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1	MODEL BASED PALEOZOIC ATMOSPHERIC OXYGEN ESTIMATES: A REVISIT TO
2	GEOCARBSULF
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28	Abstract. Geological redox proxies increasingly point toward low atmospheric oxygen
29	concentrations during the early Paleozoic Era, and a protracted rise towards present-day levels.
30	However, these proxies currently provide qualitative estimates of atmospheric O2 levels. Global
31	biogeochemical models, in contrast, are commonly employed to generate quantitative estimates for
32	atmospheric O2 levels through Earth's history. Estimates for Paleozoic pO2 generated by
33	GEOCARBSULF, one of the most widely implemented carbon and sulfur cycle models, have
34	historically suggested high atmospheric O2 level throughout the Paleozoic, in direct contradiction to
35	competing models. In this study, we evaluate if GEOCARBSULF can predict relatively low
36	Paleozoic O ₂ levels. We first updated GEOCARBSULF by adopting the recent complication of the
37	δ^{13} C value of marine buried carbonate and replacing the old formulation of sulfur isotope
38	fractionation factor with the empirical sulfur isotope records. Afterwards, we constructed various
39	O2 evolution scenarios (with low O2 levels in the early Paleozoic) and examined if GEOCARBSULF
40	could reproduce these scenarios by varying the weathering/degassing fluxes of carbon and sulfur,
41	or carbonate $\delta^{13}C.$ We show that GEOCARBSULF can, in fact, maintain low-O_2 (even 1–5% atm)
42	levels through the early Paleozoic by only varying the carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ within 2SD bounds permitted
43	by the geological record. In addition, it can generate a middle–late Paleozoic rise in ${ m O}_2$
44	concentration, coincident with the diversification of land plants. However, given the complexity of
45	the carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ record, we also argue that GEOCARBSULF cannot be used to track
46	atmospheric O_2 levels until we have a better record of Paleozoic marine carbonate carbon isotope
47	evolution.
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INTRODUCTION

55 The protracted rise of atmospheric oxygen is one of the most obvious ways in which life has 56 reshaped our planet. However, almost all aspects of the history of atmospheric oxygen have been 57 fervently debated over the past few decades. For instance, there is still persistent debate about the role—if 58 any—that land plants played in driving the rise of atmospheric oxygen over the Paleozoic (Bergman and 59 others, 2004; Berner, 1987; Berner, 2001a; Berner, 2006b; Berner and Canfield, 1989; Lenton and others, 60 2016; Wallace and others, 2017). A series of geochemical redox proxies have been used to estimate the 61 atmospheric O_2 levels qualitatively. Statistical analysis of iron speciation (Sperling and others, 2015) 62 indicates widespread anoxic marine subsurface waters in the Cambrian. Cerium anomalies in well 63 preserved marine cements and other marine precipitates confirmed that ocean anoxia was prevalent not 64 only in the Cambrian but also through the Ordovician to Early Devonian (Wallace and others, 2017). The 65 cerium anomaly record also argues for a continuous rise of surface O_2 levels through the Devonian, which 66 has also been suggested using Mo isotope data (Dahl and others, 2010). 67 Although there are consistent advances in using geochemical paleo-redox proxies to predict O_2

 $\begin{array}{ll} 68 & \mbox{levels qualitatively, quantitative estimates of atmospheric oxygen for the Phanerozoic still come from} \\ 69 & \mbox{global biogeochemical models. Over geologic time scales (>1 million years), atmospheric O_2 levels are} \\ 70 & \mbox{controlled by the carbon (C) and sulfur (S) sedimentary redox cycles (Berner, 1987). Oxidative} \end{array}$

71 weathering of organic carbon and pyrite (and oxidation of reduced gases) will consume O₂ while

- sediment burial of organic carbon and pyrite will release O₂.
- 73

The representative reactions for O₂ update are:

$$O_2 + CH_2 O \to CO_2 + H_2 O$$
 (1)

$$15O_2 + 4FeS_2 + 8H_2O \to 2Fe_2O_3 + 8SO_4^{-2} + 16H^+$$
(2)

The representative reactions for O_2 release are just the reverse of the reactions above. Based on these reactions, changes in atmospheric O_2 with time can be formulated as (Berner, 2004):

$$\frac{d[O_2]}{dt} = F_{bg} - F_{wg} - F_{mg} + \left(\frac{15}{8}\right) \left(F_{bp} - F_{wp} - F_{mp}\right)$$
(3)

76	Where F_{bg} and F_{bp} are the rate of burial of organic carbon and of pyrite sulfur in sediments
77	respectively, F_{wg} and F_{wp} are the rate of oxidative weathering of organic carbon and of pyrite sulfur
78	respectively, and F_{mg} and F_{mp} are the rate of oxidation of reduced carbon-containing gases and of reduced
79	sulfur-containing gases released via diagenesis, metamorphism, and volcanism respectively. The
80	embedded ratio refers to the stoichiometry of the reaction related to pyrite formation and oxidation.
81	Various numeric models have been built to estimate atmospheric O ₂ levels over the Phanerozoic,
82	and these models differ in how they calculate the weathering and burial fluxes of organic carbon and
83	pyrite (Arvidson and others, 2013; Bergman and others, 2004; Berner, 2001b; Berner, 2006b; Berner and
84	Canfield, 1989; Falkowski and others, 2005; Hansen and Wallmann, 2003; Lenton and others, 2016;
85	Mills and others, 2014; Mills and others, 2016). The two mostly commonly utilized models for the
86	Phanerozoic are GEOCARBSULF (Berner, 2006b; Berner, 2009) and COPSE (Bergman and others,
87	2004; Lenton and others, 2016; Mills and others, 2014). These models produce fundamentally different
88	predictions for atmospheric oxygen levels over the Paleozoic. Specifically, GEOCARBSULF predicts
89	near modern pO ₂ throughout the Paleozoic (fig. 1), which implies that land plants were not essential to
90	drive Earth to the high oxygen state characteristic of the modern world. COPSE, on the other hand,
91	predicts low atmospheric oxygen throughout the early Paleozoic, and a rise towards modern levels during
92	the middle-late Paleozoic coincident with the evolution of land plants (fig. 1).
93	These differences between models arise from the methods used to calculate O ₂ fluxes: in the
94	GEOCARBSULF model, carbon and sulfur burial rates are inverted from isotope mass balance, whereas
95	the COPSE model calculates their burial rates based on assumed primary productivity and nutrient
96	recycling. Primary productivity and nutrient recycling are difficult to estimate for Earth's past, especially
97	when considering the Paleozoic where geologic data are sparse. In COPSE (Bergman and others, 2004),
98	an increase of carbon burial on land in the Carboniferous was driven by doubling the C:P burial ratio of
99	land organic matter to represent the effects of enhanced preservation in swamps and mires. This model

100 condition contributes to a mid-Paleozoic O_2 rise. Similarly, the assumption of a high C:P ratio and high 101 land primary productivity starting from ~470 Ma leads to the rapid rise of O_2 in the early Paleozoic in the 102 more recent version of COPSE (Lenton and others, 2016). Therefore, the COPSE model is parameterized 103 in such a way as to directly drive a rise in atmospheric oxygen levels with the emergence of land plants, 104 and thus does not provide truly independent support for the link between land plant evolution and global 105 oxygenation.

