

26 indicates a prominent role for sulfate-reducing bacteria in the post-mortem decay of organic
27 materials within the tubes, and abundant chert along the tube's inner margins further indicates the
28 propensity of silica to precipitate on relatively recalcitrant organic structures. While the newly
29 discovered population shares features in common with *Sabellidites cambriensis*, known from
30 Terreneuvian strata in northern Europe and Avalonia, the Iranian fossils do not preserve the
31 transverse annulations characteristic of *Sabellidites* walls. With this in mind, we leave our new
32 population in open nomenclature. Nonetheless, the occurrence of abundant organic-walled tubes
33 in the USM of the Soltanieh Formation adds to both the diversity of animal fossils found regionally
34 in Terreneuvian rocks and the broader paleogeographic distribution of tubular metazoans in early
35 Cambrian oceans.

36 **Keywords:** Tubular macrofossils, Fortunian; Upper Shale Member; Soltanieh Formation;
37 Soltanieh Mountains; Gondwana

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Fossils document the tempo, mode, and environmental context of animal evolution in Cambrian
41 oceans. Mineralized skeletons (Maloof et al., 2010), unmineralized organic remains (Briggs,
42 2015), and trace fossils (Mángano and Buatois, 2020) record distinct aspects of Cambrian
43 diversification, requiring that paleontologists draw on all three to build an integrated account of
44 early animal evolution. This, in turn, necessitates the analysis of stratigraphic relationships in
45 successions that preserve multiple types of records, along with chemostratigraphic data, especially
46 carbon and strontium isotopes, that facilitate correlation (e.g., Bowyer et al., 2022; Maloof et al.,

47 2010; Wood et al., 2019). Although straightforward in principle, the task is complicated by both
48 the distinct environmental preferences of different taxa and taphonomic circumstances.

49 Here we focus on the thick, mixed carbonate-siliciclastic succession of the Soltanieh Formation,
50 exposed in the Soltanieh Mountains of northwestern Iran. Small shelly fossils (SSFs; Hamdi et al.,
51 1989; Devaere et al., 2021), trace fossils (Shahkarami et al., 2017a, 2017b; Famarini Bozchamouei
52 et al., 2020), and isotopic chemostratigraphy (Etemad-Saeed et al., 2021) have previously been
53 described from sections within this basin. To this increasing record, we add the occurrence of
54 unmineralized tubular macrofossils, broadly similar to macroscopic tubes found widely in lower
55 Cambrian rocks.

56

57 **2. Geological setting**

58 The Soltanieh Mountains of northern Iran contain a thick and well-preserved succession of
59 Ediacaran-Cambrian sedimentary rocks, deposited along the western margin of Gondwana (papers
60 cited in Etemad-Saeed et al., 2021). The lower part of the succession, dominated by siliciclastic
61 rocks, is up to 1100 m thick; the contact with underlying bedrock is not exposed (e.g., Honarmand
62 et al., 2016; Etemad-Saeed et al., 2021). Designated as the Kahar Formation, this lower package
63 is generally ascribed to the late Ediacaran Period, an interpretation supported by ca. 550 Ma detrital
64 zircons mid-succession (Honarmand et al., 2016). Kahar rocks are conformably overlain by a ca.
65 1000 m mixed siliciclastic-carbonate succession, the Soltanieh Formation. This formation, which
66 is the focus of this study, contains unambiguous early Cambrian body and trace fossils, but as
67 discussed further below, the precise placement of the Ediacaran-Cambrian boundary within the
68 formation remains a topic of debate.

69 Previous interpretations of Kahar and Soltanieh paleoenvironments suggest a fluvial to siliciclastic
70 tidal environment that changes upward into peritidal carbonates interbedded with deeper water
71 siliciclastic-dominated shelf deposits (Etemad-Saeed et al., 2021; Shahkarami et al., 2017a).

