Terrestrial microbialites provide constraints on the mesoproterozoic atmosphere

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Abstract
Palaeoclimate data indicate that Earth surface temperatures have remained largely temperate for the past 3.5 Byr despite significantly lower solar luminosity over this time relative to the present day. There is evidence for episodic early and late Proterozoic glaciation, but little evidence of glaciation in the intervening billion years. A prolonged equable Mesoproterozoic Earth requires elevated greenhouse gas concentrations. Two endmember scenarios have been proposed for maintaining global warmth. These include extremely high $p_{\text{CO}_2}$ or more modest $p_{\text{CO}_2}$ with higher methane concentrations. This paper reports on the $\delta^{13}$C of organic matter in 1.1 Ga stromatolites from the Copper Harbor Conglomerate (CHC) of the Mesoproterozoic Midcontinent Rift (North America) and $\delta^{18}$O and $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures of inorganic stromatolite carbonate to constrain formation and burial conditions and the magnitude of ancient carbon isotope discrimination. CHC sediments have never been heated above ~125–155°C, providing a novel geochemical archive of the ancient environment. Stromatolite $\Delta_{47}$ data record moderate alteration, and therefore, the occluded organic matter was unlikely to have experienced significant thermal alteration after deposition. The $\delta^{13}$C values of ancient mat organic matter and inorganic carbonate show isotope discrimination ($\epsilon_p$) values ~15.5–18.5‰, similar to modern microbial mats formed in equilibrium with low concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon. In combination, these data are consistent with a temperate climate Mesoproterozoic biosphere supported by relatively modest $p_{\text{CO}_2}$. This result agrees with Atmosphere-Ocean Global Circulation Model reconstructions for Mesoproterozoic climate using 5–10 times present atmospheric levels $p_{\text{CO}_2}$ and $p_{\text{CH}_4}$ of >28 ppmv. However, given marine modelling constraints of $p_{\text{CH}_4}$ production that suggest $p_{\text{CH}_4}$ was below 10 ppm, this creates a methane paradox. Either an additional source of CH$_4$ (e.g. from terrestrial ecosystems) or another greenhouse gas, such as N$_2$O, would have been necessary to maintain equable conditions in the Mesoproterozoic.

KEYWORDS
clumped Isotopes, Mesoproterozoic, mid-continent rift system, $p_{\text{CO}_2}$, stromatolites
1 | INTRODUCTION

Constraints on Earth surface temperature and atmospheric composition provide critical insight regarding the evolution of the biosphere (Kasting, 1993). The Mesoproterozoic has long been considered to be part of the ‘boring billion’ years between the Palaeoproterozoic Huronian and Neoproterozoic ‘snowball Earth’ events, when there was comparatively little change in Earth surface, greenhouse gas or oceanic conditions (Shields and Veizer, 2002; Lyons et al., 2014; Planavsky et al., 2014) accompanied by relatively steady atmospheric pO2. More recently, however, new data indicate complex patterns of oceanic oxygenation and euxinia through time (Planavsky et al., 2014, 2018) and suggest that by the mid-Proterozoic, atmospheric pCO2 likely dropped to less than one quarter of the Palaeoproterozoic levels (Kaufman and Xiao, 2003; Sheldon, 2006, 2013). For example, Kanzaki and Murakami (2015) estimate 23–210 times present atmospheric levels (PAL) at 1.85 Ga based on palaeosol geochemistry, but a number of studies have estimated the pCO2 of the Mesoproterozoic (Kaufman and Xiao, 2003; Bartley and Kah, 2004; Kah and Riding, 2007; Mitchell and Sheldon, 2010) and report widely varying, but generally much lower estimates. For example, Kaufman and Xiao (2003) give an estimate of 10–200 PAL pCO2 at 1.4 Ga based on the carbon isotopic composition of large microfossils, Kah and Riding (2007) give an estimate of ≤10 PAL at 1.2 Ga based on microbialite sheath calcification and a number of palaeosols from the Midcontinent Rift (Mitchell and Sheldon, 2010; Sheldon, 2013) have consistently indicated 4–6 PAL at 1.1 Ga. A fundamental question is whether or not pCO2 of this range could maintain temperate, non-glacial conditions without an additional greenhouse gas present. Given that a variety of proxies are consistent with low atmospheric pO2 in the Mesoproterozoic (reviewed in Planavsky et al., 2018), CH4 would likely have been stable in the atmosphere, and given that it has a warming potential about 25 times that of CO2, it has often been proposed as a candidate Proterozoic greenhouse gas (Sheldon, 2013).

However, recent work suggests that anaerobic oxidation of CH4 coupled with SO4 2− reduction may have limited the flux of CH4 from marine systems and potentially limited the buildup of CH4 in the Proterozoic atmosphere (Olson et al., 2016). If this is correct, higher pCO2 or elevated amounts of some other additional greenhouse gas would be needed to maintain temperate conditions. Constraints from the rock record (see supplemental table DR1 from Fiorella and Sheldon, 2017) indicate no evidence for glaciation at this time, except at one locality, to at least 60° N and S. New Atmospheric-Ocean Global Circulation Model (AOGCM) results show that the modest (5–10 PAL) concentrations of CO2 could maintain a largely ice-free globe with a range of pCH4 from 28 to 280 ppmv (Fiorella and Sheldon, 2017), although a completely ice-free globe is only possible at the highest total greenhouse gas loads. Thus, Zhao et al. (2017) have described the late Mesoproterozoic as a potential methane paradox.

Morphological evidence for microbialite abundance and diversity indicate maxima for both during the Mesoproterozoic (Noffke and Awramik, 2013). Some argue that this is due to the evolution of new carbonate concentration mechanisms in the sheaths of cyanobacteria (Riding, 2011) that could have evolved in response to changing atmospheric conditions. Continental environments might have been even more chemically favourable for habitation than marine environments (Parnell et al., 2015) at this time. A range of evidence supports episodic glaciation during the early and late Proterozoic (Kaufman et al., 1997; Kennedy et al., 1998; Walter et al., 2000; Kendall et al., 2004), but there is little or no evidence of prolonged, widespread glaciation during the Mesoproterozoic (table S1 of Fiorella and Sheldon, 2017). Thus, the inferred increase in microbialite abundance and diversity occurs during a time of clement conditions and of broad potential ecological niches including marine (Kah et al., 1999), transitional (Beghin et al., 2017) and terrestrial environments (Wellman and Strother, 2015). In total, biological and sedimentological evidence suggest a robust biosphere with globally temperate, ice-free conditions during this prolonged interval. If the Mesoproterozoic was a period of general and prolonged warmth, was high CO2 responsible for the lack of glaciation?