106 Here we revisit GEOCARBSULF to explore if this model can be consistent with land plants 107 reshaping our atmosphere. Specifically, we test whether atmospheric O_2 can be maintained at relatively 108 low levels in the early Paleozoic, and if O_2 can rise over the latter half of the Paleozoic in 109 GEOCARBSULF. We address this question by investigating the sources and sinks of O_2 , as shown in 110 equation (3). First, we conducted sensitivity analyses on the weathering and degassing of carbon and 111 sulfur reservoir, which directly influences the O_2 sinks and also determines the O_2 sources indirectly 112 through their control on the burial rate of organic carbon and pyrite. Second, we investigated the effect on O_2 levels of a single term — the $\delta^{13}C$ value of buried carbonate through time, which directly reflects the 113 114 burial of organic carbon and in turn regulates the rates of O₂ release. In addition, we used a more 115 reasonable value of the initial sulfate proportion in the crust and performed sensitivity analyses on δ^{13} C 116 value of buried carbonate using this updated value. Building from this work we argue that 117 GEOCARBSULF can produce low Paleozoic O₂ level by only varying the δ^{13} C values within 118 uncertainties of the geological record. In other words, variation of δ^{13} C values of carbonate plays a big 119 role in controlling the model output. Therefore, unless we have a better constrained and more robust 120 carbonate carbon isotope record, GEOCARBSULF is not capable of pinpointing atmospheric O_2 121 evolution through Paleozoic. 122 123 A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO GEOCARBSULF

124 GEOCARBSULF was constructed upon a series of seminal studies on global carbon and sulfur 125 cycling. The numerical models for reconstructing the mass of oxidized and reduced carbon and sulfur

126 through the Phanerozoic build heavily upon the work of Garrels and Lerman (1981; 1984), which outlined 127 the central tenets in global isotope mass balance modeling. Berner (1987) made a major modification 128 when he put forward the idea of "rapid recycling" to provide strong negative feedback on O_2 fluctuations 129 and predicted atmospheric O_2 evolution through the Phanerozoic. In rapid recycling, the mass of each 130 sedimentary reservoir is divided into young (rapidly weathering) and old (slowly weathering) 131 components. All newly buried carbon and sulfur go to the young reservoirs. In this way, whenever there is 132 a rapid burial of organic carbon or pyrite (leading to rapid O₂ release), there will be a subsequent rapid 133 weathering of those young organic carbon or pyrite (leading to rapid O_2 consumption), which will 134 mitigate the fluctuation of O₂. To provide a stronger negative feedback, Berner and others (2000) and 135 Berner (2001b) also incorporated O₂-dependent carbon and sulfur isotope fractionation into the model. In 136 2006, Berner combined GEOCARB III (a classic model to reconstruct the CO₂ levels in the past and 137 largely developed by Berner) and the O₂ model into a single model called GEOCARBSULF, which could 138 simultaneously calculate the evolution of CO_2 and O_2 through the Phanerozoic (Berner, 2006b). In the 139 following years, GEOCARBSULF was continuously updated and refined (for example, inclusion of the 140 weathering of volcanic rocks and reconsideration of the fractionation of carbon isotopes) (Berner, 2006a; 141 Berner, 2009) and the most recent version is described by Royer and others (2014).

An overview of the geochemical cycles of carbon, sulfur and oxygen in GEOCARBSULF is presented in figure 2. The full equations and parameters of GEOCARBSULF are described in detail in the Appendix. Below we list the key equations (with parameters defined in figure 2 and the Appendix) in GEOCARBSULF that are used to calculate the fluxes related to O₂ evolution.

$$F_{wgy} = f_A \cdot f_R \cdot \mathbf{k}_{wgy} \cdot G_y(t) \tag{4}$$

$$F_{wga} = f_R \cdot F_{wga} 0 \tag{5}$$

$$F_{wcy} = f_A \cdot f_D \cdot f_L \cdot f_E \cdot f_{Bb_ca} \cdot k_{wcy} \cdot C_y(t)$$
(6)

$$F_{wca} = f_A \cdot f_D \cdot f_L \cdot f_E \cdot f_{Bb_ca} \cdot F_{wca_}0 \tag{7}$$

$$F_{wpy} = f_A \cdot f_R \cdot \mathbf{k}_{wpy} \cdot P_y(t) \tag{8}$$

$$F_{wpa} = f_R \cdot F_{wpa} 0 \tag{9}$$

$$F_{wsy} = f_A \cdot f_D \cdot \mathbf{k}_{wsy} \cdot S_y(t) \tag{10}$$

$$F_{wsa} = f_A \cdot f_D \cdot F_{wsa} 0 \tag{11}$$

$$F_{mg} = f_{SR} \cdot F_{mg} 0 \tag{12}$$

$$F_{mc} = f_{SR} \cdot f_C \cdot F_{mc} \cdot 0 \tag{13}$$

$$F_{mp} = f_{SR} \cdot F_{mp} 0 \tag{14}$$

$$F_{ms} = f_{SR} \cdot F_{ms} 0 \tag{15}$$

$$F_{bg} = \frac{1}{\Delta^{13}C} \times \left[(\delta^{13}C - dlcy) \cdot F_{wcy} + (\delta^{13}C - dlca) * F_{wca} + (\delta^{13}C - dlgy) * F_{wgy} + (\delta^{13}C - dlga) * F_{wga} + (\delta^{13}C - dlca) * F_{mc} + (\delta^{13}C - dlga) - dlga) * F_{mg} \right]$$
(16)

$$F_{bp} = \frac{1}{\Delta^{34}S} \times \left[(\delta^{34}S - dlsy) \cdot F_{wsy} + (\delta^{34}S - dlsa) * F_{wsa} + (\delta^{34}S - dlpy) * F_{wpy} \right.$$
$$\left. + (\delta^{34}S - dlpa) * F_{wpa} + (\delta^{34}S - dlsa) * F_{ms} + (\delta^{34}S - dlpa) \right]$$
$$\left. * F_{mp} \right]$$
(17)

$$\frac{d[O_2]}{dt} = F_{bg} - F_{wgy} - F_{wga} - F_{mg} + \left(\frac{15}{8}\right) \left(F_{bp} - F_{wpy} - F_{wpa} - F_{mp}\right)$$
(18)