72 Northeast of Jashn Sara village, 23 km southwest of the city of Zanjan in northwestern Iran (36°
73 36' 9.60" N, 48° 14' 47.87" E; Fig. 1A), the Kahar and Soltanieh formations are exposed in the
74 Jashn Sara Section. Here, the Kahar Formation consists mainly of ~400 m of green to grey
75 mudrock and sandstone, with subordinate intercalations of dark gray stromatolitic dolomite (Fig.
76 1B). Kahar strata are conformably overlain by ca. 1100 m of mixed carbonate-siliciclastic strata
77 assigned to the Soltanieh Formation (Fig. 1B). At Jashn Sara, Soltanieh strata are conformably
78 overlain by the upper Terreneuvian (Stage 2) Barut Formation, characterized by the regular
79 alteration of purple/red mudrocks and grey stromatolitic dolomite. The contact is gradational and
80 placed arbitrarily at the base of the first colored (mainly purple) shale intercalation (Stöcklin et al.,
81 1965).

82 At Jashn Sara, the Soltanieh Formation consists of five members: the Lower Dolomite Member
83 (LDM), Lower Shale Member (LSM), Middle Dolomite Member (MDM), Upper Shale Member
84 (USM), and Upper Dolomite Member (UDM), ranging in age from latest Ediacaran to Cambrian
85 Stage 2, based on SSFs, trace fossil evidence and regional chemostratigraphy (Etemad-Saeed et
86 al., 2021; Famarini Bozchalouei et al., 2020; Hamdi et al., 1989). The LDM comprises ~70 m of
87 dark stromatolite-bearing dolomites, whereas the overlying LSM contains ~198 m of greenish-
88 gray, paper-to-platy shale, representing a regional highstand. In turn, the ~75 m thick MDM
89 consists predominantly of gray to brown, well-bedded to massive dolomites. The USM, which
90 hosts the tubular fossils described in this study in its lowermost part, comprises an approximately
91 77 m succession of grey to light-yellowish papery to fissile shales without evidence of cross beds

92 or ripples, again representing relatively quiet off-shore environments deposited at a highstand
93 (Figs. 1B, 2A–C). These basinal mudrocks shallow upward to alternating
94 shales/sandstones/phosphatic dolomites towards the top of the USM. Finally, the overlying UDM
95 contains ~690 m of buff-colored to brown, medium-bedded to massive stromatolitic dolomite,
96 interbedded with mixed greenish-gray mudrock and thinly stratified, fine-grained sandstone (Figs.
97 1B, 2D).

98

99 **2.1 Age of Soltanieh Formation**

100 Hamdi et al. (1989) first reported SSFs from the Soltanieh Formation, placing the base of the
101 Cambrian within the LSM based on the first appearances of *Hyolithellus* sp., *Rugatotheca* sp.,
102 *Protohertzina* sp., and an unnamed fossil interpreted as a monoplacophoran. More diverse
103 Fortunian fossils, including *Anabarites trisulcatus*, *Cambrotubulus decurvatus*, and *Protohertzina*
104 *anabarica*, occur within the MDM and basal USM (see also Ciabeghods, 2007). In more recent
105 research, Devaere et al. (2021), corroborated the conclusions of Hamdi et al. (1989) and further
106 proposed that the transition from the Fortunian to Cambrian Stage 2 is most probably located in
107 the lower part of the USM as described in the Central Alborz locality, based on the highest
108 occurrence of Fortunian taxa, including *Maikhanella multa* and *Purella squamulose*.

109 In contrast, trace fossil assemblages have been used to place the base of the Cambrian at the base
110 or within the LDM (Shahkarami et al., 2017a, 2017b) due to the first appearances of
111 *Helminthoidichnites tenuis*, *Helminthopsis tenuis*, and *Cochlichnus anguineus*, interpreted as a
112 distal expression of the *Treptichnus pedum* zone in light of the SSF data noted above. They also
113 placed the base of Cambrian Stage 2 in the UDM, noting a marked change in the abundance and

114 complexity of trace fossils. Famarini Bozchalouei et al. (2020), however, maintain that the
115 Ediacaran-Cambrian boundary is higher in the Jashn Sara section, placing it about 8 m above the
116 base of the MDM, based on the first appearance of *Treptichnus pedum per se*.

