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Rare earth elemental and Sr isotopic evidence for seawater intrusion event of the Songliao Basin 91 million years ago

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1 Abstract

2 Petrogenesis of lacustrine dolostone is closely related with paleo-lake water conditions. Here we report
3 the high spatial-resolution petrographic and geochemical results of a lacustrine dolomite nodule from
4 the Qingshankou Formation, the Songliao Basin. Sedimentary and elemental signatures confirm the
5 protogenetic origin of this nodule and its effectiveness in recording geochemical characteristics of
6 paleo-lake water during dolomitization. The low Y/Ho ratios, middle rare earth element (MREE)
7 enrichment and subtle positive Eu anomalies within the nodule indicate a fresh water source. However,
8 the Sr isotope values in the core of the nodule (0.7076–0.7080) are close to contemporaneous seawater
9 (0.7074), yet different from the modern river (0.7120) and the host black shale (0.7100). On the premise
10 of excluding the influence of hydrothermal fluids, the significantly low strontium isotope values of the
11 lacustrine dolomite might be caused by seawater interference during dolomitization. Our findings
12 demonstrate that lacustrine dolomite within black shales is not only a faithful tracer of diagenetic water
13 environment, but also a novel and easily identified mineralogical evidence for episodic seawater
14 intrusion event (91 Ma) in the Songliao Basin, which supplements other paleontological and
15 geochemical evidence.

16 **Keywords:** Songliao Basin, lacustrine dolostone, seawater intrusion, rare earth elements, strontium
17 isotope

18

19 1. Introduction

20 Lacustrine dolostones are widely distributed within the Late Phanerozoic to Cenozoic black shales in
21 China, including the Middle Permian Lucaogou Formation in the Junggar and Santanghu basins (Jiao,
22 2017; Sun et al., 2020), the Late Triassic Yanchang Formation in the Ordos Basin (Zhu et al., 2020),
23 the Late Cretaceous Qingshankou and Nenjiang formations in the Songliao Basin (Liu and Wang, 1997;
24 Gao et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2012), and the Paleogene Shahejie Formation in the Bohai Bay Basin (Yang,
25 2014). Numerous dolomitization mechanisms have been proposed, including microbial mediation (Xu
26 et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2020), evaporation at early diagenesis (Fruth and Scherreiks, 1982; Zhang et al.,
27 2019), and hydrothermal alternation during shallow burial (Gregg et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2021). Some
28 lacustrine dolostones with centimeter to decimeter sized laminar and nodular features have been
29 supposed to be accompanied with organic matter degradation through biotic (*e.g.*, sulfate reduction,
30 methanogenesis) and abiotic processes (Liu et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020; Alibrahim et al., 2021).
31 Geochemical information archived in these dolostones are believed to have close relationship with the
32 paleo-lake waters and diagenetic conditions, whereas geological cases and in-depth discussions are still
33 lacking.

34 The Songliao Basin in northeastern China is a large continental rift basin (Gao et al., 2015), and
35 preserves two organic-rich shales in the Upper Cretaceous Qingshankou and Nenjiang formations (Liu
36 et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021) as a result of lacustrine anoxic events (Wu et al.,
37 2009). However, episodic seawater incursions have also been suggested to favor organic matter
38 preservation with evidence from body fossils (*e.g.*, benthic and planktonic foraminifera, calcareous
39 nano-fossils, marine and brackish-water dinoflagellates, brackish-water fish and bivalves (Xi et al.,
40 2011; Xi et al., 2016), biomarkers (24-*n*-propyl and 24-isopropyl cholestanes) (Bechtel et al., 2012; Hu
41 et al., 2015), and sulfur isotopic compositions of pyrites (Huang et al., 2013; Cao et al., 2016).

42 Dolostones observed in the Nenjiang black shales in the form of thin layers or nodules were also
43 suggested to have a potential relationship with seawater intrusions (Liu and Wang, 1997; Wang et al.,
44 2008; Gao et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2012).

45 When reconstructing the sedimentary environment from lacustrine carbonates, rare earth elements plus
46 yttrium (REE+Y) profile has been widely used, due to its high calcite-water partition coefficients (>100)
47 and insensitivity to diagenetic alteration (including dolomitization and meteoric alteration), which
48 outperformed in extracting the linked depositional and diagenetic histories (Wang et al., 2021).
49 Dolomite precipitation from lake water is fundamentally controlled by the thermodynamics, of which
50 the REE+Y patterns can reflect the hydro-geochemical states and the evolutionary processes of
51 terrigenous deep-time freshwater system (Zhao et al., 2021). In this view, REE+Y distribution is
52 commonly considered as a fingerprint for water composition, even for the processes and sources in
53 hydrosphere and lithosphere. Given the fact that REE+Y signatures in carbonates are supremely
54 vulnerable to silicate contamination (Tostevin et al., 2016; Gong et al., 2021), *in-situ* elemental
55 measurement rather than bulk analysis is quite demanding. Recent applications of Laser ablation-
56 inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) in extracting single-point REE+Y
57 information have been conducted on specific target minerals (O'Connell et al., 2020; Rieger et al., 2021),
58 whereas line-scanning has not been widely utilized. LA based line scanning is outstanding in obtaining
59 subtle geochemical variations with micron spatial resolution. Terrigenous contamination in carbonate
60 rocks could be easily recognized by using this method (Gong et al., 2021). The contamination
61 recognition is of great importance, especially before proceeding isotopic analysis with pure authigenic
62 minerals.

63 Additionally, strontium (Sr) isotope is an effective indicator to infer the aqueous environment (Bwire
64 Ojiambo et al., 2003; Mearon et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2020; Ha et al., 2021), for its long residence time
65 (about 10^6 year) in seawater (Stein et al., 2000) and significant fractionation among litho- and hydro-
66 spheres (Faure, 1978; Palmer and Elderfield, 1985), but negligible fractionation during carbonate
67 precipitation and diagenesis (Huang et al., 2011). Marine carbonates with the least alternation are
68 considered to have identical Sr isotopic compositions with contemporaneous seawater (Mountjoy et al.,
69 1992), and the deviation from global Sr isotopic variation curve for lacustrine dolomites can be used to
70 quantify potential seawater addition into paleo-lake (Ha et al., 2021).

71 Here, we report the high spatial-resolution petrographic, elemental and Sr isotopic compositions of a
72 dolomite nodule from the Qingshankou Formation in the Songliao Basin, by using multiple *in-situ* and
73 micro analytical techniques. Our results provide new evidence that the dolomite nodule might record
74 contemporaneous seawater signals, and thereby can serve as an indicator to trace potential seawater
75 intrusion in the Songliao Basin during Late Cretaceous.

76 2. Geological setting and sample description

77 The Songliao Basin in northeast China (**Fig. 1**) underwent three tectonic episodes, rifting, thermal
78 subsidence, and structural inversion (Feng et al., 2010), that preserved approximately 10,000 m of
79 volcanoclastic, alluvial fan, fluvial, and lacustrine sediments (Wang et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014).
80 Paleomagnetic results reveal a paleolatitude (40–50°N) (Feng et al., 2010) similar to today (42.5–
81 49.5°N). The GY3HC well, located at the deposition center of the Songliao Basin (**Fig. 1a**), contains
82 about 140 m thick strata of Qingshankou Formation, which is mainly composed of the dark mudstones
83 enclosing thin laminae and oval concretions of dolostones. A dolomite nodule encased by black shale
84 (**Fig. 2**) was sampled from Qingshankou Member 1 in GY3HC well. High precision CA-ID-TIMS

85 zircon U-Pb dating ages (91.886 ± 0.11 Ma, 90.974 ± 0.12 Ma) from the ash layers at the lowermost and
86 uppermost of the first member of Qingshankou Formation, respectively (Wang et al., 2016), constrained
87 the formation time of this nodule to be around 91 Ma.

88

89 **Fig. 1.** (a) Modern schematic map and (b) structural cross section along the central part of the
90 Songliao Basin. Modified from (Huang et al., 2021).

91

92 Laminar sedimentary features and the transition from the shale to dolomite nodule can be clearly
93 identified on the sectional surface (**Fig. 2a**). A thin section of area A in **Fig. 2a** covering the nodule and
94 underlying black shale was prepared to do optical observation, mineralogical and *in-situ* elemental
95 analyses (**Fig. 2b**). Seven points avoiding the debris layers in the nodule were selected and sampled by
96 micro-drilling, with points 1-5 from dolomite nodule, point 6 from the transitional area between shale
97 and dolomite, and point 7 from the host shale (**Fig. 2a**). These samples were meshed into powders with
98 a tungsten carbide grinding disc for Sr isotope analysis, and powders from dolostone (point 4) and black
99 shale (point 7) were further investigated for mineralogical and elemental analyses.

100

101 **Fig. 2.** Cross section of dolomite nodule (a), and area A is amplified in (b). Area A in (a) was made
102 for thin section sample and was investigated via *in-situ* XRF multi-element imaging. Power samples
103 were drilled from points 1-7 in (a) to do Sr isotope analysis, and samples from points 4 and 7 were
104 further conducted for ICP-MS analysis. Area B in (b) was observed under optical microscopy.
105 Mineralogical analysis of area C in (b) was conducted via QEMSCAN. Trace elements along line D
106 in (b) was analyzed by LA-ICP-MS.

107

108 3. Experimental methods

109 3.1 Petrographic and mineralogical analyses

110 The petrographic and mineralogical analyses of dolomite nodule were conducted at Key Laboratory of
111 Petroleum Geochemistry, Research Institute of Petroleum Exploration and Development, Beijing,
112 China. An optical microscope (Olympus 4500P, Olympus Company, Japan) was used to observe the
113 micro-structures of area B in **Fig. 2b** under transmission light. Higher spatial-resolution observation of
114 dolomite was performed on the newly fractured and argon ion polished surfaces by using an Apreo
115 scanning electron microscope (SEM, FEI Company, America) equipped with an integrated high-speed
116 detector (Bruker Company, Germany). Mineral identification of the transitional area between shale and
117 dolostone (area C in **Fig. 2b**) was performed by using a QemScan 650F (FEI Company, America) with
118 a pixel size of 1 μm . Individual minerals were identified by referring to a comprehensive mineral
119 database incorporated into the QemScan software. Powders from point 4 and 7 that represent dolomite
120 and shale, respectively, were pressed into 1-cm-diameter cakes to determine the mineralogical
121 compositions by using an X-ray diffraction (XRD, Rigaku SmartLab Company, Japan) equipped with
122 a Cu tube and a monochromator. The working voltage and current of the X-ray generator were 40 kV
123 and 150 mA, respectively. Scan range (2θ) was selected from 2.6° to 45° with an interval of 0.02° .

124 3.2 Elemental geochemical analysis

125 Multi-element imaging was performed on a M4 Tornado X-ray Fluorescence (XRF, Bruker Company,
126 Germany) at Key Laboratory of Petroleum Geochemistry, Research Institute of Petroleum Exploration

127 and Development, Beijing, China. The whole thin section shown in **Fig. 2b** were full-coverage scanned
128 with a 20- μm -diameter X-ray beam and a single-point exposure time of 200 ms. The X-Ray was derived
129 from a Rh anode with a working voltage of 50 kV and a working current of 200 μA at 20 Mbar
130 atmospheric pressure. In vacuum state, the energy spectrum emitted by the Rh tube is primarily suitable
131 for the elemental measurements from Na to U. Here, the information of Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn, Sr, Si, Al, S
132 that related to the dolomite, quartz, pyrite and clay minerals were extracted and imaged with a spatial
133 resolution of 25 μm .

