea, 1996). 61

62 METHODS

63 Analytical Geochemistry

64 The samples analyzed in this study span a large range of formation ages (2700-21 Ma), 65 provenances, and tectonic settings (see supplementary dataset). Nitrogen abundances 66 and isotope values were obtained from whole rock powders using sealed tube combustion 67 followed by gas-source IRMS at the University of St Andrews (Boocock et al., 2020). Major 68 and trace element data were collated from the literature or obtained via energy-dispersive 69 X-ray fluorescence at the University of St Andrews. Oxygen isotope data were obtained by 70 laser fluorination IRMS at the Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre 71 (SUERC) (full analytical details are provided in the Supplemental Methods).

72 Filtering the Nitrogen database

To complement our sample suite, we compiled data for igneous rocks from the literature (see Supplementary Dataset). Results reported as ug/g NH₄⁺ were converted to ug/g N. We filtered for granitic rocks, either geochemically (SiO₂ > 67 wt.%) or mineralogically (i.e., QAPF), and extracted those data from granites which are strongly peraluminous, either geochemically (where the ASI is published and \geq 1.1; n = 24) or where they host primary peraluminous minerals (i.e., biotite + muscovite, cordierite, and garnet; n = 37). Altered samples, as identified by the original authors, were removed from the compilation.

80 **RESULTS**

81 N concentrations for SPGs are lower in the Archean (3-23 $\mu g/g$, mean = 8 ± 5 $\mu g/g$) and 82 Proterozoic (4-15 $\mu q/q$, mean = 9 ± 4 $\mu q/q$) compared to the Phanerozoic (2-189 $\mu q/q$, 83 mean = 76 \pm 54 μ g/g) (Table 1). The difference between the Archean and Proterozoic is 84 statistically insignificant (p = 0.5), but the difference between the Precambrian and the 85 Phanerozoic is significant (p < 10^{-13}). Nitrogen isotope values (δ^{15} N) for SPGs, where 86 available, are indistinguishable between the Archean (mean $+5.5 \pm 3.6 \%$) and 87 Proterozoic (mean +4.7 \pm 2.0 ‰), but show a significant (p = 10⁻³) increase towards the 88 Phanerozoic (mean $+7.9 \pm 1.8 \%$; Table 1).

89 **DISCUSSION**

90 The origin of nitrogen in SPGs

91 To ensure robustness of our approach, we first need to evaluate whether SPGs primarily 92 record the geochemistry of their sedimentary protoliths and are free from significant 93 alteration. In extrusive igneous rocks, it has been demonstrated that nitrogen can become 94 enriched through progressive magmatic differentiation of an initially N-poor melt, behaving 95 similarly to Large Ion Lithophile Elements (LILE; Boocock et al., 2023b). However, in this 96 sample set, we find no co-variation for [N] or δ^{15} N versus any index of petrological evolution, such as SiO₂ vs. K₂O (Fig.1), Rb, and K/Rb, or relative to the abundances of 97 98 mafic elements (FeO+MgO+TiO₂; R² = 0.17, 0.10, and 0.23, respectively). Further, as K-99 bearing phases are the dominant host of nitrogen in igneous rocks (Hall, 1999; Boocock 100 et al., 2023a), the lack of a linear relationship between N and K_2O suggests that the

101 abundance of potassic phases in the samples is not controlling their N budget. Therefore, 102 the N concentration of SPGs either reflects protolith geochemistry or post-emplacement 103 alteration. We observe no correlation between either [N] or δ^{15} N against proxies for post-104 emplacement alteration, such as the loss on ignition ($R^2 = 0.0056$ and 0.0093, 105 respectively) or bulk rock δ^{18} O values (R² = 0.09 and 0.009, respectively). We note that 106 only limited LOI and δ^{18} O data are available for the Phanerozoic SPGs; however, it is 107 unlikely that fluid alteration would have increased systematically from Precambrian into 108 the Phanerozoic and affected N and P simultaneously. Thus, we find no evidence to 109 suggests that fluid alteration was the dominant source of N for the N-rich SPGs, which are 110 primarily Phanerozoic. The similarity in [N] and δ^{15} N between Proterozoic and Archean 111 SPGs suggests that both sample suites preserve the same information about the N 112 geochemistry of their sedimentary protolith, and therefore, the N enrichment observed for 113 Phanerozoic SPGs likely reflects a greater N endowment in the source of Phanerozoic SPGs.

