1	A Middle Ordovician (Darriwilian) Calathium reef complex on the
2	carbonate ramp of the northwestern Tarim Block, northwest China: a
3	sedimentological approach
4	
5	Jianpo Wang ^a , Yue Li ^{b,*} , Yuanyuan Zhang ^b , Stephen Kershaw ^c
6	^a Wuhan Centre of Geological Survey, Wuhan 430205, China
7	^b Nanjing Institute of Geology and Palaeontology, Chinese Academy of Sciences,
8	Nanjing 210008, China
9	° Department of Life Sciences, Brunel University, Uxbridge, Middlesex, UB8 3PH,
10	UK
11	* Corresponding author. E-mail address: yueli@nigpas.ac.cn
12	
13	Abstract
14	Middle Ordovician carbonates are exposed for 25 km along the Lianglitag
15	Mountains in the Tarim Basin, northwest China. They reflect platform carbonate and
16	reef deposition along the ancient Central Tarim Uplift. The Darriwilian Yijianfang
17	Formation, ~70 m thick, was deposited in a shallow carbonate ramp setting,

Formation, ~70 m thick, was deposited in a shallow carbonate ramp setting, deepening seaward to the north in current geography. Reefal and biostromal units are constructed primarily by sessile *Calathium* of possible sponge affinity in the Middle Member of the formation. Patch reefs, ~10 m in thickness and tens of meters in diameter, are common in the northern region. Associated shelly faunas, including trilobites, bivalves, and brachiopods, are diverse and preserved as coarse bioclastic

23	materials together with intraclasts. Towards the south, patch reefs are smaller, <1 m in
24	thickness and with low relief. A biostrome formed by in situ Calathium framework is
25	interpreted to act as a baffle for fine sediments, with smaller amounts of bioclasts and
26	intraclasts. The biostrome is only \sim 3 m thick in the southernmost section suggesting a
27	calmer leeward setting initially. Tempestite beds composed of Calathium and
28	nautiloid floatstones are abundant through the section, with monospecific brachiopod
29	layers in the tempestite beds. This work demonstrates previously unrecognized
30	paleogeographic variations of the Darriwilian Calathium reef complexes, which have
31	larger patch reefs generally developing in the north area, smaller patch reefs
32	dominating southward, and biostromes occurring in the southernmost locations. The
33	reef complex was drowned due to sea-level rise, which is recorded in the upper
34	Yijianfang Formation.

Keywords: morphological variation; reef complex; Yijianfang Formation; Ordovician;
Bachu; Northwest China

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39

40 *Calathium* is a cylindrical calcified fossil, one end of which is open, leading to a 41 central cavity, while the other end is closed, with holdfasts (Rowland, 2001). 42 *Calathium* has a porous double-wall, with both walls showing a similar thickness; it 43 seems to have reproduced by budding suggesting that *Calathium* is an aspiculate 44 sponge closely related to archaeocyathans (Li et al., 2015). *Calathium* played a key

role in Early-Middle Ordovician reefs (Webby, 2002), but unlike other metazoan taxa 45 of that age, Calathium occurred in large accumulations in reef and reef-associated 46 47 communities. A significant proportion has been found in non-reef units. Calathium, found in assemblages in association with lithistid sponges and microbes, spread 48 widely on carbonate platforms prior to development of 49 coral-stromatoporoid-algal-dominated reef systems in the latest Middle Ordovician 50 (Cañas and Carrera, 1993, 2003; Wood, 1999; Webby, 2002; Wang et al., 2011). The 51 oldest Calathium-bearing reef occurred in the lower Tremadocian Nantsinkuan 52 Formation on the Yangtze Platform margin, South China Block (Wang et al., 2012). 53 Similar reef complexes have also been widely reported from upper Tremadocian to 54 Darriwillian successions in the Laurentia, Siberia, North China, and Tarim regions 55 56 (Alberstadt and Repetski, 1989; Cañas and Carrera, 1993, 2003; Church, 1974; Hintze, 1973; Miagkova et al., 1977; Ross, 1996; Toomey, 1970; Toomey and Nitecki, 1979; 57 Pratt and James, 1982; Webby, 1984, 2002; Liu et al., 2003; Kwon et al., 2003; Li et 58 al., 2004; Adachi et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Choh et al., 2013). 59

