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- 1 Devonian paleoclimate and its drivers: A reassessment based on a new
- 2 conodont  $\delta^{18}$ O record from South China

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19 Abstract

A new Devonian oxygen isotope record based on 180 measurements of 20 conodont apatite is reported from South China. The comparison with published 21 Devonian  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  data shows a considerable offset between records from 22 different paleocontinents. This difference can be interpreted by regional variations 23 in salinity, with the epicontinental seas having a distinctly lower salinity and 24  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>seawater</sub> than the open ocean due to the influence of fresh-water runoff. Our 25 findings suggest that the oxygen isotope record from open ocean settings is the 26 preferred archive for reconstructing the history of ocean temperature and/or ice 27 volume over the Phanerozoic 28

Despite regional differences, the South China and European records show similar long-term trends characterized by a pronounced cooling during the Pragian to Eifelian followed by significant warming over the Eifelian/Givetian to Frasnian, and a further cooling starting in the Famennian, accelerating in the earliest Carboniferous. The Early Devonian cooling coincided with early vascular plant root-soil interactions and a significant diversity increase in both spores and

megaplant fossils, suggesting that the rise of rooted vascular plants may have 35 played a key role in triggering climate cooling. Subsequent climatic warming over 36 the Middle to Late Devonian transition may have been linked to metamorphic CO2 37 input from the Acadian Orogeny, while Famennian cooling occurred in a context 38 of exposure and weathering of basalts and ophiolites and coincided with the advent 39 40 of seed plants. We conclude that climate changes during the Devonian were likely driven by a combination of plant evolutionary advances and changes in tectonics. 41 42 We further test these interpretations by running the COPSE (Carbon, Oxygen,

Phosphorus, Sulphur and Evolution) biogeochemical model. The model prediction
is capable of reproducing the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> record under these scenarios, although the
model is not capable of reproducing the degree of temperature variation, likely
due to its simplicity.

Key words: Paleotemperatures; Vascular vegetation; Acadian Orogeny; Volcanism;
 Regional δ<sup>18</sup>O difference

49

## 50 1 Introduction

The Devonian period was characterized by the radiation of vascular plants. The 51 colonization of the terrestrial landscape by rooted vascular plants is considered to have 52 been a key factor in driving changes in Devonian climate (Berner, 2003). The so-called 53 "Devonian plant hypothesis" (Algeo et al., 1995; 2001) proposed that the appearance 54 of trees with deep root systems and the establishment of forests in the Middle Devonian 55 (Meyer-Berthaud et al., 2010; Stein et al., 2012; Giesen and Berry, 2013) may have 56 accelerated silicate weathering and/or organic carbon burial (Sandberg et al. 1988; 57 Joachimski et al., 2002; Joachimski and Buggisch, 2002), resulting in multiple oceanic 58 anoxic events (Algeo et al., 2001), lower atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels (Berner, 2003; Taylor 59 et al. 2009), and global climatic cooling as documented in a brief glaciation in the Late 60 Devonian-Carboniferous boundary (Caputo et al., 2008). However, the climatic 61 62 consequences of Devonian plant expansion have not been well evaluated in the context of reliable paleoclimatic reconstructions. Atmospheric  $pCO_2$  reconstructions are sparse 63 for the Devonian (Royer et al., 2014; Foster et al., 2017), whereas modelling generally 64

predicts a major drop in  $pCO_2$  in the late Early Devonian (ca. 400 Ma late Emsian; 65 Lenton et al., 2016, 2018). Reconstructions of seawater temperatures based on oxygen 66 isotope ratios measured on marine calcitic or phosphatic fossils indicate long-term 67 cooling through most of the Devonian with an interruption by a short but significant 68 warming interval around the Middle to Late Devonian transition (Givetian to Frasnian) 69 (van Geldern et al, 2006; Joachimski et al., 2009) which - according to the "Devonian 70 plant hypothesis" (Algeo et al., 2001) - should be represented by significant climatic 71 72 cooling. This detailed climate history points to a complex relationship between vascular plant colonization and Devonian climate. For example, in addition to plant evolution, 73 the Devonian Period is characterized by multiple orogenies (Stewart and Ague, 2018) 74 and LIP (large igneous province) volcanic episodes especially in the Late Devonian 75 (Ernst et al, 2020; Racki, 2020). These geological processes could have exerted a 76 significant influence on Devonian climate, but their effects have not been systematically 77 evaluated. 78