134 Trace element contents of the powders sampled from the points 4 (dolomite) and 7 (shale) in **Fig. 2a**
135 were determined by using an ELEMENT XR ICP-MS (Thermo Fisher Company, America) at Key
136 Laboratory of Petroleum Geochemistry, Research Institute of Petroleum Exploration and Development,
137 Beijing, China. For each sample, approximately 50 mg powders were weighted and placed in a Teflon
138 bomb. The powders were dissolved in the mixed solution of 1 ml HNO_3 and 1 ml HF under 10 MPa
139 and 180 $^\circ\text{C}$ conditions. The digestion time was about 8 h to achieve complete dissolution of rocks.
140 Uncertainty estimates of each measured element is based on the synchronous digested reference
141 material of MACS-3. The relative standard deviation (RSD) of each measured element is lower than
142 3%.

143 *In-situ* element analysis was performed on a RESOLUTION 193 nm LA (Australian Scientific Instruments,
144 Australia) coupled with a PlasmaQuant MS Elite ICP-MS (Analytik Jena AG Company, Germany) at
145 Beijing Createch Testing Technology Co., Ltd., Beijing, China. Line D in **Fig 2b** was selected for laser
146 ablation with a spot size of 50 μm and a scanning rate of 50 $\mu\text{m}/\text{s}$. Helium (He) was used as a carrier
147 gas to transport aerosol from sample surface to ICP-MS, and Argon (Ar) was used as a make-up gas.
148 Operational parameters of the LA and ICP-MS were tuned for maximum sensitivity, low oxide
149 formation based on the $^{232}\text{Th}^{16}\text{O}/^{232}\text{Th}$ ratio and low laser-induced elemental fractionation based on the
150 $^{232}\text{U}/^{232}\text{Th}$ ratio by using certified reference material NIST 610. The laser repetition rate was 10 Hz with
151 an energy density of 6 J/cm^2 . The dwell time of each element of ICP-MS was 10 ms. Data was analyzed
152 by using the software of Iolite 3.25 (Paton et al., 2011). Uncertainty estimates of each measured element
153 are based on repeated measurement of MACS-3. Under the optimized conditions, the RSD of each
154 measured element is lower than 10%.

155 3.3 Strontium isotope analysis

156 Powder samples from points 1-7 in **Fig. 2a** were selected for Sr isotope analysis at Beijing Research
157 Institute of Uranium Geology, China National Nuclear Corporation, Beijing, China. About 50–70 mg
158 of the sample was dissolved in 2.5 N HCl for 1–2 h at room temperature. The solutions were centrifuged,
159 and the supernatant was recovered. Soluble Sr was further separated by using an ion-exchange column
160 packed with Bio-Rad AG 50W-X12 resin. Sr isotope analyses were measured on a Finnigan MAT-262
161 multi-collector thermal-ionization mass spectrometer (TIMS, Finnigan Company, Germany). The
162 standard reference sample NBS-987 was used for quality control and the measured value of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$
163 ratio was 0.710240 ± 0.000005 ($n=10$).

164 3. Results

165 3.1 Mineralogical and petrographic compositions

166 The dolomite nodule is mainly composed of dolomite (70.2 %) with small amounts of quartz (14.0 %)
167 and clay minerals (15.8 %) (**Fig. S1a**). As a contrast, the host black shale mainly contains clay minerals
168 (54.0 %) and quartz (29.1 %), with small proportion of feldspar (12.1 %) and dolomite (4.8 %) (**Fig.**
169 **S1b**). Distinct sedimentary characteristics with debris layers in the nodule (**Fig. 3a**) indicate its
170 authigenic genesis. Angular quartz and feldspar grains preserved in the debris layers (**Fig. 3b**), are
171 typical protogenetic characteristics representing terrestrial silicate contamination. Apart from debris

172 layers, the nodule has micro-lithic structures composed of fine-grained euhedral-subhedral dolomite
 173 crystals (**Fig. 3c**). Presence of ankerite was confirmed by the blue-colored grains after dyed with alizarin
 174 red (**Fig. 3c**). The transitional zone from underlying black shale to dolomite nodule contains several
 175 terrestrial debris layers (**Fig. 3a**), enclosing sub-rounded to angular quartz grains and dark-colored iron-
 176 rich minerals (**Fig. 3d**).

177
 178 **Fig. 3.** Photomicrographs of the transient zone from black shale to dolomite nodule of area A in **Fig.**
 179 **2a**, under microscopic transmission light. Laminar terrigenous debris in the nodule are pointed out by
 180 yellow arrows. Quartz particles with poor roundness (b), dolomite grains with micro-lithic structure
 181 (c) and silty layer (d) are shown in the right-hand enlarged views.

182
 183 Mineralogical distribution obtained from QemScan further distinguished the dolostone nodule into 4
 184 zones: black shale with clay minerals (*e.g.*, illite, chlorite) and quartz (zone a in **Fig. 4**), silty layer
 185 composed of quartz and albite (zone b in **Fig. 4**), transitional area with quartz, albite, and chlorite (zone
 186 c in **Fig. 4**), and the dolostone nodule with dolomite grains (zone d in **Fig. 4**). A thin terrigenous lamina
 187 with quartz and albite was recognized at the beginning of dolomite precipitation (pointed with white
 188 arrow in zone d in **Fig. 4**). It is interesting to note that pyrite crystals are easily recognized within the
 189 transitional area and dolomite nodule (pointed with yellow arrows in zones c and d in **Fig. 4**), but not
 190 in the silty layer and black shale (zones a and b in **Fig. 4**). Under SEM, the dolomite grains show
 191 rhombohedron of euhedral-subhedral shape with diameters of micro- to centimeters (**Figs. 5a and b**).
 192 The dark nucleus and light rim within a single dolomite crystal are demonstrated to be dolomite and
 193 ankerite, respectively (**Figs. 5c and d**). Organic matter is occasionally observed while being
 194 accompanied with ankerite, chlorite (**Figs. 5c and d**), and pyritohedron-type pyrite crystals (diameters
 195 of 1–4 μm) (**Fig. 5d**).

196
 197 **Fig. 4.** Scanning electron microscopic image and mineralogical distribution of area C in **Fig. 2b** via
 198 QEMSCAN (spatial resolution=1.5 μm). Four sections are recognized, including zone a: host black
 199 shale, zone b: silty layer, zone c: shale with numerous siliceous detritus embedded, and zone d:
 200 dolomite nodule. Detritus lamina and pyrite are marked by white and yellow arrows, respectively.

201
 202 **Fig. 5.** Scanning electron microscope photos of newly fractured (a and b) and argon ion polished
 203 facies (c and d) of dolomite. The dolomite crystals aggregate in a cumulative texture (a) with rhombus
 204 euhedral-subhedral shapes (b). Organic matter residues (c and d) are accompanied by pyrite
 205 occasionally (d).

206

207

208 3.2 Elemental contents and distributions

209 The elemental images based on μ -XRF of the thin section sample (**Fig. 6a**) are shown in **Figs. 6b-i**.
 210 Quantitative elemental variations via LA-ICP-MS along the green dashed line in **Fig. 6a** are
 211 correspondingly plotted at the right sides in **Figs. 6b-i**. Contents of selected trace elements (Th, Zr, V,
 212 Ni, Co) and sum of REE+Y ($\Sigma\text{REE+Y}$) from LA-ICP-MS and solution-based ICP-MS are shown in
 213 **Fig. 6j**. Good consistencies on the results from μ -XRF, LA-ICP-MS and ICP-MS (**Fig. 6, Tables 1-2**),
 214 indicate that the elemental record could provide detailed information of diagenetic water environment.
 215 Compared with the host black shale, the dolomite nodule is supremely concentrated with Ca, Mg, Fe,

216 Mn and Sr, whereas depleted in redox sensitive elements (*e.g.*, V, Ni, Co), terrestrial elements (*e.g.*, Si,
 217 Al, S, Th, Zr), and REE+Y. Notably, Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn and Sr are not homogeneously distributed within
 218 the nodule but exhibiting layered patterns. Ca, Mg and Sr are specifically enriched in the core with
 219 quantitative contents of 22%, 10% and 0.2 %, respectively, while decrease slightly to 19%, 8.5% and
 220 0.15% in the rim. Comparatively, Fe is more abundant in the rim (9.5%), with a slightly lower content
 221 (7%) in the core. Mn is intensively enriched in the transitional area, with a maximum content of 0.7%,
 222 but vanishes rapidly towards dolomite (0.24%) and shale (0.04%). The silty layer is depleted in S but
 223 enriched in Fe (6%) compared with surrounding black shale (Fe=3.5%).

224

225 **Fig. 6.** (a) $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values from different micro-areas of the dolomite nodule (area A in Fig 2a).
 226 Corresponding images of Ca (b), Mg (c), Fe (d), Mn (e), Sr (f), Si(g), Al(h), S(i) obtained from XRF
 227 scanning with 20- μm pixel size and 4-ms exposure time per pixel. The imaging size was 54.9 \times 46.4
 228 mm with 2745 \times 2320 pixels. The right-hand data of (b-i) and (j) were obtained from LA-ICP-MS
 229 scanning along the green dash line in (a). Elemental contents obtained from solution ICP-MS are
 230 marked with red dash lines in (j). REE patterns of dolomite (arrow A in c), Fe-rich dolomites (arrows
 231 B and C in d) and S-rich lamina (arrow D in i) are shown in Fig. 8b.

232

233 Table 1. Averaged REE+Y contents (ppm) of different sections in nodule based on LA-ICP-MS and ICP-MS
 234 methods.

Sample	Method	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Y	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	$\Sigma\text{REE+Y}$
Shale 1		36.87	45.71	6.88	20.50	4.08	0.68	2.90	0.46	2.89	16.55	0.60	1.68	0.26	1.78	0.27	142.10
Detritus		18.15	43.82	5.77	25.43	5.60	1.08	4.13	0.50	2.53	12.91	0.42	0.97	0.15	0.92	0.13	122.50
Shale 2	LA-ICP-MS	25.60	50.47	7.19	21.49	4.54	0.97	3.83	0.61	3.54	17.66	0.62	1.73	0.25	1.68	0.25	140.41
Transition		18.79	42.82	4.78	19.92	4.56	1.02	4.09	0.67	3.74	20.62	0.72	1.80	0.26	1.70	0.26	125.76
Fe-dolomite		8.72	18.51	2.10	9.44	2.37	0.57	2.27	0.35	1.89	11.12	0.35	0.87	0.13	0.84	0.13	59.66
Mg-dolomite		8.34	17.92	2.11	9.52	2.23	0.57	2.14	0.33	1.79	10.82	0.32	0.81	0.11	0.77	0.12	57.92
Shale	ICP-MS	37.90	69.40	8.02	30.30	4.75	0.89	4.39	0.73	4.22	21.90	0.79	2.37	0.37	2.42	0.37	188.82
Dolomite		7.16	16.10	2.05	9.34	2.04	0.45	1.72	0.34	1.92	9.93	0.35	0.92	0.14	0.88	0.14	53.48

235 Table 2. Trace elemental contents (ppm) of shale and dolomite based on ICP-MS method.

	Th	Zr	V	Ni	Co
Shale	11.5	155.0	124.0	13.0	20.5
Dolomite	1.2	16.8	40.9	2.0	16.0

236

237

238 The raw REE+Y contents via ICP-MS and LA-ICP-MS were normalized to Post-Archaean Australian
 239 Shale (PAAS) (McLennan, 1989). Anomalies of Ce and Eu and the partitioning of middle REEs (BSI)
 240 were calculated as (Lawrence et al., 2006):

$$241 \quad (Ce/Ce^*)_{SN} = Ce_{SN} / (Pr_{SN} \times (Pr_{SN} / Nd_{SN})) \quad (1)$$

$$242 \quad (Eu/Eu^*)_{SN} = Eu_{SN} / (Sm_{SN}^2 \times Tb_{SN})^{1/3} \quad (2)$$

$$BSI = \frac{2 \times (Sm_{SN} + Gd_{SN} + Dy_{SN})}{3} \left/ \left(\frac{La_{SN} + Pr_{SN} + Nd_{SN}}{3} + \frac{Ho_{SN} + Er_{SN} + Tm_{SN} + Yb_{SN} + Lu_{SN}}{5} \right) \right. \quad (3)$$

243

244 It is worthy of mentioning that Eu abundance may be originated from test error due to the interference
 245 of Ba element. Since $^{151}\text{Eu}^+$ and $^{135}\text{Ba}^{16}\text{O}^+$ share the similar valence state and ion radius, the existence
 246 of Ba oxide and hydroxide in geological samples with high Ba content could seriously affect the
 247 accurate measurement of Eu (Planavsky et al., 2010). Here, the analytical artefact on positive Eu
 248 anomaly could be ruled out for the absence of any correlation between laser-ablation based Ba and
 249 $(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{SN}$ (**Fig. S2**).