146 Using the "rapid recycling" concept, the weatherable shell is divided into a young reservoir (F_{wgy}, 147 Fwcy, Fwpy, Fwsy) and an old reservoir (Fwga, Fwca, Fwpa, Fwsa). The isotope mass balance technique is given in 148 equations (16) and (17). In addition to the terms defined above (and in the caption of figure 2), f_A is land 149 area at time (t) relative to the present-day; f_D is global river runoff at time (t) relative to the present-day in 150 the absence of changing CO₂ and solar luminosity; f_L is land area covered by carbonates at time (t) 151 relative to the present-day; f_R is effect of relief on chemical weathering at time (t) relative to the present-152 day; f_{SR} is seafloor creation rate at time (t) relative to the present-day; f_E is effect of plants on weathering 153 rate at time (t) relative to the present-day; f_{BB} is effect of CO₂ on plant-assisted weathering for carbonates 154 at time (t) relative to the present-day; kwgy is rate of mass dependence for young organic carbon

155	weathering; k_{wcy} is rate of mass dependence for young carbonate weathering; k_{wpy} is rate of mass
156	dependence for young pyrite sulfur weathering; k_{wsy} is rate of mass dependence for young sulfate sulfur
157	weathering; F_{wga}_0 is carbon flux from weathering of old sedimentary organic matter at present-day;
158	$F_{wca}0$ is carbon flux from weathering of old carbonates at present-day; $F_{wpa}0$ is sulfur flux from
159	weathering of old pyrite at present-day; F_{wsa} 0 is sulfur flux from weathering of old sulfate at present-day;
160	F_{mg}_0 is carbon degassing flux of organic carbon at present-day; F_{mc}_0 is carbon degassing flux of
161	carbonates at present-day; F_{mp}_0 is sulfur degassing flux of pyrite at present-day; F_{ms}_0 is sulfur
162	degassing flux of sulfate at present-day; Δ^{13} C is the carbon isotope fractionation between carbonate and
163	organic carbon; δ^{13} C is the isotope value of carbonate carbon; dlgy, dlga, dlcy and dlca are the δ^{13} C value
164	of young organic carbon, old organic carbon, young carbonate carbon and old carbonate carbon
165	respectively; Δ^{34} S is the carbon isotope fractionation between gypsum and pyrite; δ^{34} S is the isotope value
166	of gypsum sulfur; dlpy, dlpa, dlsy and dlsa are the δ^{34} S value of young pyrite sulfur, old pyrite sulfur,
167	young gypsum sulfur and old gypsum sulfur respectively.
168	
169	MODIFICATION TO GEOCARBSULF
170	We modified the GEOCARBSULF version presented by Royer and others (2014), which is
171	largely identical to the initial versions of GEOCARBSULF (Berner, 2006b; Berner, 2009). In
172	GEOCARBSULF, the carbon and sulfur isotope fractionation (Δ^{13} C and Δ^{34} S) is dependent on the O ₂
173	levels, which could provide a negative feedback to the O ₂ fluctuation and help avoid unrealistic
174	atmospheric O ₂ levels throughout the Phanerozoic. Their relationship can be formulated as follows:

$$\Delta^{13}C = \Delta^{13}C_0 + [J \cdot (RO_2 - 1)]$$
⁽¹⁹⁾

$$\Delta^{34}S = \Delta^{34}S_0 \times RO_2^n \tag{20}$$

175 Where Δ^{13} C_0 represents the carbon isotopic fractionation between carbonate and organic matter 176 at present-day; J is an adjustable curve fit parameter; RO₂ is the mass of oxygen in the atmosphere in the 177 past relative to the present day; Δ^{34} S_0 represents the sulfur isotopic fractionation between gypsum and 178 pyrite at present-day; n is an adjustable fit parameter. Unlike the relationship between O₂ and the carbon 179 isotope fractionation factor (Δ^{13} C), which is based on lab experiments (Beerling and others, 2002; Berner 180 and others, 2000), the O₂ dependency of Δ^{34} S is not well constrained and the relationship used in 181 GEOCARBSULF is likely overly simplified. Because the majority of pyrite formed through sulfate 182 reduction will be reoxidized (and potentially processed by bacterial disproportionation), which could 183 possibly produce bigger sulfur isotope fractionations (for example, Berner, 2001a; Canfield, 2001; 184 Johnston, 2011), it is very difficult to constrain the sulfur isotope fractionation system only by 185 experimental approach. Making things more complex, recent experimental studies (Sim and others, 2011) 186 have shown that large sulfur isotope fractionations can be also obtained from sulfate reduction alone 187 without the need for disproportionation.

188 To quantify Δ^{34} S through time, Wu and others (2010) adopted two methods: an arithmetic 189 difference method ($\Delta^{34}S = \delta^{34}S_{sw} - \delta^{34}S_{py}$) which is totally based on geological empirical records, and an 190 independent method that calls upon Δ^{33} S and sulfur cycle models. These two methods yield similar results 191 (particularly before the Permian) and proves the robustness of using the empirical records to determine 192 Δ^{34} S. Although those geological records can only represent a small fraction of what was deposited, they 193 do construct the current best available Δ^{34} S curve. Therefore, in our revised model calculations, we used 194 an empirically based record of Δ^{34} S (and assign 4‰ as the 2SD), which eliminates the strong O₂ feedback 195 in the sulfur cycle. We also updated GEOCARBSULF by replacing the old δ^{13} C curve with the new 10 196 million years average curve (Grossman and others, 2008; Saltzman and Thomas, 2012; Veizer and others, 197 1999). Similar to Royer and others (2014), we used a Monte Carlo approach (10000 resampling) to 198 quantify the errors of the model outputs. During each resample, GEOCARBSULF can fail at a specific 199 time step for several reasons: 1) Any carbon or sulfur flux goes negative; 2) Calculated CO_2 is less than 200 150 ppm or bigger than 50000 ppm; 3) Calculated CO_2 or O_2 at 0 Ma deviate from their measured values 201 (CO₂ is not in the 200–300 ppm range and O_2 is not in the 19–23% range) (Royer and others, 2014). 202 Following the above two updates, we ran GEOCARBSULF with a starting atmospheric O₂ level of 1% 203 and 5% respectively at 570 Ma. We also run GEOCARBSULF with updated δ^{13} C curve but keeping the old Δ^{34} S formulation. Compared with the model run using the old Δ^{34} S formulation (fig. 3A), using 204

205 updated Δ^{34} S did not help lower O₂ level in the early Paleozoic (fig. 3B), but does serve to remove 206 unrealistic negative feedback.

