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1        **Early Triassic (Induan-Olenekian) conodont biostratigraphy, global anoxia, carbon**  
2        **isotope excursions and environmental perturbations: New data from Western**  
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5        **Australian Gondwana.**

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31       **Keywords:** Early Triassic, Induan-Olenekian boundary, conodonts, carbon isotopes, anoxia,  
32       environmental perturbations

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36       **ABSTRACT**

37       The Early Triassic Induan-Olenekian Stage boundary (Dienerian-Smithian Sub-Stage  
38       boundary) has been identified at a depth of 2719.25 m in the petroleum exploration well  
39       Senecio-1 located in the northern Perth Basin, Western Australia. Conodont faunas represent

26 three conodont zones in ascending order, the *Neospathodus dieneri* Zone, the *Neospathodus*  
27 *waageni eowaageni* Zone and the *Neospathodus waageni waageni* Zone. The Induan-  
28 Olenekian (Dienerian-Smithian) boundary is placed at the base of *the Neospathodus waageni*  
29 *eowaageni* Zone equivalent to the first appearance of *Neospathodus* ex. gr. *waageni* utilised  
30 elsewhere and adopted by the IUGS ICS Triassic Subcommittee to define the base of the  
31 Olenekian. Bulk kerogen  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  carbon isotopes define a positive peak of c. 4 per mille that  
32 essentially coincides with the Induan-Olenekian boundary as seen in proposed Global  
33 Stratotype Sections and Points (GSSPs) in South China and Spiti, India demonstrating the  
34 global utility of this level for correlation. An anoxic zone is recognised in the lower part of  
35 the Senecio-1 core and the upper limit of this zone is dated as late Induan (late Dienerian).  
36 Temporal and spatial mapping of marine anoxia and dysoxia globally demonstrates that  
37 pulses of dysoxia/anoxia affected shallow-marine zones at different times in different  
38 locations. Dysoxia/anoxia in the shallow-marine environment appeared in the latest Permian  
39 at the extinction level, later than in the deep-marine environment, and appears to be largely  
40 restricted to the Induan (Griesbachian and Dienerian) and early Olenekian (Smithian).  
41 Temporally and geographically restricted upwelling of an oxygen minimum zone into the  
42 ocean surface layer due to environmental perturbations including extreme global warming,  
43 increased terrestrial chemical weathering intensity and continental erosion, sea level rise, and  
44 changes in marine nutrient inventories and productivity rates, is interpreted as a likely cause  
45 of observed variation in shallow-marine dysoxia/anoxia in the Early Triassic.

## 48 1. Introduction

49  
50 The Latest Permian - Early Triassic transitional period is globally important in  
51 Earth history. It saw the most profound mass extinction known to science in the latest  
52 Changhsingian with approximately 90+ % of skeletonized marine species (Erwin, 1993; Alroy  
53 et al., 2008) and approximately 70% of species on land wiped out (Maxwell, 1992) within a  
54 short period of time, estimated at several hundred thousands of years or less (Mundil et al.,  
55 2004; Huang et al., 2011). Following the late Changhsingian mass extinction, there was a  
56 period of continued global climatic and environmental upheaval and stress termed the Early  
57 Triassic "cesspool" (e.g. Algeo 2011a) that lasted 5 million years and which was characterised  
58 by significant carbon isotope excursions, the global "coal gap", "reef gap", "radiolarian gap"  
59 and a range of unusual facies and biota including microbialites, and flat pebble  
60 conglomerates. This Early Triassic period of environmental upheaval was also characterised  
61 by significant size reduction of many organisms and is referred to in the literature as the  
62 period of "delayed recovery" following the mass extinction. The Early Triassic was also  
63 marked by significant variation in redox conditions both in time and space (Wignall and  
64 Twitchett, 2002; Kato et al., 2002; Kidder and Worsley 2004; Wignall et al., 2010) and by  
65 marked increase in chemical weathering intensity (Retallack and Krull, 1999; Michaelson,  
66 2002; Sheldon, 2006; Algeo, 2011b; Algeo and Twitchett, 2010; Algeo et al., 2011). In  
67 shallow-marine environments there were frequent shifts between oxic and anoxic/dysoxic  
68 conditions, particularly in the Induan Stage (Bond and Wignall, 2010). These fluctuations of  
69 redox conditions have been interpreted to result from expansion of a shallow oxygen  
70 minimum zone into the ocean surface layer due to environmental perturbations (Algeo et al.,  
71 2011). The spatial and temporal mapping of these fluctuating redox conditions will greatly  
72 enhance our understanding of the causative environmental perturbations. We here review the

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73 geographic and temporal variation of dysoxia and anoxia in both deep and shallow-marine  
74 environments globally, placing the recorded anoxia in the Perth Basin Hovea Member in  
75 wider context.

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76           The latest Permian - Early Triassic in Western Australia includes economically  
77 important carbon-rich shallow-marine shales (Hovea Member, basal Kockatea Shale of the  
78 Perth Basin) that record dysoxic/anoxic conditions in the Early Triassic and which have acted  
79 as significant source rocks for hydrocarbons. The Late Changhsingian mass extinction and  
80 Permian-Triassic boundary levels also occur within the lower Hovea Member (Thomas and  
81 Barber, 2004; Thomas et al., 2004; Metcalfe et al., 2008; Gorter et al, 2009). The precise age  
82 of the Hovea Member has to date been poorly controlled and based mainly on endemic  
83 palynology and macro-fossils and limited conodont and ammonoid data. The specific  
84 placement of Permian -Triassic stage boundaries in Australia has until now been elusive or at  
85 best very poorly constrained. The Early Triassic Induan-Olenekian Stage boundary  
86 (Dienerian-Smithian sub-stage boundary) is yet to be formally ratified in a GSSP section by  
87 the Subcommittee on Triassic Stratigraphy (STS). However, the STS has decided that the  
88 first appearance of the conodont *Neospathodus waageni* ex. gr. should be used for boundary  
89 definition and recognition in the GSSP (Tong et al., 2004; Krystyn et al., 2007; Tong and  
90 Zhao, 2011). The occurrence of Lower Triassic conodonts in Western Australia was first  
91 reported by McTavish (1973) in cores taken in petroleum exploration wells drilled in the  
92 Carnarvon and Perth basins. Smithian conodont faunas with *Neospathodus waageni* were  
93 recovered in the Carnarvon Basin and possible Dienerian strata in the Perth Basin based on a  
94 few *Neospathodus dieneri*. Additional limited conodont material from the Perth Basin  
95 (Metcalfe et al., 2008) failed to provide sufficient control to firmly place any stage boundary  
96 although the occurrence of *Clarkina jolfensis* Kozur in the basal Sapropelic Interval suggests  
97 that the biostratigraphic GSSP Permian-Triassic boundary level is within the lower part of the

98 Sapropelic Interval of the Hovea Member (Fig. 1). We here provide unequivocal placement  
1  
2 99 of the proposed Induan-Olenekian boundary in the Perth Basin, Western Australia (Senecio-1  
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4  
5 100 Core) based on relatively abundant conodont faunas. We also report  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  data from this  
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7 101 boundary interval and correlate the studied sequence with proposed Induan-Olenekian GSSP  
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10 102 sections in China and India and provide age constraints on post-mass extinction  
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12 103 anoxia/dysoxia in Western Australia.  
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17 105 FIG 1 ABOUT HERE  
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## 21 22 107 **2. Stratigraphy and geological setting of the studied sequence.** 23

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27 109 Permian-Triassic transitional sequences of Western Australia occur in the Perth,  
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29 110 Carnarvon, Canning and Bonaparte continental margin basins. The Permian-Triassic  
30  
31 111 transitional strata of these basins include thick marine shales that range from the latest  
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33  
34 112 Permian or earliest Triassic to as high as the early Anisian of the Middle Triassic (McTavish,  
35  
36 113 1973; McTavish and Dickins, 1974). In the Perth Basin the Kockatea Shale may be up to  
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39 114 1000 m thick, is usually black in color and becomes progressively less marine in its upper part  
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41 115 (Mory & Iasky, 1996). The basal part of the Kockatea Shale in the Perth Basin has been  
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43  
44 116 named the Hovea Member (Thomas and Barber, 2004; Thomas et al., 2004) and consists of a  
45  
46 117 basal Inertinitic Interval, a middle Sapropelic Interval and an upper Limestone Marker unit  
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48  
49 118 (Fig. 1). The Hovea Member is c.30-70 m thick and contains high total organic carbon (TOC)  
50  
51 119 content up to 5% (Thomas and Barber, 2004; Thomas et al, 2004; Metcalfe et al., 2008). The  
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54 120 bulk of the Kockatea Shale, above the Hovea Member, has a much lower average TOC of  
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56 121 0.8% (Mory & Iasky, 1996) perhaps reflecting high sedimentation rate.  
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58 122 The studied Induan-Olenekian boundary sequence is recorded in a core taken in  
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123 the onshore petroleum exploration well Senecio-1 drilled by Arc Energy Ltd in 2005 and  
124 located in the northern Perth Basin, east of Dongara at GPS coordinates Latitude 29 14 25.94  
125 S, Longitude 115 05 29.28 E (see Fig. 1 for stratigraphic position and location). The  
126 Permian-Triassic transition in the Perth Basin (Fig. 1) occurs in the lower part of the  
127 Kockatea Shale (Hovea Member). The Hovea Member comprises a lower Inertinitic Interval  
128 (named for the high level of inert kerogen), a Sapropelic Interval (organic-rich mud with  
129 phytoplankton-derived kerogen) and an upper calcareous horizon termed the ‘Limestone  
130 Marker’ (Thomas et al. 2004). The Senecio-1 well penetrated the lower Hovea Member of the  
131 Kockatea Shale and bottomed in the Dongara Sandstone reservoir. The 21.6 m cored  
132 sequence (2708.00-2729.60 m depth) here studied straddles the upper Sapropelic Interval-  
133 lower ‘Limestone Marker’ section of the Hovea Member (Fig. 1). Carbon and sulfur isotopes  
134 and biomarker studies from the nearby Hovea-3 well (Thomas et al. 2004; Grice et al., 2005a;  
135 Grice et al., 2005b; Nabbefeld et al., 2010) indicate that the late Changhsingian mass  
136 extinction level corresponds to the Inertinitic Interval-Sapropelic Interval boundary and based  
137 on very limited conodont material and palynology, the biostratigraphic GSSP-defined  
138 Permian-Triassic boundary is placed in the lower part of the Sapropelic Interval (Metcalf et  
139 al., 2008; Fig. 1). Isotope studies and biomarker data indicate periodic Photic Zone Euxinia  
140 (sulfidic conditions) at the time of deposition of the Sapropelic Interval in the Perth Basin and  
141 during the Late Permian-Early Triassic mass extinction and recovery interval globally (Grice  
142 et al., 2005a). Limited palynological studies (Purcell, 2006) indicate that the entire core falls  
143 within the Lower Triassic *Kraeuselisporites saeptatus* Zone. The Sapropelic Interval in the  
144 core (2721.70-2729.60 m) comprises organic C-rich (up to 2.5% TOC) finely laminated  
145 mudstones with rare thin generally sharp-based siltstones that represent an anoxic high-stand  
146 systems tract deposited on the distal shelf below storm wave base (Thomas et al., 2004). The  
147 mudstones and siltstones of the Sapropelic Interval show a high degree of pyritization and

148 contain pyrite nodules, pyrite spheres and framboids and pyritised microfossils (in particular  
1  
2 149 common pyritised micro-bivalves and micro gastropods at some levels) are devoid of  
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5 150 bioturbation (bioturbation index of 0) and contain no apparent infauna. Analysis of pyrite  
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7 151 framboid size in the Hovea Member of the Kockatea Shale in Hovea-3 suggests anoxic  
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9  
10 152 conditions prevailed throughout the Late Permian and Early Triassic (Bond and Wignall,  
11  
12 153 2010). The smallest mean diameter pyrite framboids (4.5-5.1  $\mu\text{m}$ ) indicates that anoxia was  
13  
14  
15 154 most intense in the lower part of the Sapropelic Interval. This interval is interpreted to have  
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17 155 been deposited under anoxic conditions. The upper part of the core (2708.00-2721.70 m)  
18  
19 156 represents the upper Hovea Member "Limestone Marker" unit and comprises laminated  
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22 157 mudstones with siltstones. Carbonate cemented intervals and concretions are common. The  
23  
24 158 base of the unit is marked by a 40 cm thick sharp-based, fining-upwards, glauconitic siltstone  
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26  
27 159 that contains abundant largely broken and in some cases abraded *Clarkina* conodont Pa  
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29 160 elements interpreted as transported. This and other siltstones in this unit are regarded as distal  
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31  
32 161 turbidites or tempestites (with mud rip-up clasts in places) deposited on the continental shelf  
33  
34 162 below storm wave base but more shore proximal than the underlying Sapropelic Interval.  
35  
36 163 Bioturbation is common, suddenly increasing to a Bioturbation Index (Bann and Fielding,  
37  
38  
39 164 2004) of 4-5 (compared with 0 in underlying Sapropelic Interval) then gradually reducing  
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41 165 with an upward deepening trend. Both horizontal and vertical burrows are present and the  
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44 166 upper "Limestone marker" is considered to have been deposited in oxygenated conditions.  
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46 167 The relatively rare and poorly preserved macro-fossils in the core are dominated by epifaunal  
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48  
49 168 pelagic thin-shelled bivalves and ammonites. Other epifauna commonly found in the cores  
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51 169 include rare to abundant fish teeth and scales, small foraminifera, conodonts and ostracods.  
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### 56 171 **3. Conodont faunas and the Induan-Olenekian boundary in Western Australia**

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173 3.1 Conodont samples and processing

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Eighty seven samples, from top to bottom, C1 to C 87 (each 25 cm in length and

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c. 1 kg in weight) of a one-third slab of the Senecio-1 core were processed to extract

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conodonts. Samples were broken down by a variety of methods including treatment with

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hexane, dilute acetic/formic acid, sodium hypochlorite and sodium hydroxide. Residues were

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sieved and dried and then conodonts concentrated by heavy liquid (sodium polytungstate) and

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magnetic separation and picked under an optical binocular microscope. Imaging of conodonts

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was undertaken using a JEOL JSM- 6480 LA Scanning Electron Microscope at Macquarie

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University, Sydney.