250 After a 35-points moving-average on raw dataset to eliminate signal oscillations, the REE+Y patterns
 251 of dolomite nodule and host black shale, including $\sum\text{REE+Y}$, BSI, Y/Ho, $(\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*)_{SN}$ and $(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{SN}$
 252 are illustrated in **Fig. 7**. The measured $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ shows a gradual decline from shale (142 ppm) to
 253 transitional area (120 ppm) and dolomite nodule (55 ppm). In general, both BSI and Y/Ho values show
 254 rising trends with fluctuations from shale to dolomite, with particularly high values in silty layer. The
 255 BSI value is relatively low in shale (from 1.0 to 1.4), but bumps in silty layer (1.7) and increases within
 256 dolomite nodule from rim (1.5) to core (1.9). Similarly, the Y/Ho ratios are 30 in shale and 43 in silty
 257 layer, and increase from the rim (32) to core area (46) in dolomite nodule. Both $(\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*)_{SN}$ and
 258 $(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{SN}$ show positive anomalies and oscillate between 1.0 and 1.5. A sustained increasing trend of
 259 $(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{SN}$ could also be recognized from shale to dolomite nodule, which was confirmed by the
 260 statistical results from LA-ICP-MS (**Fig. S3**).

261

262 **Fig. 7.** $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ contents, BSI, Y/Ho ratios, $(\text{Ce}/\text{Ce}^*)_{SN}$ and $(\text{Eu}/\text{Eu}^*)_{SN}$ data of the LA-ICP-MS
 263 scanning line in **Fig. 6a**. The data shown here are the results of 35-point moving average of the raw
 264 data obtained from LA-ICP-MS.

265

266 As revealed from bulk analysis via ICP-MS (**Fig. 8a, Table 1**), REE+Y pattern of black shale is rather
 267 flat, different from the specific “dome” structure of dolomite nodule. Shale has high $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ (188.8
 268 ppm) and low Y/Ho ratio (27.72), while dolomite has low $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ (53.48 ppm) but high Y/Ho ratio
 269 (28.37). To get the detailed view of varied REE+Y patterns along the nodule profile, averaged LA-ICP-
 270 MS based REE+Y patterns of different phases, i.e., shale 1, silty layer, shale 2, transitional zone, Fe-
 271 rich dolomite and Mg-rich dolomite classified in **Fig. 6a** are illustrated in **Fig. 8a**. Black shale (shale 1)
 272 has higher $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ (142.1 ppm), a rather flat REE+Y pattern and low Y/Ho ratio (27.43). Shale 2 has
 273 similar REE+Y profile with a $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ of 140.61 ppm, a Y/Ho ratio of 28.66, and a BSI value of 1.20.
 274 The silty layer between shale 1 and 2 is MREE-enriched with a BSI value of 1.68, a decreased $\sum\text{REE+Y}$
 275 of 122.5 ppm and an increased Y/Ho ratio of 30.57. Transitional zone towards dolomite exhibits a slight
 276 enrichment of MREE (BSI=1.40), a $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ of 125.76 ppm and a Y/Ho ratio of 28.81. To specifically
 277 identify the terrigenous contamination in dolomite, a particular REE+Y pattern of sulfur-rich lamina
 278 within dolomite (D in **Figs. 6 and 8b**) was selected and compared with pure dolomite (A-C in **Figs. 6**
 279 **and 8b**). Noticeable MREE-enriched pattern (BSI=2.70) and super-high $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ (1161.3 ppm) of the
 280 S-rich lamina confirm the interference of terrigenous contamination. However, no obvious differences
 281 are found in REE+Y patterns between Mg- and Fe-dolomites, with BSI values varying from 1.45 to
 282 1.66 and $\sum\text{REE+Y}$ from 54.5 to 66.0 ppm.

283

284 **Fig. 8.** Averaged PAAS-normalized REE+Y patterns of (a) different segments in **Fig. 6a**, and (b)
 285 areas A-D in **Fig. 6**. Results from ICP-MS are shown for comparison. Parameter of “n” is the total

286 points number for averaging.

287

288 3.3 Strontium isotope composition

289 Sr isotope composition exhibits a decreasing trend from shale (0.709972) to transitional area (0.707987)
290 and remains steady within dolomite nodule (from 0.7076004 to 0.707646) (**Fig. 6a, Table 3**).

291 Table 3. Strontium isotope compositions of the samples from points 1-7 in **Fig. 2a**.

Point	Lithofacies	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$	Std.
1	Dolomite	0.707646	0.000014
2	Dolomite	0.707626	0.000016
3	Dolomite	0.707605	0.000019
4	Dolomite	0.707602	0.000013
5	Dolomite	0.707600	0.000014
6	Transition	0.707987	0.000018
7	Shale	0.709972	0.000013

292

293

294 4. Discussion

295 4.1 Terrigenous contamination in dolomite nodule

296 Terrigenous detritus could be captured by carbonates at early diagenesis (Azmy et al., 2011). Since
297 trace elements in terrigenous detritus are higher than pure carbonates, a small proportion of detritus
298 contamination could significantly elevate the trace element contents in bulk carbonate rocks. Similarity
299 of REE+Y patterns between silty layer and dolostone indicates a potential terrigenous contamination in
300 dolomite nodule, which is confirmed by the laminar clastic layers within dolomite nodule (**Figs. 2 and**
301 **3**). In this view, it is important to rule out the contaminants before using the REE+Y profiles of dolomite
302 nodule to infer their diagenetic water environment.

303 Due to extremely low solubility and short residence time in water, the element of Th is supremely
304 enriched in terrigenous detritus when compared with pure carbonates (Taylor and McLennan, 1985),
305 and is widely used as a tracer of terrigenous contamination for carbonates (Zhao and Zheng, 2014; Gong
306 et al., 2021). As shown in **Fig. 9a**, great consistency has been confirmed between Th and $\Sigma\text{REE+Y}$.
307 REE+Y patterns via LA-ICP-MS for silty layer, Fe-dolomite and Mg-dolomite phases were classified
308 into several groups according to Th contents (**Figs. 9b-d**). For both Fe- and Mg-dolomites, samples
309 with low Th contents (<2 ppm) display similar bump-shaped REE+Y features with the averaged results
310 (**Figs. 9c-d**). Then a 2-ppm-Th content in lacustrine dolostone was set as distinguishing criteria, above
311 which terrigenous contamination could not be ignored. This threshold is a little higher than the criteria
312 for marine carbonates at 0.5 ppm (Gong et al., 2021) or 1.0 ppm (Zhao and Zheng, 2016). Such
313 discrepancy might be attributed to the abundant terrigenous clastic materials deposited in paleo-lakes
314 when compared with ocean. The content of Th for dolomite nodule is as low as 1.2 ppm (**Table 2**),
315 being far less than the host black shale (11.5 ppm). Furthermore, most LA-based data possess a Th
316 content lower than 2 ppm (**Fig. 6i**). Combined with the elemental distribution given by $\mu\text{-XRF}$,
317 anomalous high REE+Y values are attributed to S-rich debris laminae (**Fig. 8b**). After eliminating the
318 terrigenous contamination, the REE+Y patterns are qualified to reflect the diagenetic water environment
319 during dolomitization (Ye et al., 2020; Gong et al., 2021).

320
 321 **Fig. 9.** (a) Relationship between Th and $\Sigma\text{REE}+\text{Y}$ contents for different petrographic phases based on
 322 LA-ICP-MS data (R^2 is linear correlation coefficient) (a). PAAS-normalized REE+Y patterns of silty
 323 layer (b), Fe-dolomite (c) and Mg-dolomite (d) with different Th contents. The “Averaged” REE+Y
 324 patterns in light grey (b-d) are the mean values of all laser points data.

325

326 4.2 Lacustrine geochemical characteristics recorded in dolomite nodule

327 The features of REE+Y patterns in carbonates are thought to be insensitive to diagenetic alteration, in
 328 spite of multiple post-depositional dolomitization events (Nothdurft et al., 2004). Different from
 329 relatively homogeneous seawater, the more variable REE+Y patterns in lake water are supposed to
 330 reflect multiple contributions of continental weathering and preferential removal of REE+Y from
 331 solutions by colloids or authigenic minerals (Johannesson et al., 1996; Sasmaz et al., 2021). Reactions
 332 between dissolved and non-dissolved materials play a dominant role in determining REE+Y
 333 compositions in lake water (Johannesson et al., 1996). The authigenic lacustrine dolomite nodule here
 334 is suggest to keep its pristine chemistry inherited from lake water, which is featured with MREE
 335 enrichment, relatively low Y/Ho, slight positive Eu and Ce anomalies in general.

336 4.2.1 MREE enrichment

337 Similar MREE-enriched patterns observed here had been reported for other carbonates (Bolhar and
 338 Kranendonk, 2007; Skinner et al., 2019) (**Fig. S4**). Hydrothermal fluid is a possible source of MREE-
 339 enriched lacustrine dolomites (Bolhar and Kranendonk, 2007; Yang, 2014). However, the reported
 340 Cretaceous hydrothermal lacustrine dolomite was enriched with heavy REE (HREE) (Li et al., 2020;
 341 Yang et al., 2020), and these hydrothermal related lacustrine dolomites can be distinguished from
 342 specific high-temperature related minerals (*e.g.*, natrolite and analcime) or hydrothermal metasomatic
 343 origin (Rieger et al., 2021), whereas none of these has been observed in dolomite nodule here. Bump-
 344 shaped REE+Y patterns have been widely recognized in various terrestrial waters, including rivers
 345 (Lawrence et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2020), acid lakes (Johannesson et al., 1996; Bwire Ojiambo et al.,
 346 2003), groundwater (Pourret et al., 2010) and hydrothermal-influenced lakes (Sasmaz et al., 2021).
 347 MREE-enriched pattern in lacustrine carbonates is supposed to be mainly documented in low-pH waters,
 348 but not high-pH systems (*i.e.*, modern seawater) or alkaline lakes (Johannesson et al., 1996). Processes
 349 leading to such REE+Y profiles include colloidal association, particle/mineral-liquid interaction,
 350 phosphate complexation and sulfate complexation (Bolhar and Kranendonk, 2007), whereas the most
 351 dominant contributor may be Fe-Mn-rich particulates and their surface coatings within aquifer materials
 352 (Haley et al., 2004). The possibilities of phosphate minerals and organic flakes as alternative REE+Y
 353 hosts could be ruled out here for their relatively low contents. In the process of dissimilatory iron
 354 reduction, the mole ratio of organic carbon and Fe oxides is 1:4, indicating more Fe-oxides were reduced
 355 while releasing REE+Y into the water when compared with organic matters. Given the enriched Fe and
 356 Mn elements in dolomite (**Figs. 6d and e**), MREEs are supposed to be mainly released from Fe-
 357 oxyhydroxides during iron reduction under sub-oxic porewater condition and subsequently trapped in
 358 the carbonates.