207 In addition to the updates related to the carbon and sulfur isotope system, essential to our new 208 method (sensitivity tests) is that it allows us to input the desired model output (that is, O₂ evolution) and 209 observe the underlying parameter changes required for the model to generate such an output. This is a 210 modification of the traditional use of GEOCARBSULF where one predicts O₂ evolution from carbon and 211 sulfur fluxes and isotope records. One set of underlying parameters that could be explored using this new 212 method is the weathering and degassing fluxes of carbonates, organic carbon, sulfate and pyrite, which 213 could affect the O_2 sink, as well as the O_2 source via isotope mass balance (equations 16 and 17). There 214 are large uncertainties for these parameters in the current version of GEOCARBSULF. For example, the 215 total land area that experienced extensive weathering, and the global runoff through time, are not well 216 constrained (Royer and others, 2014). In addition, the oxygen dependency of the weathering rate of 217 organic carbon and pyrite is debated (for example, Bolton and others, 2006; Lasaga and Ohmoto, 2002). 218 The volcanic degassing rate, directly linked to degassing fluxes of carbon and sulfur, is likewise under 219 continuous revision (for example, Berner, 2004; McKenzie and others, 2016; Van Der Meer and others, 220 2014). Another underlying parameter that has large uncertainties is the δ^{13} C of marine dissolved inorganic 221 carbon (DIC), which is derived from buried carbonate and influences the calculated organic carbon burial 222 rate — a key O_2 source. The record of burial carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ before the Mid-Jurassic is predominantly 223 from measurements of platform carbonates, which exhibit greater spatial heterogeneity in δ^{13} C values 224 than those from the Mid-Jurassic to Cenozoic measurements of pelagic carbonates (Panchuk and others, 225 2006; Saltzman and Thomas, 2012). Lastly, the initial reservoir sizes of sulfate and pyrite in the crust, 226 which will shape Paleozoic redox conditions, are poorly constrained.

Here, we use the new method to test if GEOCARBSULF can maintain a low atmospheric O_2 level in the early Paleozoic given available empirical constraints. To do this, we first constructed four example pO_2 evolution scenarios through the Paleozoic (fig. 4), which are based on paleo-proxy records and previous model studies (fig. 1) and will be used as an input to our new methods in the following

231 sections. We used scenarios that cover a wide spectrum of delayed O_2 evolution patterns and thus can be 232 used to test the potential for predicting these oxygenation histories using GEOCARBSULF.

233

234 SENSITIVITY TESTS OF THE WEATHERING AND DEGASSING FLUXES OF CARBON 235 AND SULFUR ON O₂ LEVELS

We applied our new method to investigate the sensitivity of O_2 levels to the weathering and degassing fluxes of different rock reservoirs, namely carbonate weathering (F_{wcy} and F_{wca}), organic carbon weathering (F_{wgy} and F_{wga}), carbonate degassing (F_{mc}), organic carbon degassing (F_{mg}), sulfate weathering (F_{wsy} and F_{wsa}), sulfate degassing (F_{ms}), pyrite weathering (F_{wpy} and F_{wpa}), pyrite degassing (F_{mp}). We used a general-purpose optimization routine (L-BFGS-B in R language) to solve all the weathering and degassing fluxes of carbon and sulfur. Specifically, we multiply these fluxes each by a scaling factor, aiming to evaluate the relative importance of these fluxes in controlling pO₂. The modified equations are

243 as follows (_S means scaling):

$$F_{wgy}S = S_{wg} \cdot f_A \cdot f_R \cdot k_{wgy} \cdot G_y(t)$$
⁽²¹⁾

$$F_{wga}S = S_{wg} \cdot f_R \cdot F_{wga}0 \tag{22}$$

$$F_{wcy}S = S_{wc} \cdot f_A \cdot f_D \cdot f_L \cdot f_E \cdot f_{Bb_ca} \cdot k_{wcy} \cdot C_y(t)$$
⁽²³⁾

$$F_{wca_S} = S_{wc} \cdot f_A \cdot f_D \cdot f_L \cdot f_E \cdot f_{Bb_ca} \cdot F_{wca_0}$$
(24)

$$F_{wpy}S = S_{wp} \cdot f_A \cdot f_R \cdot k_{wpy} \cdot P_y(t)$$
⁽²⁵⁾

$$F_{wpa}S = S_{wp} \cdot f_R \cdot F_{wpa}0 \tag{26}$$

$$F_{wsy}S = S_{ws} \cdot f_A \cdot f_D \cdot \mathbf{k}_{wsy} \cdot S_y(t)$$
⁽²⁷⁾

$$F_{wsa}S = S_{ws} \cdot f_A \cdot f_D \cdot F_{wsa}0$$
⁽²⁸⁾

$$F_{mg}S = S_{mg} \cdot f_{SR} \cdot F_{mg}0$$
⁽²⁹⁾

$$F_{mc}S = S_{mc} \cdot f_{SR} \cdot f_C \cdot F_{mc}0 \tag{30}$$

 $F_{mp}S = S_{mp} \cdot f_{SR} \cdot F_{mp}0 \tag{31}$

$$F_{ms}S = S_{ms} \cdot f_{SR} \cdot F_{ms}_{0}$$
(32)

$$F_{bg}S = \frac{1}{\Delta^{13}C} \times \left[(\delta^{13}C - dlcy) \cdot F_{wcy}S + (\delta^{13}C - dlca) * F_{wca}S + (\delta^{13}C - dlgy) \\ * F_{wgy}S + (\delta^{13}C - dlga) * F_{wga}S + (\delta^{13}C - dlca) * F_{mc}S \\ + (\delta^{13}C - dlga) * F_{mg}S \right]$$
(33)

$$F_{bp}S = \frac{1}{\Delta^{34}S} \times \left[(\delta^{34}S - dlsy) \cdot F_{wsy}S + (\delta^{34}S - dlsa) * F_{wsa}S + (\delta^{34}S - dlpy) \\ * F_{wpy}S + (\delta^{34}S - dlpa) * F_{wpa}S + (\delta^{34}S - dlsa) * F_{ms}S \\ + (\delta^{34}S - dlpa) * F_{mp}S \right]$$
(34)

$$F_{bg}S = \frac{d[O_{2}]}{dt} = F_{bg}S - F_{wgy}S - F_{wga}S - F_{mg}S \\ + \left(\frac{15}{8}\right) (F_{bp}S - F_{wpy}S - F_{wpa}S - F_{mp}S)$$
(35)

The method searches for the optimized value for each scaling factor (as close as to 1, meaning the new flux is as close as to the original flux) needed to match a predicted O_2 at each time step. Specifically, using equation (21) to (35), we could solve F_{ms} S in terms of F_{wgy} S, F_{wga} S, F_{wcy} S, F_{wca} S, F_{wpy} S, F_{wpa} S, F_{wsy} S, F_{wsa} S, F_{ng} S, F_{nc} S, F_{mp} S and d[O_2]/dt. Afterwards, we could use L-BFGS-B to minimize the following expression: 249

$$\left| \frac{F_{wgy}S + F_{wga}S - F_{wgy} - F_{wga}}{F_{wgy} + F_{wga}} \right| + \left| \frac{F_{wcy}S + F_{wca}S - F_{wcy} - F_{wca}}{F_{wcy} + F_{wca}} \right|
+ \left| \frac{F_{wpy}S + F_{wpa}S - F_{wpy} - F_{wpa}}{F_{wpy} + F_{wpa}} \right|
+ \left| \frac{F_{wsy}S + F_{wsa}S - F_{wsy} - F_{wsa}}{F_{wsy} + F_{wsa}} \right| + \left| \frac{F_{mg}S - F_{mg}}{F_{mg}} \right|
+ \left| \frac{F_{mc}S - F_{mc}}{F_{mc}} \right| + \left| \frac{F_{mp}S - F_{mp}}{F_{mp}} \right| + \left| \frac{F_{ms}S - F_{ms}}{F_{ms}} \right|$$
(36)

251 We assign a lower bound of 0 to the seven scaling factors (carbonate weathering, organic carbon 252 weathering, carbonate degassing, organic carbon degassing, sulfate weathering, pyrite weathering and 253 pyrite degassing) and assign no bound to the scaling factor of sulfate degassing (since this scaling factor 254 is solved from the other seven scaling factors). The model runs from 570 to 300 Ma and fails at various 255 time steps for different scenarios. In addition, some scaling factors are required to fluctuate significantly 256 within a geologically short time interval, which is physically implausible. For example, with the 257 carbonate weathering scaling factor (fig. 5B), extremely large fluctuations (for example, a drop from 1 to 258 0 in 20 million years during Ordovician for Scenario 3 and 4) are required.