This study presents new clumped and organic isotopic analyses of low thermal maturity stromatolites from Horseshoe Harbor, Michigan, within the Copper Harbor Conglomerate (CHC) of the Mesoproterozoic-aged Midcontinent Rift. Recent work demonstrates that these mats and associated geologic formations are minimally altered and have experienced limited heating in the 1.1 Byr since deposition (Nishioka, 1984; Gallagher et al., 2017). Clumped isotope temperatures provide some constraint on maximum formation temperatures and the potential for burial alteration of the organic isotopes, making it possible to use paired records of organic and inorganic carbon isotopes as a semi-quantitative indicator of atmospheric gas concentration.

2 | GEOLOGIC SETTING

2.1 | Midcontinent Rift System

The Midcontinent Rift System (MCR; Figure 1) represents a widespread, failed continental rifting event that is characterized by large-scale emplacement of flood basalts that occurred in multiple pulses of volcanism ~1.1 Ga (Davis and Paces, 1990; Hutchinson et al., 1990; Ohr, 1993; Cumming et al., 2013). Rifting and extension are associated with widespread sedimentary deposition during early rift subsidence and record a classic continental rift sequence of alluvial
fan sediments that transition to lacustrine and fluvial systems (Elmore et al., 1989; Mitchell and Sheldon, 2009, 2016). These igneous and clastic sedimentary units are collectively referred to as the Keweenaw Supergroup (Morey and Ojakangas, 1982). On the eastern side of the rift, this includes lower volcanic strata through sedimentary strata of the Oronto Group, terminating in overlying sandstone units.

In Michigan (USA), the clastic sediments of the Oronto Group consist of the CHC, Nonesuch and Freda formations, corresponding to the alluvial fan, lacustrine and fluvial deposits that span the rift interval (Elmore, 1984, Elmore et al., 1989). The main stage of the MCR (Figure 1) occurred over a period of less than 50 Myr (Cannon and Hinze, 1992) and rifting was soon followed by regional compression that drove reactivation and reversal of rift-bounding faults (Stein et al., 2015) associated with uplift of rift sediments. The rapid process of rifting and resultant regional compression means that rift sediments (Figure 1) were shallowly buried and minimally heated in some parts of the rift (<125°C; Mauk and Hieshima, 1992). This is due to the absence of large regional tectonic deformation in the mid-continent and the relatively short duration of rifting (Pratt et al., 1991; Price et al., 1996).

The MCR experienced prehnite–pumpellyite grade metamorphism in places close to the basin-bounding faults, but thermal history models of available temperature constraints from the Nonesuch and CHC formations within the MCR indicate both low peak burial temperatures and a relatively short duration of burial before unroofing (Gallagher et al., 2017). Fluid inclusion studies of CHC microbial mats show that isolated inclusions homogenize at temperatures as low as 53–88°C (Nishioka et al., 1984). These low temperatures contrast with fluid inclusion data from carbonates directly associated with copper mineralization that show homogenization temperatures up to 119°C (Livnat, 1983). Thus, Nonesuch and CHC localities that are away from basin-bounding faults typically experienced relatively mild thermal alteration to temperatures well below experimental constraints for abiotic Fischer–Tropsch synthesis of organic compounds (i.e. 250°C, high pressure; McCollom and Seewald, 2006, Taran et al., 2007).

2.2 Evidence for Life and Temperate Conditions in the MCR

The MCR extends from Kansas to Ontario and preserves a variety of textural evidence for life (Noffke, 2009; Sheldon, 2012; Noffke and Awramik, 2013; Wilmeth et al., 2014) that support the interpretations of a widely distributed terrestrial biosphere at 1.1 Ga (Figures 2 and 3). This includes a number of fossil-bearing lake (Wellman and Strother, 1992) and rifting so followed by regional compression that drove reactivation and reversal of rift-bounding faults (Stein et al., 2015) associated with uplift of rift sediments. The rapid process of rifting and resultant regional compression means that rift sediments (Figure 1) were shallowly buried and minimally heated in some parts of the rift (<125°C; Mauk and Hieshima, 1992). This is due to the absence of large regional tectonic deformation in the mid-continent and the relatively short duration of rifting (Pratt et al., 1991; Price et al., 1996).
preserve evidence of desiccation features in both mudflat/sandflat and braidplain facies (Fedorchuk et al., 2016). Stromatolitic structures show alternation between detrital and carbonate laminae (Figures 2 and 3), with radial calcite overgrowths in some areas of the laminae (Elmore, 1983), and both abiogenic and biogenic forms have been identified (Fedorchuk et al., 2016). Both within the CHC (Wilmeth et al., 2014) and elsewhere within the MCR (Sheldon, 2012), other domal microbialite features have been noted, including some with preserved organic matter, suggesting a wide array of potential microbial communities and inhabited environmental niches at this time. Previous workers have demonstrated the potential for using the clumped isotope composition of similar microbialites in the geologic record to reconstruct environmental conditions at the time of their formation in lake and lake-margin deposits. These studies show that modern and ancient microbial carbonates reasonably record the temperature of
the past surface water conditions, though they may be biased by variations in timing of precipitation or formation depths (Frantz et al., 2014; Petryshyn et al., 2015).

3 | METHODS

Stromatolites within CHC sediments at Horseshoe Harbor contain both calcitic laminae preserved in fine growth layers and sparite present in in-filled voids and larger, secondary fractures (Elmore, 1983, 1984). Samples were collected from the CHC in 2011, cut using a solvent-cleaned, water-cooled rock saw and polished using a diamond grit polish. Thin sections were analysed to identify areas with no or minimal alteration of primary laminae. Samples of pristine carbonate laminae and secondary sparite were drilled at low speed using a Micromill to evaluate potential spatial variability in isotopic data. Drilled areas were specifically chosen to minimize any potential contamination with visible secondary carbonate. This had the effect of limiting the sample size available for analysis. Carbonate powders were reacted with 105% anhydrous phosphoric acid in a cooled rock saw and polished using a diamond grit polish. Variability in isotopic data. Drilled areas were specifically chosen to minimize any potential contamination with visible secondary carbonate. This had the effect of limiting the sample size available for analysis. Carbonate powders were reacted with 105% anhydrous phosphoric acid in a common acid bath at the University of Michigan (UM) and analysed for Δ47 values on a Thermo Scientific MAT 253 Mass Spectrometer following established extraction and data reduction procedures (Defliese et al., 2015; Methods S1). For organic Δ13C, carbonate was removed via reaction with weak HCl and analysed at UM on a Costech Elemental Analyzer attached to a Thermo Delta V. The Δ47 values were corrected for the temperature of acid reaction (Defliese et al., 2015) and normalized relative to the Absolute Reference Frame of Dennis et al. (2011). Stromatolitic material contains a relatively high abundance of organic matter that can pose a challenge to reliable clumped isotope measurements. Analytical methods ensured samples presented had low Δ48 and Δ49 values. Isotopic data are included in Tables 1–3. Mean Δ47 values of UM Carrara after normalization were 0.397 ± 0.007 and 0.406 ± 0.007 during the analytical period. SEs for Δ47 temperature estimates were ~2.6 to 6°C for unknowns, with the exception of two samples that show considerably higher uncertainty (11.7°C), possibly due to heterogeneity of the carbonate powder as a result of inclusion of trace amounts of secondary, higher temperature sparite during the micro-drilling process. Reproducibility for conventional carbonate Δ13C and Δ18O and organic carbon Δ13C was better than 0.2‰ for all analyses. All of the measured and calculated geochemical data are presented in Tables 1–3 and raw data in Data S1. All data were collected prior to the establishment of current background and 18O correction procedures (Bernasconi et al., 2018; Peterson et al., 2019), which can result in higher analytical uncertainties than present.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Carbonate geochemistry results