In this contribution, we provide a new Devonian conodont apatite oxygen isotope 79 80 record measured on samples from the South China Craton. The new data confirm the major oxygen isotope shifts demonstrated in previous studies in Europe, North America 81 and Australia (Joachimski et al., 2004; 2009), thus excluding local climate conditions 82 (e.g., evaporation/precipitation ratio) as an important driver of the observed secular 83 variations. We therefore consider the Devonian oxygen isotope records to principally 84 reflect global climatic changes and interpret the significant changes in the context of 85 plant cover expansion, volcanism and orogenic activities. We test these interpretations 86 87 by using the COPSE biogeochemical model.

88

### 89 **2. Geological setting**.

The study sections are located in the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, as well as in the Guizhou and Yunnan provinces in southwest China, where Devonian strata are well exposed and intensively studied. Paleogeographically, these sections were all located on the Yangtze Platform which, during the Devonian, was situated in low latitudes in the eastern Tethyan Ocean (Fig. 1). Except for the Qinfang Trough in

southern Guangxi, the study area was uplifted during the Late Silurian as a consequence 95 of the Guangxi (Caledonian) Orogeny. Marine sedimentation started again in the 96 97 earliest Devonian in the areas north of the Qinfang Trough (Wu et al., 1987; Liu et al., 1993; Chen et al., 2002, Chen et al., 2014) (Fig. 1 b, c) and progressively expanded 98 northwards during the Middle to Late Devonian. This transgression is well recorded 99 100 across Guangxi and adjacent areas, with Lochkovian deposits dominated by terrigenous siliciclastic followed by Pragian and Emsian siliciclastics interbedded with carbonates 101 102 and Middle to Late Devonian carbonates.

Pragian conodonts were collected from the Dashatian section situated in Nanning 103 104 City (Fig. 1). The section is characterized by siltstones and mudstones alternating with few carbonate beds. The conodont assemblage identified in this section includes 105 Eognathodus irregularis, E. nagaolingensis, E. sulcatus mu morph, Masaraella 106 pandora indicating an early Pragian age (Wang et al., 2016). Emsian to Givetian 107 conodonts were collected mainly from the Changputang, Sihongshan, Navi as well as 108 Caiziyan sections. The Changputang section is situated at Wenshan in Southeastern 109 110 Yunnan province (Fig. 1) and is characterized by alternating deep-water siliceous rocks or cherty limestones and shales with shallow water bioclastic and micritic limestones 111 (Jin et al., 2005), indicating significant relative sea level fluctuations. The Sihongshan 112 113 section is located at Debao County, in southwestern Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region. The section is composed of pelagic and dolomitic limestones alternating with 114 few siliceous horizons. A nearly complete conodont sequence from the Early Devonian 115 Polygnathus excavatus Zone (Emsian) to Late Devonian Palmatolepis crepida Zone 116 (Famennian) was identified in this section (Ziegler and Wang, 1985). The Caiziyan 117 section is located approximately 30 km northeast of Guilin city in Guangxi. The 118 conodont biostratigraphy of the exposed Givetian-Frasnian boundary interval is well 119 studied in this section, with 10 standard conodont zones being identified (Li et al., 2009). 120

Frasnian-Famennian conodont samples were collected from the Dongcun and Huohua sections. The Dongcun section is located at about 20 km northwest of Yangsuo County in Guangxi and is mainly composed of limestones with few inter-bedded dolomites, representing marginal platform and slope facies with abundant pelagic

faunas, especially conodonts (Wang, 1994). Conodont zones range from the Early 125 Frasnian Polygnathus transitans to the early Famennian P. crepida Zone (Wang, 1994; 126 127 Wang and Ziegler, 2002) with the Frasnian/Famennian boundary precisely identified in the upper part of the section (Wang and Ziegler, 2002). The Huohua Section is situated 128 in Ziyun County in south Guizhou (Fig. 1) where carbonates yielding abundant 129 conodonts have been deposited in marginal platform and slope settings during the 130 Frasnian to the earliest Carboniferous. The stratigraphic range of the sampled intervals 131 in the study sections is shown in Fig. 2. 132