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SENSITIVITY TESTS OF CARBONATE δ^{13} C ON O₂ LEVELS

261 We argue that the most poorly constrained, yet impactful input parameter for GEOCARBSULF is 262 the carbonate δ^{13} C values chosen for given time bin, which tightly controls the burial rate of organic 263 carbon. Due to the complexity surrounding the empirical carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ records, the $\delta^{13}C$ of buried 264 carbonate in the Paleozoic used in GEOCARBSULF may not be the true average δ^{13} C of the ocean (for 265 example, Saltzman and Thomas, 2012), thus influencing the predicted O_2 level. As demonstrated in Royer 266 and others (2014) and Mills and others (2016), the atmospheric O_2 predicted by isotope mass balance is 267 highly sensitive to assumed carbonate δ^{13} C. Assuming all the weathering and degassing fluxes of carbon 268 and sulfur are the same with the fluxes in the original GEOCARBSULF (that is, all scaling factors are 1), 269 it is straightforward to apply the new method to solve carbonate δ^{13} C for different O₂ scenarios. Since we 270 only have 1 unknown parameter (carbonate δ^{13} C), we could directly solve this parameter and its solution 271 is as follows:

272
$$\delta^{13}C = \frac{F_{bg} \cdot \Delta^{13}C + F_{wcy} \cdot dlcy + F_{wca} \cdot dlca + F_{wgy} \cdot dlgy + F_{wga} \cdot dlga + F_{mc} \cdot dlca + F_{mg} \cdot dlga}{F_{wcy} + F_{wca} + F_{wgy} + F_{wga} + F_{mc} + F_{mg}}$$
(37)

273 As shown in figure 6, the carbonate δ^{13} C required to fit each O₂ scenario is consistently within the 274 range of δ^{13} C records through the Paleozoic, and almost always within 2SD of the long term running 275 average. The overall evolving trends of the required δ^{13} C across all scenarios and the δ^{13} C record are similar, and the CO₂ predicted is similar to that from the original GEOCARBSULF model (fig. 7). In all
scenarios, the organic carbon burial rate increased through the Devonian (fig. 8A) and the pyrite burial
rate decreased through the Paleozoic (fig. 8B).

Instead of calculating Δ^{13} C based on its relationship with O₂ levels, we could also derive Δ^{13} C through time from the geologic records (Hayes and others, 1999)), similar to what we did for Δ^{34} S. We note that the compilation of Hayes and others (1999) may not represent the true global average Δ^{13} C because the δ^{13} C of organic carbon used to calculate Δ^{13} C is based solely on marine organic matter. Despite this, the required carbonate δ^{13} C values still fall into the range of the δ^{13} C record after this update (fig. 9B).

Besides carbonate δ^{13} C, the initial sulfate proportion within the upper continental crust (50% of 285 286 the total sulfur) at 570 Ma assumed in the original formulation GEOCARBSULF is considered unlikely 287 based on several recent f_{py} estimates (for example, Canfield and Farquhar, 2009; Halevy and others, 2012) 288 which argue for limited sulfate burial in the Precambrian and Early Cambrian. Therefore, as an initial 289 attempt, we reduced the initial sulfate proportion in the crust from 50% to 20%, which is in qualitative 290 agreement with the work of Canfield and Farquhar (2009). To maintain a realistic δ^{34} S value of the sulfate 291 reservoirs after this proportion change, the δ^{34} S values of initial young and old pyrite in the original 292 GEOCARBSULF are also adjusted (from -10% to 0%). This change is not unreasonable, as the δ^{34} S of 293 buried sedimentary pyrite was 5.7% at 570 Ma and was even higher than 5.7% in the Precambrian (Wu 294 and others, 2010). Therefore, assigning 0% to the initial sedimentary pyrite is conservative. After these 295 modifications, the required carbonate δ^{13} C is more enriched at each time step (fig. 10 vs fig. 6) but still 296 fits reasonably well with the isotope records. The CO₂ predictions are again similar to the original 297 GEOARBSULF (fig. 11).

298

299

DISCUSSION

300 Our sensitivity tests demonstrate that it is impossible to maintain a low atmospheric O_2 in the 301 early Paleozoic followed by an O_2 rise to ~ 30% by the Late Carboniferous through varying only the

weathering and degassing fluxes of different rock reservoirs in GEOCARBSULF. Even over the short time interval where the model ran successfully and maintained consistent O_2 levels, some weathering and degassing rate variations were extreme, indicating inefficiency of these parameters in controlling atmospheric O_2 . While these results confirm that inorganic weathering and degassing fluxes can alter the predictions drawn from carbon isotope mass balance (Shields and Mills, 2017), they also suggest that the dominant influence on O_2 variability over most of the Phanerozoic was not the weathering rates of organic carbon and pyrite but their burial rates (Berner, 2006b).

309 By removing the extreme negative feedback from the sulfur system and changing the input 310 carbonate δ^{13} C within the geological data range, we can maintain a low O₂ level in GEOCARBSULF 311 before the Devonian (or before the Silurian in the case of Scenario 4 — see fig. 4). This model output is 312 in great contrast with that of Royer and others (2014), which could not produce low O_2 levels in the early 313 Paleozoic. Compared with figure 3B, which also couldn't maintain a low O_2 level even after updating the 314 δ^{13} C and Δ^{34} S, our model outputs indicate that uncertainties in the variations in marine δ^{13} C is the biggest 315 hurdle in predicting O₂. Our method also argues for a relative constant organic carbon burial rate through 316 Ordovician and Silurian, and a continuous increase of organic carbon burial rate through Devonian (fig. 317 8A), which correlates with the diversification of vascular plants. Our predicted δ^{13} C is generally less 318 variable than the observed record through this time (fig. 6 and 10). However, the empirical δ^{13} C of old 319 platform carbonates, similar to modern shallow water carbonates, were likely influenced by many factors 320 such as: diagenetic processes, mineralogical variability, vital effects caused by calcifying organisms, local 321 water mass restriction, and carbon cycle perturbations (Brand and others, 2009; Mii and others, 1999; 322 Panchuk and others, 2006; Saltzman and Thomas, 2012; Veizer and others, 1999). For example, the δ^{13} C 323 of brachiopods exhibit substantial regional heterogeneity, with high values in the Russian Platform, low 324 values in western North America, and intermediate values in the midcontinent (Grossman and others, 325 2008). Given this variability, the exact global curve of the carbonate δ^{13} C through the Paleozoic is poorly 326 known. Our modeling approach serves as an indirect way to inspect the global average carbonate δ^{13} C and 327 bears significance for promoting further research on this issue.