Thin section analyses of mat carbonates show finely laminated layers (Figure 3B,C) with organic matter bound, in parts, by coarse-grained, anhedral microsparite that is readily distinguished from laminated carbonate. Stromatolite microfabrics contain light–dark laminae ~20 μm to several millimetres thick and consist of calcite and a mix of detrital material (Elmore, 1983, 1984). Mean mat Δ47 values range from 0.602 to 0.699, corresponding to temperatures of 22–44°C for the Defliese et al. (2015) calibration line (Table 1), which was derived in the Stable Isotope Lab at UM. For reference, temperatures calculated for the same Δ47 values were calculated following the Dennis et al. (2011) calibration line as well (Table 1). The Δ47 values for anhedral sparite are lower (0.568–0.666), yielding higher formation temperatures of 29–54°C (Defliese et al., 2015). These data show a consistent, but small offset between primary and secondary carbonate Δ47, indicating infilling of void space by secondary calcite after burial. Secondary carbonate may bias primary carbonate material via infilling of micropores in the carbonate fabric that may be difficult to separate when sampling. The Δ47 temperatures are used for two purposes: (a) to provide constraints on potential diagenetic temperatures affecting organic carbon associated with the mats and (b) to provide reasonable bounds to calculate the Δ18O of fluids in equilibrium with the carbonate using the temperature-dependent fractionation factor (Kim and O’Neil, 1997). Δ47 temperatures may also provide an upper bound for formation temperature, as secondary processes are unlikely to produce cooler temperatures. The Δ47 temperatures and Δ18O yield water compositions of −1.7 to −5.4‰ for T°C = 25 and 40°C (Table 3), consistent with a range of fresh meteoric waters at low altitude, although calculated fluid compositions have the potential to be biased by any post-depositional solid-state bond reordering that could have affected clumped isotope temperatures.

4.2 | Organic geochemistry results

Copper Harbor Conglomerate stromatolites contain 0.04–0.22 wt% organic carbon within carbonate laminae. In areas with no visible recrystallization, it is assumed that this organic matter reflects primary Mesoproterozoic organics, unmodified by any post-depositional thermal processes (see “Preservation potential of Carbonate Δ47 During Burial and Sediment Diagenesis”). The Δ13Corg values range from −24.0 to −27.4‰ (Table 2) and are comparable to Δ13Corg from contemporaneous floodplain sedimentary rocks from the MCR (−26 to −29‰; Sheldon, 2012) and enriched compared to Nonesuch Formation kerogen (Δ13C = −30 to −34‰; Imbus et al., 1992). Inorganic
| Sample | $\Delta_{47}$ | $\delta^{13}C$ | $\delta^{18}O_{Raw}$ | $\Delta_{47}$ | HG slope | Slope$^a$ | Intercept$^b$ | $\Delta_{47}$ | $T$ (°C)$^c$ | Mean $T$ (°C) | SE | Mean $T$ (°C) | SE |
|--------|----------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|----------|-----------|--------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|---|----------------|---|
| A      | −8.99          | −1.69          | 31.41               | 0.009           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.596          | 52             | 46             |    |                  |    |
| A      | −10.73         | −1.65          | 30.13               | 0.009           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.616          | 47             | 50             | 2.7 | 40             | 43 |
| A_2    | −7.12          | −2.54          | 31.93               | 0.040           | 0.0311   | 1.0611    | 0.923        | 0.754          | 16             | 11             |    |                  |    |
| A_2    | −5.73          | −1.38          | 32.26               | 0.033           | 0.0311   | 1.0611    | 0.923        | 0.645          | 40             | 28             | 11.7 | 34            | 22  |
| B      | −7.40          | −1.42          | 31.75               | 0.012           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.661          | 36             | 30             |    |                  |    |
| B      | −4.80          | −1.13          | 32.45               | 0.012           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.648          | 39             | 33             |    |                  |    |
| B      | −3.52          | −1.36          | 32.37               | 0.007           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.612          | 48             | 41             | 3.7  | 42            | 35  |
| C      | −7.85          | −1.31          | 31.64               | 0.009           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.595          | 53             | 46             |    |                  |    |
| C      | −7.15          | −1.13          | 31.81               | 0.006           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.588          | 54             | 48             |    |                  |    |
| C      | −6.66          | −1.10          | 32.04               | 0.010           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.622          | 45             | 51             | 3.6  | 39            | 44  |
| D      | −8.72          | −1.37          | 31.61               | 0.026           | 0.0269   | 1.0586    | 1.059        | 0.677          | 32             | 26             |    |                  |    |
| D      | −8.96          | −1.37          | 31.56               | 0.025           | 0.0311   | 1.0611    | 0.923        | 0.615          | 47             | 40             | 7.4  | 41            | 34  |
| A_sparite | −7.13        | −1.63          | 31.14               | 0.013           | 0.0254   | 1.0989    | 1.020        | 0.608          | 49             | 43             |    |                  |    |
| A_sparite | −7            | −1.31          | 32.29               | 0.023           | 0.0311   | 1.0611    | 0.923        | 0.528          | 72             | 61             | 11.7 | 66            | 54  |
| B_Sparite | −6.59         | −1.33          | 32.27               | 0.021           | 0.0269   | 1.0586    | 1.059        | 0.654          | 38             | 31             |    |                  |    |
| B_Sparite | −8.97         | −1.25          | 31.87               | 0.025           | 0.0269   | 1.0586    | 1.059        | 0.623          | 45             | 41             | 3.8  | 39            | 35  |

$^a$Transfer function slope.