117 Carbon isotopes support the placement of the base of the Cambrian in the LDM, as these beds
118 show the pronounced negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ anomaly observed globally in basal Cambrian rocks (Etemad-
119 Saeed et al., 2021). Differences in the placement of the Ediacaran–Cambrian boundary within the
120 Soltanieh Formation may be explained by the varied environmental preferences of the organisms
121 represented by the diverse skeletal and trace fossils used as evidence. Devaere et al. (2021), in
122 particular, cautioned that stratigraphic occurrences of skeletal and trace fossils can vary markedly
123 based on environmental preferences (Landing et al., 2013; see also Wilson et al., 2012). In any
124 event, all paleontological and chemostratigraphic interpretations place the tubular fossils reported
125 in this study within the Fortunian Stage of the Cambrian Period.

126

127 **3. Materials and methods**

128 130 fossiliferous mudrock samples were collected from the lowermost 18 m of the USM in the
129 Jashn Sara Section (Fig. 2A). All samples contain conspicuous tubular fossils, which seem to be
130 distributed more or less evenly through this interval.

131 Samples were cleaned with distilled water and an air-blower and photographed under a Zeiss
132 SteREO binocular microscope at different magnifications, at the Department of Earth,
133 Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, MIT. The length, width (in the middle and at both ends), and
134 orientation of each tube were measured from the photographs using ImageJ and GEORient, and
135 various aspects of their morphology were documented, including the shape of terminations,

136 branching, folding, evidence of structure in the walls, and whether tubes overlapped. The left and
137 right ends were determined arbitrarily only for comparing differences in size between the ends of
138 an individual specimen. Table S1 and Figures S1-S7 provide a detailed description of the sample
139 population.

140 To investigate tube and matrix composition, thin sections taken from 40 different individuals were
141 prepared and studied using a polarizing Zeiss Axio Imager M2 microscope, at the Department of
142 Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, MIT (Fig. S8).

143 To determine the mineralogical composition of the tubes, selected-area *in situ* X-ray diffraction
144 (XRD) was performed using a PANalytical Empyrean diffractometer, with a Co K α source and
145 PIXcel-1D detector, at the Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oxford. This *in situ*
146 technique limits the irradiated area to 7x1 mm, across the entire two-theta range of the scan using
147 programmable divergence slits, enabling individual tubes to be analyzed, though the thickness of
148 the sample from which diffraction arises likely extends more than 50-100 μ m in depth (for detailed
149 methods and a comparison between *in situ* XRD and more commonly used powder XRD, see
150 Anderson et al., 2021). XRD was undertaken on 10 fossil tubes from four hand samples (for
151 locations see Fig. S9). In addition, XRD of matrix material from three of the four hand samples
152 (n=3 analyses per sample) was performed for comparison. Relative mineral abundances were
153 calculated using the reference intensity ratio method (Snyder and Bish, 1989) with Highscore
154 software ([https://www.malvernpanalytical.com/en/products/category/software/x-ray-diffraction-
155 software/highscore](https://www.malvernpanalytical.com/en/products/category/software/x-ray-diffraction-software/highscore)).

156 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed on a subset of the polished slabs to
157 investigate the textural relationships between the fossils and associated minerals. Slabs were
158 carbon coated and analyzed using a FEI Quanta 650 Emission Gun SEM at the Department of

159 Earth Sciences, University of Cambridge, operated at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV under high
160 vacuum with a dwell time of 10 μ s. The SEM is also equipped with an energy dispersive X-ray
161 detector to facilitate semi-quantitative chemical analysis via energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
162 (EDS) using the AZtec software suite (Oxford Instruments). EDS analyses were conducted with a
163 50 mm detector, aperture of 3, and spot size of 4 using an approximate 2nA beam current.

164

165 **4. Results**

166 *4.1. Tube Morphology*

167 Relatively dense, monospecific assemblages of tubular fossils are preserved as compressions with
168 low positive relief (Fig. 3A, 3B). The tubes are mostly straight to sinuously curved, although rare
169 individuals form nearly complete circles (Fig. 4A–D). In life, these organisms must have had
170 strong but somewhat flexible walls. Tube length ranges between 4.6 and 34 mm, with a mean size
171 of 14.8 mm (stdev=6.47, n=127), but insofar as most individuals are incomplete, they were
172 presumably longer (Table S1; Fig. 5). Tube width ranges from 0.3 to 2.2 mm (mean=0.8,
173 stdev=0.32, n=127) at the left end, 0.4 to 2.7 mm (mean=1.1, stdev=0.34, n=127) in the middle,
174 and 0.3–1.8 mm (mean=0.8, stdev=0.32, n=127) at the right end, indicating a uniform thickness
175 along the length of the tubes. The difference between the widths of each end in individual tubes
176 ranges between 0 and 1.6 mm (mean=0, stdev=0.33, n=127).