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3.2 Conodont fauna & maturity

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The Senecio-1 conodont samples produced 1000+ conodont elements.

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Conodont yields varied from 0 to 200+ elements per sample. The conodont fauna is of

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relative low diversity with 10 species/subspecies of *Neospathodus* and two (possibly three)

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species of *Clarkina*. Taxonomic notes and comments on stratigraphically important conodonts

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are given below. The conodont Colour Alteration Index (CAI) of Senecio-1 elements is 2 to

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2.5 and is consistent with spore color which gives a Staplin Thermal Alteration Index TAI

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averaging 3 but with a range 2+ to 4 (Purcell, 2006). This indicates that the Senecio-1 core

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sedimentary rocks are mature to over-mature but probably in the upper liquid window (Fig.

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2).

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FIG 2 ABOUT HERE

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198 3.2.1 Taxonomic notes and comments

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200 Only the Pa elements of selected taxa have been illustrated in this study.

201 Material illustrated is currently repositied at the University of New England, Armidale,

202 Australia.

203

204 FIG 3 ABOUT HERE

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206 *Clarkina* spp.

207 Fig. 3, 1-8.

208

209 We recognise several species of *Clarkina* in the Senecio-1 core material but

210 have so far failed to classify these into known species. There may be up to three new species

211 in our material and specific designation/description awaits further taxonomic work. We

212 illustrate some typical Pa elements of this genus in Fig. 3.

213

214 FIG 4 ABOUT HERE

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216 *Neospathodus dieneri* Sweet, 1970

217 Fig. 4, 1-14.

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219 *Neospathodus dieneri* is a well-known Early Triassic conodont species. Three

220 morphotypes are recognised by some authors and used to designate sub-zones (e.g. Zhao et

221 al., 2007). See Shigeta et al. (2009, p. 186) for recent synonymy. The species ranges from the

222 early Dienerian to the middle Smithian but is most commonly found in the Dienerian where it

223 is used to designate a *Neospathodus dieneri* Zone (e.g. Tong et al., 2004, Orchard and Tozer,  
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2 224 1997).

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7 226 FIG 5 ABOUT HERE

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12 228 ***Neospathodus novaehollandiae* McTavish, 1973**

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14 229 Fig. 5, 1-6.

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19 231 This species was first described from the Carnarvon Basin of Western Australia

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22 232 by McTavish (1973). Some workers (e.g. Orchard, 2010) have placed this species in

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24 233 synonymy with *Neospathodus pakistanensis* but we here regard it as a separate species

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26  
27 234 characterised by development of robust lateral flanges, developing into node like features in

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29 235 the posterior part of the element. None of the original McTavish material was illustrated by

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31 236 SEM. We here provide an SEM image of the Holotype Pa element (Fig. 5: 6) for comparison

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34 237 and it is identical to Pa elements recovered from the Senecio-1 Well. The species appears to

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36 238 be restricted to the Lower Olenekian (Smithian) and was used, together with *Neospathodus*

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39 239 *waageni* to define a basal Olenekian *Neospathodus* ex gr. *waageni* - *Neospathodus*

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41 240 *novaehollandiae* Zone in South Primorye, Russia (Shigeta et al., 2009).

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46 242 ***Neospathodus pakistanensis* Sweet, 1970**

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48 243 Fig. 6, 1-8.

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53 245 *Neospathodus pakistanensis* is a long-established early Triassic conodont

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55 246 species first described from West Pakistan where it defines a *Neospathodus pakistanensis*

247 Zone that is succeeded by the *Neospathodus waageni* Zone. This species ranges from the late  
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2 248 Dienerian (late Induan) to the middle Smithian (early Olenekian).

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7 250 FIG 6 ABOUT HERE

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12 252 ***Neospathodus ex gr. waageni* Sweet 1970**

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17 254 *Neospathodus waageni* sensu lato is a long-established Smithian species, the  
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19 255 first appearance of which has been chosen to define the base of the Olenekian Stage by the  
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21 256 IUGS, ICS Subcommittee on Triassic Stratigraphy. The species gives rise to several new  
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23 257 *Neospathodus* species and species of *Novispathodus* in the early Spathian via the basal  
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25 258 Spathian species *Neospathodus pingdingshanensis* (Orchard, 2007). Morphological variability  
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27 259 in the species has led some authors to recognise up to six morphotypes (Orchard and Krystyn,  
28  
29 260 2007). Two subspecies, *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* and *Neospathodus waageni*  
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31 261 *waageni* were recognised by Zhao et al. (2008). We here recognise a third subspecies,  
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33 262 *Neospathodus waageni* subsp. nov. A which is similar to, and possibly the ancestor of  
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35 263 *Neospathodus pingdingshanensis*.

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39 265 FIG 7 ABOUT HERE

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44 267 ***Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* Zhao et al., 2008**

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46 268 Fig. 7, 1-2.

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50  
51 270 *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* is the oldest subspecies and is characterised  
52  
53 271 by a shorter element and upright denticles. The subspecies is rare compared to *Neospathodus*

272 *waageni waageni* and has its first occurrence before *Neospathodus waageni waageni* in all  
1  
2 273 proposed Induan-Olenekian GSSP sections studied in China, India and Russia and in the  
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4 274 Senecio-1 Well, Australia. The sub-species has a very short range at the base of the  
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7 275 Olenekian and defines a short-duration *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* Zone which is  
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10 276 succeeded upwards by the first appearance of *Neospathodus waageni waageni* defining the  
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12 277 base of the *Neospathodus waageni waageni* Zone.

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17 279 ***Neospathodus waageni waageni* Sweet 1970**

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19 280 Fig. 8, 1-9.

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24 282 This is the commonest subspecies, characterised by its typical reclined denticles.

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27 283 We do not here recognise any morphotypes. The subspecies ranges from just above the base  
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29 284 of the Olenekian to the top of the Smithian sub-stage.

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34 286 FIG 8 ABOUT HERE

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39 288 ***Neospathodus waageni* subsp. nov. A**

40  
41 289 Fig. 9, 1-9.

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46 291 This proposed subspecies appears some distance above the base of the  
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49 292 *Neospathodus waageni waageni* Zone and is relatively common. It is characterised by  
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51 293 denticles that are curved towards the posterior similar to those in *Neospathodus*  
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53 294 *pingdingshanensis*. The sub-species also exhibits wider and broader striations on the denticles  
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55  
56 295 compared to other sub-species. We here utilise this subspecies to define a *Neospathodus*  
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58 296 *waageni* subsp. nov. A Sub-Zone in the Senecio-1 succession.

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2 298 FIG 9 ABOUT HERE

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7 300 *3.3. Conodont zonation and the Induan-Olenekian boundary*

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12 302 The critical age- and zonal-indicative species and sub-species discussed above

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14 303 allow the unequivocal placement of the proposed Induan-Olenekian boundary at 2719.25 m

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16 304 depth in the core (in the lower part of the "Limestone marker" unit). The ranges and relative

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18 305 abundance of important conodont taxa and conodont zonation are given in Fig. 10. Three

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20 306 Zones and one Sub-Zone are recognised in the core in ascending order:

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*Neospathodus dieneri* Zone (2719.25-2729.60 m):

28 Characterised by the co-occurrence of *Neospathodus pakistanensis* and *Clarkina* spp..

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*Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* Zone (2717.25-2719.25 m):

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36 312

Characterised by the co-occurrence of *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* and *Clarkina* spp.

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and the base defined by the first occurrence of *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni*.

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FIG 10 ABOUT HERE

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*Neospathodus waageni waageni* Zone (2708.00-2717.25 m):

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Characterised by the zonal name species together with *Neospathodus dieneri*, *Neospathodus*

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*novaehollandiae*, and *Neospathodus pakistanensis*. Base defined by first appearance of

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*Neospathodus waageni waageni*.

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322 *Neospathodus waageni* subsp. nov. A Sub-Zone (2708.00-2715.00 m):

323 Corresponds to the upper part of the *Neospathodus waageni waageni* Zone and characterised  
324 by the occurrence of *Neospathodus waageni* subsp. nov. A.

325  
326 The first appearance of *Neospathodus waageni* ex. gr. (sensu lato) is used to  
327 define the base of the proposed Olenekian Stage of the Lower Triassic (Tong et al., 2004;  
328 Krystyn et al., 2007; Tong and Zhao, 2011). This corresponds to the first appearance of  
329 *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* in proposed GSSP sections at Chaohu, China (Zhao et al.,  
330 2007; Zhao et al., 2008; Tong and Zhao, 2011) and Mud, Spiti, India (Krystyn et al., 2007;  
331 Orchard and Krystyn, 2007; Tong et al., 2011) and to the first appearance of *Neospathodus*  
332 *waageni* ex. gr. (sensu lato) in other Induan-Olenekian boundary sections globally, e.g. Abrek  
333 Bay, South Primorye (Shigeta et al., 2009), The first appearance of *Neospathodus waageni*  
334 *eowaageni* occurs slightly before the appearance of *Neospathodus waageni waageni* in the  
335 proposed GSSP sections and this is also the case in the Senecio-1 core in the Perth Basin. We  
336 here place the Induan-Olenekian Stage (Dienerian-Smithian Sub-Stage) boundary at this first  
337 appearance in the core at a depth of 2719.25 m. This is the first unequivocally established  
338 international stage boundary in the Permian and Triassic of Australia.

339

#### 340 **4. Carbon Isotopes**

341

342 TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

343

##### 344 *4.1. Analytical methodology*

345

##### 346 *4.1.1. Sample preparation*

347

348 The samples were surface washed with a mixture of dichloromethane (DCM)  
1  
2 349 and methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) [9:1, vol%: vol%] in an ultrasonic bath (20 min) to remove surface  
3  
4  
5 350 contamination. The air-dried samples were then ground to a particle size of approximately  
6  
7 351 150 µm using a ring mill.

8  
9 352

#### 11 353 *4.1.2 Elemental analysis-isotope ratio mass spectrometry (EA-irm-MS)*

12  
13  
14 354

15  
16  
17 355 To remove inorganic carbon from the ground samples for  $\delta^{13}C$  of bulk organic matter (OM)  
18  
19 356 analysis, the ground samples were acidified with Hydrochloric acid (HCl, 1Molar) and then  
20  
21  
22 357 oven-dried at approximately 40°C [48h] in an oven. Then the samples were washed at least  
23  
24 358 three times with double-distilled water to remove any remaining HCl. These decarbonised  
25  
26  
27 359 samples were measured for  $\delta^{13}C$  of bulk OM analysis using a Micromass IsoPrime isotope  
28  
29 360 ratio mass spectrometer interfaced to a EuroVector EuroEA3000 elemental analyser.