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## 134 **3. Material and methods**

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136 3.1 Oxygen isotope analyses of conodont apatite

Conodonts were extracted by dissolving carbonate rocks in 10% acetic acid. 137 Residues were separated using heavy liquid fractionation (lithium-polytungstate). 138 Conodont elements were picked from the heavy fraction under a binocular microscope. 139 140 0.5 to 1.0 mg conodont apatite was weighed into a small polyethylene beaker, and 5 ml 2 M HNO<sub>3</sub> was added to completely dissolve conodont apatite. The clear solution was 141 pipetted to a new beaker and chemically converted to Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> following the method 142 described by Joachimski et al. (2009). The obtained Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> crystals were ultrasonically 143 washed 5 times with distilled water, dried at 60 °C for 1 hour and ground to fine powder 144 using an agate mortar. 0.2 to 0.3 mg Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> powder was weighed into silver foil, which 145 was transferred to the sample carousel of a TC-EA (high temperature elemental analyser) 146 147 coupled online to a Thermo Fisher Delta Advanced IRMS. Sample and standard Ag<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> samples were combusted at 1450 °C by TC-EA and the generated CO gas was 148 transferred in a helium stream via a Conflo IV interface to the mass spectrometer. All 149 oxygen isotope values are reported in ‰ relative to VSMOW. The average oxygen 150 isotopic composition of NBS 120c standard was measured as 21.7‰ VSMOW. 151 Accuracy was monitored by replicate analyses of NBS120c. Reproducibility was 152 calculated based on triplicate sample and standard analyses and was generally  $< \pm 0.3\%$ 153 154 (1 std. dev.).

Despite the oxygen isotopic composition of conodont apatite being relatively 155 resistant to diagenetic alteration (Joachimski et al., 2009), a potential isotopic overprint 156 by microbiological activity mediated by enzymes (Zazzo et al., 2004) or by diagenetic 157 fluids at high temperatures (Pucéat et al., 2004) is possible. Unfortunately, there is no 158 robust method at present to identify post-depositional exchange of oxygen isotopes in 159 biogenic apatite (Buggisch et al., 2008; Joachimski et al., 2009). For example, REE and 160 trace element patterns as well as cathodoluminescence characteristics, as usually used 161 for evaluating the preservation of brachiopod calcite (e.g. Garbelli et al., 2017), are 162 demonstrated to be invalid in identifying exchange of oxygen in the phosphate ion of 163 biogenic apatite (Buggisch et al., 2008; Joachimski et al., 2009). The conodont color 164 alteration index (CAI) is a proxy for the maximum thermal overprint of sediments 165 (Rejebian et al., 1987), with a high thermal overprint potentially causing 166 recrystallisation (aggrading neomorphism) of conodont apatite (Nöth, 1998). The 167 varying CAI value is suspected as a potential reason for the symmetric  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values 168 discrepancy between coeval late Permian sections in South China (Chen et al., 2016, 169 170 Shen et al., 2019). However, several studies have found no major difference in oxygen isotope ratios from time-equivalent conodont samples with CAI values ranging from 1 171 (corresponding to ~75 °C) to 7 (>300 °C) (Buggisch et al., 2008; Joachimski et al., 2009; 172 Trotter et al., 2015), suggesting that intense heating does not necessarily result in 173 oxygen isotope exchange in apatite phosphate. Similar  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values and/or trends 174 in coeval sections are considered to document the preservation of primary  $\delta^{18}$ O signals 175 (Joachimski et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2018). 176

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In order to reconstruct long-term trends, the nonparametric locally weighted regression method 'Locfit' is utilized to calculate isotope trend lines (Loader, 1999). Locfit produces a smoothed curve retaining local minima and maxima and yields good results, even with unevenly spaced data points. All calculations were performed with the open source statistic software 'R' (version 3.3.1, Ihaka and Gentleman, 1996).