177 Tube ends can be rounded or squared off, and a few individuals appear to narrow toward one end
178 (Fig. 4A, 4C). Very likely, this variation reflects the orientation of tubes relative to the bedding
179 plane. The sample population shows no evidence of branching, and overlap of compressed tubes
180 is rare. In some hand samples tubes show a distinct darker wall-like structure that is distinct from
181 tube infilling (Fig. 6A–C), and rare individuals show possible evidence of fine transverse

182 annulations (Fig. 6D). In general, however, the tubes are preserved by post-mortem infilling,
183 leaving us uncertain about surface textures of the original walls. Measurement of tube orientations
184 shows that while populations on individual bedding planes can show some alignment, preferred
185 orientations vary markedly from one bed to the next, likely reflecting post-mortem alignment by
186 currents, feeding behavior, or both (Table S1; Figures S1-S7).

187

188 *4.2. Tube Composition*

189 Tubes have striking dark to pale orange, brown, or cream colors that stand in marked contrast to
190 their surrounding matrix (Fig. 3A, 3B), prompting the question of their composition.

191 SEM-EDS data reveal that all fossil specimens are composed, almost exclusively, of variable
192 mixes of pyrite (now mostly transformed to Fe-oxides) and silica (Figs. 7A–B, 8A–B). The
193 morphology of individual pyrite crystals is well preserved, with most occurrences being
194 octahedral/cuboidal forms no larger than approximately 1 μm in size, but commonly smaller than
195 this. The pyrite crystals are largely clustered into well-defined framboids on the order of 15 μm in
196 diameter, and numerous pyrite framboids are dispersed within tubular fossils and aggregated
197 around their exteriors (Figs. 7C–D and 8C–D). Some specimens show clear evidence for oxidation
198 of pyrite to Fe-oxides, which likely imparts their orange color. In these specimens, framboidal
199 structures yield high Fe and low-S compositions (not shown) in EDS and exhibit a change in
200 morphology from the octahedral/cuboidal crystals typical of pyrite to fibrous or other poorly
201 defined morphologies. In addition to pyrite framboids and Fe-oxides, fossil interiors are enriched
202 in silica relative to the sediment matrix (Figs. 7D, 8D).

203 In contrast, the SEM-EDS data indicate that the sediment matrix is dominated by a K-Al-silicate
204 with lesser amounts of an Al-oxide/(oxy)hydroxide phase (i.e., gibbsite, diaspore, or boehmite).
205 The latter phase is sometimes concentrated at the edges of some fossils, and in one case, appears
206 to constitute a significant proportion of the fossil interior (Fig. 9). The sediment matrix also
207 contains pyrite but less commonly as framboids. Compared to the fossils, pyrite within the
208 sediment matrix is more evenly distributed and occurs in smaller total amounts.

209 XRD analysis (n=19) indicates that both tubes (n=10) and their surrounding matrix (n=9) yield
210 diffraction peaks consistent with a kaolin-group mineral (i.e., kaolinite or dickite; 0–7%), illite
211 (20–57%), muscovite (15–44%), and quartz (26–52%) (Fig. 10). Kaolinite and muscovite are
212 slightly elevated in the matrix (mean: Kaolinite = 1%, muscovite = 28%) compared to the tubes
213 (mean: Kaolinite = 0%, muscovite = 23%), whereas illite and quartz are slightly elevated in the
214 tubes (mean: illite = 40%, quartz = 37%) compared to the matrix (mean: illite = 35%, quartz =
215 35%). The interquartile ranges, however, overlap in comparisons between the matrix and tubes for
216 all minerals suggesting differences in mean values should not be given significance.