30  
31 361

32  
33  
34 362 The samples were combusted (1025 °C) under an oxygen-enriched atmosphere. Subsequently,  
35  
36  
37 363 the composition products were transported *via* a constant helium flow through an oxidation  
38  
39 364 catalyst (chromium oxide) into a reduction reactor (650 °C) containing copper granules to  
40  
41  
42 365 reduce nitrogen oxides (NO, N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) to N<sub>2</sub>. Excess oxygen and water were removed.  
43  
44 366 Remaining CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> were separated on a 3m chromatographic column (Poropak Q) before  
45  
46  
47 367 the gas was transported through a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and into the isotope  
48  
49 368 ratio mass spectrometer (ir-MS). For more detail of the procedure see Grice et al. (2007).

50  
51 369 Isotopic compositions are given in the  $\delta$ -notation relative to the Vienne Pee Dee Belemnite  
52  
53  
54 370 (VDPB) standard.

55  
56 371

57  
58  
59 372 TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE



373

1

2 374 *4.1.3. Isotope values and interpretation*

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4 375

5

6 376  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values vary from -27.52 to -32.91 ‰ VPDB (Table 1) and define a broad

7

8 377 positive excursion of approximately 4 per mille (Fig. 11). The peak of this excursion

9

10 378 essentially coincides with the base of the *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* Zone and hence

11

12 379 the biostratigraphically defined Induan-Olenekian boundary in the core. Similar positive

13

14 380  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$  excursions have been reported globally (Corsetti et al., 2005) and from proposed

15

16 381 marine GSSP sections at West and North Pingdingshan, Chaohu, China, and at Mud, Spiti,

17

18 382 India (Tong et al., 2002; Horacek et al., 2007; see Fig. 4). In addition, positive excursions are

19

20 383 also known at other Induan-Olenekian boundary sections including Jinya/Waili, northwestern

21

22 384 Guangxi, South China (Galfetti et al., 2007a), Daxiakou Section, Hubei, China (Tong et al.,

23

24 385 2002), Guandao section, Guizhou, China (Tong et al., 2002), Zuodeng Section, Tiandong,

25

26 386 Guangxi Province, China (Tong et al., 2002), Bulla section, Southern Alps, Italy (Posenato,

27

28 387 2008), L'Om Piccol/Uomo section, northern Italy (Horacek et al., 2007), Losar, North India

29

30 388 (Galfetti et al., 2007b) and Kamura, Japan (Horacek et al., 2009).

31

32 389

33

34 390 FIG 11 ABOUT HERE

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36 391

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38 392 **5. Global anoxia/dysoxia in the Late Permian-Early Triassic**

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40 393

41

42 394 FIG 12 ABOUT HERE

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45

46 396 The Late Permian-Early Triassic is characterised by significant global

47

48 397 development of marine dysoxia (low oxygen concentration), anoxia (water and sediments

49

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55

398 lacking oxygen) and euxinia (sulfidic anaerobic conditions with sulphate-reducing bacteria  
1  
2 399 leading to accumulation of organic-rich black shales).

3  
4  
5 400 Evidence that indicates dysoxia/anoxia in the Permian-Triassic transitional

6  
7 401 interval includes lithostratigraphy (Wignall and Twitchett, 1996, 2002; Isozaki, 1997), sulfur  
8  
9  
10 402 isotopes (Newton et al, 2004; Nielsen and Shen, 2004), occurrence and size distribution of  
11  
12 403 framboidal pyrite (Nielsen and Shen, 2004; Wignall et al., 2005; Gorjan et al., 2007; Bond  
13  
14 404 and Wignall, 2010), trace metal distributions (Kakuwa, and Matsumoto, 2006; Kakuwa,  
15  
16 405 2008), type or total lack of bioturbation (Twitchett and Wignall, 1996; Kakuwa, 2008), low-  
17  
18  
19 406 diversity, thin-shelled benthic faunas (Wignall and Twitchett, 2002), S/C ratio distributions  
20  
21  
22 407 (Gorjan et al., 2007), high levels of Total Organic Carbon (Takahashi et al., 2009).

23  
24 408  
25  
26 409 *5.1. Western Tethys*

27  
28  
29 410  
30  
31 411 Wignall and Twitchett (2002) indicate anoxic conditions for the Griesbachian in  
32  
33 412 deep-water, deep basin sequences of Sicily, Italy. In shallow marine environments, Newton et  
34  
35  
36 413 al. (2004) based on  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  studies of sediments in the Permian-Triassic of Siusi, in the  
37  
38  
39 414 dolomites of northern Italy indicate anoxia in the latest Permian and Griesbachian. Dysoxic  
40  
41 415 conditions in the post extinction latest Permian and Griesbachian are indicated by trace fossil,  
42  
43  
44 416 geochemical and sedimentological data (Wignall and Hallam, 1992; Twitchett and Wignall,  
45  
46 417 1996; Twitchett, 1999). Dolenc et al. (2001) using redox sensitive elements, S, C, REE  
47  
48  
49 418 distributions and Ce anomaly data in Permian-Triassic shallow-marine sediments in western  
50  
51 419 Slovenia interpret anoxic conditions in the latest Permian and oxic/dysoxic conditions in the  
52  
53  
54 420 Griesbachian. Gorjan et al (2007) discuss palaeoredox conditions in the Bulla section,  
55  
56 421 northern Italy and again interpret anoxia in the latest Permian and Griesbachian.

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423 5.2. *Eastern Tethys*

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2 424  
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5 425 Deep-marine basin sequences in N. Sichuan, China record anoxia from the latest  
6  
7 426 Changhsingian (extinction level) to the early Dienerian (Wignall and Twitchett, 2002). In the  
8  
9  
10 427 shallow-marine low-latitude environment in South China (Meishan) anoxia commenced at the  
11  
12 428 extinction horizon (top of Bed 24) but then fluctuated between oxic, dysoxic and anoxic in the  
13  
14  
15 429 basal Induan (Bond and Wignall, 2010). Biomarker studies indicate periodic photic zone  
16  
17 430 euxinia in the latest Permian and Griesbachian at Meishan (Grice et al., 2005a). Kershaw et al  
18  
19 431 (1999) indicate probable onset of anoxic/dysoxic conditions at the extinction level based on a  
20  
21  
22 432 sudden increase in pyrite, appearance of pyrite framboids, micro-gastropods and microsperes  
23  
24 433 in the Baizhuyuan section, Sichuan Province, South China. Galfetti et al. (2007b) interpret  
25  
26  
27 434 two periods of dysoxia-anoxia in the Jinya/Waili sections of SW South China, one in the  
28  
29 435 Griesbachian-Dienerian and one in the Smithian.

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31 436

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33  
34 437 5.3. *Panthalassa*

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36 438  
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38  
39 439 Data from deep ocean floor sediments of Panthalassa now incorporated into  
40  
41 440 accretionary complexes in Japan led Kajiwara et al. (1993a, 1993b, 1994) based on  $\delta^{34}\text{S}$  data  
42  
43  
44 441 and Kato et al. (2002) using lithostratigraphic and geochemical data (major, trace and rare  
45  
46 442 earth elements, including Ce anomaly) to interpret the onset of dysoxic conditions in the  
47  
48  
49 443 Wuchiapingian and anoxic conditions from the late Changhsingian (mass extinction level)  
50  
51 444 into the lower Induan (Griesbachian). Wignall et al. (2010) also proposed dysoxic conditions  
52  
53  
54 445 in late Permian deep-marine Panthalassic sediments of accreted terranes in Japan and  
55  
56 446 appearance of distinct anoxia at the late Changhsingian extinction horizon that extends  
57  
58  
59 447 through the Griesbachian. A further pulse of anoxia is recorded in the late Spathian.

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448 In the shallow-water central Panthalassa (sea mounts incorporated into  
1  
2 449 accretionary complexes in Japan), geochemical signatures in dark-grey to black Griesbachian  
3  
4  
5 450 micritic limestones indicate dysoxic conditions at this time on shallow-marine intra-  
6  
7 451 Panthalassic sea mounts (Musashi et al, 2001). Shallow marine higher-latitude eastern  
8  
9  
10 452 Panthalassa continental margin sequences in Idaho, W. North America record anoxia from the  
11  
12 453 extinction level up into the Griesbachian (Wignall and Hallam,1992; Bond and Wignall,  
13  
14  
15 454 2010). Dysoxia in the Griesbachian of Utah and Idaho is indicated by abundant *Lingula* and  
16  
17 455 *Claraia* (Schubert and Bottjer (1995). Photic zone euxinia is documented in the latest  
18  
19 456 Permian, Griesbachian and Smithian in the Peace River Basin, Western Canada (Hays et al  
20  
21  
22 457 2007).

23  
24 458

#### 25 26 27 459 *5.4. Peri-Gondwana*

28  
29 460

30  
31 461 Brookfield et al. (2003) suggest there is little evidence for dysaerobic conditions  
32  
33  
34 462 in the deep-water P-T transition in the Guryul Ravine and Pahlgam sections in Indian  
35  
36 463 Kashmir. However, the lower Khunamuh Formation (upper Permian-basal Triassic) lacks  
37  
38  
39 464 bioturbation and Wignall et al (2005), based on pyrite framboid evidence, have interpreted  
40  
41 465 this to have been deposited under oxygen poor conditions.

42  
43  
44 466 In shallow-marine Peri-Gondwana P-T sequences at Julfa, Iran, dysoxic  
45  
46 467 conditions in the Griesbachian are indicated by Ce anomaly studies (Kakuwa and Matsumoto,  
47  
48  
49 468 2006). In the Salt Range, Pakistan, Wignall and Hallam (1993) indicate early Griesbachian  
50  
51 469 normal marine conditions but dysoxic conditions in the late Griesbachian. Hermann et al.  
52  
53  
54 470 (2011) assessed the palaeoredox data for the Salt Range and Surghar Range sections in  
55  
56 471 Pakistan and interpret, based on composition of organic particulate matter, that oxygenated  
57  
58 472 conditions existed in the Early Triassic except in the Dienerian-earliest Smithian and

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65

473 challenge the interpretation of an anoxic event in the late Griesbachian. They indicate dysoxic  
1  
2 474 conditions throughout the Dienerian and in the late Smithian (Hermann et al. 2011, Fig 9).  
3  
4  
5 475 The Triassic sequence at Losar, India records two episodes of anoxia, one in the late  
6  
7 476 Dienerian and one in the late Smithian separated by dysoxic conditions (Galfetti et al.,  
8  
9  
10 477 2007a).

11  
12 478 At Selong, Southern Tibet, Wignall and Newton (2003) demonstrate that the  
13  
14 479 basal Triassic is oxygenated and dysoxic conditions only appear in the late Griesbachian and  
15  
16  
17 480 anoxic conditions in the Dienerian.

18  
19 481 Peri-Gondwanan shallow-marine P-T sequences are present in the Perth,  
20  
21  
22 482 Carnarvon and Bonaparte basins of Western Australia. Biostratigraphic control is mainly  
23  
24 483 based on endemic palynomorphs, brachiopods and bivalves and on limited more globally  
25  
26  
27 484 relevant conodonts and ammonoids. Metcalfe et al. (2008) and Gorter et al. (2009) discussed  
28  
29 485 the placement of the P-T boundary in the Perth and Bonaparte basins. The Griesbachian is yet  
30  
31  
32 486 to be unequivocally proved present in any of these sequences based on international robust  
33  
34 487 biostratigraphy but is generally regarded as probably present in the Perth Basin (Thomas et al  
35  
36 488 2004, Metcalfe et al, 2008) but with the possibility of a stratigraphic break at the extinction  
37  
38  
39 489 level (Inertinitic Interval-Sapropelic Interval boundary). The presence of the Griesbachian in  
40  
41 490 the Carnarvon and Bonaparte basins is also equivocal and as yet unproven. The latest Permian  
42  
43  
44 491 and basal Triassic appear missing in the Carnarvon Basin where there is an unconformity  
45  
46 492 (Felton et al., 1993). The Lower Triassic in the Carnarvon Basin is represented by the Locker  
47  
48  
49 493 Shale but there is no indication of oxygen deficient conditions at that time or in the  
50  
51 494 underlying Permian Kennedy Group. There is also an unconformity present in the latest  
52  
53  
54 495 Permian in the Bonaparte Basin (Gorter et al., 2009) but this occurs below the  
55  
56 496 *Protohaploxypinus microcorpus* palynofloral Zone interpreted as of late but not latest  
57  
58 497 Changhsingian age (Metcalfe et al, 2008). The Griesbachian may be represented within the  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

498 Mairmull Formation in the Bonaparte Basin. There is no indication of dysoxia or anoxia in  
1  
2 499 the Permian-Triassic transitional interval in the Bonaparte Basin and the organic-rich source  
3  
4  
5 500 rocks of the lower Triassic seen in the Perth Basin are not present there.  
6