359 4.2.2 Y/Ho ratio

360 Although Y and Ho exhibit similar geochemical behaviors, Ho is preferentially complexed and removed
 361 from fluids by Fe-oxides and organic particles (Dulski, 1997). Consequently, seawater preserves super-
 362 chondritic Y/Ho values (>28), whereas crustal fluids have chondritic ones (<28) (Smrzka et al., 2019).
 363 It has been suggested that modern seawater displays substantially higher Y/Ho ratio (60–90) than
 364 terrestrial water (26) (Lawrence et al., 2006). Studies on the South East Queensland Waterways

365 suggested that water with high salinity (3.7%–4.1%) typically have the highest Y/Ho ratios (32–39)
 366 (Lawrence et al., 2006), and the Y overabundance is likely due to addition of seawater with a Y/Ho
 367 ratio of 55 (Snidvongs, 2000). For our dolomite nodule concerned here, increased Y/Ho values from
 368 27.46 in shale to 33.34 in the core of nodule (**Table 1, Fig. 7**), indicate a freshwater-dominated source
 369 and an interference of seawater to depositional environment. Notably, although more Ho would be
 370 released during the reduction of Fe-Mn oxides, while leading to a decreased Y/Ho of anoxic
 371 manganous/ferruginous water (Dulski, 1997), the dolomite here still shows a positive Y anomaly, which
 372 indicates an even higher Y/Ho value of bottom lake water during dolomite formation.

373 4.2.3 Positive Ce and Eu anomalies

374 Throughout the whole nodule section, the positive Ce anomaly is rather subtle in dolomite (**Fig. 7**). The
 375 weak positive Ce anomalies in carbonates is a result of excessive Ce captured from water column, which
 376 was released from Fe-Mn oxides dissolution under suboxic water conditions (Bau and Möller, 1992).
 377 Apart from oxygen fugacity, relative Ce abundances in fresh water are found to depend on pH (Pourret
 378 et al., 2010), dissolved organic carbon concentration (Dia et al., 2000), Fe and Mn oxidative scavenging
 379 and surface complexation (Carlo et al., 1997), and the mobility during continent-sourced weathering
 380 (Patino et al., 2003), among which pH plays the most dominating role. Intensive negative Ce anomalies
 381 usually occur at high pH condition, but disappear at low pH condition (Bau and Möller, 1992; Lawrence
 382 et al., 2006). Combined with the MREE-enrichment feature, the weak positive Ce anomaly here may
 383 be contributed to suboxic near-surface porewater condition.

384 Eu anomaly displays an increasingly positive inclination with sedimentation, especially in the core of
 385 dolomite nodule (**Fig. 7**). After excluding the contribution of hydrothermal fluids as the most common
 386 factor related with positive Eu anomaly (Hecht et al., 1999; Jiang et al., 2021; Rieger et al., 2021; Yang
 387 et al., 2021), substitution of Ca^{2+} and entering the carbonate lattice in reduced environment is another
 388 possible reason (Bau and Möller, 1992). In terrestrial waters, pronounced Eu enrichment in dissolved
 389 loads may be ascribed to enhanced dissolution from suspended particles and higher stability in salty
 390 solution (Goldstein and Jacobsen, 1988). Lake environment was indeed a complex system, where local
 391 aquifer commonly interacts with freshwater, hydrothermal fluids and intruded seawater (Bwire
 392 Ojiambo et al., 2003). In this view, the slight positive Eu anomalies here may be attributed to elevated
 393 salinity level due to seawater intrusions and substitution of Ca^{2+} .

394 4.3 Seawater geochemical characteristics archived in dolomite nodule

395 Before extracting geochemical signals from the lacustrine dolomite, mineral contamination (*e.g.*,
 396 terrestrial detritus, Fe-Mn oxides, and sulfides) needs to be critically assessed by plotting correlation
 397 diagrams between Y/Ho ratios and representative trace elements (*e.g.*, Th, Ni, Sc) that are preferably
 398 incorporated into these interfering mineral phases (Zhao, 2016). The Y/Ho ratios of dolomite show no
 399 dependency on Th, Ni and Sc (**Fig. 10**), further indicating the negligible contaminations.

400

401 **Fig. 10.** Relationships between Y/Ho and (a) Th, (b) Ni and (c) Sc for different petrographic phases.

402

403 4.3.1 Evidence from REE+Y

404 REE+Y inventories archived in lacustrine dolomite could be used to distinguish possible marine
 405 contribution from lacustrine system (Bolhar and Kranendonk, 2007; Ha et al., 2021). Different from
 406 terrigenous fresh water with flat REE+Y profile and low Y/Ho ratio, seawater normally exhibits light
 407 REE (LREE)-depleted REE+Y profile and high Y/Ho ratio (>45), which appear remarkably coherent
 408 throughout time as fingerprints of seawater (Bolhar and Kranendonk, 2007; Lawrence et al., 2006;

409 Sasmaz et al., 2021). Values of $(\text{Nd}/\text{Yb})_{\text{SN}}$, $(\text{Nd}/\text{Er})_{\text{SN}}$ and $(\text{Sm}/\text{Er})_{\text{SN}}$ represent the ratios of LREE/HREE,
 410 LREE/MREE, and MREE/HREE, respectively, which corporately define the REE+Y pattern. The
 411 Y/Ho ratio is believed to be positively related with seawater contribution (Bolhar and Kranendonk,
 412 2007; Ha et al., 2021). Then, the relationships of Y/Ho with $(\text{Nd}/\text{Yb})_{\text{SN}}$, $(\text{Nd}/\text{Er})_{\text{SN}}$ and $(\text{Sm}/\text{Er})_{\text{SN}}$ of
 413 carbonates could be used to quantify the mixing of marine and terrestrial waters (Zhao and Zheng,
 414 2016). With the assumption that seawater-sourced REE patterns have remained almost unchanged
 415 throughout the Phanerozoic Era (Shields and Webb, 2004), Carboniferous-Permian seawater and
 416 freshwater (Zhao, 2016) are referred here as two end members. As shown in **Fig. 11**, this dolomite
 417 displays predominant fresh-water-sourced REE+Y signals with slight seawater interference.

418
 419 **Fig. 11.** Relationships between Y/Ho and (a) $(\text{Nd}/\text{Yb})_{\text{SN}}$, (b) $(\text{Nd}/\text{Er})_{\text{SN}}$, (c) $(\text{Sm}/\text{Er})_{\text{SN}}$ based on LA-
 420 ICP-MS results for dolostone nodule. Data obtained from solution ICP-MS are marked with yellow
 421 triangles. Cretaceous-Permian seawater (purple diamond) and freshwater (blue diamond) are two end
 422 members (Zhao, 2016). Mixtures with 1%, 5% and 20% proportions of fresh water are labeled with
 423 white cycles.

424

425 4.3.2 Evidence from strontium isotope

426 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$, as one of the most stable isotopes on earth, has been widely used as an effective indicator to
 427 infer the nature of dolomitizing fluids or even constrain the time of formation. Throughout the
 428 geological time, Sr isotope has been severely fractionized between crust (0.7205) (Faure, 1978) and
 429 mantle fluid (0.7035) (Palmer and Elderfield, 1985). Since the residence time of strontium in seawater
 430 (10^6 year) is several orders of magnitude greater than the mixing time (10^3 year) of seawater, it is
 431 hypothesized that ocean has a homogeneous Sr isotopic value throughout the geologic time, from which
 432 a strontium isotope stratigraphy can be built (Stein et al., 2000; Bosio et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020).
 433 The radiogenic Sr isotope compositions of seawater and marine carbonates are rather homogeneous
 434 (Fantle et al., 2020). As diagenetic alteration and dissolution of bulk carbonates merely make their
 435 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values 0.0001–0.0002 lower than that of seawater (Chanda and Fantle, 2017), the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$
 436 values of carbonates are mainly dominated by input fluxes of radiogenic Sr (McArthur et al., 2012).
 437 Due to the influences of terrestrial and mantle-sourced hydrothermal inputs, Sr isotopic composition of
 438 seawater varies dramatically throughout the geological time, but still lies between the compositions of
 439 river water (0.7120) (Palmer and Edmond, 1989) and the mantle-sourced hydrothermal fluid (0.7035).

440 A mixing of terrestrial Sr during lacustrine carbonate sedimentation might severely increase Sr isotope
 441 from the original lake water value (Jacobsen and Kaufman, 1999). The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values of lacustrine
 442 carbonates are typically higher than the contemporaneous seawater due to riverine input from the
 443 continents, including the Late Triassic Yanchang Formation in the Ordos Basin (0.711222–0.711594)
 444 (Zhu et al., 2020), the Early Cretaceous Xiagou Formation in the Jiuquan Basin (0.71225–0.71781)
 445 (Wen et al., 2009), the Paleogene Shahejie Formation in the Bohai Bay Basin (0.7086–0.7108) (Yang,
 446 2014) and the Late Cretaceous Nenjiang Formation in the Songliao Basin (0.70780 ± 0.0005) (Liu and
 447 Wang, 1997) (**Fig. 12**). However, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values of some lacustrine carbonates would be severely
 448 decreased (lower than the seawater) due to contribution of mantle-sourced hydrothermal fluid, such as
 449 the Middle Permian Lucaogou Formation in the Santanghu Basin (0.704618–0.705254) (Jiao, 2017)
 450 and Junggar Basin (0.705687) (Zhang et al., 2020) (**Fig. 12**).

451

452 **Fig. 12.** Strontium isotopic data of dolomite nodule in this study (cycles) and previously reported
 453 lacustrine dolomites (squares), seawater (blue line; Mearon et al., 2003), crust (orange line; Faure, 1978)

454 and mantle (red line; Palmer and Elderfield, 1985). Permian dolomites in the Junggar Basin and
 455 Santanghu Basin are referred from Jiao (2017) and Zhang et al. (2020), respectively. Triassic dolomite
 456 in the Ordos Basin is referred from Zhu et al. (2020). Cretaceous dolomite in the Jiuquan Basin is
 457 referred from Wen et al. (2009). Cretaceous dolomite in the Songliao Basin is referred from Liu and
 458 Wang (1997). Paleogene dolomite in the Bohai Bay Basin is referred from Yang (2014).

459

460 The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values within the dolomite nodule (points 1-6) remained at 0.7076005–0.7079870, being
 461 close to the contemporaneous seawater (0.7074) (Bwire Ojiambo et al., 2003), whereas far less than the
 462 underlying black shale (point 7 with $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}=0.709972$). Compared with other Cenozoic-Mesozoic
 463 lacustrine dolomites formed in fresh lake water with low salinity ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}>0.710$), the relatively low
 464 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value here may be attributed to the contribution of seawater. Sr content in seawater is three
 465 orders of magnitude higher than that of terrestrial water (Koepnick et al., 1985), and a small proportion
 466 (<10%) of seawater addition would severely decrease the Sr isotope composition of lake water. Though
 467 the mantle-sourced hydrothermal fluid with an extremely low $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value (0.7035) may play an
 468 alternative role, the possibility has already been ruled out as discussed before. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values of a
 469 typical mantle-hydrothermal originated dolomite, *e.g.*, Lucaogou Formation are 0.704618–0.705687,
 470 lower than our results. In this view, seawater intrusion is more likely to be the reason for low Sr isotopic
 471 values. Evidence supporting seawater intrusion event in the Songliao Basin during Late Cretaceous has
 472 been widely reported, especially for Nenjiang Formation, of which the dolomite nodule shared the
 473 similar Sr isotope (0.70780 ± 0.0005) (Liu and Wang, 1997) with ours.