217 When compared to SEM data, *in situ* XRD data help assign mineral species to major components
218 of the samples. There are, however, notable differences between the two techniques. For example,
219 given the mm to cm control on the size and shape of the analytical footprint associated with *in situ*
220 XRD, and accounting for interaction volumes reaching approximately 100 μm depth in the sample,
221 any one analysis likely reflects a mixture of fossil and sediment matrix area. As such, the stark
222 mineralogical and compositional contrasts between the fossils and matrix, clearly apparent in
223 SEM-EDS data (Figs. 7, 8, 9), are only subtly apparent using this technique (Fig. 10). Additionally,
224 *in situ* XRD does not detect pyrite or Fe-oxides, though they are clearly present in SEM-EDS data.
225 This may result from the relatively small crystallite size of both phases, which would broaden

226 associated diffraction peaks and decrease their intensity. Furthermore, the high degree of preferred
227 orientation among layer silicate minerals in most mudrocks means that *in situ* XRD reflects a
228 disproportionately large contribution from layer silicate mineral 001 reflections, increasing their
229 abundance at the expense of other phases.

230

231 **5. Discussion**

232 *5.1. Taphonomy*

233 While the Soltanieh tubes contain clay minerals, they are largely infilled by (originally) pyrite and
234 chert. Pyrite suggests a prominent role for sulfate-reducing bacteria in the post-mortem decay of
235 organic materials within the tubes, with bacterially generated sulfide reacting with ferrous iron in
236 ambient pore waters (Farrell, 2014). The lower abundance of pyrite in adjacent mudstone is
237 consistent with a higher concentration of organic matter in the tubes, relative to their matrix,
238 providing a locus of sulfate reduction. The presence of iron oxides reflects diagenetic pyrite
239 oxidation, as observed, for example, in the late early Cambrian Skyberg Lagerstätte in southern
240 Norway (Høyberget et al., 2023) and “rusty” sabelliditids preserved by oxidized iron infillings
241 from the Digermulen Peninsula, northern Norway (Ebbestad et al., 2022). The high concentration
242 of chert within tubes, and especially adjacent to their margins (accounting for the cream color
243 evident in some specimens), may reflect the propensity of silica to precipitate on cell walls and
244 other organic features (e.g., Knoll, 1985).

245 In general, then, the current mineralogy of the fossils appears to reflect early diagenetic
246 anaerobic respiration of labile organic materials inside the tubes by sulfate-reducing bacteria
247 (Gabbott et al., 2004), while the wall remained intact, serving as a substrate for silicification within

248 voids developed within the less labile tube walls as internal tissues decayed. Precipitation of an
249 Al-oxide/(oxy)hydroxide phase around tube exteriors reflects later diagenesis, as does an
250 unidentified dark material lining some specimens – perhaps Mn-oxides emplaced during the late
251 diagenetic oxidation that converted much pyrite to iron oxides.

252

253 *5.2. Taxonomy*

254 Several groups of extant animals live in tubes, and tubular fossils are common in late Ediacaran to
255 basal Cambrian rocks, so much so that Schiffbauer et al. (2016) wrote of a global “worm world”
256 fauna, while Budd and Jackson (2016) christened this interval the “tube world.” Unmineralized
257 tubular remains are thought to include animal body fossils as well as trace fossils and algal
258 compressions.

259 Simple organic tubes preserved with walls intact occur as large populations in carbonaceous shales
260 of the Nama Group, Namibia, dated at 545–539 Ma (Cohen et al., 2009; Nelson et al., 2022). These
261 fossils have been compared to the possibly algal *Vendotaenia* (Gnilovskaya, 1971), but their
262 sediment infilling and consequent three-dimensional morphology suggest that animal affinities
263 should also be considered. The Nama tubes are comparable to the Soltanieh fossils in width, but
264 in general, are more than an order of magnitude longer.

265 Fossils more securely interpreted as algal occur widely in rocks of the late Ediacaran to Cambrian
266 age, preserved as essentially two-dimensional organic compressions that include tubes. Most,
267 however, can be distinguished from the Soltanieh population on the basis of size, propensity for
268 branching, helical or irregular wall tears, sharp folding, and/or a lack of three-dimensionality
269 (Bykova et al., 2020; e.g., LoDuca et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022).