7 501 Anoxic conditions are interpreted for the Sapropelic Interval of the Hovea  
8  
9 502 Member of the Kockatea Shale in the Perth Basin (Thomas et al 2004, Metcalfe et al., 2008,  
10  
11  
12 503 and discussions in this paper) commencing at the late Changhsingian extinction level and  
13  
14 504 terminating in the late Dienerian. In addition, biomarker studies indicate photic zone euxinia  
15  
16  
17 505 during deposition of the Sapropelic Interval of the Kockatea Shale (Grice et al., 2005a).  
18

## 19 506 20 21 22 507 **6. Discussion** 23

24 508  
25  
26 509 The development of global anoxia has been suggested to be a primary cause of  
27  
28  
29 510 the late Changhsingian marine mass extinction (Wignall and Hallam, 1992; Isozaki, 1997;  
30  
31 511 Wignall & Twitchett 2002). The development of dysoxia and anoxia in the Permian-Triassic  
32  
33  
34 512 transition exhibits both depth-related and geographic variations (Fig. 12). It has previously  
35  
36 513 been suggested that dysoxia and anoxia in the deep-marine environment commences in the  
37  
38  
39 514 late Middle Permian (late Capitanian) and extends to the early Middle Triassic (early Anisian)  
40  
41 515 and has been referred to as a long-lasting "superanoxic event" (Kajiwara et al., 1994; Isozaki,  
42  
43  
44 516 1997; Kato et al., 2002; Isozaki, 2009). Oceanic stagnation during this "superanoxic event"  
45  
46 517 has been shown, based on modeling, to be unlikely (Hotinski et al., 2001; Winguth and  
47  
48  
49 518 Maier-Reimer, 2005). Biomarker and C and S isotope studies in China, Australia, Greenland  
50  
51 519 and Western Canada (Grice et al., 2005a; Hays et al., 2006; Hays et al., 2007) have indicated  
52  
53 520 that widespread periodic photic-zone sulfidic conditions (photic zone euxinia) existed during  
54  
55  
56 521 this "superanoxic event" and that sulfide toxicity was a contributory factor to the extinction  
57  
58 522 and a factor in delayed recovery in the early Triassic. Earth system modeling (Meyer et al,  
59  
60  
61  
62  
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523 2008) suggests that H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity and hypercapnia may have provided the kill mechanism for  
1  
2 524 the P-T extinction. Photic-zone sulfidic conditions as a principal cause for the late  
3  
4 525 Changhsingian ecosystem collapse and mass extinction is more problematic and has been  
5  
6  
7 526 recently challenged by Nielsen et al. (2010). Anoxia in the pre-extinction Late Permian has  
8  
9  
10 527 been interpreted, based on modeling, to not have been globally widespread but confined to an  
11  
12 528 oxygen minimum zone and the deep eastern Panthalassa (Winguth and Winguth, 2011).  
13  
14 529 Anoxia in the shallow-marine environment appeared in the latest Permian at the extinction  
15  
16  
17 530 level (Fig. 12), later than in the deep-marine environment, and appears to be largely restricted  
18  
19 531 to the Induan (Griesbachian and Dienerian) and early Olenekian (Smithian). Extreme global  
20  
21  
22 532 warming occurred in the latest Permian-early Triassic, immediately post-mass extinction  
23  
24 533 (Joachimski et al., 2012), with major changes in the Earth's ocean and atmosphere heat  
25  
26  
27 534 transfer systems (Kidder and Worsley, 2004). Pulses of shallow-marine anoxia during the  
28  
29 535 Induan-Early Olenekian correspond to major global positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  isotopic excursions (Fig.  
30  
31  
32 536 12) and are suggested to be caused by repeated expansion of the oxygen minimum zone into  
33  
34 537 the ocean surface layer due to environmental perturbations (Algeo 2011a, 2011b) including  
35  
36  
37 538 extreme global warming, increased chemical weathering intensity and continental erosion, sea  
38  
39 539 level rise, and changes in marine nutrient inventories and productivity rates (Algeo et al.,  
40  
41 540 2011).

42  
43  
44 541 Wignall & Twitchett (2002) discussed the temporal and spatial distribution of  
45  
46 542 both deep- and shallow-marine anoxia globally and indicated that oxygen-poor shallow-  
47  
48  
49 543 marine conditions widely developed in the latest Changhsingian and was at its maximum in  
50  
51 544 the mid-Griesbachian and had waned by the mid-Dienerian to low-latitude areas of  
52  
53  
54 545 Panthalassa and a region of peri-Gondwana in a shallow-marine embayment in the India-  
55  
56 546 Madagascar region. Better constraints on the spatial distribution and upper limit of shallow-  
57  
58  
59 547 marine anoxia in the Early Triassic are now available and our new data from the Perth Basin  
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548 in Western Australia expands the known region of Induan shallow-marine anoxia in the peri-  
1  
2 549 Gondwanan Meso-Tethys and dates its termination as late Dienerian. A compilation of  
3  
4  
5 550 currently available data on shallow-marine anoxia/dysoxia (Fig. 12) demonstrates  
6  
7 551 synchronous establishment of dysoxia/anoxia at the Late Changhsingian mass extinction level  
8  
9  
10 552 but different timings of the cessation of anoxia in different palaeogeographical regions and  
11  
12 553 settings. It is not yet clear if different temporal pulses of anoxia in the shallow-marine  
13  
14  
15 554 environment are global or regional in nature. Thomas et al. (2004) suggested that upwelling  
16  
17 555 on the west Australian Gondwana margin resulted in abnormally high productivity that  
18  
19 556 produced the unique Lower Triassic organic-rich source rocks of the Sapropelic Interval of  
20  
21  
22 557 the Hovea Member of the Kockatea Shale. This upwelling may also explain the relatively late  
23  
24 558 cessation (late Dienerian) of anoxia along this part of the peri-Gondwana margin. Another  
25  
26  
27 559 possible explanation for the anoxia and organic-rich source rocks of the Sapropelic Interval of  
28  
29 560 the Hovea Member is increased surface ocean productivity due to restricted water circulation  
30  
31  
32 561 and photic zone euxinia (Grice et al., 2005b). Further detailed temporal and spatial mapping  
33  
34 562 of anoxia in the Late Permian-Early Triassic will lead to further understanding of the driving  
35  
36 563 forces for anoxia and how environmental perturbations both on-land and in the seas  
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38  
39 564 underpinned these forces.  
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43  
44 566 **7. Conclusions**

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46 567  
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48  
49 568 Conodont biostratigraphy has unequivocally established the Induan-Olenekian  
50  
51 569 Stage (Dienerian-Smithian Sub-stage) boundary in the Permo-Triassic succession of the  
52  
53  
54 570 onshore northern Perth Basin, Australia, specifically in the lower part of the "Limestone  
55  
56 571 Marker" of the Hovea Member of the Kockatea Shale cored in the petroleum exploration well  
57  
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572 Senecio 1. This is the first unequivocally established Stage boundary for either the Permian or  
1  
2 573 Triassic of Australia utilising internationally robust biostratigraphy.  
3  
4  
5 574  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values from the Induan-Olenekian transition in the Perth Basin vary from  
6  
7 575 -27.52 to -32.91 ‰ VPDB and define a broad positive excursion of approximately 4 per  
8  
9  
10 576 mille. This correlates with a globally recognised positive excursion at this level and enhances  
11  
12 577 correlation of the Senecio-1 section conodont zonation with proposed Induan-Olenekian  
13  
14 578 GSSP sections in China and India and demonstrates the utility of this conodont defined level  
15  
16  
17 579 for stage boundary definition and global correlation.  
18

19 580 The upper limit of anoxic conditions recognised in the Sapropelic Interval of the  
20  
21  
22 581 Hovea Member of the Kockatea Shale, Perth Basin is dated as late Induan (late Dienerian).  
23  
24 582 Temporal and spatial mapping of marine anoxia and dysoxia globally demonstrates that  
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26  
27 583 pulses of anoxia affected shallow-marine zones at different times in different locations. This  
28  
29 584 was probably caused by repeated expansion and/or geographically restricted upwelling of an  
30  
31  
32 585 oxygen minimum zone into the ocean surface layer due to environmental perturbations  
33  
34 586 including extreme global warming, increased terrestrial chemical weathering intensity and  
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36  
37 587 continental erosion, sea level rise, and changes in marine nutrient inventories and productivity  
38  
39 588 rates.  
40

41 589

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53  
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58  
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1  
2 598 of the paper.  
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5 599

6  
7 600 **References**  
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10 601

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13  
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17  
18  
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20

21  
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25  
26 608 Abstracts, The XVII International Congress on the Carboniferous and Permian, Perth 3–  
27  
28  
29 609 8 July 2011: Geological Survey of Western Australia, Record 2011/20, 38.  
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884 **Figure and Table Captions**

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885  
886 Fig. 1. A. Location of Perth Basin and Senecio-1. B. End-Permian (253 Ma) palaeogeography  
887 showing locations of Senecio-1 and proposed GGSP sections at Chaohu and Mud. C.  
888 Upper Permian-Lower Triassic stratigraphy of the northern Perth Basin penetrated by  
889 Senecio-1, stratigraphic coverage of the cored interval shown in black. D. Generalised  
890 Permian-Triassic stratigraphy of the onshore Northern Perth Basin (after Mory et al.,  
891 2005).

892  
893 Fig. 2. Organic metamorphic facies and maturity indices showing the maturity level indicated  
894 for the Senecio-1 sediments based on conodont and spore color. Partly after Metcalfe  
895 and Riley (2010), Nowlan and Barnes (1987) and Epstein, Epstein and Harris (1977).

896  
897 Fig. 3. *Clarkina* spp. Pa elements, all sample C36 (2716.75-2717.00 m depth), Senecio-1  
898 core. 1,2. Oral and inner lateral views of specimen C36/1. 3,4. Oral and inner lateral  
899 views of specimen C36/2. 5,6. Oral and inner lateral views of specimen C36/3. 7,8. Oral  
900 and inner lateral views of specimen C36/4.

901  
902 Fig 4. *Neospathodus dieneri* Sweet Pa elements, Senecio-1 core. 1. Specimen C29/5, lateral  
903 view, sample C29 (2715.00-2715.25 m depth). 2. Specimen C29/8, lateral view, sample  
904 C29 (2715.00-2715.25 m depth). 3. Specimen C49/3, lateral view, sample C49  
905 (2720.00-2720.25 m depth). 4. Specimen C53/16, lateral view, sample C53 (2721.00-  
906 2721.25 m depth). 5. Specimen C76/1, lateral view, sample C76 (2726.75-2727.00 m  
907 depth). 6-14 all from sample C77 (2727.00-2727.25 m depth): 6. Specimen C77/23,  
908 lateral view; 7,8. Oral and outer lateral views of specimen C77/1; 9, 10. Oral and inner

909 lateral views of specimen C77/2; 11. Lateral view of specimen C77f; 12, 13. Lateral and  
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2 910 oral views of specimen C77/11; 14. Lateral view of specimen C77d.

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7 912 Fig. 5. *Neospathodus novaehollandiae* McTavish Pa elements, Senecio-1 core. 1,2,3,4. Oral,  
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10 913 oblique oral, inner lateral and outer lateral views of specimen C29/3, sample C29  
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12 914 (2715.00-2715.25 m depth). 5. Inner lateral view of specimen C25/7. sample C25  
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14 915 (2714.00-2714.25 m depth). 6. Inner lateral view of Holotype specimen number  
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16 916 UWA69120B of McTavish (1973) reimaged using the SEM for comparison with  
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18 917 Senecio-1 material.

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24 919 Fig. 6. *Neospathodus pakistanensis* Sweet Pa elements, Senecio-1 core. 1. Lateral view of  
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27 920 specimen C10/1, sample C10 (2710.25-2710.50 m depth). 2, 3. Oral and inner lateral  
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29 921 views of specimen C25/3, sample C25 (2714.00-2714.25 m depth). 4, 5. Lateral and  
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31 922 basal views of specimen C25/2, sample C25 (2714.00-2714.25 m depth). 6. Lateral  
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33 923 view of specimen C25/8, sample C25 (2714.00-2714.25 m depth). 7. Lateral view of  
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35 924 specimen C29/4, sample C29 (2715.00-2715.25 m depth). 8. Lateral view of specimen  
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37 925 C10/16, C10 (2710.25-2710.50 m depth).

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43 927 Fig. 7. *Neospathodus waageni eowaageni* Zhao & Orchard Pa elements, Senecio-1 core. 1.  
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45 928 Lateral view of specimen C25/26, sample C25 (2714.00-2714.25 m depth). 2. Lateral  
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47 929 view of specimen C35/7, sample C35 (2716.50-2716.75 m depth).