474 By assuming a constant rate of seawater reflux into the Songliao Basin and a rapid mixing with the
 475 resident lake water, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio of the brine mixture is sensitive to seawater proportion. Then the
 476 seawater addition can be quantified as following (Stein et al., 2000):

$$477 \left(\frac{^{87}\text{Sr}}{^{86}\text{Sr}}\right)_{lw} = \frac{\left(\frac{^{87}\text{Sr}}{^{86}\text{Sr}}\right)_{sw} \times Sr_{sw} \times f_{sw} + \left(\frac{^{87}\text{Sr}}{^{86}\text{Sr}}\right)_{tw} \times Sr_{tw} \times (1 - f_{sw})}{Sr_{sw} \times f_{sw} + Sr_{tw} \times (1 - f_{sw})} \quad (4)$$

478 where subscript *lw*, *sw* and *tw* denote the mixed lake water, seawater and local terrestrial water,
 479 respectively. $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_{lw}$, $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_{sw}$ and $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_{tw}$ are Sr isotopes; Sr_{sw} and Sr_{tw} are Sr
 480 concentrations in moles; f_{sw} and $(1-f_{sw})$ are the fractions of seawater and terrestrial water, respectively.
 481 The values of various coefficients in Eq. (4) were obtained as: $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_{sw}=0.70742$ at 90 Ma from
 482 (Mearon et al., 2003); $(^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr})_{tw}=0.7119$ is from modern river (Palmer and Edmond, 1989);
 483 $Sr_{sw}=0.097$ mmol/L is from modern seawater (Koepnick et al., 1985); $Sr_{tw}=0.001$ mmol/L is from
 484 modern river (Livingstone, 1964). As shown in **Fig. 13**, the contribution of seawater was negligible
 485 (0.78%) during black shale sedimentation, whereas become intensive (6.7%) at transitional zone, and
 486 surged to 16.4%–19.7% within dolomite, possibly indicating a gradually enhanced seawater intrusion
 487 event. The outer space of dolomite nodule had went through more influential seawater alternation than
 488 core area.

489

490 **Fig. 13.** Dependency of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ on seawater addition, superimposed with modern river (Palmer et al.,
 491 1989), shale and dolomite samples here in this study. Seawater addition shows an increasing trend from
 492 core to outer space in dolostone.

493

494 4.4 Implications on the seawater intrusion in the Songliao Basin

495 Increasing evidence proves that dolomite can generate with microbial mediations, including sulfate
 496 reduction (Vasconcelos and McKenzie, 1997), anaerobic methane-consuming (Hinrichs et al., 1999),
 497 methanogenic model (Roberts et al., 2004; Sun et al., 2020) and aerobic oxidation (Sánchez-Román et
 498 al., 2008). Dolostones in the Qingshankou Formation as thin layers and nodules (**Fig. 14**) take up no
 499 more than 5% of the total thickness. They are different from those evaporation-originated massive
 500 dolostone bodies with hundreds of meters in thickness and hundreds of kilometers in lateral extent in
 501 Paleozoic and Precambrian sedimentary successions (Chang et al., 2020). The Late Cretaceous period
 502 has been characterized with notable oceanic anoxic events (OAEs), which were closely linked to the
 503 reorganization of ocean circulation patterns, while potentially enhanced by widespread rifting and
 504 volcanism (Cao et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2018). However, it is still unclear whether the global marine
 505 events have teleconnections to the terrestrial realm through either atmospheric process or seawater
 506 intrusion into continental margin basins. Insofar as ridge volume provides a first order control on
 507 eustatic sea level, it is plausible that the lacustrine Songliao Basin was episodically flooded in response
 508 to global tectonic activity during the Cretaceous Period (Cao et al., 2016). Here, based on the Y/Ho
 509 values and Sr isotope compositions of a dolomite nodule, the connection between the dolomitization
 510 and seawater interference is established, which provides new petrological evidence supporting seawater
 511 intrusion events in the Songliao Basin. These events may have contributed to changes in lake water
 512 chemistry and redox condition of bottom lake, and therefore organic carbon burial. The rhythmic
 513 occurrence of dolomite may be compared with TOC cycles (Huang et al., 2021), and therefore helpful
 514 for unconventional petroleum (e.g., shale oil) exploitation.

515

516 **Fig. 14.** Laminar (a) and nodular (b) dolostones of Qingshankou Formation in outcrop.

517

518 In this view, we propose that the dolostone embedded in the basal black shale of Qingshankou
 519 Formation might be attributed to the increasing salinity and varied water redox condition that associated
 520 with seawater intrusion (**Fig. 15**). Before seawater intrusion, the Songliao Basin was supposed to be a
 521 stagnant pool of anoxic bottom-water with “biogenic meromixis” prompted water column stratification
 522 (Boehrer and Schultze, 2008), being conducive to mass sedimentation of TOC-rich black shale (Jones
 523 et al., 2018) (**Fig. 15a**). The stagnant bottom water was interrupted by episodic seawater flooding, which
 524 swept over the land blocking lake and sea, while bringing mass terrigenous detritus and water with high
 525 salinity (e.g., Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , SO_4^{2-} , FeOOH , $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$) into the lake as dolomitization reactants. Organic
 526 matter was degraded via the activated methanogenesis and sulfate reduction (Bernier, 1984; Fredrickson
 527 et al., 2000) (which will be confirmed by further measurements on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values), while giving
 528 rise to dolomite precipitation and a possible lacustrine oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) (**Fig. 15b**). As
 529 methanogenesis gradually took over sulfate reduction, excessive Fe^{2+} could no longer be captured by
 530 limited H_2S products, thereby entered dolomite lattice as ankerite crystals (Fe-dolomite). After seawater
 531 intrusion, the subsequent water stratification from dissolved biochemical products might probably
 532 inhibit lake overturning and oxygenation of bottom-waters, and resulted in an extremely reducing
 533 environment again, which facilitated the sedimentation of black shales (**Fig. 15c**).

534

535 **Fig. 15.** Schematic diagrams of the scenario before (a), during (b) and after (c) seawater intrusion in
 536 the Songliao Basin.

537

538 **5. Conclusion**

539 Lacustrine dolostone embedded in black shales bears great scientific significance upon its genesis, of
 540 which the geochemical analyses, including elemental and isotopic investigation have been widely
 541 conducted. Based on *in-situ* microscopic observation and elemental characterization with high
 542 resolution, a lacustrine dolomite nodule from the Qingshankou Formation in the Songliao Basin has
 543 been confirmed with a penecontemporaneous origin. After excluding potential terrigenous
 544 contamination, the lake water sourced REE+Y patterns of dolomite are featured by middle REE
 545 enrichment, low Y/Ho and inconspicuous positive Ce, Eu anomalies. The values of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ within the
 546 dolomite nodule (0.7076–0.7080) are slightly higher than the contemporaneous seawater (0.7074),
 547 whereas far negative than the host black shale (0.7100). Compared with other Cenozoic-Mesozoic
 548 lacustrine dolomites formed in fresh lake water ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}>0.7120$), the low Sr isotopes may be attributed
 549 to a mixing of seawater with a percentage of no more than 20%. It is supposed that dolostones from the
 550 Qingshankou Formation could be a novel mineralogical indicator supporting episodic seawater
 551 intrusion events in the Songliao Basin, which supplemented other paleontological and geochemical
 552 evidence.