183

184 3.2 COPSE model

To explore drivers of Devonian climate change, we compare out dataset to the COPSE global biogeochemical model (Lenton et al., 2018). We plot the latest 'baseline' model run from Tostevin and Mills (2020) and consider some basic alterations which may enable the model to better fit the data. COPSE considers the cycling of carbon, oxygen, phosphorus and sulfur over geological timescales. The model equations are described in full in Tostevin and Mills (2020).

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# 192 **4. Results**

A total of 180 conodont apatite oxygen measurements spanning the Devonian were 193 performed (Fig. 3A). An additional 103 818 Oapatite values of Frasnian-Famennian 194 conodonts from South China reported by Huang et al. (2018) were used to construct a 195  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> curve for South China. The new data from South China show a ~2‰ variance 196 in  $\delta^{18}$ O apatite from the given time intervals, which is in the range by previous 197 reconstructions (e.g. Joachimski et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2013; 2016). Mean values 198 calculated using Locfit are around ~17 ‰ during the Pragian followed by a pronounced 199 rise to maximum value ~20.5 % in the Eifelian. Mean  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values decrease from 200 approximately 20.5‰ to 18 ‰ in the Eifelian to early Frasnian and show a large 201 variation with values between 16‰ and to 19‰ across the Frasnian-Famennian 202 boundary. Latest Famennian conodonts from South China yield  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values around 203 18‰ at the Devonian-Carboniferous boundary (Fig. 3A), followed by a pronounced 204 rise in  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> in the earliest Carboniferous. 205

206

### 207 5. Discussion

# 208 5.1 Comparison of δ<sup>18</sup>O<sub>apatite</sub> records from South China and other parts of the 209 World

Comparable absolute  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values with systematic trends are observed in coeval Emsian samples from three different sections in South China (Shihongshan, Changputang and Nayi Sections, Fig. 3A). However, a systematic difference in  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  is observed for conodonts from two well-studied Frasnian-Famennian boundary sections (Huang et al. 2008), conodonts from the Yangdi section (17-19‰)

are on average 1‰ higher in  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  compared to conodonts from the Dongcun 215 section (16-18‰). Nevertheless, both records exhibit similar positive shifts at the 216 217 Lower and Upper Kellwasser levels. Both sections were situated in close neighborhood in an inter-platform basin formed by rifting activity, representing a tropical open-218 marine setting without significant continental siliciclastic influx (Fig. 1C; Chen et al. 219 2001a, b, 2002). Significant variations in seawater temperature and seawater  $\delta^{18}$ O (due 220 to salinity changes) are unlikely, however there may have been a slight difference in 221 222 depositional water depth. For example, the Yangdi section was deposited in a lower slope or basinal setting (Huang et al., 2018; Huang and Gong, 2016). By contrast, the 223 Dongcun section was deposited in a slightly shallower, possibly upper slope setting 224 (Wang and Ziegler, 2001; Ma et al., 2008). The systematic ~1‰ difference could be 225 interpreted as reflecting differences in water depth, with conodonts from shallower 226 waters (Dongcun section) recording 4 °C warmer temperatures than conodonts from the 227 relative deeper water Yangdi section. However, this implies that Palmatolepis, the 228 dominating conodont taxon measured in the two sections may have lived in slightly 229 230 deeper parts of the water column, contradicting previous suggestions that *Palmatolepis* was a surface dweller (Joachimski et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2018), but in line with the 231 traditional conodont biofacies models (e.g. Sandberg et al., 1988) that considered 232 Palmatolepis as a pelagic taxon which could have lived at variable water-depths. 233

The comparison of published  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  records with the South China record shows 234 that Pragian  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  data from South China yield comparable values to those from 235 Australia but lower  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values than those from Europe (Fig. 3 A, B), The late 236 Emsian to Eifelian  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  data from South China and Europe yield higher  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$ 237 values compared with those from Australia and USA (Fig. 4), with the regional 238 differences in  $\delta^{18}$ O becoming less obvious during the Late Devonian and Early 239 Carboniferous. The  $\delta^{18}$ O difference could be interpreted by regional effects such as 240 salinity (e.g. via river discharge, upwelling, seasonal rainfall patterns). It is interesting 241 that the discrepancy in  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  appears to be dependent on the ocean basins, with 242 China and Europe located in the Palaeotethys ocean yielding higher  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values, 243 whereas western USA and Australia were situated in the Panthalassa ocean and have 244