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53 931 Fig. 8. *Neospathodus waageni waageni* Sweet Pa elements, Senecio-1 core, from sample C28  
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55 932 (2714.75-2715.00 m depth). 1,2,3. Oral, outer lateral and anterior views of specimen  
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57 933 C28/2. 4, 5. Oral and inner lateral views of specimen C28/3. 6-9. Oral, anterior, outer

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934 lateral and posterior views of specimen C28/4.

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936 Fig. 9. *Neospathodus waageni* subsp. nov. A Pa elements, Senecio-1 core. 1. Lateral view of  
937 specimen C20/1, sample C20 (2712.75-2713.00 m depth). 2. Lateral view of specimen  
938 C20/5, sample C20 (2712.75-2713.00 m depth). 3. Lateral view of specimen C23/8,  
939 sample C23 (2713.50-2713.75 m depth). 4. Lateral view of specimen C20/2, sample  
940 C20 (2712.75-2713.00 m depth). 5. Lateral view of specimen C23/4, sample C23  
941 (2713.50-2713.75 m depth). 6. Lateral view of specimen C25/1, sample C25 (2714.00-  
942 2714.25 m depth). 7. Lateral view of specimen C20/3, sample C20 (2712.75-2713.00 m  
943 depth). 8. Lateral view of specimen C23/6, sample C23 (2713.50-2713.75 m depth). 9.  
944 Lateral view of specimen C28/5, sample C28 (2714.75-2715.00 m depth).

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946 Fig. 10. Ranges of important conodont taxa and conodont zones, occurrence of pelagic macro-  
947 fossils and bioturbation index values in the Senecio-1 core and placement of the Induan-  
948 Olenekian boundary.

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950 Fig. 11. Correlation of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  curve and conodont zones for Senecio-1 core with those of  
951 proposed Induan-Olenekian GSSP sections at Chaohu, China and Mud, India.

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953 Fig. 12. Temporal and geographic distribution of deep and shallow-marine dysoxia and  
954 anoxia in the Late Permian and early Triassic plotted against physical, biotic and  
955 chemostratigraphic events that relate to the late Changhsingian mass extinction and 5  
956 million year long Early Triassic cesspool. Permian-Triassic numerical timescale is  
957 compiled from Mundil et al. (2004), Ovtcharova et al. (2006), Lehrmann et al. (2006),  
958 Galfetti et al. (2007b), Mundil et al. (2010), Shen et al. (2010) and Shen et al. (2011).



959 Carbon isotope curve (adjusted to the latest numerical timescale) and gastropod size  
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12 964 Sources of temporal distribution of dysoxia and anoxia are discussed in the text.  
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17 966 Table 1. Senecio-1 Carbon isotope samples, total organic carbon (wt%) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values.  
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Figure 1  
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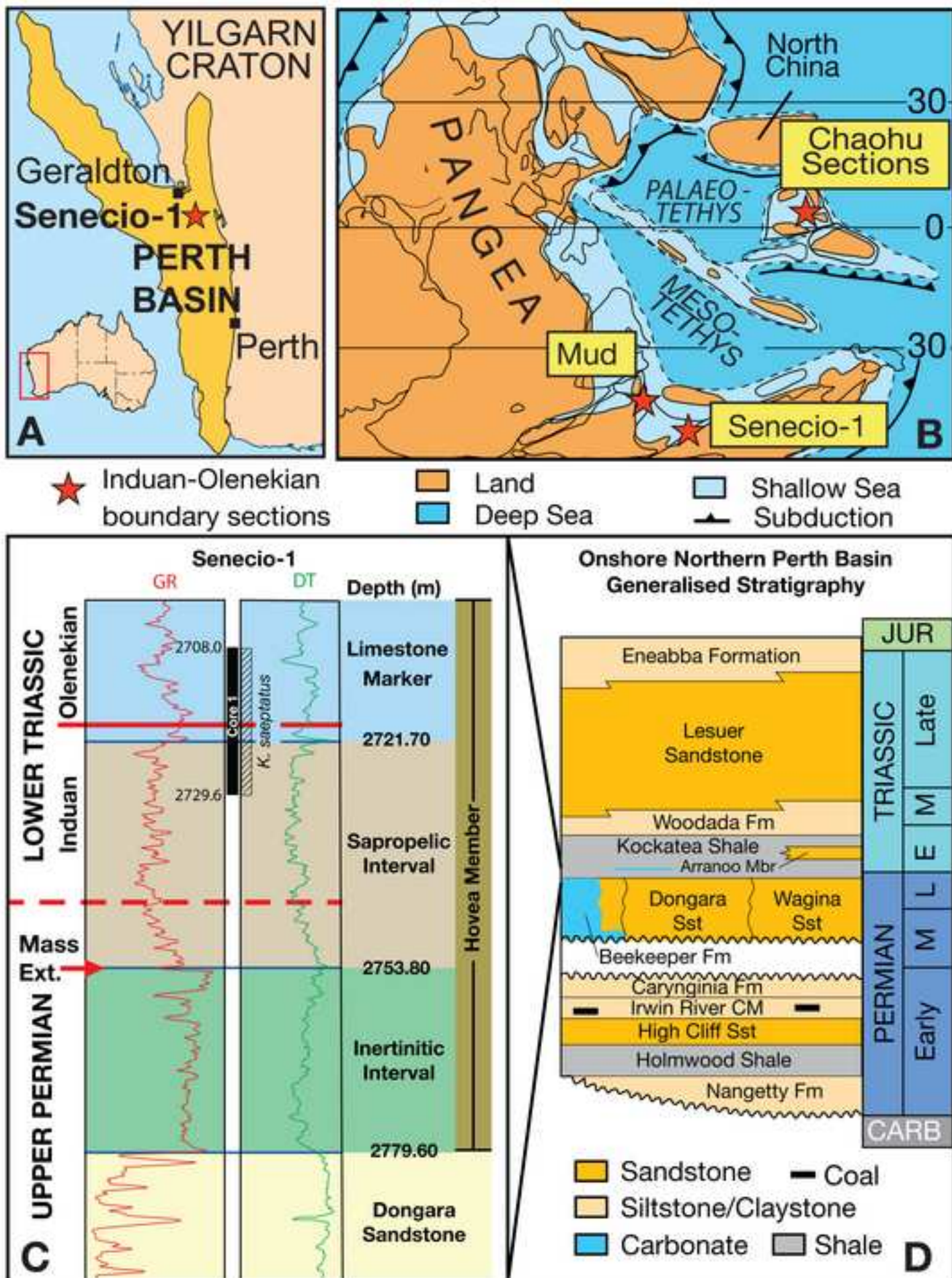


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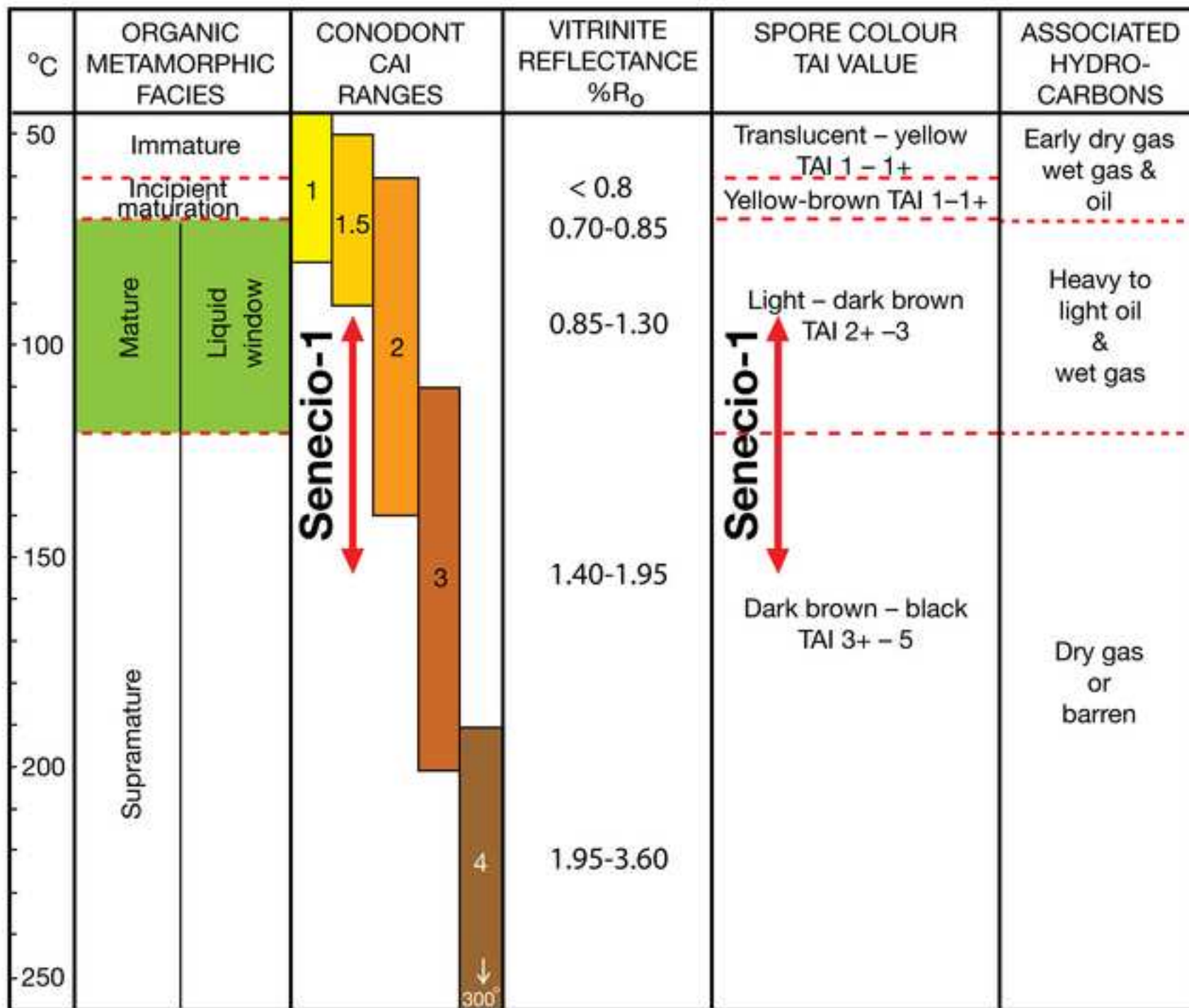


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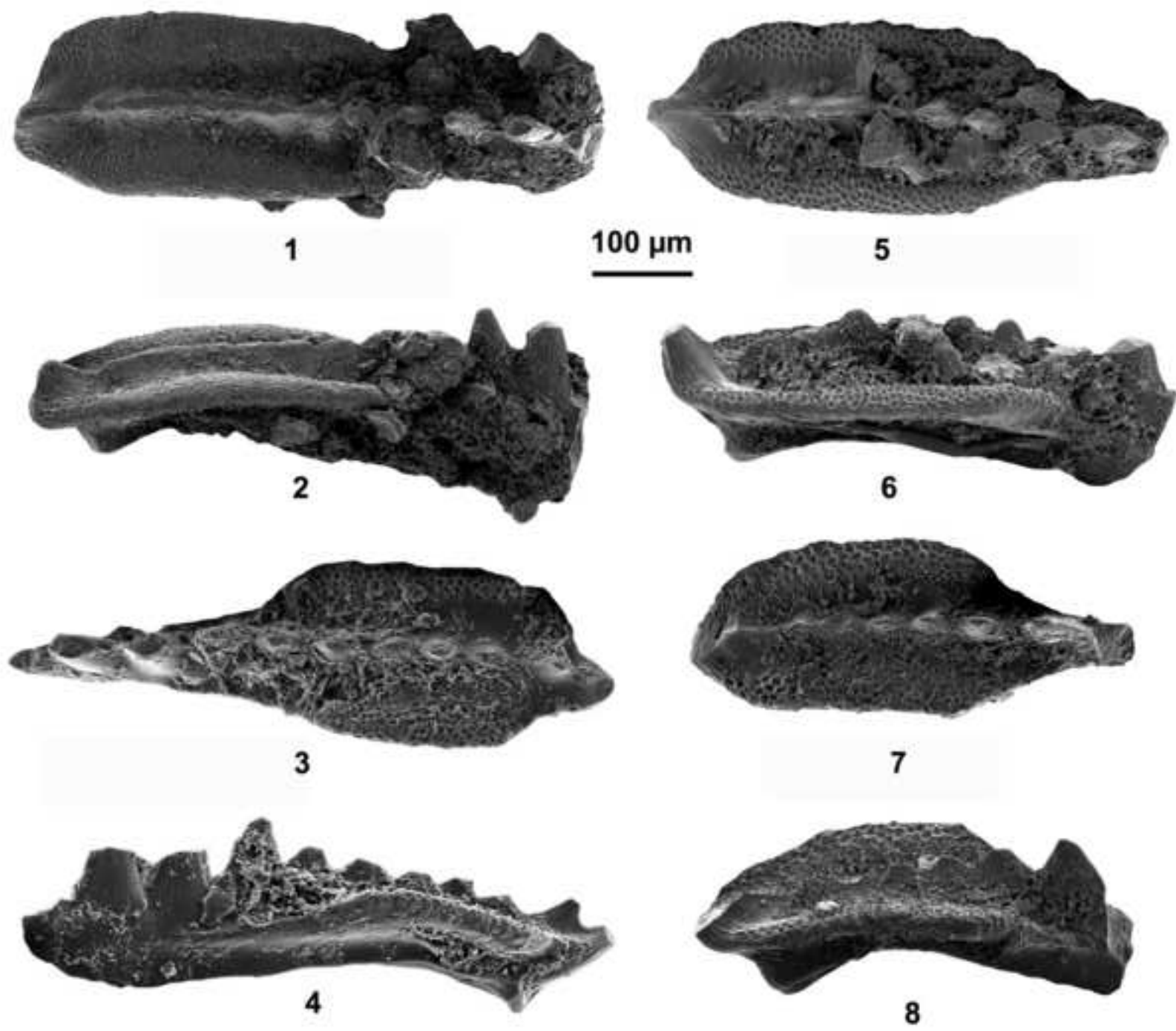