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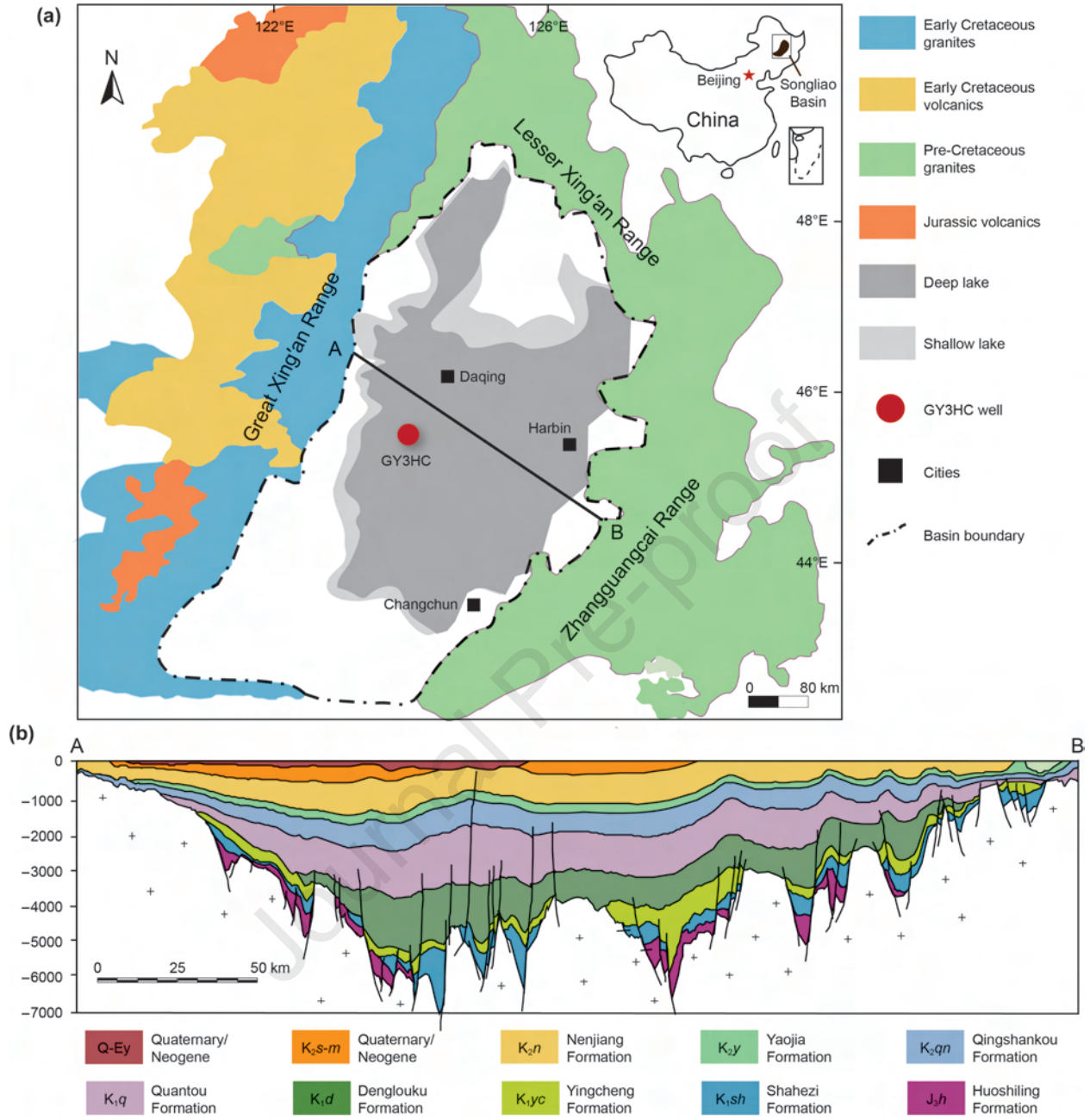
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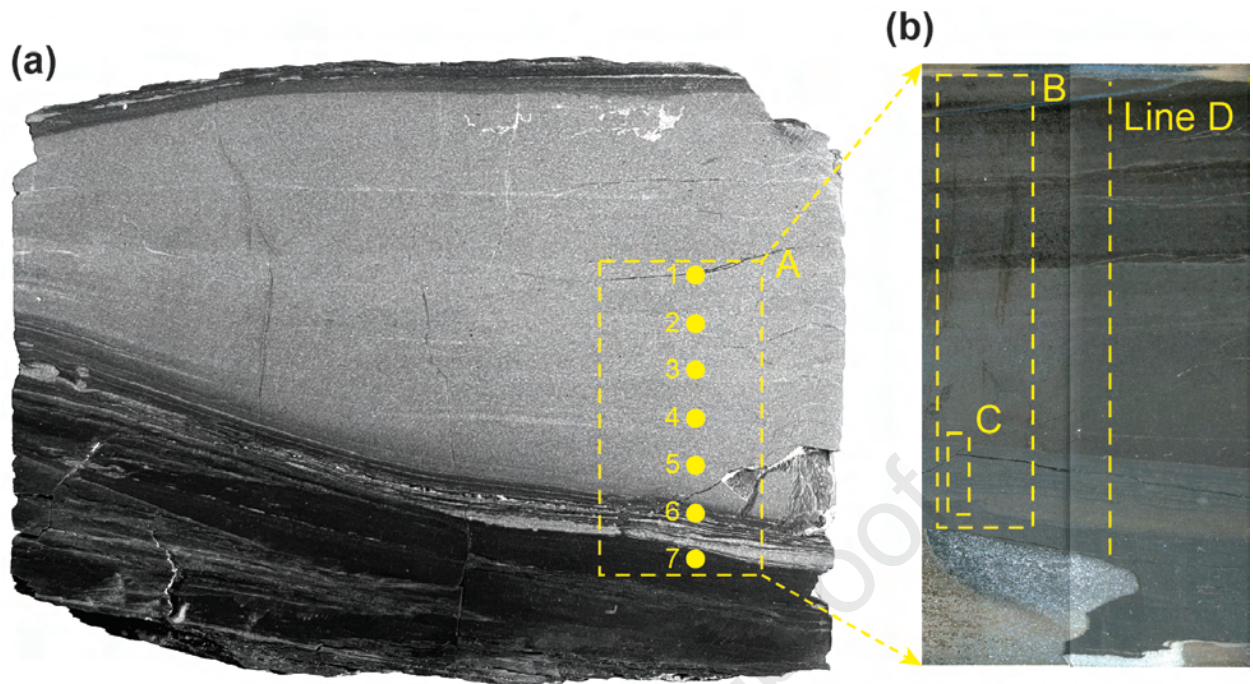
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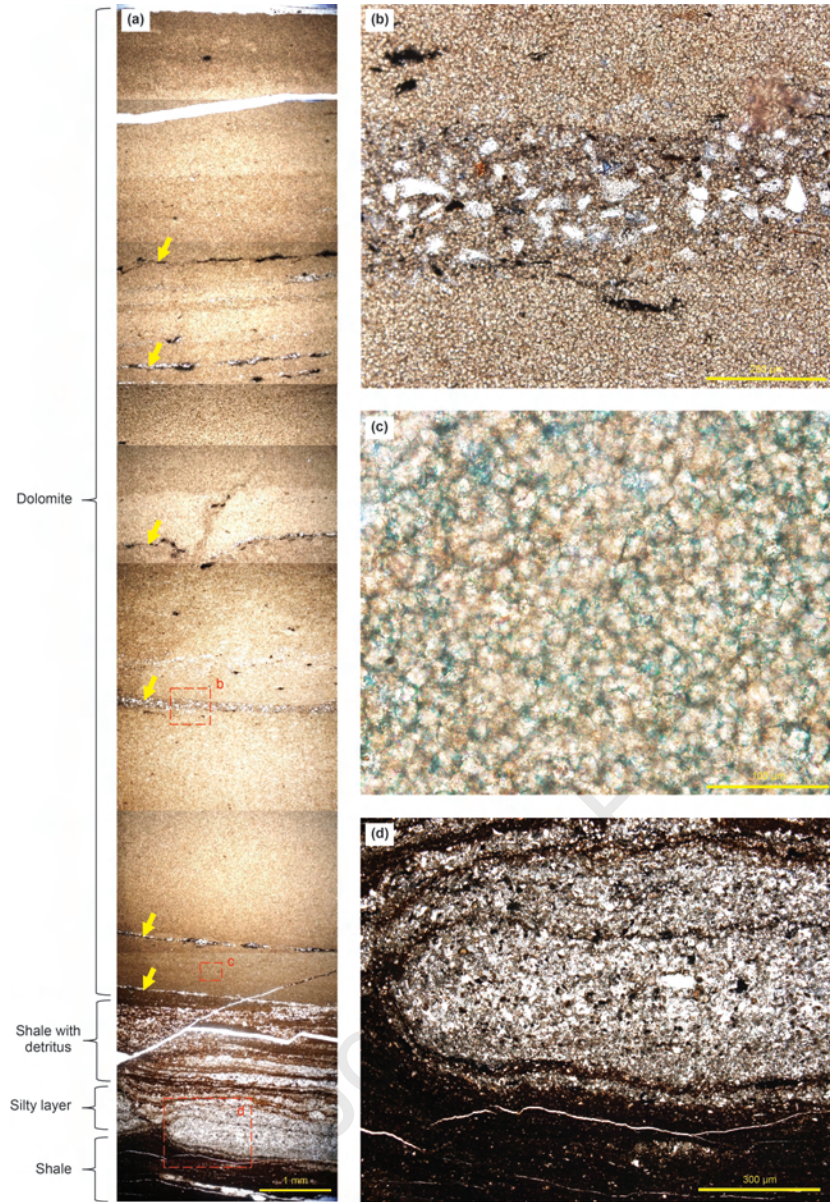
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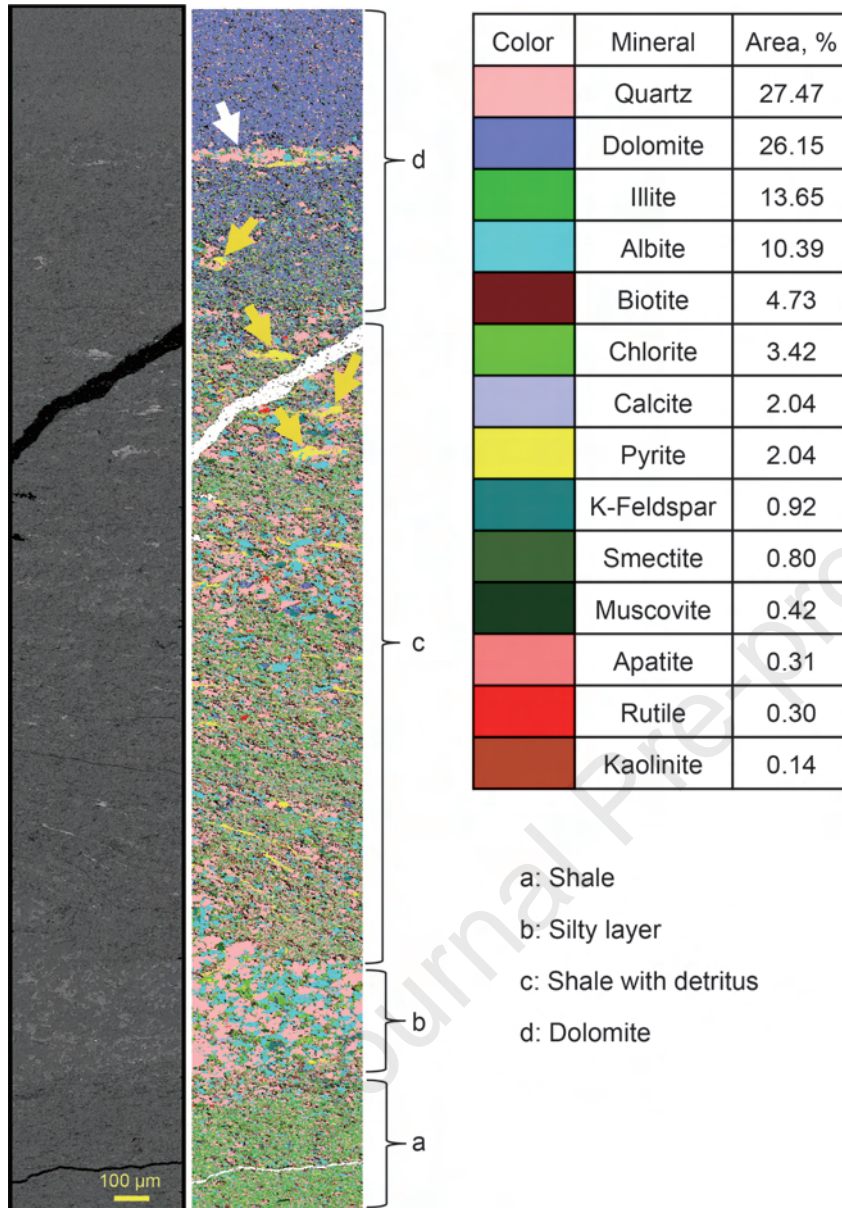