328	There are uncertainties in many of the parameters in GEOCARBSULF and it is possible that
329	some key processes are entirely absent from the model (Royer and others, 2014). Also, as a critical O ₂
330	source, we note that the organic carbon burial rate calculated using the isotope mass balance method
331	needs to be further examined and compared with geological records. But we have shown here that high
332	atmospheric oxygen in the Paleozoic is not a reliable output from GEOCARBSULF, and low levels of
333	atmospheric oxygen are equally or even more reasonable. Specifically, low atmospheric oxygen levels are
334	also likely when there is a low initial sulfate proportion in the crust (for example, 20%). Therefore,
335	although it is difficult with the current carbon isotope record to accurately predict atmospheric oxygen
336	levels, GEOCARBSULF modeling could be consistent with the idea that the Paleozoic was a time of low
337	atmospheric oxygen, and that land plants drove a step change in surface oxygen levels. A renewed effort
338	to track carbon isotope gradients (following on Holmden and others, 1998) and careful screening of
339	samples for diagenetic alteration are essential to build a better global δ^{13} C trend in Paleozoic, which could
340	contribute to a tighter constraint on the O ₂ evolution using GEOCARBSULF.
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341 342	CONCLUSIONS
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342	
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342 343 344	We show that by altering the carbonate δ^{13} C within permissible bounds, as well as revising the sulfate/sulfide ratio of the upper crust at the Precambrian-Cambrian boundary, GEOCARBSULF is
342343344345	We show that by altering the carbonate δ^{13} C within permissible bounds, as well as revising the sulfate/sulfide ratio of the upper crust at the Precambrian-Cambrian boundary, GEOCARBSULF is consistent with the idea that the early Paleozoic was a time of low atmospheric oxygen, and that land
 342 343 344 345 346 	We show that by altering the carbonate δ^{13} C within permissible bounds, as well as revising the sulfate/sulfide ratio of the upper crust at the Precambrian-Cambrian boundary, GEOCARBSULF is consistent with the idea that the early Paleozoic was a time of low atmospheric oxygen, and that land plants drove a step change in surface oxygen levels. However, given the complexity of the carbonate δ^{13} C
 342 343 344 345 346 347 	We show that by altering the carbonate δ^{13} C within permissible bounds, as well as revising the sulfate/sulfide ratio of the upper crust at the Precambrian-Cambrian boundary, GEOCARBSULF is consistent with the idea that the early Paleozoic was a time of low atmospheric oxygen, and that land plants drove a step change in surface oxygen levels. However, given the complexity of the carbonate δ^{13} C record, we also argue that GEOCARBSULF could not be used to pinpoint atmospheric O ₂ levels until we
 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 	We show that by altering the carbonate δ^{13} C within permissible bounds, as well as revising the sulfate/sulfide ratio of the upper crust at the Precambrian-Cambrian boundary, GEOCARBSULF is consistent with the idea that the early Paleozoic was a time of low atmospheric oxygen, and that land plants drove a step change in surface oxygen levels. However, given the complexity of the carbonate δ^{13} C record, we also argue that GEOCARBSULF could not be used to pinpoint atmospheric O ₂ levels until we
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476	
477	FIGURE CAPTIONS
478	Fig. 1. Long-term carbon, sulfur, and oxygen cycles in GEOCARBSULF. Carbon cycle consists of fluxes
479	between carbon in the surficial system including atmosphere, ocean, biosphere and soil (C), young
480	organic carbon (G_y) , old organic carbon (G_a) , young carbonate (C_y) and old carbonate (C_a) . Specifically,
481	these fluxes are organic carbon burial (\mathbf{F}_{bg}) , oxidative weathering of young organic carbon (\mathbf{F}_{wgy}) and old
482	organic carbon (\mathbf{F}_{wga}), degassing of organic carbon from volcanism, metamorphism and diagenesis (\mathbf{F}_{mg}),
483	organic carbon transfer from young to old reservoir (\mathbf{F}_{yog}), carbonate burial (\mathbf{F}_{bc}), weathering of young
484	carbonate (\mathbf{F}_{wcy}) and old carbonate (\mathbf{F}_{wca}) , degassing of carbonate from volcanism, metamorphism and
485	diagenesis (\mathbf{F}_{mc}), and carbonate transfer from young to old reservoir (\mathbf{F}_{yoc}). Sulfur cycle consists of fluxes
486	between sulfur in the surficial system including atmosphere, ocean, biosphere and soil (S), young pyrite

487 sulfur (\mathbf{P}_v), old pyrite sulfur (\mathbf{P}_a), young gypsum sulfur (\mathbf{G}_v) and old gypsum sulfur (\mathbf{G}_a). Specifically, 488 these fluxes include pyrite burial (\mathbf{F}_{bp}), oxidative weathering of young pyrite (\mathbf{F}_{wpv}) and old pyrite (\mathbf{F}_{wpa}), 489 degassing of pyrite from volcanism, metamorphism and diagenesis (\mathbf{F}_{mp}), pyrite transfer from young to 490 old reservoir (\mathbf{F}_{vop}), gypsum burial (\mathbf{F}_{bs}), weathering of young gypsum (\mathbf{F}_{wsv}) and old gypsum (\mathbf{F}_{wsa}), 491 degassing of gypsum from volcanism, metamorphism and diagenesis (F_{ms}), and gypsum transfer from 492 young to old reservoir (\mathbf{F}_{yos}). As shown in Equation (1), the sources of atmospheric O₂ are \mathbf{F}_{bg} and \mathbf{F}_{bp} 493 (represented by the red arrow). The sinks are F_{wgy} , F_{wga} , F_{mg} , F_{wpy} , F_{wpa} and F_{mp} (represented by the blue 494 arrow).

495

496 Fig. 2. O_2 evolution patterns through the Paleozoic. The red curve represents the O_2 prediction from the 497 GEOCARBSULF model (Royer and others, 2014). The purple curve represents the O_2 prediction from 498 the baseline COPSE model (Bergman and others, 2004). The red line shows the approximate maximum 499 atmospheric O_2 level based on water column redox data (Canfield, 1998; Sperling and others, 2015). The 500 blue line is the approximate O₂ maximum, based on burning experiments and wildfire feedbacks 501 (Glasspool and others, 2015; Watson and others, 1978), but geochemical mass balance studies suggest 502 pO_2 levels as high as 35% may be permissible (Wildman and others, 2004). The brown shaded area 503 represents the trend of atmospheric O_2 evolution based on Mo isotopes (Dahl and others, 2010) and 504 cerium anomaly records (Wallace and others, 2017). 505

Fig. 3. Predicted O_2 evolution from the GEOCARBSULF model with an initial O_2 level of 1% and 5%. (A) Δ^{34} S is derived from the old formulation (O_2 dependency) in GEOCARBSULF. (B) Δ^{34} S is derived from the geological records (Wu and others, 2010). The green line represents the predicted average O_2 level staring from 1% at 570 Ma and the red line represents the predicted average O_2 level staring from 5% at 570 Ma. The shaded area represents the average value \pm 1SD.