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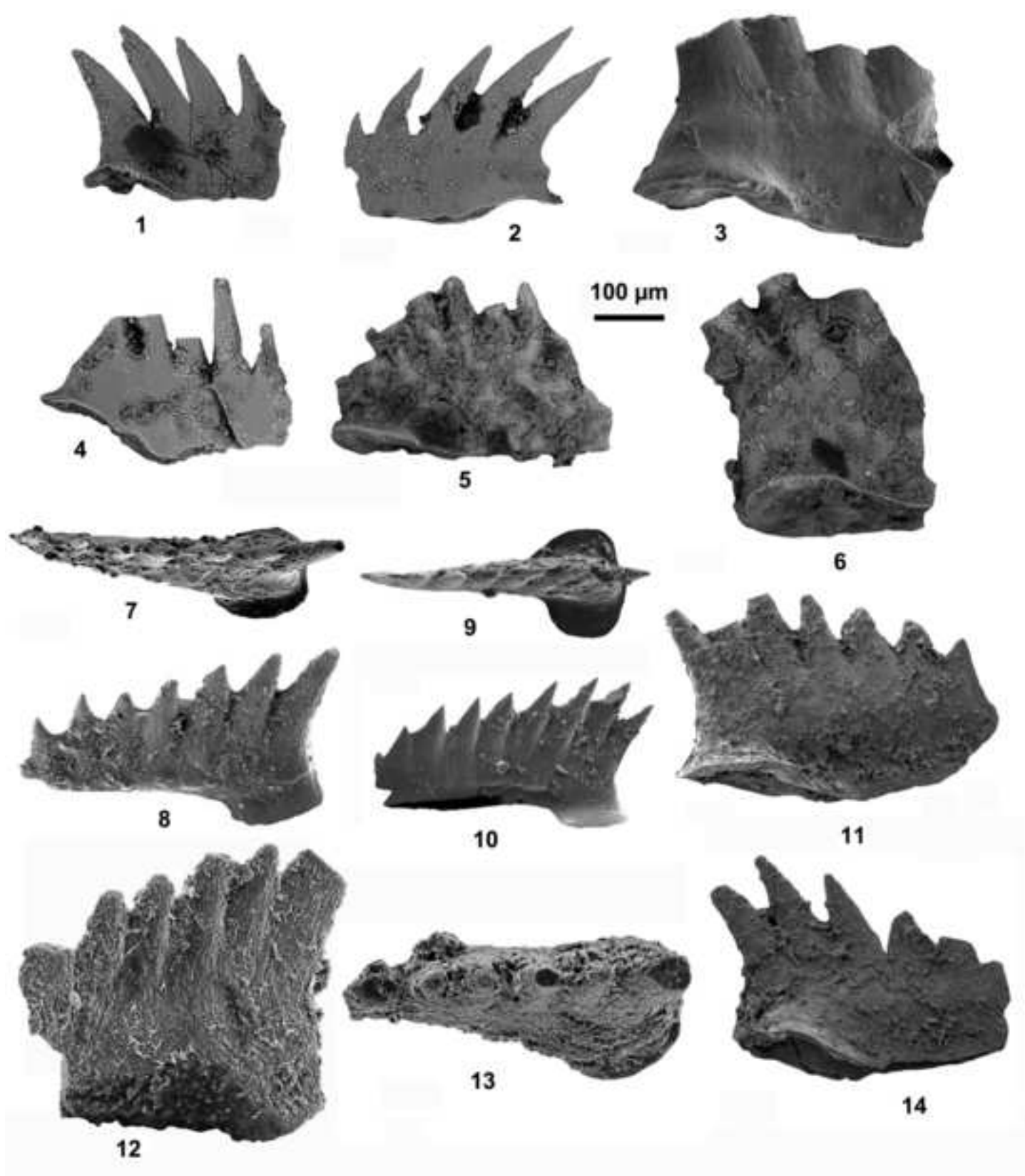


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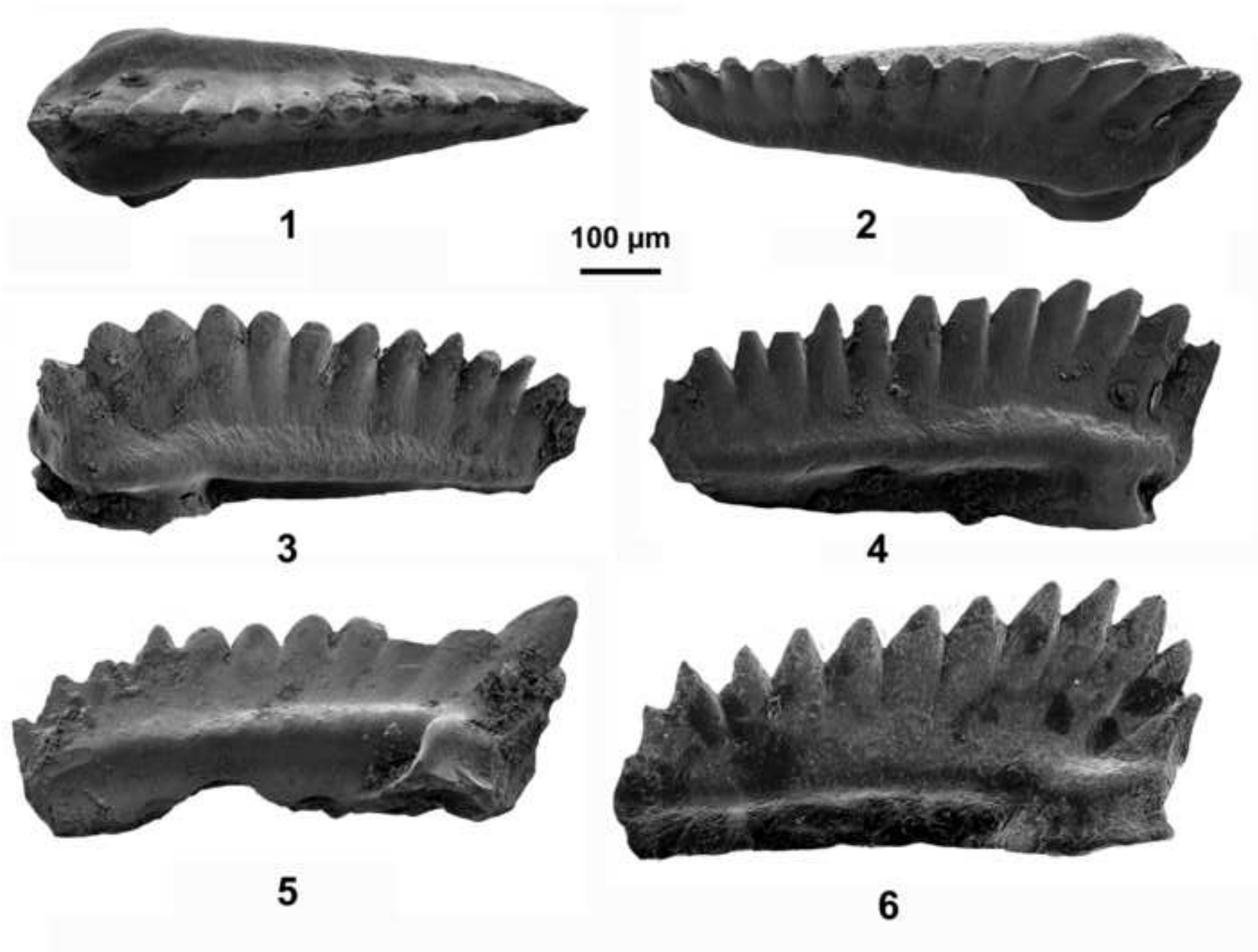


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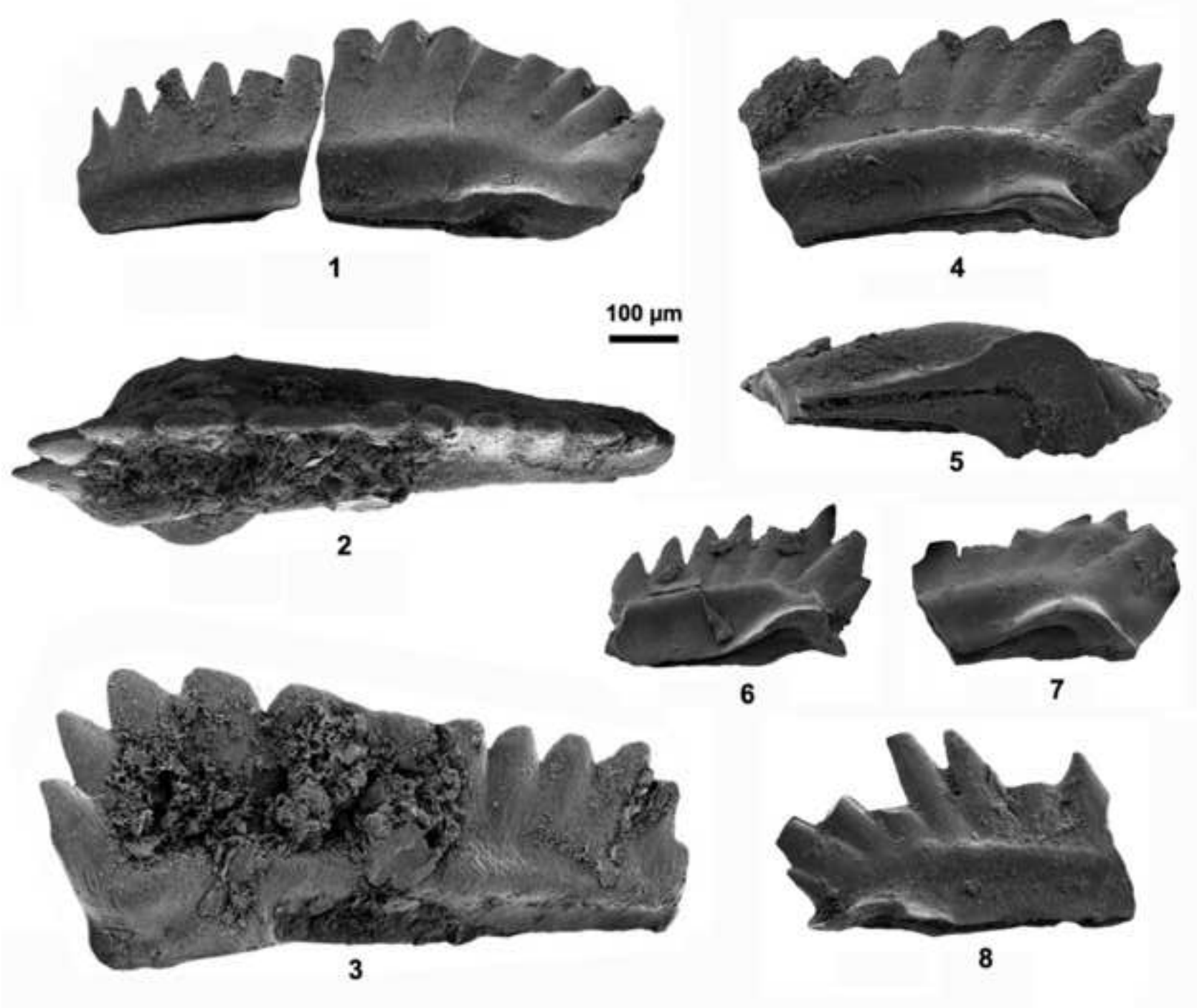