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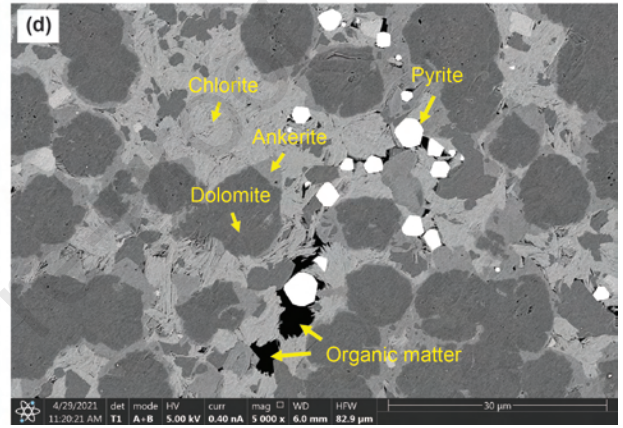
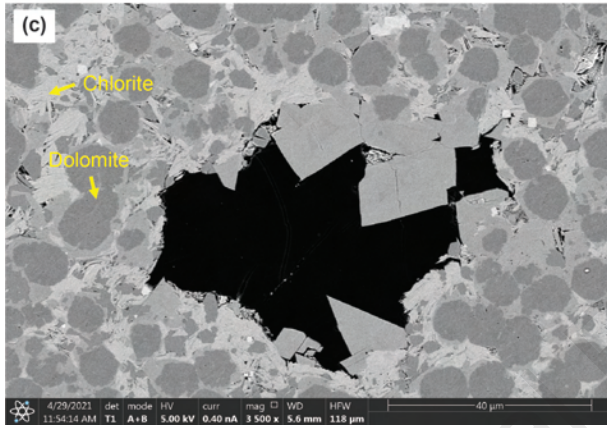
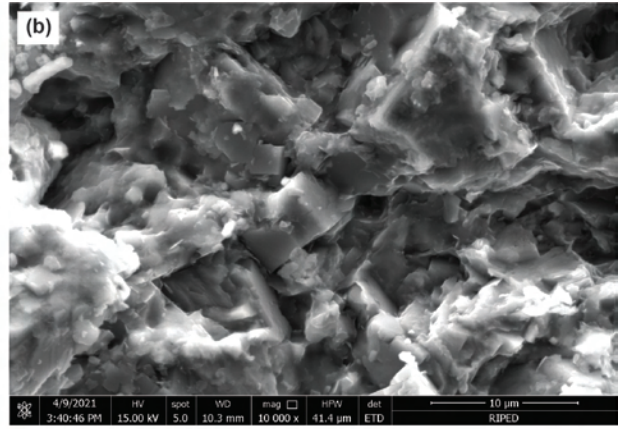
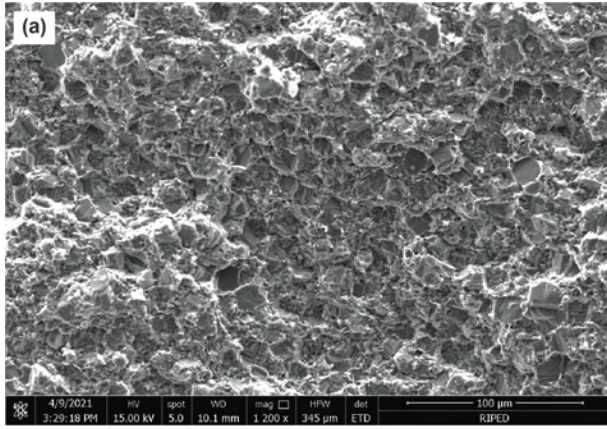
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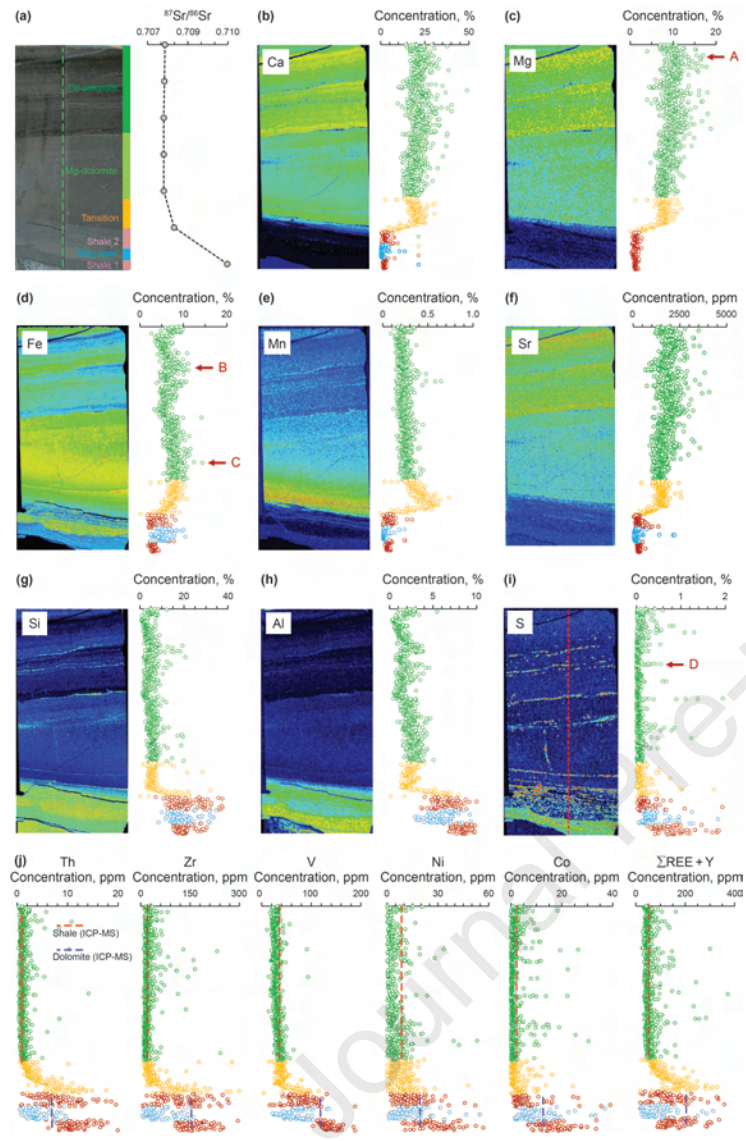