Dozens of *Calathium*-bearing reef units of varying geometries in the Darriwilian (late Middle Ordovician) Yijianfang Formation crop out along the Lianglitag Mountains of the Bachu area, Tarim Basin, northwest China (Li et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2012). These reefs were constructed by mainly *Calathium* with a few lithistid sponges and bryozoans (Zhu et al., 2006). Gu et al. (2005) inferred that these Tarim reefs grew in platform margin settings. Jiao et al. (2012) documented lithological and biotic contents of a reef-shoal system and discussed their sequence stratigraphic

implications. In the present paper, we document, for the first time, the morphological 67 and lithological variation trends throughout the Calathium reef complex that occurs 68 69 along the Lianglitag Mountains, where a carbonate ramp developed during the reef-building episode of the Yijianfang Formation. Firstly, four time-equivalent 70 71 *Calathium*-bearing sections from north to south at four sites, namely Yijianfang, P22, Nanyigou, and Yangmaile (Fig. 1C, white dots give GPS-determined locations) in the 72 study area, are described in detail. Six other sections (Fig, 1C, black dots for 73 GPS-determined locations) are also employed for reconstructing morphological 74 75 variation trends. Morphologic and lithologic variations of the *Calathium* reef complex on a carbonate ramp are thus well illustrated. 76

77

78 **2. Geological and stratigraphic setting**

79

The Ordovician shallow and offshore deeper marine carbonates are preserved 80 along a 25 km N-S cross-section through the Lianglitag Mountains surrounded by 81 deserts northeast of the Bachu area (Fig. 1), which, tectonically, are part of the 82 northwestern portion of the Central Tarim Uplift (Zhou et al., 1990; Jia et al., 1995; 83 Ni et al., 2001; Chen and Shi, 2003). The Ordovician strata ranging from dolostone to 84 limestone are assigned to the Yingshan Formation (Dapingian), Yijianfang Formation 85 (Darriwilian), Tumuxiuke Formation (Sandbian), and Lianglitag Formation (lower 86 Katian) in ascending order (Ni et al., 2001; Li et al., 2009). 87

88

Of these, the Yijianfang Formation is 69 m thick and comprised of three

lithological members. The lower member, 14 m thick, consists of thin-medium 89 bedded intraclastic packstones and a calcimicrobial bindstone unit with fenestral 90 91 fabrics. The middle member, 30 m thick, is dominated by massive to medium-bedded litho/bioclastic pack- to grainstone and contains the Calathium reef complex. The 92 93 upper member, 25 m thick, is composed of thin-bedded nodular bioclastic wackestone and mudstone intercalated with thin-bedded cherty layers or lenses (Li et al., 2009). 94 This formation is marked by a palaeokarst surface at its base (Li et al., 2007) and is 95 conformably overlain by the Tumuxiuke Formation. The latter comprises thin-bedded 96 97 nodular micritic limestone and yields abundant nautiloids and conodonts assignable to the Yangtzeplacognathus jianveensis, Baltoniodus variabili, and B. alobatus Zones in 98 ascending order, characteristic of the Sandbian faunas (lower Upper Ordovician) (Li 99 100 et al., 2009).

101 A Middle Ordovician age for the Yijianfang Formation was suggested on the 102 basis of the presence of nautiloid *Protocyloceras wangi* by Zhou et al. (1990) and Ni 103 et al. (2001). Xiong et al. (2006) obtained abundant conodonts *Microzarkodina parva*, 104 *Lenodus variabilis* and *Eoplacognathus crassus* of Darriwilian age from the same 105 formation. Li et al. (2007) further confirmed that the middle Yijianfang Formation, 106 and therefore its enclosed *Calathium* reefs, are Darriwilian in age (Fig. 2).

107 The Yijianfang *Calathium* reefs from the northern Lianglitag Mountains were 108 inferred as having grown on the platform margin by Gu et al. (2005) and Jiao et al. 109 (2012). However, due to lithological features of rich packstones indicating a very 110 shallow and turbulent marine belt and lack of deeper water facies of typical slope

111	conditions, Li et al. (2009) deduced the palaeoenvironmental setting as a ramp,
112	deepening to the present geographical north as graptolitic black shale of the
113	Darriwilian Sargan Formation northward of Bachu formed in typical stagnated basin
114	of the Kalpin region (Zhou et al., 1990; Ni et al., 2001). Ma et al. (2013) further
115	defined the Yangjikan section as the slope-break location (Fig. 1B). Well logs from
116	the Mazatag area, southward of the Lianglitag Mountains (location shown in Fig. 1B)
117	show complete absence of the Darriwillian strata indicating that region was exposed
118	above sea level.