$^b$Transfer function intercept.

$^c$Calculated temperature using Ghosh et al., 2006 temperature equation adjusted to the ARF after Dennis et al. (2011).

$^d$Calculated temperature using Defliese et al. (2015).
carbonate δ¹³C values from stromatolite laminae range from −0.8 to −1.9‰ with δ¹⁸O of 23.2 to 24.1‰ VPDB and show little or no variability with position in the mat. Measured CHC carbonate δ¹³C values are consistent with δ¹³C values of carbonates found within the Nonesuch shale and CHC mat carbonates (Imbus et al., 1992). Imbus et al. (1992) note that consistency between CHC mat carbonate δ¹³C and Nonesuch layered carbonate δ¹³C suggests a common Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) source for these associated sediments.

5 | DISCUSSION

5.1 | Preservation potential of Carbonate Δ⁴⁷ During Burial and Sediment Diagenesis

The Δ⁴⁷ data from mat carbonates have the potential to record Mesoproterozoic temperature; however, there are a number of potentially significant uncertainties associated with interpreting Δ⁴⁷ data from 1.1 Ga microbial carbonates. This is particularly true when relating measured temperature to environmental conditions at the time of mat formation. Thus, it is suggested that measured Δ⁴⁷ temperatures do not necessarily reflect primary formation temperature, but could record a combination of formation temperature plus secondary effects that bias primary signatures. First, a number of authors have identified deviations from the experimental temperature-Δ⁴⁷ calibration line for equilibrium precipitation (Ghosh et al., 2006) that may result from kinetic isotope effects (Ghosh et al., 2006; Affek et al., 2008; Tripati et al., 2010; Daéron et al., 2011; Saenger et al., 2012; Eagle et al., 2013). This has the potential to influence interpreted carbonate formation temperature. If mat carbonate forms at or near equilibrium, Δ⁴⁷ from CHC mats should yield reliable temperature estimates, barring secondary alteration or solid-state reordering. However, if the carbonates formed via rapid CO₂ degassing (Affek et al., 2008), kinetic effects could decrease recorded Δ⁴⁷ values, producing an increase in apparent temperature. Recent work by Petryshyn et al. (2016) shows that modern microbial mats yield Δ⁴⁷ temperatures within error of summer water temperature for non-diagenetically altered carbonates. However, ancient mat carbonates from the Eocene Green River Formation (Frantz et al., 2014) are also shown to reproduce surface water temperatures reasonably well. Thus, while the extent of kinetic bias on temperature relationships are at present unknown, microbial carbonate temperatures recorded by carbonate Δ⁴⁷ are generally consistent with modern environmental conditions, but represent at best a seasonal maximum. This result is similar to Δ⁴⁷ in other lacustrine carbonates that are shown to record warm season temperatures (Hren and Sheldon, 2012).

### TABLE 2 Organic carbon data

| Sample (stromatolite) | δ¹³C | δ¹⁸O | 25°C | 40°C | 25°C | 40°C | 25°C | 40°C | 25°C | 40°C | 25°C | 40°C |
|----------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| MI-UP-P              | −24.0|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| MI-UP-Q              | −25.5|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| MI-UP-S              | −27.4|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| MI-UP-T              | −26.3|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| MI-UP-O              | −25.0|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| MI-UP-R              | −26.0|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |

*δ⁴⁷ Temperature (°C).

bCalculated δ¹³C using the temperature specified and the temperature dependent αcalcite - CO₂aq of Deines et al. (1974)

cɛp = 1000 (δ¹³C–δ¹³Cp)/(1000+δ¹³Cp) after Laws et al. (1995) using the minimum δ¹³Corg as δp.

dɛp = 1000 (δ¹³C–δ¹³Cp)/(1000+δ¹³Cp) after Laws et al. (1995) using the mean δ¹³Corg as δp.
Second, solid-state bond reordering has the potential to alter $\Delta_{47}$ values over 1.1 Ga and at moderate temperatures (Henkes et al., 2014). This becomes a greater probability with increasing burial temperature and time. Thus, $\Delta_{47}$ values from Proterozoic carbonates should be viewed cautiously as a record of primary $T^\circ$C and most likely represents a combination of primary temperatures and an unknown degree of thermal reordering. For CHC stromatolites, potential post-depositional $\Delta_{47}$ alteration is likely minimized by low burial depths and temperatures. The coolest stromatolitic $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures measured are <30°C and mean sparite $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures are all lower than 54°C. Clumped isotope temperatures therefore likely show minor thermal alteration during shallow burial heating since the Mesoproterozoic. Biomarker and clay mineral thermometry support low regional MCR burial temperatures (100–125°C) (Nishioka et al., 1984; Pratt et al., 1991), but far warmer than measured mat $\Delta_{47}$ values. Regional temperatures from clay and biomarker data are consistent with recent clumped isotope results from the MCR White Pine Mine, that show spatially variable hydrothermal temperatures (49–116°C) in association with zones of copper mineralization, and fluid inclusions show equilibration temperatures of 53–88°C (Nishioka et al., 1984). If the MCR experienced prolonged periods of high temperature (>125°C) for tens of millions of years, this could have the effect of resetting primary $\Delta_{47}$ results to lower values (higher $T^\circ$C) (Gallagher et al., 2017). The highest measured $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures in the MCR are found in areas with obvious alteration of primary carbonate and closest to the major bounding Keweenaw Fault. Results from altered CHC carbonates relatively close to the Keweenaw Fault show the lowest $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures of the MCR even within the alteration zone (~70°C; Gallagher et al., 2017). The sample location of Horseshoe Harbor, well-removed from the Keweenaw Fault, suggests that it is within one of the lowest thermal alteration zones of the whole MCR and thus would be expected to have the least thermal impact from either burial or primary ore-related fluids. This is supported by fluid inclusion data that show the lowest closure temperatures are found within mat carbonates at Dan’s point, near the sampling locality used for this paper (Nishioka et al., 1984). In the absence of recrystallization, post-depositional alteration is expected to decrease bond ordering (Henkes et al., 2014) and $\Delta_{47}$ values, resulting in higher calculated temperatures. Bond-reordering experiments predict that the $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures preserved by stromatolites could in fact reflect primary or early diagenetic crystallization temperature (Henkes et al., 2014; Shenton et al., 2015). Regardless, the low temperatures recorded in mat carbonate $\Delta_{47}$ suggest minimal temperature effects due to bond reordering.