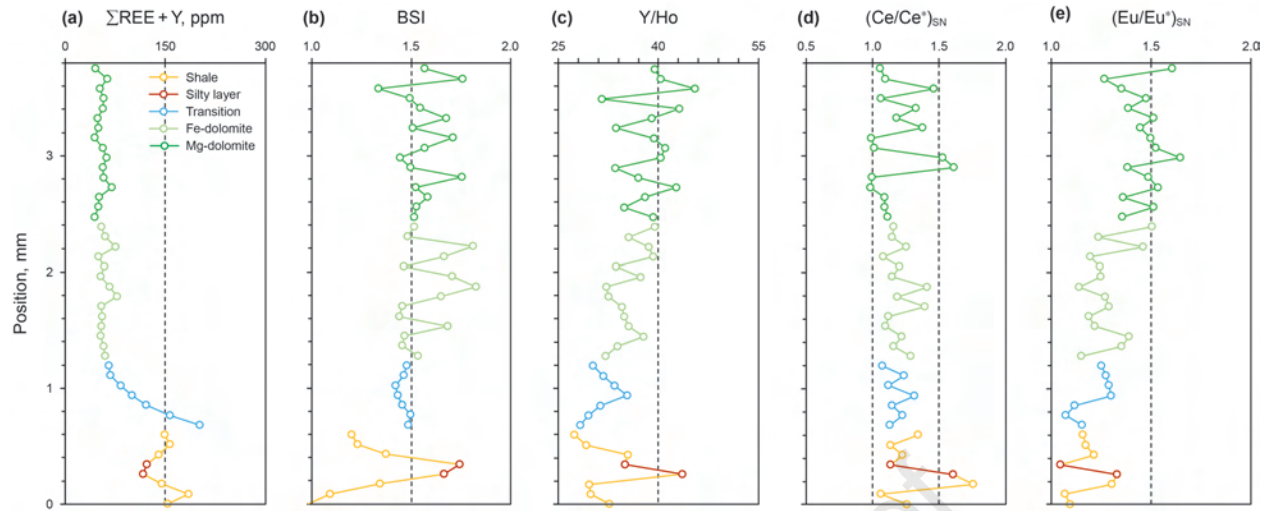


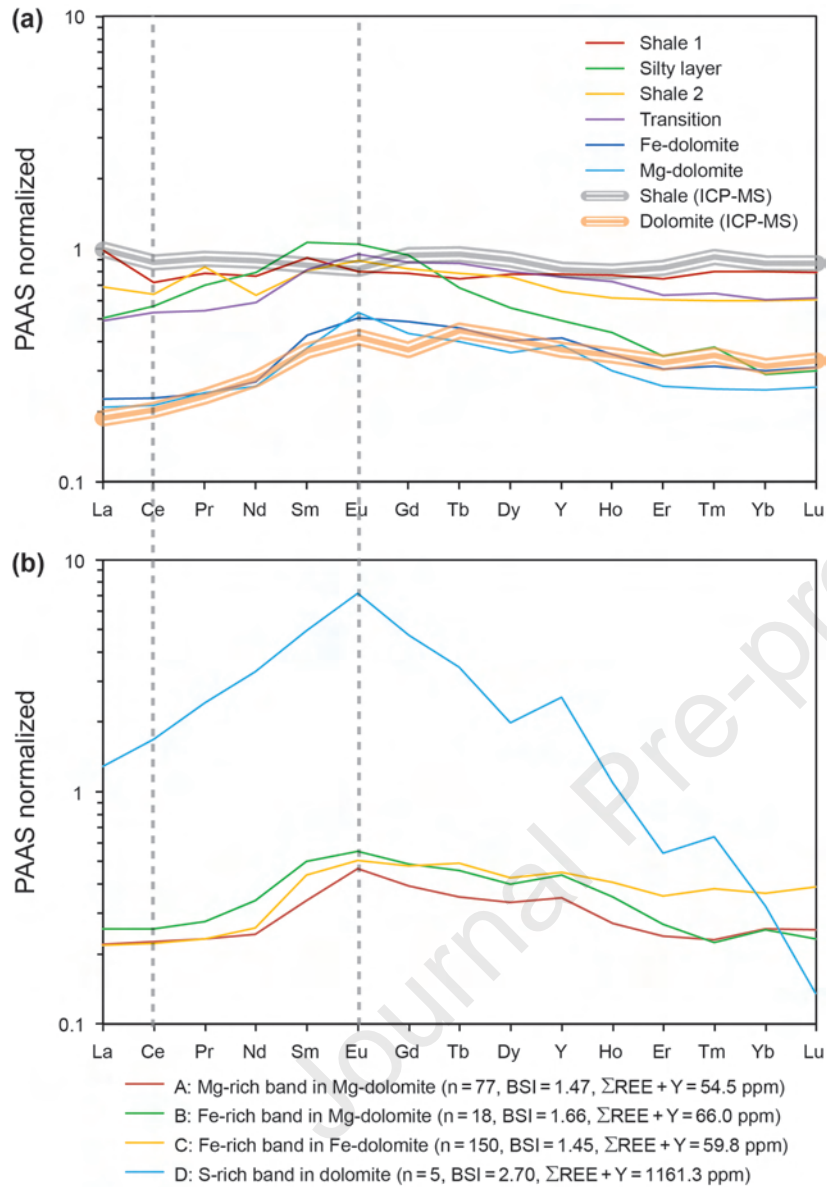


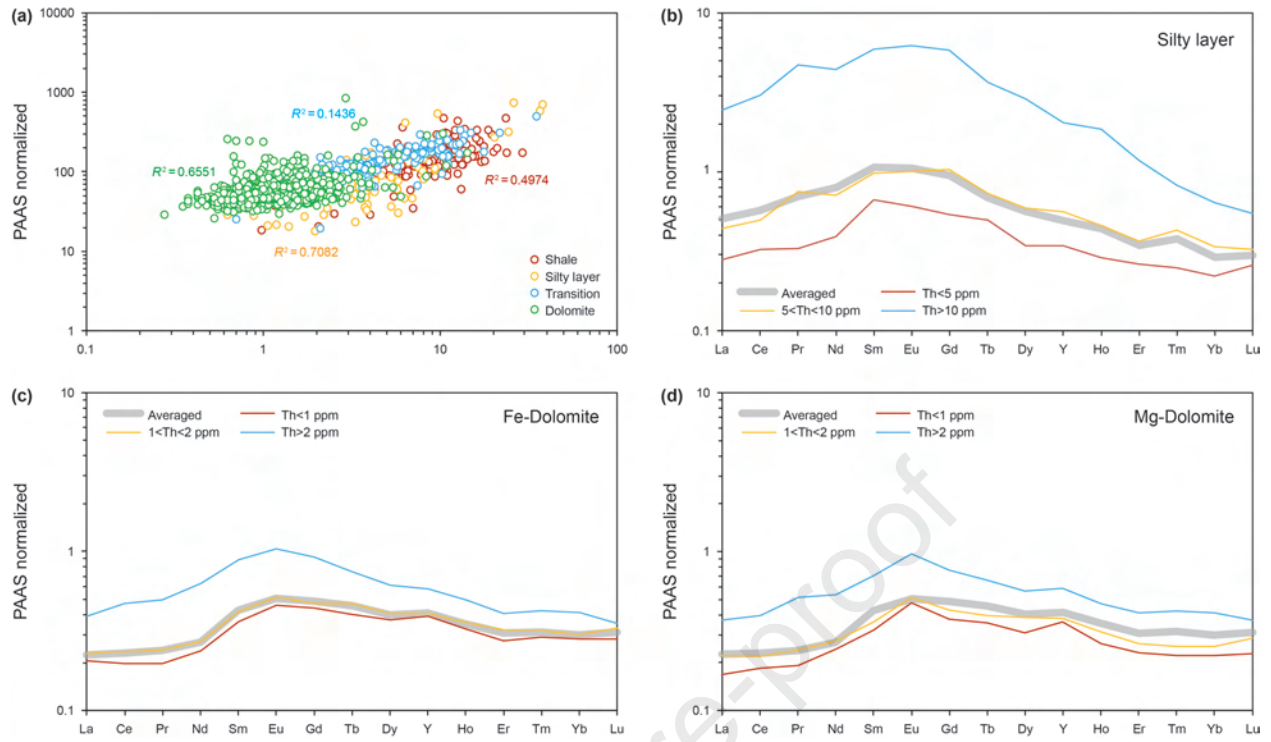


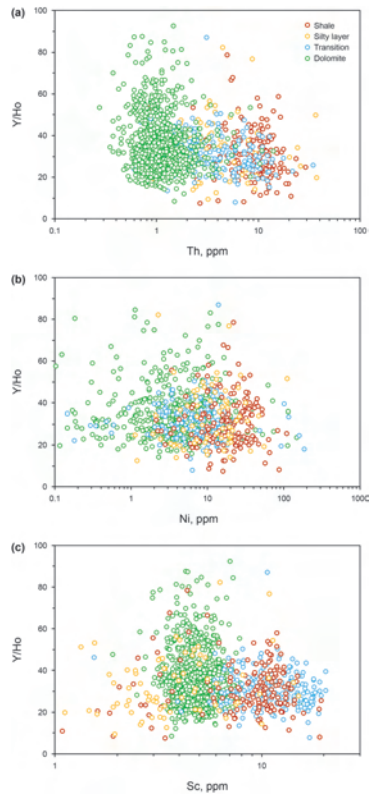
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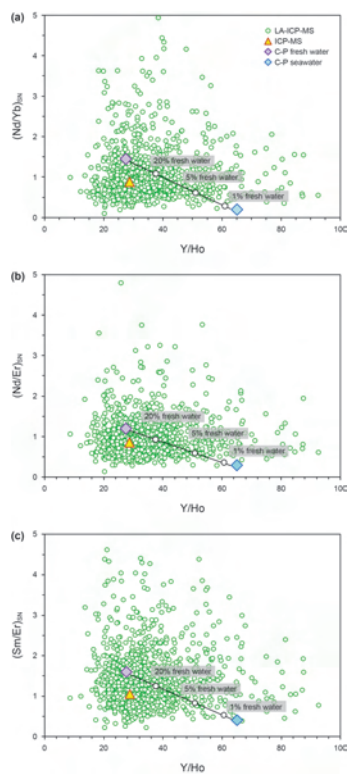


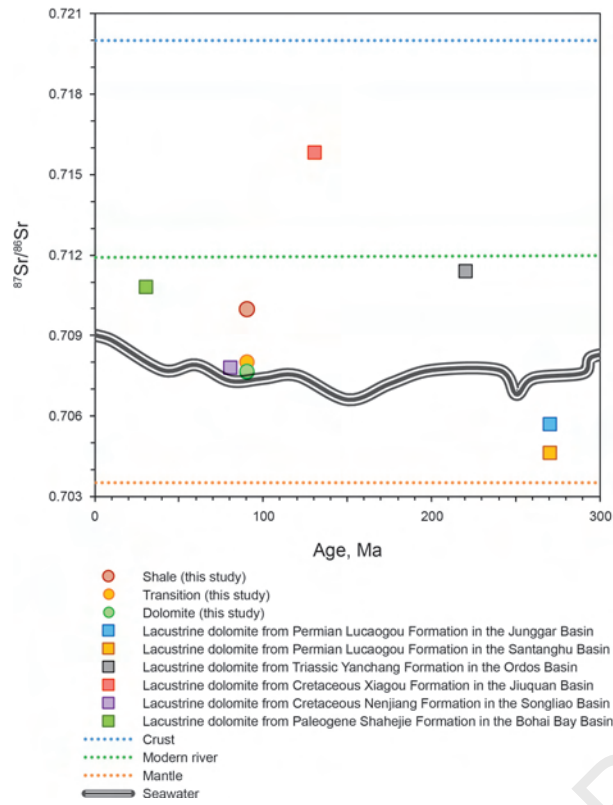


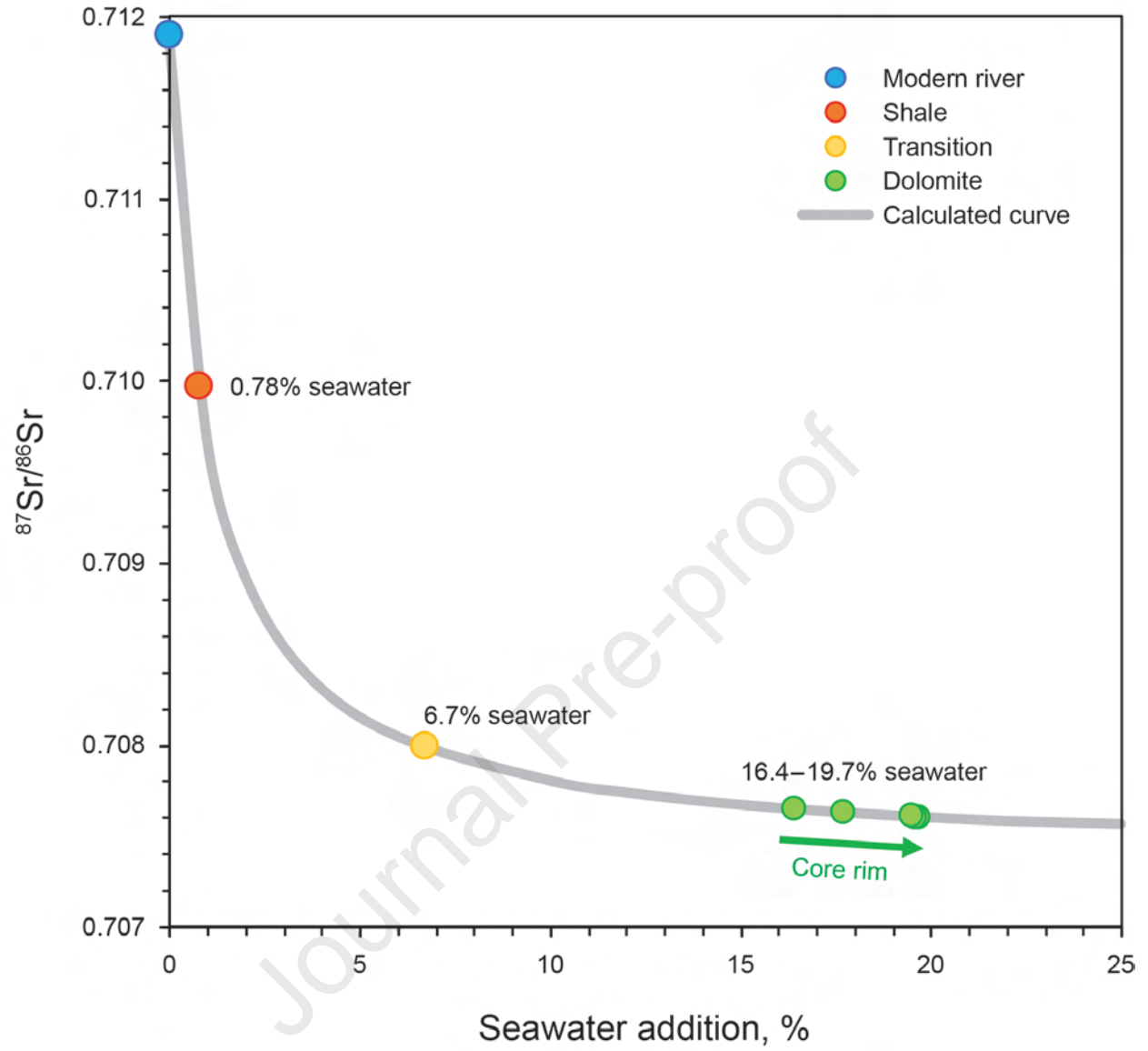


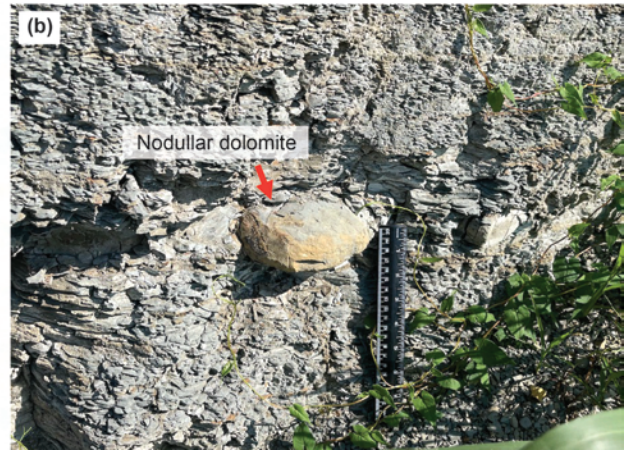
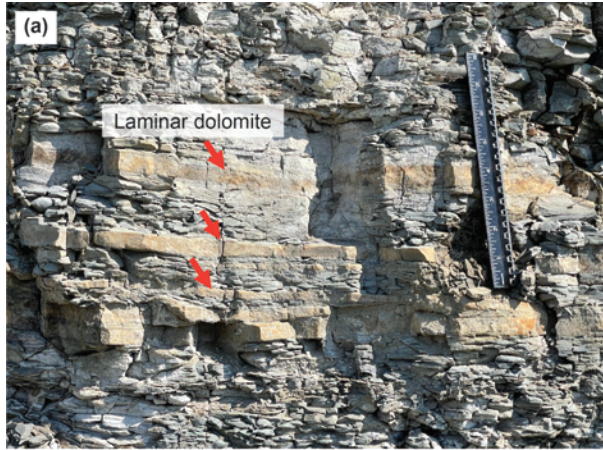






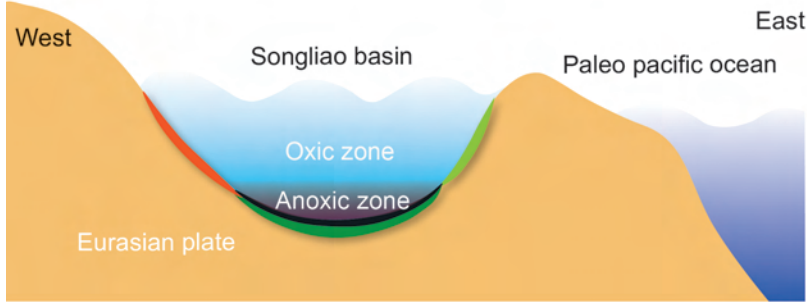




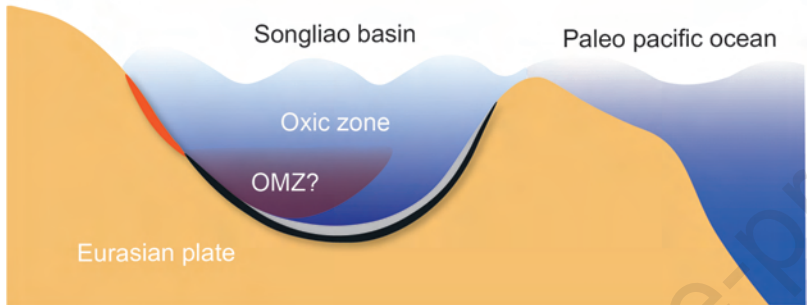


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(a) Before seawater intrusion



(b) During seawater intrusion



(c) After seawater intrusion