- 119
- 120 3. Calathium reefs and biostrome

121

Calathium fossils are easily recognized in outcrops, displayed as double-walled 122 conical forms in longitudinal section and circular forms in transverse section. On the 123 exposure Calathium individuals are preserved as boundstone, which consists of sessile 124 Calathium and lesser calcimicrobes (i.e., Girvanella and Nuia, Jiao et al., 2012; Rong 125 et al., 2014), lithistid sponges, and bryozoans. The associated fossil fragments include 126 nautiloids, gastropods, trilobites, bivalves, and brachiopods (see Section Yijianfang). 127 The overall morphologies and compositions of the Calathium reef complex vary at 128 various observation sites in the study area. 129

130

3.1. Yijianfang section 131

The paleogeographic configuration of the Bachu area shows that the Yijianfang 133 section (GPS: 40°08'37"N, 78°49'31"E) was situated on the windward slope of the 134 135 ramp setting along the Lianglitag Mountains. Several reef-cores and their surrounding bioclastic shoals are present on the south-side outcrop of the mountains (Jiao et al., 136 137 2012). Individual reef-cores vary from 1 to 4 meters in thickness and 2 to 18 m in diameter (Fig. 3A). Most of the *Calathium* fossils are toppled (Fig. 3B), but some are 138 densely packed together in situ (Fig. 3C). Bioclastic components, microbialite and 139 micrite in the spaces of the Calathium frameworks occupy 40-60 % in volume. 140 Surrounding bioclastic limestones, especially pelmatozoan, particles are poorly sorted 141 (Fig. 3D). Zhou et al. (1990) documented extremely abundant shelly faunas from the 142 reef core of the Calathium reef complex in the Yijianfang locality. They include 143 144 nautiloids (Tarphiceras, Dideroceras, Protocycloceras, Clytoceras, Aphetoceras, Shumadoceras, Chisiloceras, Sinocochlioceras, Eostromatoceras, and Tragoceras), 145 gastropods (Lesueurilla, Maclurites), aphid trilobites (Illaenus, Scotoharpes, 146 Lyralichas, Cydonocephalus, Nileus, Kawina, and Remopleurides), parallelodontid 147 bivalve (Cleinvchia), and brachiopods (Liricamera and Triplesia) (Zhou et al., 1990). 148 149

150 *3.2. P22 section*

151

The *Calathium* reef complex is well exposed at P22 section (GPS: 40°07'57"N, 78°50'41"E) where the reef core is 2-10 m thick and preserved as a lenticular form. The reef core is composed of mostly *in situ* preserved *Calathium* framework that

makes up to 60-80 % of the volume of the core (Fig. 4A). Sizes of Calathium 155 skeletons vary from centimeters to decimeters. Two lithofacies of the reef core are 156 157 recognized as 1) very abundant bafflestones mainly formed by large Calathium skeletons (Fig. 4B) and 2) common occurrence of Calathium-calcimicrobial 158 bindstones rich in micritic laminated crusts (Fig. 4C). Calathium fragments are also 159 occasionally present in nearby shoals. The reef bases, flanks, and tops share similar 160 lithofacies types of bioclastic grain-packstones, in which coarse pelmatozoan 161 particles account for 50-70 % of the components (Fig. 4D). 162

163

164 *3.3. Nanyigou section*

165

The Nanyigou section (GPS: 40°05'20"N, 78°50'42"E) records the most 166 complete succession throughout the upper Yingshan Formation (upper Upper Qiulitag 167 Subgroup) to the lower Lianglitag Formation with total thicknesses of 300 m in the 168 basin (Zhang et al., 2015). Many Calathium reef cores are also preserved in the 169 middle Yijianfang Formation. They are, however, usually 0.5-2.0 m thick, and thus 170 much thinner than the same unit exposed at other localities. Of these, one patch of 171 irregular lenticular reef core (Fig. 5A) is 1 m thick and 6 m in diameter, and 172 surrounded by bioclastic packstone. Calathium skeletons make up about 20-40 % of 173 the reef core (Fig. 5B). Individuals are mostly erect and preserved in situ, and they 174 encrust each other to form a framework (Fig. 5C), in which rare fragments of lithistid 175 sponges and bryozoans occur. Thin-bedded packstones of the reef-flanks are rich in 176

pelmatozoan debris (40-60 % in volume) (Fig. 5D) and small amounts of trilobite,
brachiopod, ostracod, gastropod, and microbial (*Girvanella*, *Nuia* and *Vermiporella*)
debris.