114 The N:P of SPGs are unlikely equal to the N:P of the metasedimentary source(s) because 115 the uptake of both elements during SPG formation are controlled by different phase 116 equilibria. The N content of SPGs is affected by devolatilization during diagenesis and 117 metamorphism, and the extent of this can vary over an order of magnitude from nearly 118 full retention to >80% loss (Busigny et al. 2003; Haendel et al., 1986; Jia et al., 2006; 119 Palya et al., 2011), whereas data for the leucosome and melanosome portions from the 120 Pefia Negra migmatite complex show that anatectic melts are N-depleted relative to the 121 mica-feldspar bearing restite (D = 0.5 ± 0.1 ; Hall et al., 1996). Experimental data show 122 that when present in trace quantities (ca. < 2500 ug/g) N partitions into K-bearing 123 minerals over fluids and reaches parity for melts vs fluids (with a D_{N melt-fluid} ca. 1; Jackson 124 and Cottrell, 2023). Hence, changes in the primary N content of SPGs should reflect - but 125 underestimate - the relative N abundances of (meta-)sedimentary sources. Herein we 126 assume that the underestimation (fraction of N retained during metamorphism and 127 anatexis) is uniform through time, and therefore secular trends observed in N 128 geochemistry of SPGs averaged over several plutons reflect relative changes in sediment 129 composition. This argument is consistent with the observation that the median N contents 130 of strongly peraluminous granites are higher than metaluminous granites (ASI < 1; Hall, 131 1999). The P content of SPGs is not affected by devolatilization but is fractionated during 132 anatexis. The P concentration in the anatectic melt is controlled dominantly by apatite 133 breakdown, which is a complex function of initial P concentration of the sedimentary 134 source, apatite solubility in the melt as a function of temperature and pressure, the extent 135 of melting, and the ability of apatite to be in equilibrium with the melt (e.g., whether it is 136 included in another phase; Yakymchuk, 2017; Bucholz, 2022). Further, after extraction of 137 the melt from the source, P concentrations in the granitic melt evolve with differentiation. 138 However, after accounting for all these processes in detail, an increase from an average 139 sedimentary P_2O_5 concentration of ~0.1 wt.% prior to ~720 Ma to 0.5 wt.% after 720 Ma 140 (Reinhard et al., 2017) can explain a corresponding increase in average SPG P_2O_5 141 concentrations from 0.11 to 0.24 wt.% (Bucholz, 2022). Thus, an increase by a factor of 142 2.2 in average SPG concentrations across this time interval broadly agrees with an increase 143 in a factor of 5 in average sedimentary P_2O_5 concentration. Ergo, while we acknowledge 144 that the major and trace element geochemistry of SPGs will not directly mirror their 145 source, nor will the source of any two SPGs mirror one and other, the dominant controlling 146 factor for N and P geochemistry in SPGs is their source composition, which dominated by 147 (meta-)sedimentary siliciclastic lithologies (Clarke, 2019; Nabelek, 2020; Bucholz, 2023).

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149 Increasing biomass burial across the Precambrian-Phanerozoic boundary

The average N and P concentrations in Phanerozoic SPGs rise by factors of 8.4 and 2.2, respectively (Figure 2). This trend is mirrored by data from glacial diamictites, which show an increase in the relative concentrations of N (Johnson and Goldblatt, 2017) and fluorine (Han et al., 2023) after the Proterozoic. The absence of N data between 470-1435 Ma means that we cannot resolve the rate of the N increase(s) (Fig.2), however, the P record is more complete and suggests that this occurred between 800-500 Ma (Figure 2c). We 156 stress that the sedimentary protoliths of SPGs may pre-date SPGs by millions of years and 157 this prohibits a direct determination for timing. Furthermore, non-sedimentary crustal 158 rocks likely contribute to SPG formation. However, our data unequivocally show a 5-to-8-159 fold increase in the N and P abundances in Phanerozoic SPGs relative to Precambrian SPGs 160 (Fig.2). We rule out a shift in tectonic style to explain this increase because continental 161 shelves as the major loci of biomass burial have existed since continental emergence in 162 the Neoarchean (Flament et al. 2008). Archean shales with organic carbon abundances like the Neogene support this idea (Lyons et al. 2014). Furthermore, by taking secular 163 164 averages, our results integrate over SPGs formed in a variety of tectonic regimes such as 165 arc-continent (i.e. Scotland) or continent-continent orogenies (i.e., Himalayas). Also 166 changes in mantle temperature, pressure, fluids, and oxygen fugacity can be ruled out as 167 explanations (see supplements). Thus, the most likely explanation for our data is an 168 increase in the amount of biomass in sediments.

169 Converting the N and P factor increases to absolute sedimentary-hosted biomass is difficult 170 for the reasons noted above, but also because the C:N:P of biomass may have changed 171 over time (Planavsky, 2014). Moreover, the sedimentary input for SPGs is likely a 172 combination of terrigenous and marine. There is no simple factor to convert [N] or [P] of 173 SPG into carbon contents of sediments. If we assume, however, that the global average 174 C:N:P of biomass has not changed systematically, our results suggest that total biomass 175 burial would have increased by a factor of 5 to 8 across the Precambrian-Cambrian 176 boundary, and we can compare our observations to previous predictions. Krissansen-177 Totton et al. (2021) modelled the carbon cycle benchmarked to ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ to investigate 178 biomass burial relative to total C deposition (f_{org}) since 4 Ga. Their model suggested that 179 f_{org} increased by a factor of 2-5 from the Archean to the modern while absolute biomass burial remained constant (within error). By contrast, Planavsky et al. (2022) derived an 180 181 overall increase in f_{org} and absolute biomass burial by factors of >10. Our results provide 182 a new independent constraint for biomass burial that falls in between these modelled 183 estimates (5-to-8). Our data indicate that this shift manifests in the Phanerozoic and may 184 be linked to the rise of macro-organisms, which may have created ballast and facilitated 185 settling of organic matter on the seafloor (Logan et al., 1995).