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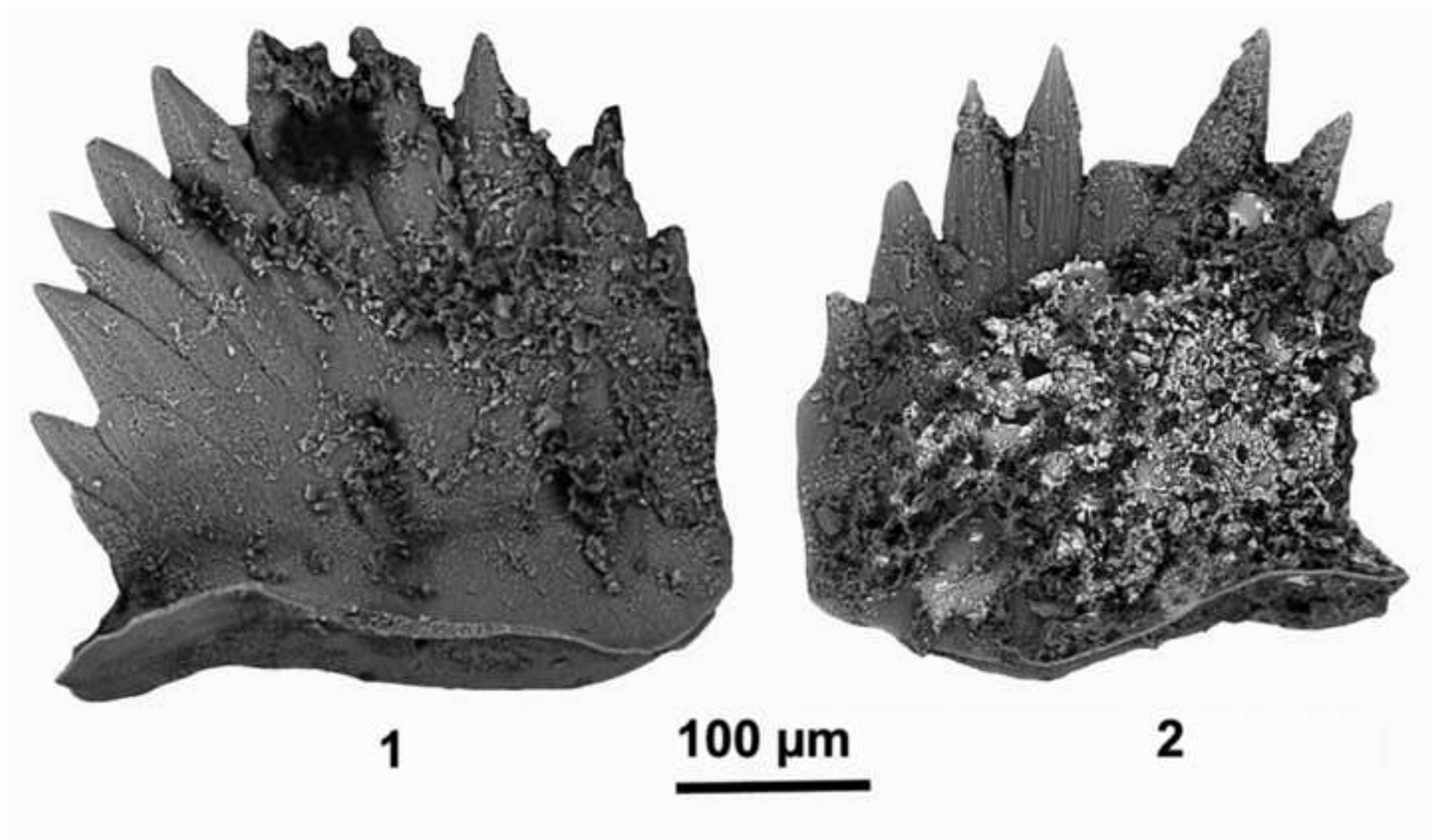




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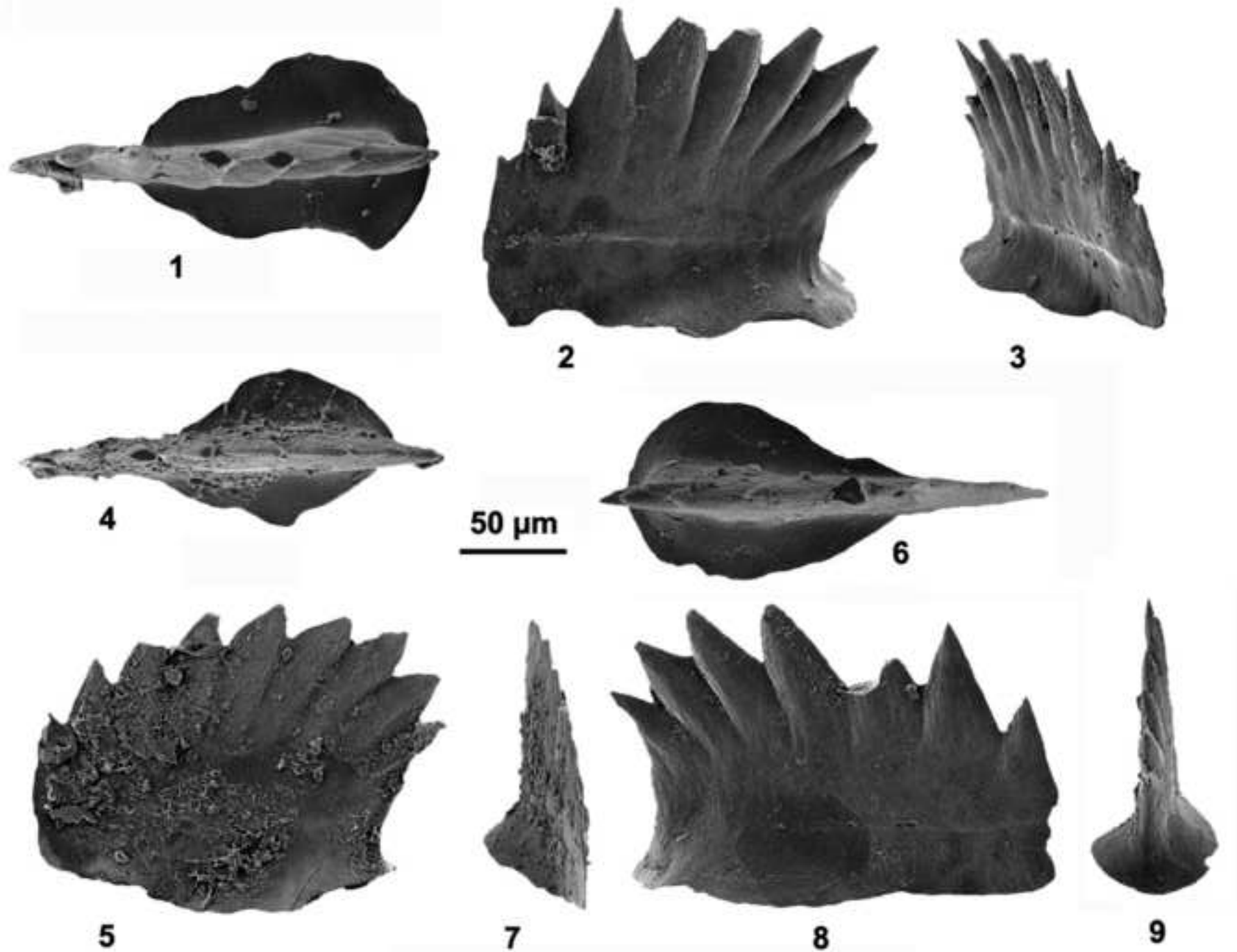


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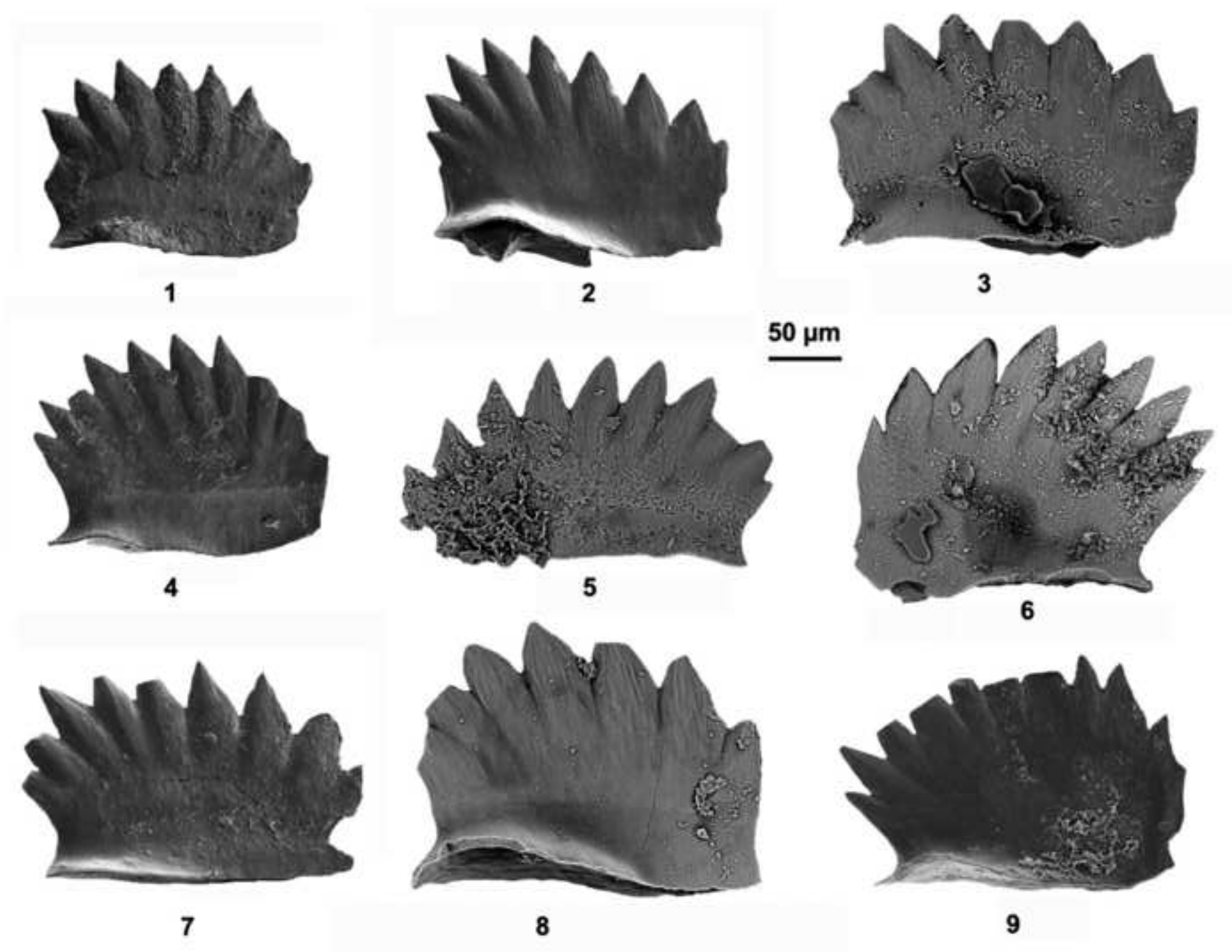