180

181 *3.4. Yangmaile section*

182

The Calathium reef-bearing strata at Yangmaile section (GPS: 39°57'6"N, 183 79°03'10"E) are subdivided into four successive beds (Beds 1-4; Fig. 6). Bed 1 184 contains abundant in situ and uniformly small-sized Calathium skeletons that form 185 bafflestone and are 3-5 cm in diameters (Fig. 6a-d). Of these, *Calathium* skeletons are 186 extreme abundant and occupy 30-50% of bafflestone. Although these Calathium 187 188 bafflestones are collectively assigned to the reef core, they are usually 3 m thick and form a single bed, thus are more appropriately described as a biostrome due to its 189 lower relief (Fig. 6A). Bed 2 comprises tempestite layers (up to 4.5 m thick) and is 190 composed of Calathium-nautiloid floatstones of unsorted and broken Calathium 191 skeletons and nautiloid fragments. These floatstones are here interpreted to have been 192 derived from northern patch reef units by storms (Fig. 6B). Bed 3, 10-20 cm thick, is a 193 shelly layer composed of monospecific unbroken brachiopod shells, possibly 194 indicating a restricted and calm environment (Fig. 6C). Bed 4, 1.5 m thick, shares 195 similar lithology with Bed 2 that is interpreted as tempesite layers (Fig. 6D). 196

197

198 **4. Discussion**

200 *4.1 Formation of the Calathium reef complex*

201

In the study area there is no recognizable shoreline, oolitic or clastic facies, visualized by James (1983) and Fagerstrom (1987). The Bachu *Calathium* reef complex was deduced to have developed in a mid-ramp location by Li et al. (2009). Gradual northward deepening over a distance of a few tens of kilometers influenced variation of the *Calathium*-bearing units in aspects of thicknesses, relief and taphonomic features. Thickness and extent of the *Calathium*-bearing units varying laterally on the ramp is reconstructed in Figure 7.

We interpret the Calathium-bearing reefs, biostrome and bioclastic units as 209 210 benefiting from Calathium cluster growth and having formed above wave base. Larger *Calathium* patch reefs with thicknesses >5 m are concentrated in the northern 211 region, which may well have been the windward part. Reef cores were dominated by 212 Calathium with few bryozoans, lithistid sponges and calcified microbes, whereas 213 abundant pelmatozoans are interpreted to form a fringing setting for construction of 214 Calathium framework indicated by poorly sorted debris of surrounding bioclastic 215 limestones at Yijianfang section and common micritic infillings of the framework at 216 the P22 section. Storms interrupted reef expansion sporadically and bioclastic shoals 217 covered the reefs, followed by re-establishments of reef facies. 218

Patch reefs in southern localities share the same factors in that they are small,
0.5-2 m, showing lower reef-growth potential. The southernmost Yangmaile strata

represent low energy back reef deposits favouring in situ Calathium biostromes that 221 initiated reef construction. Coarse-grained tempestite beds were derived by storm 222 223 currents from the open sea to the north geographically, thus broken *Calathium* and nautiloids were presumably rapidly deposited once the environmental turbulence 224 weakened. Tempestite beds punctuated development of the in situ biostrome. 225 Short-term calm and restricted environments were ideal for development of the 226 monospecific brachiopod community, but overlain by the tempestite bed, indicating 227 resurgence of storms. Disappearance of the reef complex of the Middle Member is 228 229 interpreted to have been caused by transgression, indicated by finer grained sediments in the Upper Member of the Yijianfang Formation (Li et al., 2009). 230

231

4.2 Geological implications of the Calathium reef complex

233

The principal constructors of the Bachu Calathium reef complex are two 234 Calathium species that were named by Liu et al. (2005) as C. elongates and C. 235 bachuensis. The type specimens of these two species were collected from the 236 Yijianfang reef. C. elongates has a curved elongate steep conical shape similar to 237 Soanites bimralis but is >30 cm high and 35-40 mm diameter at the open end, 238 whereas C. bachuensis has a curved, horn-cylindrically obconical shape and more like 239 S. delicates and Calathium frechi but is >30 cm high and >10 cm in diameter at the 240 upper side (Liu et al., 2005). These large *Calathium* fossils were interpreted by Li et 241 al. (2015) for supporting the cooling hypothesis during the Ordovician based on 242

"temperature-size rule" (Atkinson, 1994; Atkinson and Sibly, 1997), which relates increased body size to cooling. However, *in situ* preserved *Calathium* from the biostrome in Bed 1 of the Yangmaile section are small in size and quite different from those in Yijianfang and P22 patch reefs in the northern region. Therefore, size variations of the *Calathium* may instead be related to environmental parameters. Larger-sized *Calathium* that have potential for wave-resistance are more abundant in the windward belt.

