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1	Shallow ocean oxygen decline during the end-Triassic mass extinction	
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# 20 ABSTRACT

The end-Triassic mass extinction (ETME) was associated with intensified deep-water anoxia in 21 22 epicontinental seas and mid-depth waters, yet the absolute oxygenation state in the shallow ocean is uncharacterized. Here we report carbonate-associated iodine data from the peritidal 23 Mount Sparagio section (Southern Italy) that documents the ETME (~ 200 Ma) in the western 24 Tethys. We find a sharp drop in carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratios across the extinction horizon and 25 persisting into the Early Jurassic. This records local dissolved oxygen and iodate decline in the 26 near-surface ocean of low-latitude Tethys due to the development of depleted oxygen 27 concentrations. Consequently, during the ETME even shallow-water animals, such as the 28 megalodonts seen at Mount Sparagio, were likely the victims of oxygen-poor conditions. The 29 shallow ocean deoxygenation coincides with the synchronous spread of deeper anoxic waters 30 and widespread anoxic deposition on continental shelves and slopes. An upwards expansion of 31 the mid-water oxygen minimum zone in the latest Triassic shoaled the oxycline and triggered a 32 major marine crisis. 33

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*Keywords:* Shallow ocean deoxygenation; Western Tethys; End-Triassic mass extinction;
 I/(Ca+Mg)

## 38 **1. Introduction**

Deoxygenation of the upper ocean is a threat to modern marine ecosystems due to global 39 warming and has been observed as a consequence of past warming events at numerous episodes 40 in Earth history (Jenkyns, 2010; Breitburg et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2018; Oschlies, 2021; Song et 41 42 al., 2021). The end-Triassic mass extinction (ETME; ~200 Ma) is cotemporaneous with a prominent expansion of marine anoxia that is closely linked to the hothouse climate associated 43 44 with Central Atlantic Magmatic Province (CAMP) volcanism (Ruhl et al., 2011; He et al., 2020). Existing data demonstrate that strengthened anoxic conditions during the ETME were prevalent 45 across many semi-enclosed basins of Europe (Luo et al., 2018; Beith et al., 2021; Fox et al., 46 2022) and the mid-depth waters of open ocean (Jost et al., 2017; He et al., 2020), whilst the 47 pelagic deeper ocean remained fully-ventilated (Wignall et al., 2010; Fujisaki et al., 2020). 48 Nevertheless, it is largely unknown with respect to the absolute redox state in the upper water 49 column of shallow marine locations across the Triassic–Jurassic (T–J) transition, as the shallow 50 marine ecosystem accounts for the vast majority of aerobic marine organisms and their habitats. 51 Hence, filling this knowledge gap is crucial for tracking the anoxic/hypoxic-extinction link 52 across the ETME. 53

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Carbonate-associated iodine is widely used as a redox proxy to constrain oxic to hypoxic 55 conditions (dissolved oxygen content  $[O_2] = \sim 10$  to  $\sim 100 \,\mu \text{mol/kg}$ ) in the upper water column 56 (Lu et al., 2010; Hoogakker et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2018; Pohl et al., 2021). The modern ocean 57 has a relatively uniform concentration of iodine due to its long residence time of ~300 kyr. 58 However, the speciation of iodine in the local water column is dependent upon a redox-sensitive 59 pathway between iodate  $(IO_3^-)$  and iodide  $(I^-)$  (Luther and Campbell, 1991; Rue et al., 1997). 60 Under low oxygen conditions iodate is readily reduced to iodide (Luther and Campbell, 1991; 61 Rue et al., 1997), and will convert back to its oxidized form in the presence of abundant 62 63 dissolved oxygen. The kinetics of iodide oxidation are slow relative to those of reduction (Chance et al., 2014; Hardisty et al., 2020, 2021). Only iodate is readily incorporated into the 64 calcite lattice, substituting for the CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> ion ( **Podder et al., 2017; Feng and Redfern, 2018**), 65 which allows the concentrations of this structurally substituted iodine to directly reflect water 66 column redox state during the deposition of carbonate (Lu et al., 2010). Thus, the utilization of 67 I/(Ca+Mg) in ancient carbonates affords an opportunity to trace in situ [O<sub>2</sub>] variations through 68 time in shallow marine environments. Because of the slow oxidation kinetics of iodide, the 69 I/(Ca+Mg) proxy can also incorporate a contribution from regional mixing between 70 adjacent water masses (Lu et al., 2020; Hardisty et al., 2021). Further, carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) 71 can also qualitatively track depth of the oxycline in the water column where the  $[O_2]$  decreases 72 73 more sharply. Carbonate deposited within the shallow ocean realm reflect surface or nearsurface seawater dissolved iodate, and is considered to be imparted by the expansion or contraction of a proximal oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) or by fluctuations in the depth of the oxycline (Zhou et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2018).