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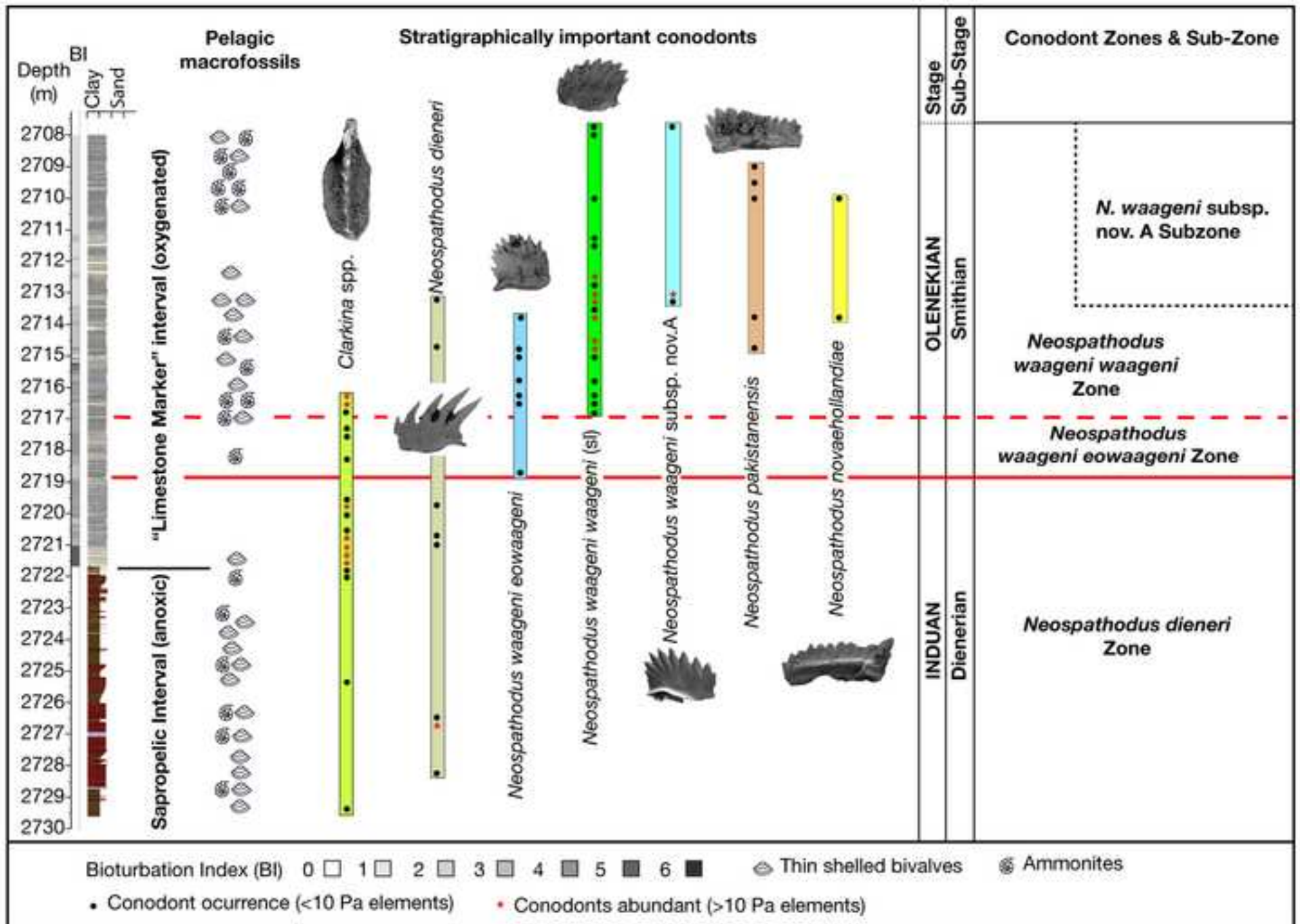


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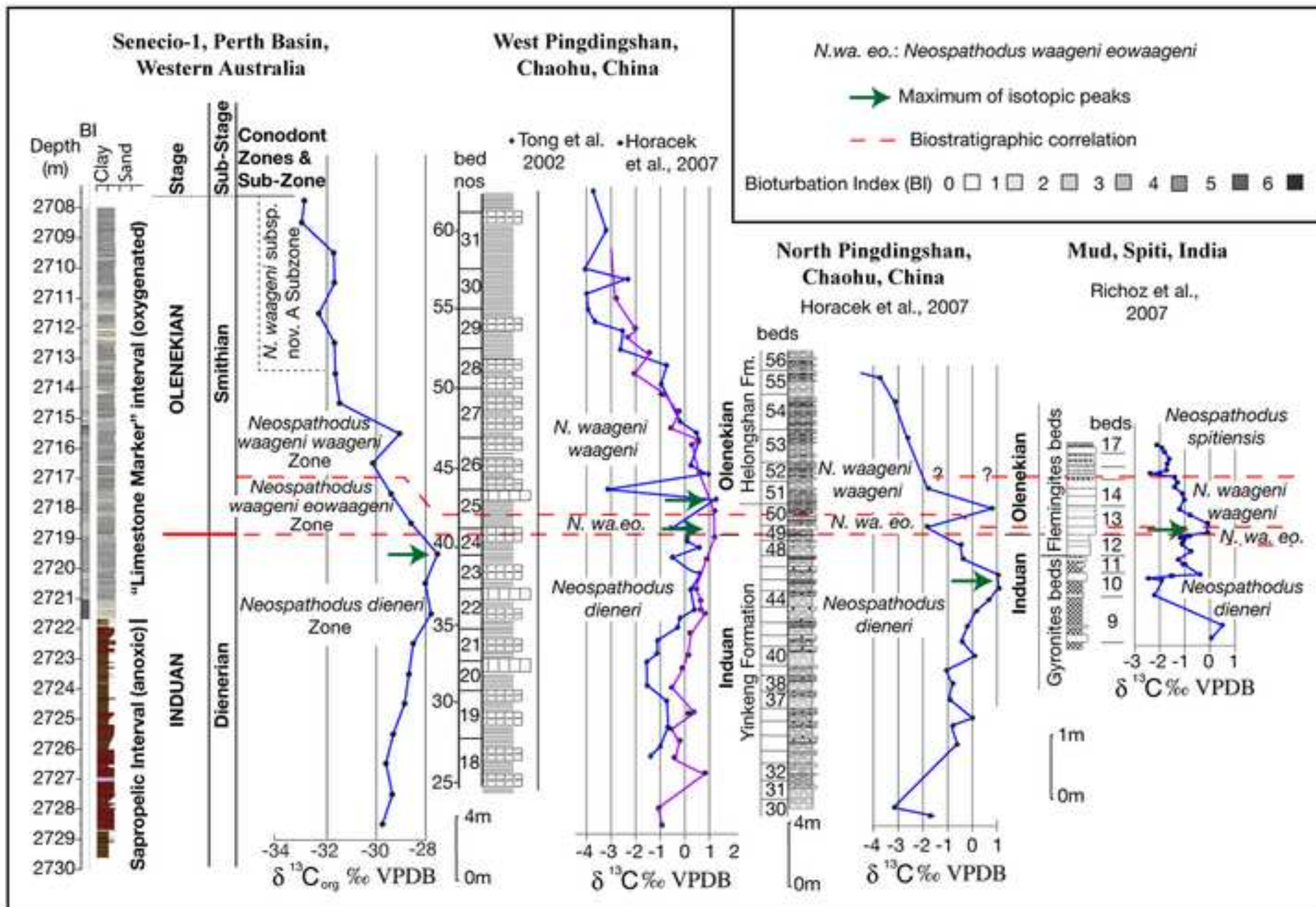
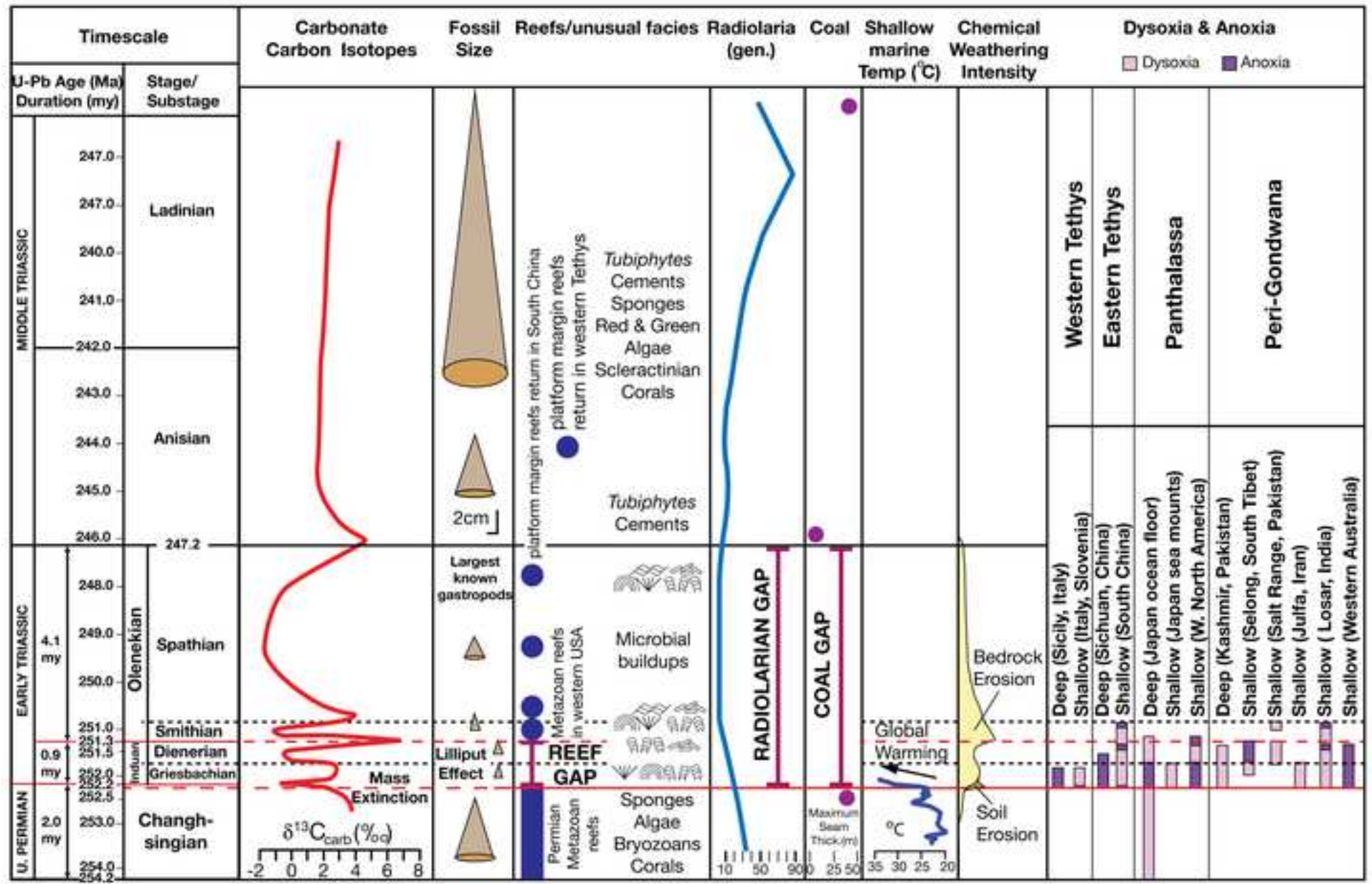


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flat pebble conglomerates  
 subtidal microbialites  
 wrinkle structures  
 microbial patch reefs  
 carbonate precipitates

Table 1. Senecio-1 Carbon isotope samples, total organic carbon (wt%) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values.

Sample no.	Depth (m)	C [wt%]	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ [‰ VPDB]
1	2708.10 - 2708.14	0.4	-32.88
4	2708.85 - 2708.87	0.5	-32.91
8	2709.83 - 2709.86	0.3	-31.8
12	2710.84 - 2710.87	0.2	-31.82
16	2711.92 - 2711.95	0.4	-32.3
20	2712.88 - 2712.91	0.4	-31.79
24	2713.82 - 2713.83	0.3	-31.69
28	2714.88 - 2714.90	0.4	-31.54
32	2715.85 - 2715.87	0.6	-28.98
36	2716.81 - 2716.84	0.4	-30.18
40	2717.90 - 2717.92	0.7	-29.44
44	2718.92 - 2718.95	0.4	-28.61
48b	2719.85 - 2719.88	0.3	-27.52
52	2720.87 - 2720.89	0.5	-28.03
56	2721.94 - 2721.96	1.4	-27.9
60	2722.91 - 2722.93	1.2	-28.5
64	2723.85 - 2723.87	0.9	-28.79
68	2724.88 - 2724.90	1.7	-28.95
72	2725.88 - 2725.90	1	-29.31
76	2726.88 - 2726.91	1.5	-29.66
80	2727.85 - 2727.88	2	-29.37
84	2728.85 - 2728.88	1.4	-29.89

## Research Highlights

- Induan-Olenekian boundary identified using conodonts in the Perth Basin, Australia
- $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  positive excursion peak correlates with Induan-Olenekian boundary globally
- Early Triassic dysoxia/anoxia linked to environmental perturbations and upwelling