Comparing with the lithistid sponge-Calathium reefs of the Lower Ordovician 250 Hunghuayuan Formation (Floian) on the Yangtze Platform, South China Block 251 described by Li et al. (2015), the Bachu Calathium would be expected to be more 252 easily toppled because they mostly lack conspicuous outgrowths and were likely less 253 254 stable (Liu et al., 2005). Microbial encrustation and early cement may have provided reef rigidity. Different reef sizes of the reef complex (cases of the P22 and Nanyigou) 255 are interpreted here to correlate with development of microbial binding because no 256 evidence of early cementation was observed. Thus *Calathium* reef-building potential 257 may have been supported by growth of microbial encrustation in the windward area. 258 Collapse of *Calathium* reef construction during the Middle Ordovician may have been 259 due to decline of microbial carbonates with increasing metazoan competition 260 following the Ordovician radiation (Riding, 2006). This interpretation is consistent 261 with the hypothesis of Webb (1996) that Phanerozoic reef history was controlled by 262 the distribution of microbial carbonates and biologically induced cements. 263

264 The Yijianfang and P22 reefs also seem to have benefited from the protecting

presence of pelmatozoan fringes, where easily-toppled Calathium could be preserved 265 in situ in a high-energy setting; it may be deduced that continual larval settlement 266 267 (Jackson, 1977) persisted to develop a dense assemblage (Wood, 1999) of Calathium to develop a reef. On the contrary, a low-energy back reef setting at the Yangmaile 268 269 site may have favoured Calathium developments until storms destroyed them. Wood (1999) interpreted relatively small and short-lived solitary organisms to have not 270 projected substantially above a substrate, therefore producing little topographic relief. 271 The small-size reefs at the Nanyigou site and nearby sites may thus have been 272 sensitive to deposition of surrounding sediments and were easily terminated by 273 sediment accumulation. 274

The Middle Ordovician Bachu Calathium reefs were described as the latest 275 276 *Calathium*-constructed reefs by Wang et al. (2011). However, it is questionable why Calathium could not construct reefs from later Ordovician time onward as these 277 organisms survived until the Silurian Period (Nitecki et. al., 2004). The Bachu cases 278 show that Calathium was easily able to develop reefs by cluster growth. Alberstadt 279 and Walker (1976) also indicated a Calathium-dominated pioneer community in the 280 Later Ordovician Elk River reef (Carters Limestone) although they referred to 281 Calathium as calathid. Wang et al. (2011) affirmed competition from corals and 282 stromatoporoids resulted in disappearance of *Calathium* reefs because colonial corals 283 and stromatoporoids have competitive superiority for space on hard-substrates 284 (Jackson, 1985; Wood et al., 1992). The Elk River reef also provides evidence for this 285 interpretation that the *Calathium* pioneer community provided hard-substrate for the 286

coral-stromatoporoid reef community and then was replaced by it eventually(Alberstadt and Walker, 1976).

289

290 **5. Conclusions**

291

The middle Ordovician (Darriwilian) Calathium reef complex in the Lianglitag 292 Mountains in the Tarim Basin of northwest China shows morphological and 293 lithological variation trends over a distance of 25 km along an environmental gradient 294 295 from deeper to shallower water in a geographically southward direction on a carbonate ramp. From north to south, large patch reefs, ~10 m thick and tens of 296 metres in diameter, in the north and smaller patch reefs, ~ 1 m thick and several metres 297 298 in diameter, in the south are composed of Calathium constructions and associated with shoals of marine bioclasts. Shallower positions in the most southerly part of the 299 ramp contain thin biostromal deposits were constructed by Calathium and micritic 300 sediments. Windward settings favoured Calathium patch reef development, microbial 301 encrustation and the surrounding depositional rate controlled reef sizes. 302

303

304 Acknowledgments

We appreciate referees of Professor Paul Copper, Zhong-Qiang Chen, Thomas Algeo and George Stanley for their benefit advises on revision of the manuscript. This study was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (41072002, XDB10010503 and 41521061). 310 **References**