186 Our N isotope data can speak to shifts in the supply of fixed nitrogen to the biosphere, 187 akin to the use of δ^{15} N in sedimentary rocks (Ader et al., 2016). It is likely that N isotopes 188 undergo fractionation during sediment melting, as it has been documented that $\delta^{15}N$ 189 increases with regional metamorphism (by $\sim +6$ ‰; e.g., Haendel et al., 1986). However, 190 since all SPGs are derived from metasedimentary rocks that have experienced high grade 191 metamorphism (T > 680 $^{\circ}$ C), the fractionation of N isotopes during metamorphism should 192 be similar and independent of time. Thus, it suggests that Phanerozoic sediments 193 displayed on average higher δ^{15} N values compared to the Precambrian (Table 1). This may 194 be consistent with a larger reservoir of nitrate in Phanerozoic seawater, which was partly 195 assimilated into biomass and buried in sediments (Ader et al., 2016). The secular shift in 196 δ^{15} N values seen in SPGs, which integrate over all sediment types, is in fact more in line 197 with other proxies indicating ocean oxygenation in the Neoproterozoic or early Palaeozoic 198 (Wei et al. 2021). Nitrate is most stable under oxic conditions and constitutes the major 199 N source for eukaryotic algae (Anbar and Knoll, 2002). The Precambrian-Phanerozoic 200 transition was a time of progressive oxygenation of surface environments paired with 201 major biological innovations, including the rise of eukaryotic algae to ecological dominance 202 (Brocks et al., 2017). Oxygenation would have suppressed biomass preservation in 203 sediments (Kipp et al. 2021), and therefore an increase in net biomass burial at this time 204 implies an expansion of the biosphere and an increase in primary production. This 205 transition was likely supported by greater nutrient availability (as supported by N isotopic 206 data), and it may have contributed to long-term atmospheric evolution.

- 207
- 208 CONCLUSIONS

209 SPGs preserve relative changes in sedimentary geochemistry through time. Nitrogen 210 concentrations in SPGs require a significant increase in the average N content of sediments 211 by a factor of 8.4 from the Precambrian to the Phanerozoic, accompanied by a 212 corresponding increase in sedimentary P by a factor of \sim 5 across the same time interval. 213 The P record suggests this transition happened between 800-500 Ma (Fig.2). Notably, both 214 N and P are major constituents of biomass and their concurrent increase in SPGs is most 215 parsimoniously explained by enhanced biomass burial in sediments around the world at 216 that time. These results provide a new empirical anchor point for reconstructing the 217 evolution of life and understanding the interaction between the biosphere, atmosphere, 218 and magmatic systems of Earth.

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Figure 1. Whole-rock (WR) nitrogen concentrations for SPGs vs [a] SiO₂ and [b] K₂O. Note the lack of trends for [N] versus two indices of petrological evolution. Uncertainties are smaller than the symbol size.

Figure 2. SPG whole-rock N [a-b] and P [c-d] data through time. The P data are locality averages (not individual analyses), see Bucholz (2022) for compilation. The P data for Phanerozoic SPGs are selected for samples where the photolith was known to be < 720 Ma (Bucholz, 2022). The full dataset (and sources) is provided in the supplementary material. Uncertainties on measured N contents are < 10%. There is no x-axis scaling for b and d.

- 236 **Table 1.** Means and medians for key geochemical variables.
- 237

238 **CONTRIBUTIONS:**

EES and SM conceived the project; CEB, JL and CS provided samples and auxiliary data; TJB, MA and NM performed geochemical analyses at St Andrews; TJB and AB collected the oxygen isotope data. SM and EES wrote the manuscript with contributions from all authors.

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Figure 2

		Archean	Proterozoic	Phanerozoic
ASI	Mean	1.2	1.4	1.3
	StDev	0.1	0.2	0.1
[N]	Mean	8	9	76
µg/g	Median	6	8	77
	StDev	5	4	54
	n	16	14	61
$\delta^{15}N$	Mean	5.5	4.7	7.9
‰	Median	5.2	4.2	8.4
	StDev	3.6	2	1.8
	n	16	13	15
δ ¹⁸ 0	Mean	9.1	10.2	10
‰	Median	9.3	10.8	9.7
	StDev	0.6	1.8	0.7
	n	9	9	5
N/ASI	Mean	6	9	39
	Median	3	8	31
	StDev	8	4	32
N/K	Mean	6	7	58
	Median	5	6	59
	StDev	4	2	40
K ₂ O	Mean	4.7	3.8	4.8
wt.%	Median	5.2	3.4	4.7
	StDev	1.3	1.9	0.9
SiO ₂	Mean	73.4	73.2	72.6
wt.%	Median	72.8	73.2	72.6
	StDev	2	2.2	2.4

Table 1