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Here we present a high-resolution I/(Ca+Mg) record from an upper Rhaetian–lower Hettangian peritidal carbonate succession (Mount Sparagio section, Southern Italy) that was located in the western Tethys (see data in Fig. 1 and Table S1). We show the first evidence of a prominent decline in dissolved oxygen levels in the shallow ocean across the ETME. Low oxygen conditions appear to have persisted into the early Hettangian shallow ocean.

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#### 84 **2. Palaeogeography and Stratigraphy**

The Mount Sparagio (MS) section from western Sicily (Southern Italy) was located at low-85 latitude of ~15°N in a shallow carbonate platform of the western Tethys (Fig. 1) (Todaro et al., 86 2017). The studied succession records upper Rhaetian to lower Hettangian peritidal carbonates 87 (Todaro et al., 2017; He et al., 2020). The subtidal facies of Upper Triassic strata are 88 characterized by the occurrence of megalodontids, calcareous algae and a benthic foraminifera 89 90 association with Triasina hantkeni, Aulotortus sp., Auloconus permodiscoides indicative of a Rhaetian age (Todaro et al., 2017). The extinction horizon is marked by the last occurrence of 91 megalodontids and the characteristic Rhaetian benthic foraminifer Triasina hantkeni and occurs 92 immediately below a thin oolitic limestone that is unique to this level at ~200 m height (Fig. 2). 93 The bloom of the typical Jurassic species Thaumatoporella parvovesiculifera associated with 94 95 only rare *Aeolisaccus* sp., at a short distance above this oolitic horizon is a further evidence of the extinction interval, and is followed by a slow recovery of the Jurassic benthic community in 96 97 the earliest Hettangian (Todaro et al., 2018; He et al., 2020).

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#### 99 **3. Material and methods**

A total of 49 well-preserved micritic limestone samples were measured for carbonate-100 associated iodine concentration. Bulk carbonate rocks were cut into small rock cubes to trim the 101 weathered crust. This was followed by grinding to a fine powder using a TEMA laboratory agate 102 disc mill. Around 20 mg of sample powder was first rinsed by ultrapure water three times and 103 dried. The protocol of carbonate-associated iodine extraction is a modification after the 104 work of Lu et al. (2010). For each sample approximately 5 mg of cleaned dry powder was then 105 weighed and treated with 3 % (v/v) nitric acid using an ultrasonic bath at room temperature. 106 This carbonate leaching step was completed within 15 minutes to minimize the potential for 107 iodine escape at low pH conditions. The samples were centrifuged and the supernatant 108 109 containing the leachate was mixed with a 0.5 % (v/v) HNO<sub>3</sub>, 0.5 % (v/v) ammonium hydroxide, 110 3 % (v/v) methanol solution. The ammonium hydroxide is required to stabilize the iodine in 111 solution and minimize sample washout times during inductively coupled plasma mass 112 spectrometer (ICP-MS) analysis.

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Methanol is added to the solution as a source of carbon to promote a signal 114 enhancement for iodine measurements. Carbon has been known to enhance the signal for 115 iodine on ICP-MS for some time and several studies have systematically investigated this 116 effect (Grindlay et al., 2013; Ariga et al., 2019). The effect is not fully understood but is 117 attributed to charge transfer reactions occurring in the plasma of the ICP-MS which allow 118 difficult to ionize elements such as iodine to be ionized and thus detected by the mass 119 spectrometer. Studies have shown that the source of carbon is not important to the effect 120 (Grindlay et al., 2013). Methanol was chosen for this work due to its ready availability 121 and simplicity to work with. Enhancement of the iodine signal with the addition of carbon 122 has been found up to 2.5x that without (Ariga et al., 2019). No increase in background 123 signal due to the addition of carbon for iodine was observed in this work. 124