lower  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  values (Figs. 3 A, B). This observation may reflect freshwater runoff 245 and thus lower salinities in the Panthalassa seas in southeastern Australia and the US 246 Midcontinent (low  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{seawater}}$  value), while  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{apatite}}$  values from the shelf seas 247 bordering the western (Europe) and eastern Palaeotethys (China) may represent an 248 open-marine settings with higher salinities (high  $\delta^{18}O_{seawater}$  values). A similar pattern 249 is observed in the Pennsylvanian North American Midcontinent Sea, which was an 250 extensive tropical epicontinental sea within the Laurentian Craton (Heckel, 1977; Algeo 251 and Heckel, 2008) with increased continental runoff resulting in an obvious offshore-252 onshore decrease in surface water  $\delta^{18}$ O (Joachimski and Lambert, 2015; Rosenau et al., 253 2014, Macarewich et al., 2021), and, resulting in considerably lower values (~3‰) of 254 Pennsylvanian conodonts from the US Midcontinent compared to coeval conodonts 255 from open ocean South China (Joachimski et al., 2006; Joachimski and Lambert, 2015; 256 Chen et al., 2016). Using the  $\delta^{18}$ O-salinity relationship for modern tropical settings like 257 the Gulf of Panama where a change of 0.25% in  $\delta^{18}$ O corresponds to a 1 psu salinity 258 change (Tao et al., 2013), the observed  $\delta^{18}$ O difference of 1.5-2.0% between the 259 Panthalassa and Palaeotethys sea would translate into ~6-8 psu salinity variation. 260 Assuming that the Palaeotethys had normal marine salinities like the modern ocean 261 (~35 psu salinity), the Panthalassa sea would have salinities of 27-29 psu salinity. 262

Continental runoff lowering seawater  $\delta^{18}$ O may also explain why comparably low 263  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> values are measured in South China and Australia in the Pragian. The Pragian 264 was a time when marine sediment initially occurred after the Guangxi Orogeny, and all 265 Pragian data from South China are from the Dashatian section, which is dominated by 266 terrigenous siliciclastics interbedded with few carbonate beds, representing a near 267 coastal setting (Wang et al., 2016; Qiao et al., 2021). Thus, this section likely was 268 influenced by enhanced freshwater input, resulting in lower seawater  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> 269 values. Accordingly, the data from this section were not considered for 270 palaeotemperature reconstruction. All Late Devonian and Early Carboniferous 271  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  data are from the Palaeotethys ocean. Thus, it is not surprising that regional 272 differences in  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> are less obvious (Fig. 3A, B; Fig. 4). 273

The above observations indicate that Devonian oceans may have been 274 characterized by significant differences in  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{seawater}}$ , with epicontinental seas having 275 distinctly lower  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>seawater</sub> than the open ocean as consequence of the input of 276 freshwater. An average  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>seawater</sub> value of -1% is usually assumed for time intervals 277 without major ice caps in high latitudes. However, this assumption is an 278 oversimplification (Judd et al. 2020) as documented in the variability of seawater  $\delta^{18}$ O 279 in the modern oceans (Schmidt et al., 1999). Thus, reconstruction of deep time ocean 280 281 temperatures and/or ice volume should preferentially be based on oxygen isotope data from open ocean settings. 282

Despite regional differences in  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  between palaeocontinents (Fig. 3A, B) or 283 even between sections from one paleocontinent (e.g. Girard et al., 2020) (Fig. 3A, B), 284 the Devonian  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  records from South China and Europe generally show similar 285 secular trends characterized by a pronounced increase in  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  during the Pragian 286 to early Emsian to Eifelian followed by significant decrease during the late 287 Eifelian/Givetian to Frasnian, and a further rise starting in the early Famennian, 288 accelerating in the earliest Carboniferous (Fig. 3A, B). Interestingly, similar long-term 289 oxygen isotope trends are also seen in the  $\delta^{18}$ O record of well-preserved brachiopod 290 calcite measured from multiple low latitude continents (Fig. 3C, van Geldern et al., 291 2006). These parallel trends measured on brachiopod calcite and conodont apatite 292 293 deriving from various low latitude locations (Fig. 3) can serve as evidence supporting the inference that the primary oxygen isotope signals are well preserved in most of the 294 South China samples and the observed changes in  $\delta^{18}$ O mainly record global climatic 295 changes. Since the regional differences in seawater  $\delta^{18}O$  complicate absolute 296 297 temperature estimation, we only compare the temperature records from two low latitudinal regions (0-15 °S) within Palaeotethys (South China and Europe). 298