511

Fig. 4. Atmospheric O₂ evolution scenarios through the Paleozoic constructed in this study. Scenario 1
and 2 try to simulate the O₂ level predicted by the cerium anomaly (Wallace and others, 2017). They keep
O₂ at a low level (1% and 5% respectively) from the Early Cambrian to the Late Silurian and then force
O₂ to rise to ~30% by the Late Carboniferous. Scenario 3 is atmospheric O₂ evolution after the baseline
COPSE model (Bergman and others, 2004). Scenario 4 is a combination of atmospheric O₂ prediction
after the baseline model and the updated COPSE model which integrates early plant colonization, biotic
effects on silicate weathering and 25% increase in P weathering (Lenton and others, 2016).

Fig. 5. The scaling factors for various weathering fluxes required to reproduce different O_2 scenarios. (A) Scaling factor for organic carbon weathering rate. (B) Scaling factor for carbonate weathering rate. (C) Scaling factor for pyrite weathering rate. (D) Scaling factor for sulfate weathering rate. The shaded pink area represents the average value $\pm 2SD$ for Scenario 2. The error range for other scenarios is similar to that of Scenario 2. Different scenarios are described in figure 4.

525

Fig. 6. Carbonate δ^{13} C required to reproduce the four oxygen scenarios through the Paleozoic, and how they correlate with geologic record. The grey dots are the carbonate δ^{13} C compilation from Saltzman and Thomas (2012). The green dots are the δ^{13} C of brachiopod shells from Veizer (1999). The orange dots are the δ^{13} C of brachiopod shells compiled by Grossman and others (2008). The black line represents the moving average (10 Myrs) of all the carbonate δ^{13} C records. The brown area represents the average value ± 2SD. The shaded pink area represents the average value ± 2SD for Scenario 2. The error range for other scenarios is similar to that of Scenario 2. Different scenarios are described in figure 4.

534 Fig. 7. Atmospheric CO₂ predicted in the sensitivity tests of carbonate δ^{13} C for different scenarios,

535 compared with the CO₂ prediction from the original GEOCARBSULF (Royer and others, 2014).

536 Different scenarios are described in figure 4.

538	Fig. 8. Organic carbon and pyrite sulfur burial rate predicted in the sensitivity tests of carbonate δ^{13} C for
539	different scenarios. (A) Organic carbon burial rate. (B) Pyrite sulfur burial rate. Notice that the pyrite
540	burial rates for different scenarios are the same. Different scenarios are described in figure 4.
541	
542	Fig. 9. Δ^{13} C from geological records and carbonate δ^{13} C required to reproduce the four oxygen scenarios
543	using this Δ^{13} C. (A) Δ^{13} C derived from Hayes and others (1999) through the Paleozoic. (B) Carbonate
544	δ^{13} C required to reproduce the four oxygen scenarios using Δ^{13} C derived from geological records. The
545	symbols are described in figure 6. Different scenarios are described in figure 4.
546	
547	Fig. 10. Carbonate δ^{13} C required to reproduce the four oxygen scenarios through the Paleozoic, assuming
548	20% initial sulfate in the curst, and how they correlate with geologic record. The symbols are described in
549	figure 6. Different scenarios are described in figure 4.
550	
551	Fig. 11. Atmospheric CO ₂ predicted in the sensitivity tests of carbonate $\delta^{13}C$ for different scenarios
552	assuming 20% initial sulfate in the crust, compared with the CO ₂ prediction from the original
553	GEOCARBSULF (Royer and others, 2014). Different scenarios are described in figure 4.



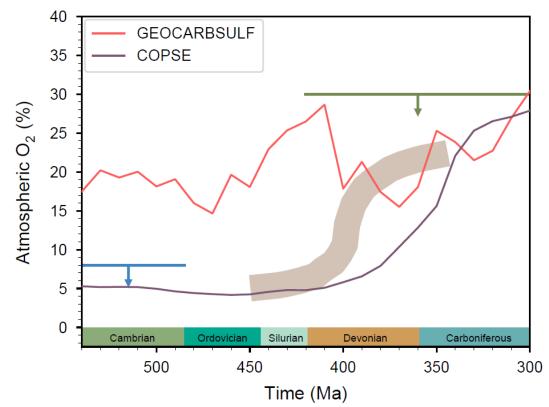
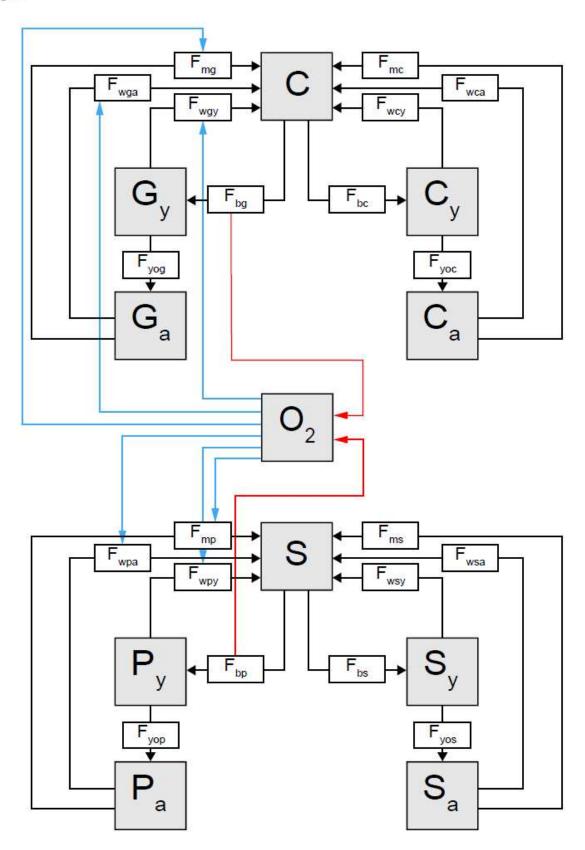
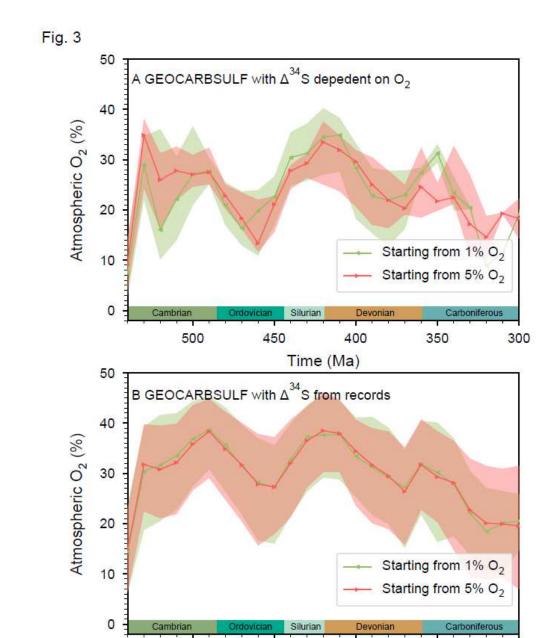