- Adachi, N., Ezaki, Y., Liu, J.B., Cao, J., 2009. Early Ordovician reef construction in
- 312 Anhui Province, South China: a geobiological transition from microbial- to 313 metazoan-dominant reefs. Sediment. Geol. 220, 1-11.
- Alberstadt, L.P., Repetski, J.E., 1989. A Lower Ordovician sponge/algal facies in the
- southern United States and its counterparts elsewhere in North America.
 PALAIOS 4, 225-242.
- Alberstadt, L.P., Walker, K.R., 1976. A receptaculitid-echinoderm pioneer
 community in a Middle Ordovician reef. Lethaia 9, 261-272.
- Atkinson, D., 1994. Temperature and organism size: a biological law for ectotherms.
 Adv. Ecol. Res. 25, 1-58.
- Atkinson, D., Sibly, R.M., 1997. Why are organisms usually bigger in colder environments? Making sense of a life history puzzle. Trends Ecol. Evol. 12, 235-239.
- Cañas, F.L., Carrera, C., 1993. Early Ordovician microbial-sponge-receptaculitid
 bioherms of the Precordillera, western Argentina. Facies 29, 169-178.
- 326 Cañas, F.L., Carrera, C., 2003. Precordilleran reefs. In: Benedetto, J.L. (Ed.),
- 327 Ordovician Fossils of Argentina. Secretaría de Cienciay Técnica, Universidad
 328 Nacional de Córdoba, pp.131-153.
- 329 Chen, Z.Q., Shi, G.R., 2003. Late Paleozoic depositional history of the Tarim basin,
- 330 northwest China: An integration of biostratigraphic and lithostratigraphic

331

constraints. AAPG Bull. 87, 1323-1354.

- 332 Choh, S.J., Hong, J., Sun, N., Kwon, S.W., Park, T.Y., Woo, J., Kwon, Y.K., Lee,
- D.C., Lee, D.J., 2013. Early Ordovician reefs from the Taebaek Group, Korea:
 constituents, types, and geological implications. Geosci. J. 17, 139-149.
- 335 Church, S.B., 1974. Lower Ordovician patch reefs in western Utah. 21. Brigham
- 336 Young University Geology Studies, pp. 41-62.
- Fagerstrom, J.A., 1987. The Evolution of Reef Communities. John Wiley & Sons,
 New York.
- Gu, J.Y., Zhang, X.Y., Luo, P., Luo, Z., Fang, H., 2005. Development characteristics
 of organic reef-bank complex on Ordovician carbonate platform margin in Tarim

Basin. Oil & Gas Geol. 26, 277-282 (in Chinese with English abstract).

- Hintze, L.F., 1973. Lower and Middle Ordovician stratigraphic sections in the Ibex
 area, Millard County, Utah. Brigham Young Univ. Geol. Stud. 20, 3-36.
- 344 Jackson, J.B.C., 1977. Competition on marine hard substrata: the adaptive
- significance of solitary and colonial strategies. Am. Natur. 111, 743-767.
- Jackson, J.B.C., 1985. Distribution and ecology of clonal and aclonal benthic
 invertebrates. In: Jackson, J.B.C., Buss, L.W., Cook, R.E. (Eds), Population
 Biology and Evolution of Clonal Organisms. Yale University Press, New Haven,
 pp. 297-355.
- James, N.P., 1983. Reefs. In: Scholle, P.A., Bebout, D.G., Moore, C.H. (Eds.),
- 351 Carbonate Depositional Environments. American Association of Petroleum
 352 Geologists, Tulsa, pp. 345-462.

353	Jia, C.Z., Wei, G.Q., Yao, H.J., Li, L.C., 1995. Tectonic Evolution and Regional
354	Structure Geology of the Tarim Basin. Petroleum Industry Press, Beijing (in
355	Chinese).

- Jiao, Y.Q., Wu, L.Q., Rong, H., Wang, Y.B., Wang, R., 2012. Paleoecology of the
 Ordovician reef-shoal depositional system in the Yijianfang Outcrop of the
 Bachu Area, West Tarim Basin. J. Earth Sci. 23, 408-420.
- Kwon. Y.K., Lee, D.J., Choi, D.K., Chough, S.W., 2003. Lower Ordovician sponge
 bioherms in the Makkol Formation, Taebaeksan Basin, Mideast Korea. Facies 48,
 79-90.
- Li, Q.J., Li, Y., Wang, J.P., Kiessling, W., 2015. Early Ordovician lithistid sponge-*Calathium* reefs on the Yangtze Platform and their paleoceanographic implications. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol. Palaeoecol. 425, 84-96.
- Li, Y., Kershaw, S., Mu, X.N., 2004. Ordovician reef systems and settings in South
 China before the Late Ordovician Mass extinction. Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclimatol.
 Palaeoecol. 205, 235-254.
- Li, Y., Huang, Z.B., Wang, J.P., Wang, Z.H., Xue, Y.S., Zhang, J.M., Zhang, Y.D.,
- 369 Fan, J.X., Zhang, Y.Y., 2009. Conodont biostratigraphy and sedimentology of
- the Mid-Upper Ordovician, Buchu, Xinjiang, NW China. J. Strat. 33, 113-122 (in
 Chinese with English abstract).
- Li, Y., Wang, J.P., Shen, A.J., Huang, Z.B., 2007. Evolutionary significance of the
- 373 *Calathium* reef mound from the Yijianfang Formation, Bachu, Xinjiang. Acta
 374 Palaeontol. Sin. 46, 347-354 (in Chinese with English abstract).