Applying the temperature equation of Lécuyer et al. (2013) and assuming a  $\delta^{18}$ O value for Devonian seawater of -1 % VSMOW, the  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> records suggest cooling of tropical seawater by ~8 to 10 °C (Fig. 4) during the Pragian to Emsian/Eifelian followed by 8 to 10 °C (Fig. 4) warming during the Eifelian/Givetian to Frasnian. The European record shows a moderate ~5 °C temperature decrease during the Famennian. Unfortunately, coeval data from South China are sparse, hindering a direct comparison between the two regions. However, both records suggest further cooling during the earliest Carboniferous (Chen et al., 2021; Fig. 4). The parallel palaeotemperature trends suggest that the Devonian climate variations occurred globally.

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## **309 5.2 Potential drivers of Devonian climate change**

It is generally assumed that variations in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration played a 310 key role in controlling changes in Earth's climate over the Phanerozoic Eon (Royer et 311 al., 2004; Came et al., 2017; Mills et al., 2019). Primary carbon sources to the 312 atmosphere are CO<sub>2</sub> emitted by tectonic and volcanic processes and oxidative 313 weathering of organic carbon, while CO2 sinks are silicate weathering and burial of 314 organic carbon. CO<sub>2</sub> emission is linked to the intensity of tectonic or volcanic activities 315 which are generally represented over long timescales by the rate of material generation 316 and subduction, based on ridge production rate and lengths of arcs (Van Der Meer et al., 317 318 2014; Mills et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2017). Silicate weathering depends on multiple factors including runoff, temperature, and physical erosion rates (Royer, 2014; 319 Goddéris et al., 2014), which in turn would be influenced by changes in topography, 320 paleogeography, climate, and terrestrial plant coverage. 321

Enhanced silicate weathering due to the advent of terrestrial vascular plants (Algeo 322 et al., 1995, 2001; Algeo and Scheckler, 1998; Lenton et al., 2018) has been considered 323 as major trigger of the  $pCO_2$  decrease during the Devonian, which resulted in the 324 transition from the Early Paleozoic "greenhouse" to Late Paleozoic "icehouse"(Qie et 325 326 al., 2019). However, the exact timing of events is uncertain. Proxy  $pCO_2$  data and 327 modelling studies have suggested that cooling started in the Emsian at ca. 400 Ma or even earlier (Royer et al., 2014; Foster et al., 2017; Lenton et al., 2018), while other 328 authors suggested a later onset in the Middle (Givetian) to Late Devonian following the 329 advent of forests and deeper root systems (Stein et al., 2012; Giesen and Berry, 2013). 330 The oxygen isotope based palaeotemperature reconstructions indicate that the first 331 Devonian climatic cooling took place in Pragian to Emsian times, followed by climatic 332

warming during the Givetian and Frasnian interval, and further cooling occurring again
in the Famennian (Fig. 4). In the following sections, the Devonian climate evolution
and the potential driving mechanism(s) will be discussed.

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# **5.2.1** Was Early Devonian cooling triggered by the radiation of early rooted plants?