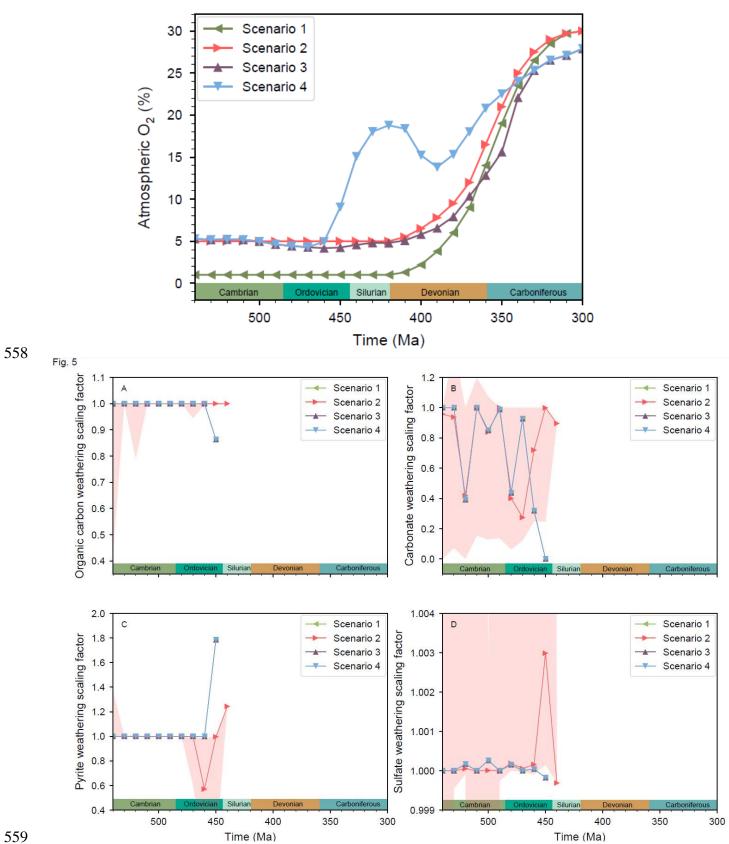
Fig. 2



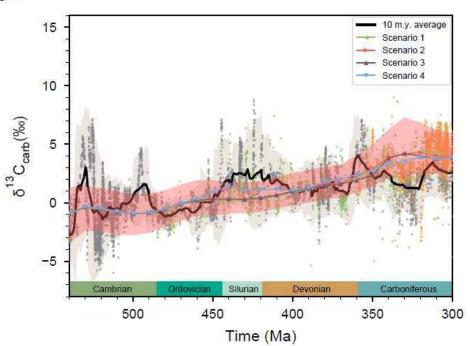


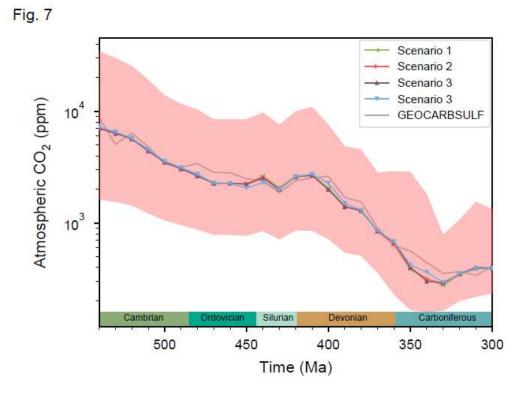
Time (Ma)

Fig. 4

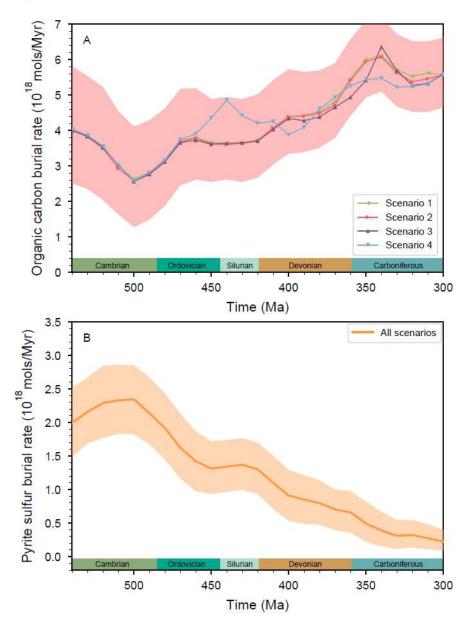


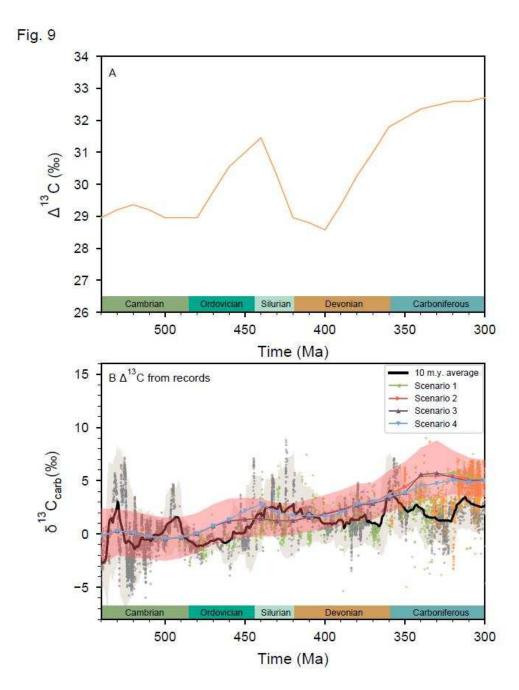














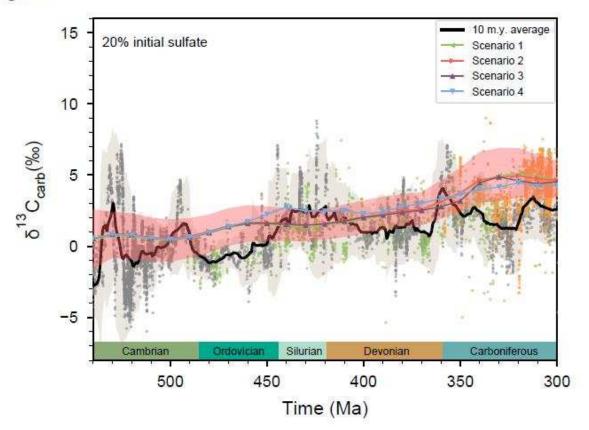


Fig. 11