In addition to the effects of bond reordering, shallow-water carbonate diagenesis can introduce alteration of primary geochemical signatures within ancient carbonates (Ahm et al., 2018; Higgins et al., 2018). In particular, variations in the extent and style of early diagenesis can influence whether the composition of the carbonate mineral is determined by chemistry of the fluid or by the precursor sediment. This results from the fact that the transformation of metastable carbonate minerals to more recalcitrant forms, such as limestone or dolomite, involves exchange between mineral and pore fluids that can translate to fluid-buffered exchange for one element such as O and sediment buffered for another such as C (Higgins et al., 2018). Indeed, Swart (2008) argues that stratigraphic variations in Neogene marine carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ could be explained, in part, due to mixing of pelagic and platform C sources with distinct $\delta^{13}C$ values. Higgins et al. (2018) suggest that observed Neogene carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ trends could reflect changes in the extent of diagenetic alteration of aragonite to calcite under fluid-buffered conditions. Thus, changes in relative sea level could in fact account for much of the variability in the Neogene marine $\delta^{13}C$ record.

CHC stromatolites are comprised of primary calcite microlaminae in association with secondary sparite outside the mat. Early diagenetic transformation of metastable carbonate phases to more stable calcite could bias the carbon isotope signature preserved in these samples if the process occurred under fluid-buffered versus sediment-buffered conditions. Carbon is typically assumed to be robust to diagenetic alteration due to sediment buffering of a carbonate-rich system. This contrasts with oxygen, which is more likely to be fluid buffered due to the relative abundance of water during diagenesis. High burial temperatures could result in significant degradation of sedimentary organic matter associated with thermal cracking and shift the DIC pool closer to organic-derived carbon sources. Carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values for CHC mat calcite and secondary sparite are similar despite different modes and timescales of genesis, with no consistent relationship between $\Delta_{47}$, $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ data. While one cannot exclude fluid-buffering of the carbon pool during any transformation of metastable mat carbonate to calcite, it is assumed here that mats represent primary or sediment-buffered conditions for carbon and either sediment-buffered or fluid-buffered system for oxygen.

Due to the 1.1 Ga age of the CHC, $\Delta_{47}$ values of non-recrystallized primary carbonate most likely represent a mixed primary and secondary signature. Processes of non-equilibrium kinetic isotope fractionation and diagenetic alteration of primary carbonate after formation are all expected to yield temperatures higher than conditions during formation, as there is no convincing mechanism for producing colder temperatures via secondary processes after burial. Thus, while other geochemical studies such as magnetic susceptibility (Petryshyn et al., 2016) could potentially provide additional constraints on the extent of possible diagenetic alteration of primary carbonate for the CHC mats, it is believed that the low temperatures preserved in stromatolitic carbonate record maximum crystallization temperature at or soon after
formation. There is no simple scenario to explain the generation of cooler $\Delta_{47}$ temperatures due to burial for a billion years and briefly, at temperatures up to 125°C. Thermal history modelling of the MCR indicates that for a carbonate formed at 25°C, temperatures >140°C would be required to alter clumped isotope temperatures by more than +10°C, with no increase in apparent clumped temperature for burial at 125°C (Gallagher et al., 2017). Thus, because the maximum alteration temperatures were at or below that threshold, $\Delta_{47}$ data could provide a maximum $T$ °C of the palaeoenvironment but no information on whether or not conditions were significantly cooler than this. These data do indicate, however, that the mat carbonates did not experience enough heating to fully reset clumped isotope data.

Despite uncertainty in the absolute temperature of formation, $\Delta_{47}$ data record a maximum formation temperature of less than 30°C. The low temperatures recorded by stromatolite carbonate within the CHC as well as associated sparite suggests that organic carbon occluded within these same layers also likely did not experience significant thermal degradation or recrystallization associated with higher burial temperatures. Significant alteration of kerogen $\delta^{13}$C values only occurs at much higher temperatures (>500°C; Peters et al., 1981; Schoell, 1984), and abiogenic generation of isotopically depleted values requires both high temperature and high pressure (McCollom and Seewald, 2006). Based on this, it is assumed that neither carbonate nor organic matter carbon isotopic compositions are likely to have been altered dramatically from primary compositions.

5.2 | Stromatolite Organic Matter, Carbon isotopes and Implications for Mesoproterozoic pCO$_2$

A number of authors have used organic $\delta^{13}$C data to quantify the concentration of DIC (Eichmann and Schidlowski, 1975; Popp et al., 1989), most commonly with free-floating aquatic organisms that can take up aqueous CO$_2$ directly from the surrounding water. This approach is founded on the observation that autotrophic photosynthetic carbon fixation involves transport of inorganic carbon to the site of fixation and binding with the C-fixing enzyme (O’Leary, 1981; Farquhar et al., 1982). In aqueous environments and for organisms without active CO$_2$ transport, the $\delta^{13}$C of fixed carbon is controlled by the rate of diffusion of CO$_2$ to the fixation site and the isotopic composition of the dissolved CO$_2$(aq) pool. The overall isotope effect can be described by:

$$\epsilon_p = \epsilon_f + (\epsilon_f - \epsilon_i) p_i / p_a$$

(1)

where $\epsilon_p$ equals the isotope effect associated with C fixation, $\epsilon_f = \text{fractionation associated with CO}_2$ diffusion ($\epsilon_{in} = -0.7$‰ in water), $\epsilon_f = \text{isotopic fractionation associated with C fixation by the Rubisco enzyme} (-29$‰) and $p_i$ and $p_a$ reflect the internal and ambient $p$CO$_2$ (O’Leary, 1981; Farquhar et al., 1982; Popp et al., 1989). Such an approach provides a reasonable estimate of the effect of carbon limitation (i.e. concentration) on isotope discrimination.

In an aqueous system, the isotope effect can be described by

$$\epsilon_p = [(\delta_p + 1,000)/(\delta_d + 1,000) - 1] \times 1,000$$

where $\delta_p$ represents organic fixed carbon and $\delta_d$ the DIC. The $\delta^{13}$C$_{aq}$ is recorded by $\delta^{13}$C$_{carb}$ and follows the temperature-dependent fractionation between DIC and calcite (Deines et al., 1974). The $\delta^{13}$C$_{org}$ represents $\delta_d$ and is paired with $\delta^{13}$C$_{DIC}$ to quantify carbon isotope discrimination during biosynthetic C fixation. Inorganic carbonate $\delta^{13}$C may be related to $\delta^{13}$C$_{CO_2(aq)}$ using the temperature-dependent fractionation between CO$_2$(g) and CO$_2$(aq) (Deines et al., 1974).