338 The South China and European palaeotemperature records (Fig. 4) suggest that cooling occurred in the Early Devonian, with a more stable climate dominating the late 339 Emsian to Eifelian which is generally in agreement with modeling based  $pCO_2$ 340 predictions (Fig. 5). Long-term climatic cooling is usually interpreted as resulting either 341 from increased CO<sub>2</sub> consumption via silicate weathering or reduced CO<sub>2</sub> degassing 342 from tectonic and volcanic activities. In particular, low-latitude arc-continent collisions 343 or emplacement of larger igneous provinces would significantly promote exhumation 344 and erosion of mafic and ultramafic rocks (Cox et al., 2016; Macdonald et al., 2019), 345 which are effective at consuming  $CO_2$  via chemical weathering (McKenzie et al., 2016; 346 Hartmann et al., 2014; Schopka et al., 2011). Fresh exposure of ophiolites following 347 348 arc-continent collisions or of basalt after LIP emplacement may significantly accelerate silicate weathering and carbon sequestration (Cox et al., 2016; Macdonald et al., 2019), 349 especially if occurring in tropical latitudes. However, the low active suture length and 350 LIP area reconstructed for the Pragian-Emsian (Macdonald et al., 2019; Fig. 5) suggest 351 that silicate weathering from both was likely ineffective in removing CO<sub>2</sub> from the 352 atmosphere. In addition, although reconstructions suggest an overall decrease in the 353 CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing rate from mid ocean ridges or continental arc activity from the 354 Ordovician to Carboniferous (Mckenzie et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2017; Mills et al., 2017, 355 2019), short-term outgassing rates are extremely difficult to calculate, so a reduced 356 tectonic degassing flux cannot be clearly implicated in Pragian-Emsian cooling. 357

We suggest that Early Devonian cooling may be a consequence of accelerating silicate weathering initiated by the occurrence of the early rooted vascular plants. According to Algeo et al. (1995, 2001), early vascular plants prior to the Middle Devonian were mainly herbaceous, relatively small in stature (<1 m) and ecologically restricted to specific habitats. Roots or rhizomes of these early plants are rarely found

and/or incompletely preserved (Morris et al., 2015). However, the impact of these early 363 plants on soil production and continental silicate weathering could be substantial (Algeo, 364 365 et al., 2001; Xue et al., 2016). For example, recent paleobotanical studies document a complex rhizome system for the lycopsid Drepanophycus (Xue et al., 2016) and rooting 366 systems for lycophytes (Matsunaga and Tomescu, 2016) almost simultaneously 367 368 occurring in South China and North America in the Pragian (Fig. 5). Similar rhizomes or rooting structures were also observed in Lochkovian to Emsian sediments of 369 370 Southern Britain (Hillier et al., 2008) and Bathurst Island/Arctic Canada (Gensel et al., 2001). Larger and deeper root systems capable of penetrating downward into the 371 substrate by ~1 m are reported from Emsian strata in Canada, although the parent plant 372 373 is unclear (Elick et al., 1998).

These findings suggest that rhizomes or rooting systems having the capability of 374 producing rooted paleosols (Xue et al., 2016) may have been well established since the 375 Pragian. This further suggests that relatively complex plant-soil interactions already 376 existed prior to the advent of forests and deep root systems (Algeo, et al., 2001; Xue et 377 378 al., 2016; Matsunaga and Tomescu, 2016). Additionally, advanced root systems in the Pragian were coincident with a significant increase in spore and mega plant fossil 379 diversities (Fig. 5, Wang et al., 2000, Cascales-Minana, 2016, Xue et al., 2018, Shen et 380 381 al., 2020), as well as a significant expansion of global vegetation cover, estimated to be from 10 to 30% of modern coverage (Fig. 5; Simon et al., 2007). Furthermore, a 382 pronounced increase in plant biomass and terrestrial organic carbon burial is evidenced 383 by the development of coal-like accumulations in multiple localities (Wehrmann et al., 384 2005, Kennedy et al., 2013, Morris et al., 2011; Nelsen et al., 2016) and high  $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ 385 values in coeval marine carbonates (Fig. 6, Buggisch and Joachimski, 2006). 386