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Analysis of these solutions must be complete within 24 hours of dissolution. An aliquot was 126 measured for concentrations of Ca and Mg using a ThermoFisher iCAP 7400 radial inductively 127 coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES). Samples and calibration standards 128 were internally standardized using 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Y and Lu. A further aliquot was analysed for iodine 129 using a ThermoFisher iCAP Qc ICP-MS in the Aqueous Analytical Facility, University of 130 Leeds. Samples and calibration standards were internally standardized using 5 mg  $L^{-1}$  Te and 131 the standards matrixed matched to the samples by addition of 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup> Ca. The instrumental 132 precisions for Ca, Mg and I are better than 1 %. The ICP-MS was tuned for highest sensitivity 133 to iodine. Repeated measurements of the reference material JCp-1 (coral, Porites sp.) yielded a 134 I/Ca of  $4.52 \pm 0.14 \mu$ mol/mol, which can also be expressed as a carbonate-associated iodine 135 concentration of  $5.48 \pm 0.17 \,\mu$ g/g, n=14 (see Table S2 for JCp-1 measurement data), comparable 136 to the published acid-leachable iodine concentration of  $5.43 \pm 0.07 \,\mu$ g/g, n=8 (Lu et al., 2010) 137 and the certified total measure of iodine concentration of 5.5  $\pm$  0.2  $\mu$ g/g, n=5 (Chai and 138 Muramatsu, 2007). 139

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#### 141 **4. Results and discussions**

We first rule out potential lithological and diagenetic controls on the I/(Ca+Mg) dataset (Table
S1). Samples are dominantly micritic limestone with uniform CaCO<sub>3</sub> contents mostly above
90% and lean in organic matter (He et al., 2020), suggesting minimal lithological control on
the variations of I/(Ca+Mg) or contamination by non-carbonate phase and organic-bounded

- iodine (Glock et al., 2019). Mn/Sr ratios in carbonates have been suggested as a measure of
  the degree of post-depositional alteration (Brand and Veizer, 1980) while post-depositional
  dolomitization can be assessed by Mg/Ca ratios. No correlation is observed with the Mg/Ca
  or Mn/Sr (Fig. 3), which indicates a minor influence of dolomitization or diagenetic imprint on
  the structurally incorporated iodine. Hence, the carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) changes at the MS section
  likely indicate primary signals of water column redox conditions (Lu et al., 2010).
- 152

Our I/(Ca+Mg) profile from MS section documents higher baseline values with an average 153 of  $3.5 \pm 1.0 \mu$ mol/mol (N=32) throughout the pre-extinction period in the late Rhaetian (Fig. 154 2a). These new I/(Ca+Mg) data add to the existing low-resolution global data compilation for 155 the T-J transition (~200 Ma) (Lu et al., 2018) when seawater iodine concentration depicts a 156 substantial rise from the low plateau phase (~1  $\mu$ mol/mol) in the Permian–Triassic to high levels 157 (~3 µmol/mol) in the Early Jurassic. Hence, our I/(Ca+Mg) data from MS section validate the 158 previous finding of a long-term increase of oceanic I/Ca ratios from the Triassic to the Jurassic. 159 This change was attributed to a net reduction of oxygen consumption in the upper ocean due to 160 post-ETME radiation of modern-type eukaryotic phytoplankton (Lu et al., 2018). 161

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Nevertheless, the absolute I/(Ca+Mg) values at MS section fluctuate between 2 µmol/mol 163 and 6 µmol/mol throughout the pre-ETME late Rhaetian (Fig. 2a). This fluctuating I/(Ca+Mg) 164 record may have resulted from a periodic shallowing of the depositional site as indicated by 165 frequent occurrence of red palaeosols (Fig. 2a), which is consistent with facies stacking 166 evidence of shallowing-upward cycles (subtidal-intertidal-supratidal) in these peritidal 167 sediments (Todaro et al., 2017). Alternatively, fluctuation in seawater iodine abundance may 168 have been driven by frequent shallowing of water column oxycline that overlies a proximal 169 OMZ, where dissolved iodate were completely reduced to iodide (Zhou et al., 2016; Lu et al., 170 2018). 171