375	Liu, B.L., Rigby, J.K., Zhu, Z.D., 2003. Middle Ordovician lithistid sponges from the
376	Bachu-Kalpin area, Xinjiang, northwestern China. J. Paleontol. 77, 430-441.
377	Liu, B.L., Zhu, Z.D., Li, X.M., A discussion on several problems of calathid fossils.
378	Acta Palaeontol. Sin. 44, 267-282 (in Chinese with English summary).
379	Ma, L., Zhang, Z.L., Wang, G., Li, Y., 2013. Microfacies of the carbonates and
380	palaeogeography of the Saergan Formation (Middle-Upper Ordovician), Kalpin
381	stratigraphic region, Tarim, NW China. Acta Micropalaeontol. Sin. 30, 344-352
382	(in Chinese with English abstract).
383	Miagkova, E.I., Nestor, H.E., Einasto, R.E., 1977. Razrez ordovika i silura reki
384	Moiero, Sibirskaya platform (Ordovician and Silurian sequence of the Moiero
385	River, Siberian platform). Akademiya Nauk SSSR, Sibirskoe Otdelenie, Institut
386	Geologii i Geofizikii, Trudy 303, 176.
387	Ni, Y.N., Geng, L.Y., Wang, Z.H., Zhao, Z.X., Chen, T.E., Zhang, Y.B., Wang, H.F.,
388	Zhang, S.G., Yuan, W.W., Zhang, S.B., Gao, Q.Q., Li, J., 2001 Ordovician. In:
389	Zhou, Z.Y. (Ed.), Stratigraphy of the Tarim Basin. Science Press, Beijing, pp.
390	39-80 (in Chinese with English summary).
391	Nitecki, M.H., Webby, B.D., Spjeldnaes, N., Zhen, Y., 2004. Receptaculitids and
392	algae. In: Webby, B.D., Paris, F., Droser, M.L., Percival, I.G. (Eds.), The Great
393	Ordovician Biodiversification Event. Columbia University Press, New York, pp.
394	336-347.

Pratt, B.R., James, N.P., 1982. Cryptalgal-metazoan bioherms of Early Ordovician
age in the St. George Group, western Nerfoundland. Sedimentology 29, 543-569.

397	Riding, R., 2006. Microbial carbonate abundance compared with fluctuations in
398	metazoan diversity over geological time. Sediment. Geol. 185, 229-238.
399	Rong, H., Jiao, Y.Q., Wang, Y.B., Wu, L.Q., Wang, R., 2014. Distribution and
400	geologic significance of Girvanella within the Yijianfang Ordovician reef
401	complexes in the Bachu area, West Tarim Basin, China. Facies 60, 685-702.
402	Ross, R.J.Jr., 1996. Quintessence of the Ordovician: from Rocky Mountain beaches to
403	the depths of Nevada. In: Longman, M.W., Sonnenfeld, M.D. (Eds), Paleozoic
404	Systems of the Rocky Mountains Regions. SEPM, Rocky Mountain Section, pp.
405	47-62.
406	Rowland, S.M., 2001. Archaeocyaths: a history of phylogenetic interpretation. J.
407	Paleontol. 75, 1065-1078.
408	Toomey, D.F., 1970. An unhurried look at a Lower Ordovician mound horizon,
409	southern Franklin Mountains, west Texas. J. Sediment. Petrol. 40, 1318-1334.
410	Toomey, D.F., Nittecki, M.H., 1979. Organic buildups in the Lower Ordovician
411	(Canadian) of Texas and Oklahoma. Field. Geol. 2, 181.
412	Wang J.P, Li Y., Zhang Y.Y, Li Q.J, Deng X.J, 2011. Early-Middle Ordovician
413	Calathium reef mounds: history and palaeoecology. Acta Palaeontol. Sin. 50,
414	132-140 (in Chinese with English abstract).
415	Wang, J.P., Deng, X.J., Wang, G., Li, Y., 2012. Types and biotic successions of
416	Ordovician reefs in China. Chin. Sci. Bull. 57, 1160-1168.
417	Webb, G.E., 1996 Was Phanerozoic reef history controlled by the distribution of
418	nonenzymatically secreted reef carbonates (microbial carbonate and biologically