The CHC microbial mats were formed in a braidplain system (Elmore, 1983, 1984; Sheldon, 2012; Wilmeth et al., 2014; Petryshyn et al., 2015; Fedorchuk et al., 2016) and preserve ancient organic carbon, as well as mat-associated carbonate. As a result, these systems record the isotopic composition of fixed organic carbon and the DIC that may have been utilized for C fixation during growth in these systems. Microbial mats present a more complex system with respect to carbon cycling/diffusion than individual free-floating cellular organisms, yet the fundamental principles of carbon discrimination remain unchanged. Mats can be treated effectively as an ecosystem that ultimately is limited by the same factors (carbon, major and minor nutrients, nitrogen and available chemical or light energy) as a single cell. Mat organic carbon and carbonate $\delta^{13}$C are used to provide bounds on carbon discrimination during mat formation that can be related to general carbon limitation. For photosautotrophs, this is ultimately limited by the DIC pool, which in many cases is controlled by atmospheric $p$CO$_2$. The $\delta^{13}$C$_{calcite}$ is used to constrain $\delta^{13}$C$_{aq}$ following Deines et al. (1974) using an assumed temperature of 25 and 40°C. These temperatures are consistent with surface conditions proposed by Fiorella and Sheldon (2017) for these palaeolatitudes under a variety of greenhouse gas scenarios, as a plausible but poorly constrained palaeotemperature. Reconstructed clumped isotope temperatures from the CHC stromatolites of 22–44°C provide some additional support for this range of potential mat environmental conditions. Mean $\delta^{13}$C$_{aq}$ values range from −10.8 at 25°C to −9.6‰ at 40°C (Table 3). Combined with mean organic carbon $\delta^{13}$C of stromatolite laminae (−25.8‰), these data yield calculated $\epsilon_p$ values of 15.4–16.7. If the most depleted organic carbon isotope values represent the primary $\delta^{13}$C$_{org}$ absolute $\epsilon_p$ values for CHC mats range from 17.1 to 18.4.

Stromatolite carbon isotopes and $\epsilon_p$ can be related to DIC concentrations and ultimately ambient CO$_2$ if (a) the mechanisms of carbon fixation/mat formation are known and (b) modern isotope systematics show a relationship to ambient
CO₂ in the environment of formation. A variety of mechanisms drive the formation of carbonate within stromatolitic mats (Dupraz et al., 2009), including uptake of CO₂ during photosynthesis and degassing of CO₂ from waters. Depending on the formation environment, aqueous systems may be in varied states of CO₂ disequilibrium relative to the atmosphere. The CHC mats are draped over large cobbles, formed on conglomeratic lenses and infilled with sands, gravels and silts associated with the alluvial fan of the Mesoproterozoic Rift (Figure 2). Associated with these stromatolites are intact mud-cracks and ripples, some containing gypsum, as well as recognized exposure surfaces (Elmore, 1983, 1984) that indicate a shallow, episodically sub-aerial and variable-energy aqueous system. CHC mats were formed in shallow water, within the photic zone. In addition, acritarchs found in associated sediments (Wellman and Strother, 2015) and carbon isotopes of organic matter within the CHC mats and penecontemporaneous floodplain mats (Sheldon, 2012) strongly suggest phototrophy as a key metabolism. Thus, it is highly probable that CHC mat carbon fixation was underpinned by phototrophic metabolism. Growth waters were likely at least somewhat mixed with respect to the atmosphere. Environments characterized by high shear stress have potential to inhibit microbial mat accumulation; thus, mat structures preserved in the CHC could have formed during intervals of greater quiescence within an otherwise turbid system (Elmore, 1983). Such conditions would be more prone to restriction, with mat accumulation representative of low energy intervals. However, regular intermixing of coarse sand and sediment as well as large cobbles within mat layers indicates that the frequent intervals of turbidity were likely a regular feature of the system (Figure 2C). Furthermore, direct association of mats with ripples strongly support growth in an environment with moving water that is likely to have greater exchange of dissolved gases between the aqueous environment and the atmosphere.

The second condition that must be met to relate mat carbon isotopes to ambient CO₂ is that modern mats must show a relationship between DIC, pCO₂ and carbon discrimination. Chemostat experiments show that εp of photosynthetic autotrophs is controlled by dissolved CO₂, nutrient availability, growth rate and, for single cells, cellular volume to surface area. FIGURE 4 Carbon isotope discrimination (εp) between mat organic matter and CO₂(aq) for modern microbial mats from alkaline, evaporative marine and hydrothermal systems. For reference, εp data and predictions for single-celled aquatic organisms as a function of CO₂(aq) are shown. Solid lines represent the empirically derived relationships between C isotope discrimination and CO₂(aq) for single-celled organisms with a volume to surface area (V/S) ratio of 5 and varied growth rates (μ/d) after Laws et al. (1995). Gray shaded area shows the calculated εp values for CHC mats. The CHC mats yield εp values compatible with modern mats in waters with low CO₂(aq) and fall below the empirical relationship for slow-growing photosynthetic autotrophs (μ = 0.2) with moderate to high V/S ratios. The εp data are compatible with mats formed in waters with CO₂(aq) that is equivalent to less than ~20 PAL, and most consistent with Mesoproterozoic pCO₂ of less than several times PAL.
area ratio (V/S) (Popp et al., 1989; Laws et al., 1995; Dupraz et al., 2009) (Figure 4). In a well-mixed water body, the δ¹³C of individual aquatic photosynthesizers reflects isotopic discrimination associated with diffusion of CO₂ to the site of C fixation and the dissolved CO₂ is proportional to atmospheric pCO₂. In biogenic stromatolitic mats, fine-scale carbon isotope systematics are highly variable with depth in the mat due to unique assemblages of symbiotic organisms and restrictions on gas diffusion through the mat. Despite these complexities, empirical data show that just as for free-floating aquatic organisms, the amount of dissolved CO₂ in water is generally the first-order C limitation for photoautotrophs within a mat. This limitation is in part recorded in the biomass δ¹³C of mat ecosystems, which integrate material from chemoautotrophs or photoautotrophs and the heterotrophs that feed on them or their exudates. As with single-celled organisms, modern empirical data show that bulk mat εᵣ approaches a maxima when pCO₂ or dissolved CO₂ is high in the aqueous environment (Figure 4). This empirical observation provides an important, imperfect tool to assess past pCO₂, particularly when estimates for atmospheric pCO₂ range from several times PAL to >100 PAL.