270 Simple tubular trace fossils have also long been described from rocks of this age, although a
271 number of them are now interpreted as body casts and molds (Jensen et al., 2006; Sappenfield et
272 al., 2011). Genuine tubular trace fossils can be distinguished from the Soltanieh population by
273 their size, lack of any evidence for walls, and infilling with sand or other clastic sediment, without
274 penecontemporaneous minerals precipitated biogeochemically.

275 Perhaps the best known taxon among the organic-walled tubes in basal Cambrian shales is
276 *Sabellidites cambriensis* Yanishevsky (1926). *Sabellidites cambriensis* occurs widely in
277 uppermost Ediacaran and basal Cambrian (Fortunian) shales in northern Europe (Baltica), as well
278 as in the basal Cambrian GSSP in eastern Newfoundland (Avalonia) (Ebbestad et al., 2022).
279 Morphologically, *S. cambriensis* consists of unbranched, mm-scale tubes characterized by
280 distinctive transverse annulations (e.g., Ebbestad et al., 2022). Yanishevsky's (1926) original
281 interpretation of *Sabellidites* as an annelid worm was seconded by Sokolov and Iwanowski (1990)
282 and supported by microstructural analyses of preserved walls (Moczyłowska et al., 2014),
283 although some phylogenetic uncertainty persists (e.g., Ebbestad et al., 2022).

284 In overall size and shape, the Soltanieh population resembles *S. cambriensis*, and it occurs in rocks
285 of comparable age; however, in the absence of well-preserved walls, we cannot confirm whether
286 or not the Iranian fossils share the diagnostic character of transverse annulations. Moreover, *S.*
287 *cambriensis* specimens tend to be straight or only slightly sinuous, (Ebbestad et al., 2022, and
288 references therein) as opposed to the markedly sinuous to circular morphologies found in Iran,
289 suggesting mechanically distinct wall properties.

290 Organic-walled tubes from uppermost Ediacaran and lower Cambrian rocks in China expand our
291 sense of both the taxonomic complexity and phylogenetic uncertainty of tubular remains. Yang et
292 al. (2005) described tubular macrofossils from argillaceous limestones of the lower Cambrian

293 Xidashan Formation in Xinjiang as *S. cambriensis*. In overall size and morphology, this population
294 resembles European *S. cambriensis* populations, but transverse annulations are illustrated in only
295 a single specimen and strong sinuosity is common. Luo and Zhang (1986) erected two additional
296 species of *Sabellidites* from Cambrian rocks of southern China, but these have twice over been
297 reassigned to other genera based on microstructural features not found in *S. cambriensis*, first
298 *Mafangscotlex* (Hu, 2005) and more recently *Rugosusivitta* (Tang et al., 2021), interpreted as
299 palaeoscolecid (extinct ecdysozoans) and flatworms, respectively. Moreover, slightly larger tubes
300 with both transverse annulations and longitudinal striations have been described from
301 Terreneuvian rocks of the North China craton, some preserved with iron oxide infillings. Described
302 as *Fuxianospira gyrata* and interpreted as green algae, these tubes are distinguished by helical
303 separations along tube axes (Wang et al., 2022). Dense populations of unattributed tubes also occur
304 in Yunnan (Tang et al., 2021).

305 As noted above, in the absence of clear evidence for transverse wall annulations, we cannot ascribe
306 the Soltanieh fossils to *S. cambriensis* with any degree of confidence. We cannot rule out that the
307 Iranian fossils are sabellidites of some sort, but given uncertainties about the nature of any higher
308 taxon to which *S. cambriensis* may have belonged, we choose to leave the Soltanieh population in
309 open nomenclature, while underscoring its similarities to other tube populations distributed widely
310 in rocks of comparable age. Reconstructions of early Cambrian paleogeography commonly situate
311 the West Avalonian microcontinent represented by eastern Newfoundland adjacent, or nearly so,
312 to the Amazonian craton (e.g., Torsvik and Cocks, 2017; Wen et al., 2020), although dissenting
313 views exist (e.g., Landing et al., 2022). The Soltanieh population shows that regardless of where
314 Avalonia is placed, organic-walled tube organisms thrived in marginal seaways of West
315 Gondwana.