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In stark contrast to the pre-extinction interval, I/(Ca+Mg) data record a sharp decline from 173 ~5  $\mu$ mol/mol to as low as 0.8  $\mu$ mol/mol (average of 1.4 ± 0.5  $\mu$ mol/mol (N=6)) in the latest 174 Rhaetian (Fig. 2a), which coincides precisely with the mass extinction horizon. The extinction 175 is also characterized by the sudden disappearance of megalodont bivalves and the foraminifer 176 Triasina hantkeni, and a synchronous positive S-isotope excursion in carbonate-associated 177 sulfate ( $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$ ; Fig. 2b). Hyperthermal conditions around the T–J transition are thought to have 178 initiated the spread of marine anoxia via increased eutrophication, oxygen consumption and 179 reduction in oxygen solubility in warmer surface waters (He et al., 2020). The large decrease in 180 181 carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratios across the ETME (MS) indicates a depletion of the dissolved iodate

pool due to decreased [O<sub>2</sub>]. The concurrent positive  $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$  shift suggests extensive anoxia and 182 burial of pyrite on continental shelves and slopes at this time (He et al., 2020). The spread of 183 anoxic waters would have been enhanced by oceanic sulfate paucity, which would have 184 suppressed the anaerobic oxidation of methane in the sediments, leading to increased benthic 185 methane flux and net oxygen consumption on the seafloor (He et al., 2020). Anoxic conditions 186 likely expanded from the mid-depth OMZ into shallower waters (Fig. 4b), causing hypoxia and 187 iodate depletion in the surface waters. It is also noteworthy that such correlative redox 188 changes through the shallow to mid-depth waters, as demonstrated by coupled I/(Ca+Mg) 189 and  $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$  trends, are commonly seen in many other prominent anoxic events in the 190 geologic past (Lu et al., 2010; Gill et al., 2011; Owens et al., 2017; Edwards et al., 2018). 191 Thus, the shallowing of the oxycline and upwards invasion of anoxic waters across the ETME 192 is likely to explain the sharp decline in carbonate I/(Ca+Mg) ratios. Indeed, uranium isotope 193 evidence for contemporary deeper water anoxia was found in the adjacent Lombardy Basin (Jost 194 et al., 2017), which likely suggests an upwards expansion of OMZ across the ETME in the area. 195 196

The I/(Ca+Mg) record stays at low level  $(1.7 \pm 0.4 \mu mol/mol (N=11))$  on average) across the 197 T-J boundary and into the earliest Hettangian (Fig. 2a), indicating continued iodate depletion 198 due to hypoxic conditions in the shallow ocean. However, these post-ETME carbonates exhibit 199 slightly higher iodine concentration compared to those at the major phase of ETME, associated 200 with the recovery of sulfate  $\delta^{34}$ S (Fig. 2), which may indicate a lesser degree or persistence 201 of anoxia/hypoxia. Further, the uppermost Rhaetian-lower Hettangian sedimentology of the 202 203 MS section records a minor facies transition to a relatively deeper peritidal setting, evident by the thin oolitic limestone bed at a flooding surface immediately above the extinction horizon 204 205 and higher occurrence of marly limestone in the lower Hettangian (Fig. 2). Hence, it is possible that MS section saw a transition to slightly deeper facies preceding the ETME, resulting in an 206 improved connection to the open ocean. Thus, the shallow ocean hypoxic condition revealed 207 from the post-extinction MS section likely indicates an open marine signal of dysoxia. These 208 commonly hypoxic conditions likely prevailed in the wider shallow ocean in the post-extinction 209 early Hettangian, possibly with an oscillating redox state as seen in the European epicontinental 210 sea (Beith et al., 2021; Fox et al., 2022). The shallow ocean hypoxia during the T–J transition 211 may have also varied spatially although uranium isotope evidence suggests deeper water column 212 anoxia was widespread until the middle Hettangian Stage (Jost et al., 2017). Despite low oxygen 213 levels in the post-ETME shallow ocean, it did not prolong the extinction or inhibit the local 214 recovery of marine communities, although some post-ETME species found at the MS 215 section (alga Thaumatoporella parvovesiculifera and benthic foraminifers Siphovalvulina 216 sp.) (Todaro et al., 2017, 2018) could be tolerant to oxygen-poor conditions. Furthermore, 217

hypoxic conditions in the earliest Hettangian may have had a limited geographic spread
and likely frequently alternated with periods of oxic water column conditions (He et al.,
2022), as evidenced by the presence of a diverse benthic fauna in some shallow-water areas
during the earliest Jurassic (Atkinson and Wignall, 2020; Wignall and Atkinson, 2020).
Some other environmental stressors for the ETME, such as ocean acidification (Fox et al.,
2020, 2022), may have receded immediately after the extinction, allowing the shallow
ocean ecosystem to recover in the early Hettangian.