Studies of carbon isotope fractionation during CO₂ uptake and photosynthetic fixation show a strong dependence on dissolved aqueous CO₂ concentration (Popp et al., 1989). Under conditions of low CO₂aq and pCO₂ atm, δ¹³C of organic biomass shows significantly reduced carbon isotope discrimination, while under high CO₂ availability, carbon isotope discrimination approaches a theoretical maximum (Popp et al., 1989). Data from modern microbial mat carbonates formed in marine hypersaline, freshwater alkaline and hydrothermal systems were used to calculate carbonate isotope discrimination (ε) as a function of variable [DIC] using published δ¹³C carbonates, δ¹³C mats and DIC data (Des Marais et al., 1992; Brady et al., 2013; Pagès et al., 2014). The value is calculated after Laws et al. (1995), where ε = (1,000 (δ¹³C org - δ¹³C eq)/ (1,000 + δ¹³C org)). For clarification, the δ¹³C of organic matter was compared relative to δ¹³C eq (not δ¹³C DIC) to quantify ε. The δ¹³C gas was calculated from the isotopic composition of associated carbonates using the empirical δ¹³C mat/δ¹³C eq fractionation factor determined by Deines et al. (1974). Figure 4 shows measured ε versus CO₂aq for modern microbial mats in alkaline pools in British Columbia (Brady et al., 2013), Orakei Hot Springs (Des Marais et al., 1992) and Shark Bay (Pagès et al., 2014), as well as data for free-floating single cell growth experiments (McCabe, 1985; Laws et al., 1995), and the pCO₂ that would be calculated for an atmosphere in equilibrium with the dissolved CO₂aq. These data provide boundary conditions for examining the isotopic values recorded by CHC mat carbonate and organic matter. The pCO₂ values associated with each ε value for modern mats do not represent true atmospheric pCO₂ but rather the calculated pCO₂ based on the measured dissolved CO₂ concentration (DIC in μmol/l), water temperature, Henry’s constant for CO₂ and assumption of equilibrium between DIC and the atmosphere. Using this approach, the calculated atmospheric pCO₂ for waters associated with carbonate-bearing microbial mats in British Columbia (Brady et al., 2013) ranges from 93 to 413 ppm with a mean of 208 ppm. Modern data for Orakei hot springs have high DIC and high CO₂aq and are not in equilibrium with the atmosphere due to high dissolved CO₂. These produce a theoretical pCO₂ atm value significantly in excess of modern and are included to demonstrate that waters in equilibrium with far higher dissolved CO₂ concentrations than the modern still follow the general patterns of carbon isotope discrimination observed in other mat systems. The modern mat C data shown here are derived from environments with flowing water, lakes and marine systems, with mixed microbial communities. All follow the general relationship between [DIC] and carbon isotope discrimination within the mat.

Modern mats exhibit smaller εᵣ than plants or single-celled photoautotrophs for comparable pCO₂, likely due to diffusion limitation at the water–mat interface. C-limited cellular growth rates and recycling of C within the mat system. The difference is greatest in modern mats in hypersaline or high temperature conditions where εᵣ values may range from ~1 to 14 for a range of dissolved aqueous CO₂. Stromatolitic mats today are characterized by complex cycling of carbon that varies as a function of microbial assemblages and aqueous conditions. Thus, it is known that there can be significant variation in CO₂aq and δ¹³Corg within a mat and between different mat types (Dupraz et al., 2009). This heterogeneity was likely no different in the deep past. For example, Lepot et al. (2009) show large variability in δ¹³C of organic matter in 2.72 Ga microbial structures, highlighting the role of microbial metabolism in controlling isotope heterogeneity on the micron scale and larger. Despite this, microbial mats are ecosystems comprised of an array of communities assembled into effectively a single structure. All organisms within this system are ultimately limited by one or more nutrients, including carbon. From an ecosystem perspective, modern data provide semi-quantitative boundary conditions for interpreting ancient mat systems, particularly when considering ancient systems for which some suggest pCO₂ was in excess of 30–100 PAL. Modern data demonstrate that for most shallow mat systems within the photic zone with a significant proportion of phototrophs, mats as a whole are sensitive to large changes in CO₂aq producing a large increase in ε for only modest increases in CO₂aq. A mat within a mixed aquatic system can effectively be thought of as a system with a very large volume to surface area ratio (surface area being the exposed interface between the mat and ambient water), whereas under quieter conditions, effective volume to surface area would be lower. Modern mat isotopic data match reasonably well (Figure 4) with CO₂-carbon isotope sensitivity observed
in modern free-floating low volume to surface area microbes with slow growth rate (McCabe, 1985; Laws et al., 1995).

One potential complication to the approach used here to constrain past DIC and ultimately pCO$_2$, is if CO$_2$ was not the primary C source supporting the mat system. For example, Olsen et al. (2016) suggest that marine methanotrophy coupled with sulphate reduction could have been an important component of C and S cycling in the Mesoproterozoic, serving as a limit to buildup of CH$_4$ in the atmosphere. If the mat ecosystem was dominated by methanotrophy with CH$_4$ available via sources outside the mat, this would render expected relationships between mat $\delta^{13}$C and atmospheric pCO$_2$ (by virtue of the relationship with DIC) void. Methanotrophs can derive energy via either anaerobic or aerobic pathways. In the modern, mats underpinned by anaerobic methanotrophy are observed in areas of methane and other hydrocarbon seeps and often associated with sulphate reduction (Drake et al., 2015). In benthic mats near seeps, methanotrophy may contribute nearly 50% of total fatty acids in mat organics (Ding and Valentine, 2008). However, CHC mats are located in a relatively shallow ancient braidplain and are associated with mud-cracks and gypsum, indicating at least somewhat oxic conditions and free sulphate at or around the time of mat formation. In addition, anaerobic methanotrophy is known to generate some of the most depleted $\delta^{13}$C values in carbonate ($-125\%\epsilon$; Drake et al., 2015). While it is impossible to rule out methanotrophy as an important metabolism within CHC mats, fossil evidence of phototrophs and $\delta^{13}$C data are consistent with phototrophy.