316 **6. Conclusions**

317 A large population of tubular fossils found on bedding surfaces of shales in the Upper Shale
318 Member of the Soltanieh Formation, Iran, resembles unmineralized tube-forming animals known
319 previously from uppermost Ediacaran and lower Cambrian (Fortunian) shales in Baltica, West
320 Avalonia, and China. Tube walls are not preserved in the Soltanieh fossils, but first-order features
321 of morphology have been preserved by the diagenetic emplacement of biologically induced pyrite
322 and silica precipitation in tube interiors. Like the skeletal and trace fossils in the Soltanieh
323 Formation, the unmineralized remains reported here suggest strong faunal similarities among mid-
324 latitude shelves and platforms bordering the Iapetus and Prototethys oceans at the beginning of the
325 Cambrian Period.

326

327 **7. Note on Repository**

328 Fossiliferous slabs are housed in the Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences,
329 Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Polished slabs are repositied in the Mineralogy Laboratory,
330 University of Cambridge.

331

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340

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459 **Figure Captions:**

460 Fig. 1. — Location map and stratigraphy of the study area. **A)** Regional geological map, with the
461 fossil locality marked by a star. **B)** Stratigraphic column for the Jashn Sara section.

462 Fig. 2. — Field photos from the Jashn Sara section. **A)** Lower part of the Upper Shale Member.
463 Box indicates the approximate position of tubular fossils. **B)** Fissile mudrocks. **C)** Arrow pointing
464 to macroscopic fossils. **D)** Lower part of the Upper Dolomite Member.

465 Fig. 3. — Abundance and density of tubular fossils preserved as randomly distributed individuals
466 with low positive relief.

467 Fig. 4. — Tubular macrofossils from the Upper Shale Member of the Jashn Sara section, showing
468 variations in morphology and color: **A)** straight, **B, C)** sinuously curved, and **D)** nearly complete
469 circles.

470 Fig. 5. — Histograms of tube widths and lengths measured from samples.

471 Fig. 6. — Tubular macrofossils from the Upper Shale Member of the Jashn Sara section, showing
472 differentiation of wall and infilling materials. **A, B, C)** distinctly darker wall-like structures. **D)**
473 Possible but uncertain evidence of fine transverse annulations.

474 Fig. 7. — SEM-EDS of fossilized structures from sample 13. **A)** Backscattered electron image of
475 a fossilized structure. Brighter regions correspond to material with higher concentrations of high
476 atomic mass (*Z*) elements. White box corresponds to analysis region in (C) and (D). **B)**
477 Corresponding EDS map of (A) showing distinct Fe-, Al- and Si-rich regions associated with the
478 structures. **C)** Backscattered electron image of area shown in (A), showing spherical pyrite

479 framboids, and dispersed finely crystalline pyrite which are variably replaced by Fe-oxides. **D)**
480 Corresponding EDS map of (C).

481 Fig. 8. — SEM-EDS of fossilized structures from sample 13. **A)** Backscattered electron image of
482 fossilized structure. Brighter regions correspond to material with higher concentrations of high
483 atomic mass (*Z*) elements. White box corresponds to analysis region in (C) and (D). **B)**
484 Corresponding EDS map of (A) showing that the structure is largely composed of Fe-rich regions
485 (pyrite framboids), embedded in a Si-rich matrix. **C)** Backscattered electron image of area shown
486 in (A), showing spherical pyrite framboids evenly dispersed through the interior of the structure.
487 **D)** Corresponding EDS map of (C).

488 Fig. 9. — SEM-EDS of fossilized structures from sample 13. **A)** Backscattered electron image of
489 the fossilized structure. Brighter regions correspond to materials with higher concentrations of
490 high atomic mass (*Z*) elements. **B)** Corresponding Fe map of (A) showing that Fe tends to be
491 concentrated within the interior of the structure. **C)** Corresponding Si map of (A) showing
492 enrichment within the structure relative to the matrix. **D)** Corresponding Al map of (A) showing
493 localized concentration of high-Al material along the edges of the structure. **E)** Corresponding Fe,
494 Si and Al map of (A).

495 Fig. 10. — XRD data shown as box plots comparing the relative abundance of minerals between
496 *in situ* measurements of fossils (blue) and matrix (orange). X = mean; central line = median; box
497 indicates first and third quartile values; line ends indicate maximum and minimum values.



