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In summary, our new I/(Ca+Mg) record from the MS section in Southern Italy, combined 226 with published  $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$  data provide evidence of oxygen decline in the shallowest realms of 227 western Tethys during the ETME. We attribute this major redox shift to a combined 228 consequence of local [O<sub>2</sub>] decrease and possible upwards expansion of oxygen depletion from 229 a mid-depth OMZ to the shallow ocean. The onset of the shallow ocean deoxygenation event 230 was clearly synchronous with the loss of megalodont bivalves and foraminifer Triasina hantkeni 231 (Fig. 2), suggesting a cause-and-effect relationship between  $[O_2]$  scarcity and ecological stress 232 even in exceptionally shallow-water Tethyan areas. This adds to the growing evidence that 233 indicates a global anoxia/hypoxia-extinction link in a variety of marine settings during the 234 ETME (Jaraula et al., 2013; Jost et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2018; He et al., 2020; Beith et al., 2021; 235 Fox et al., 2022; Kipp and Tissot, 2022). Many similar events through the Mesozoic and 236 Paleogene (e.g., Toarcian oceanic anoxic event, Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum) were 237 accompanied by hyperthermal events and upper ocean hypoxia (Jenkyns, 2010; Lu et al., 2010; 238 Zhou et al., 2014, 2016; Song et al., 2021), which together serve as potential analogues to 239 explore the possible outcomes of ongoing anthropogenic warming. 240

# 241 **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

244

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# 256 Appendix. Table S1 and S2

257 Supplementary data to this article can be found at Table S1 and S2.



# Fig. 1. Paleogeographic map for the shallow marine Mount Sparagio section of western Tethys during the Triassic–Jurassic (T–J) transition. This map is based on Todaro *et al.* (2018). Yellow triangle indicates the location of the studied Mount Sparagio section. CAMP: Central Atlantic Magmatic Province.



Fig. 2. I/(Ca+Mg) and  $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$  profiles of Mount Sparagio section from Latest Triassic to 264 Early Jurassic. Stratigraphic depth (m) and the lithological log are presented alongside 265 the stages, with stratigraphic units of Todaro et al. (2018). Carbonate-associated sulfate 266  $\delta^{34}S_{CAS}$  data are from He *et al.* (2020). The orange horizontal dash line and shadowed field 267 indicate the end-Triassic mass extinction (ETME) at this location. The green arrow 268 indicates the sharp drop in I/(Ca+Mg) across the ETME. The occurrence of red 269 palaeosols in Unit B indicate subaerial exposure of the site. The vertical blue lines and 270 light purple bands in a show average I/(Ca+Mg) values with uncertainty windows of 271  $1\sigma$  standard deviations pre-, during and post-ETME. 272



Fig. 3. Correlation between I/(Ca+Mg) molar ratios and elemental mass ratios of carbonates from Mount Sparagio section. a Cross-plot of I/[Ca+Mg] and Mg/Ca shows no correlation ( $R^2 < 0.001$ ), suggesting no alteration of redox-proxy values from minor dolomitization (Mg/Ca < 0.06 mol/mol). b Cross-plot of I/[Ca+Mg] and Mn/Sr displays no correlation ( $R^2 = 0.002$ ), suggesting minimal diagenetic imprint. Mn and Sr data are from He *et al.* (2020). ETME: end-Triassic mass extinction.



Fig. 4. Schematic diagram of global oceanic redox change through the Triassic-Jurassic 281 transition. Iodine speciation systematics is adapted from Lu et al. (2018). Relative 282 concentrations of redox-sensitive elements: iodate ( $IO_3^-$ ), iodide ( $I^-$ ) and sulfate ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ) are 283 indicated. OMZ: Oxygen Minimum Zone. Anoxic-ferruginous and euxinic water column 284 conditions are demarcated with  $[Fe^{2+}]$  and  $[H_2S]$  respectively. ETME: end-Triassic mass 285 extinction. a Pre-ETME 'Mesozoic-type' water column redox state with well-oxygenated 286 upper ocean and restricted OMZ in mid-depth waters. b Redox state during and post-ETME 287 showing an expanded OMZ and shallowing of the oxycline, leading to hypoxic conditions 288 and iodate depletion in the shallow ocean. Low sulfate concentration in the ocean likely 289 increased the benthic methane flux to the bottom-water and the oxygen demand (He et al., 290 291 2020).

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