- induced cement)? Sedementology 43, 947-971. 419
- Webby, B.D., 1984. Ordovician reefs and climate: a review. In: Bruton, D.L. (Ed.), 420
- Aspects of the Ordovician System. University of Oslo, Palaeontological 421 Contributions 295, pp. 89-100. 422
- Webby, B.D., 2002. Patterns of Ordovician reef development. In: Kiessling, W., 423
- Flügel, E., Golonka, J. (Eds.), Phanerozoi Reef Patterns. SEPM Special 424 Publication 72, SEPM, Tulsa, Oklahoma, pp. 129-179. 425
- Wood, R., 1999. Reef Evolution. Oxford University Press, Oxford. 426
- Wood, R., Zhuravlev, A.Y., Debrenne, F., 1992. Functional biology and ecology of 427 Archaeocyatha. Palaios 7, 131-156. 428
- Xiong, J.F., Wu, T., Ye, D.S., 2006. New advances on the study of Middle-Late 429
- 430 Ordovician conodonts in Bachu, Xinjiang. Acta Palaeontol. Sin. 45, 359-373 (in Chinese with English abstract). 431
- Zhang, Y.Y., Wang, J.P., Munnecke, A., Li, Y., 2015. Ramp morphology controlling 432
- the facies differentiation of a Late Ordovician reef complex at Bachu, Tarim 433 Block, NW China. Lethaia, 48, 509-521. 434
- Zhou, Z.Y., Chen, X., Wang, Z.H., Wang, Z.Z., Li, J., Geng, L.Y., Fang, Z.J., Qiao, 435
- X.D., Zhang, T.R., 1990. Ordovician of Tarim. In: Zhou, Z.Y., Chen, P.J. (Eds), 436
- Biostratigraphy and Geological Evolution of Tarim. Science Press, Beijing, pp. 437 56-130. 438
- Zhu, Z.D., Hu, M.Y., Liu, B.L., Xiao, C.T., Yang, W., Li, X.M., 2006. Early-Middle 439 Ordovician Reefs in China. Geology Publication, Beijing, 178 pp (in Chinese).
- 441

443

461

444	Fig. 1. Locations of the sections containing Calathium reefs along the Lianglitag
445	Mountains, Tarim Block, NW China. A) Tarim Block in Xinjiang, Northwest China.
446	B) Tectonic division of the Tarim Block (simplified after Jia et al., 1995) and the
447	position of the Lianglitag Mountains. Locations of the Mazatag Well Block and
448	Yangjikan section in Kalpin region are also marked. C) Aerial image showing the
449	available sections along the Lianglitag Mountains.
450	
451	Fig. 2. Biostratigraphic scheme of the Middle-Upper Ordovician Period (after Li et al.,
452	2009) and lithologic column of the Yijianfang Formation.
453	
454	Fig. 3. Photographs of <i>Calathium</i> patch reefs at Yijianfang section. A) <i>Calathium</i>
455	patch reef core and surrounding shoal facies. B) Bafflestone formed by dense
456	Calathium frameworks. C) Closely clustered Calathium fossils (right) are surrounded
457	by micrite (left). D) Bioclastic packstones rich in pelmatozoan debris from shoal
458	facies.
459	
460	Fig. 4. Calathium patch reefs in the P22 site. A) Diverse-sized Calathium patch reef

462 fossil in the reef-core. The pen scale bar is 1 cm long. C) Framework constructed by

units and their associated shoal facies. B) Bafflestones formed by huge Calathium

463 *Calathium* (Cal) and encrust microbes (Em). Note coeloms filled by sparry calcite. D)

464 Bioclastic packstone of the shoal facies rich in pelmatozoan debris.

465

466	Fig. 5. Calathium reef unit at the Nanyigou section. A) Gentle relief patch reef with
467	thickness about 1 m surrounded by bioclastic packstones. B) In situ erect Calathium
468	in the reef core. C) Calathium cluster from reef-core. D) Bioclastic packstone rich in
469	pelmatozoan debris from the reef-flank.
470	
471	Fig. 6. Depositional sequences at the Yangmaile section. A) In situ preserved

171	rig. 0. Depositional sequences at the ranginane section. <i>rij in saa</i> preservee
472	Calathium bafflestone of the biostrome. B, D) Tempestite beds composed of coarse
473	nautiloids and Calathium fragments. C) In situ preserved shelly bed composed of a
474	single species of brachiopods.

476 Fig. 7. Paleoecologic and geographic reconstruction of the *Calathium* reef complex
477 transect, from north to south along the Lianglitag Mountains.