Carbonate and organic $\delta^{13}$C data from CHC stromatolites are coupled with clumped isotope temperatures to provide reasonable boundary conditions for $\delta^{13}$C$_{CO_2}$, $\varepsilon_p$ and CO$_{2\text{aq}}$. Because mat samples derive from a system with at least intermittently moving water (Figure 2) and underlain by non-carbonate bedrock, it is assumed that limitation to CO$_2$ diffusion into or out of the water system is far less than within the mat system. Thus, even in slow or occasionally stagnant water, CO$_2$ diffusion into the mat is likely the primary limitation to carbon assimilation within the mat as a whole. With these assumptions, modern data provide reasonable, if imprecise limits for interpreting palaeo-$\varepsilon$ data with respect to ancient CO$_{2\text{aq}}$ and pCO$_2$ within the palaeoenvironment. Specifically, carbon discrimination data from modern hot springs are used as an upper limit for $\varepsilon_p$-pCO$_2$ relationships in the ancient. Measured $\varepsilon_p$ values for the Proterozoic stromatolites range from 15.4 to 18.4 for temperatures of 25–40°C. Modern mat $\varepsilon_p$ values are all less than 21%e and mats that record an $\varepsilon_p$ of less than 18%e are found in waters with DIC of less than 130 μM, consistent with a pCO$_2$ effectively less than 1,000 ppm. Modern mat carbon discrimination data generally follow the pattern of $\varepsilon_p$ versus DIC observed in slow growing cells with moderate to high volume to surface area (Figure 4). The $\varepsilon_p$ data for CHC mats are equivalent to modern mats grown in waters with DIC and in theoretical equilibrium with pCO$_2$ of less than ~20 PAL, and most consistent with mat data for waters in equilibrium with pCO$_2$ of less than several times PAL. While pCO$_2$ estimates based on $\delta^{13}$C$_{org}$–$\delta^{13}$C$_{DIC}$ require accurate measurement of primary $\delta^{13}$C$_p$ and $\delta^{13}$C$_{aq}$ and optimally, equilibrium between the DIC and the atmosphere, these limits are consistent with palaeosol (Sheldon, 2006, 2013), single organism carbon discrimination (Kaufman and Xiao, 2003) and fossil carbonate-based (Bartley and Kah, 2004; Kah and Riding, 2007) estimates for late Mesoproterozoic pCO$_2$ (Figure 5). Thus, CHC stromatolite data are consistent with both temperate palaeoenvironmental conditions and relatively low pCO$_2$.

5.3 | Comparison of Temperature, pCO$_2$ and Mesoproterozoic AOGCMs

Reconstructions of the past solar insolation indicate that a ‘faint young Sun’ paradox exists throughout the Precambrian wherein equable conditions would need to have been maintained in the presence of significantly lower insolation that has increased steadily from less than 70% of the present day value over the past 4.5 Ga (Gough, 1981). Recent work by Fiorella and Sheldon (2017) using 91% total solar insolation (Gough, 1981) shows that an equable Mesoproterozoic climate could have been maintained by increased CH$_4$ flux from methanogenic bacteria even in the absence of strongly elevated pCO$_2$. The AOGCM outputs show that ice-free conditions could be maintained for pCO$_2$ < 10 PAL with the threshold for regional-scale glaciation occurring with CH$_4$ at 28 ppmv or pCO$_2$ below 5 PAL. These results are in agreement with temperatures for ~30° latitude predicted by AOGCM simulations of the Mesoproterozoic using these boundary conditions (Figure 6). Recent work by Olson et al. (2016) suggests that anaerobic oxidation of CH$_4$ coupled with SO$_4^{2−}$ reduction could act as an obstacle to CH$_4$ accumulation in the atmosphere, limiting pCH$_4$ to less than 10 ppmv if the only source of CH$_4$ is marine production, independent of pO$_2$. If both the AOGCM results (Fiorella and Sheldon, 2017) and modelled CH$_4$ fluxes are correct (Daines and Lenton, 2016; Olson et al., 2016), a paradox develops because the apparent CH$_4$ level would be too low to support the observed equable conditions.

There are at least two potential solutions to this paradox. The first is that a marine-only model of CH$_4$ flux underestimates the total biogenic CH$_4$ flux. As noted above, there is extensive evidence for a significant lake and floodplain biosphere (Elmore, 1983; Sheldon, 2012; Wellman and Struther, 2015) by the Mesoproterozoic and many stable isotopic values from those systems, especially in palaeo-lake sediments (Imbus et al., 1992), are too negative to have been the result of C derived only from photosynthetic means. Thus, a potentially large terrestrial biogenic CH$_4$ flux is supported by existing
This idea was recently tested by Zhao et al. (2017) who modelled the potential for a significant terrestrial CH$_4$ flux to supplement the marine CH$_4$ flux. They found that if terrestrial cyanobacterial mats covered 8%–10% of the Earth’s surface, clement conditions would have been maintained even at the relatively low $p_{CO_2}$ values indicated by palaeosols (Sheldon, 2013) and, as reported herein, microbialites.

Secondly, atmospheric model simulations have typically focused on a narrow range of greenhouse gases that include CO$_2$, CH$_4$ and sometimes H$_2$O vapour (cf. Roberson et al., 2011). However, there are a number of other greenhouse gases that have significantly higher climate forcings than CO$_2$ that are poorly constrained in the geologic record. For example, as Fiorella and Sheldon (2017) noted, one potential way to reconcile differences in CH$_4$ levels is with N$_2$O (e.g. see Roberson et al., 2011). While there are no direct proxies for $p_{N_2O}$, a 10-fold increase from the modern value of 0.3 ppm would provide enough additional greenhouse forcing to offset a fivefold lower $p_{CH_4}$ value. Thus, there are at least two potential solutions to the apparent CH$_4$ paradox that would bear further investigation. Ultimately, the development of proxies for greenhouse gases beyond CO$_2$ would substantially enhance our ability to reconcile the challenges presented by the ‘faint young Sun’ paradox across the whole of the Precambrian.
6 | CONCLUSIONS

Sedimentary features and organic and inorganic carbon isotope data from 1.1 Ga stromatolites in the CHC indicate formation in waters with relatively low DIC. This most likely results from equilibrium with a relatively low atmospheric pCO₂ (less than 20 PAL; Figures 4 and 5) during a time when solar luminosity was ~9% lower than today. If pCO₂ was indeed lower than this bound, elevated concentrations of other greenhouse gases, such as methane, may have played a role in regulating global temperature. However, current estimates of the potential Mesoproterozoic CH₄ flux from marine environments are relatively low, creating a methane paradox. The paradox is potentially resolvable either through a relatively extensive terrestrial biosphere or through elevated levels of other greenhouse gases such as N₂O. At present, the means to test between those hypotheses is lacking, but if biologically produced gases such as CH₄ played a key role in regulating global temperature during the Mesoproterozoic, their concentrations may have acted as a negative feedback to the buildup of atmospheric O₂ due to the potential to oxidize readily in the presence of free oxygen as well as providing global climate regulation.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors certify that they have no affiliations with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest, or non-financial interest in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article and its supplementary materials.

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