An increased influence of Early Devonian vegetation and its root systems on continental weathering can also be inferred from multiple lines of indirect evidence, for example significant changes in river systems characterized by a shift from braided to meandering streams (Davies and Gibling, 2010; Gibling and Davies, 2012), and a prominent increase in mud deposition in alluvial plain system allowing more complete weathering of primary minerals (McMahon and Davies, 2018) under a context of higher

weathering intensity in response to the expansion of land plants (Lipp et al., 2021). Mo 393 isotope and I/Ca data from South China and North American sections, as well as isotope 394 mass balance models for global sedimentary  $\delta^{13}$ C, indicate that a major oxygenation 395 pulse took place in the Early-Middle Devonian (ca. 400 Ma) (Dahl et al., 2010; Krause 396 et al., 2018; He et al., 2019, Lu et al., 2018) with excess O<sub>2</sub> likely produced by enhanced 397 burial of terrestrial biomass due to the higher C/P ratio of early land plants, coupled 398 with a plant-driven P weathering increase promoted the burial of marine organic carbon 399 400 (Lenton et al., 2016).

These ideas suggest that terrestrial as well as marine productivity and biomass may 401 have substantially increased since the Pragian. In conjunction with the advent of root 402 systems and the co-evolution of symbiotic mycorrhizal fungi (Remy et al., 1994; 403 Strullu-Derrien et al., 2014; Mills et al., 2018), the Early Devonian vegetation may have 404 considerably enhanced silicate weathering and organic carbon burial, promoting 405 sequestration of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, culminating in climatic cooling. The COPSE model 406 as shown in Figure 5 (Tostevin and Mills, 2020) incorporates the essentials of the plant 407 408 root hypothesis but assumes that the significant radiation of rooted terrestrial vegetation occurred between ~400 and ~380 Ma (Lenton et al., 2018). The model predictions 409 therefore indicate that Early Devonian cooling started at 400 Ma. Alternatively, 410 assuming an earlier onset of the radiation of rooted vegetation at ~410 Ma, the COPSE 411 model predicts a more comparable  $pCO_2$  and oxygen isotopic based temperature record 412 (Fig. 5). 413

414

## 415 5.2.2 Givetian–Frasnian warming triggered by metamorphic CO<sub>2</sub> degassing?

Climate warming during the late Givetian to Frasnian is unexpected, since the Middle Devonian is generally considered as a time interval with the earliest forests with deep root systems and a complex floral community (Stein et al., 2007; 2012). However, a significant climatic warming episode has been identified from both conodont apatite and brachiopod calcite  $\delta^{18}$ O records (Fig. 5; Joachimski et al., 2009; van Geldern et al. 2006). In addition, the broader latitudinal distribution of tropical floras and miospores, indicating a weak latitudinal temperature gradient is considered as a biosphere response

to this warming (Streel et al., 2000). Van Geldern et al. (2006) suggested that intensified 423 CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing from midocean ridges as inferred from the high sea-level (Johnson et 424 al., 1985) and/or island arc volcanism, was a potential reason for this warming event. 425 However, long-term reconstructions of CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing from mid-ocean ridges or 426 continental arc activity tend to show a decreasing or flat trend during the Middle-Late 427 Devonian transition (Mckenzie et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2017; Mills et al., 2017). The 428 abrupt rise in tropical active suture length and LIP area (Macdonald et al., 2019; Fig. 5) 429 430 further suggest that a reduction in mafic and ultramafic rock weathering was unlikely to be the cause of this warming. 431

Stewart and Ague (2018) proposed that metamorphic CO<sub>2</sub> degassing derived from 432 fluid infiltration-driven decarbonation during the Acadian Orogeny (Fig. 5 ca. 390-375 433 Ma) may have injected a total flux of  $0.7 \sim 2.5 \times 10^{19}$  mol CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere, resulting 434 in significant global warming and the "Taghanic bio-crisis". The proposed CO<sub>2</sub> 435 injection is thought to have started at 390 Ma coinciding with climate warming as 436 suggested by the  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>apatite</sub> records. Interestingly, this climate warming coincides with 437 438 a significant sea level rise observed in both South China and North America (Fig. 6, Johnson et al., 1985; Ma et al., 2017). The rising sea level could be interpreted to 439 indicate the melting of ice masses (Elrick et al., 2009), however no direct glacial 440 deposits have been observed at this time. To assess the likelihood of Acadian degassing 441 driving this warming, we incorporated enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> degassing into the COPSE model 442 run. We increased the model degassing rate by 33% over a 10 Myr period corresponding 443 444 to the Acadian orogenesis, which gives an additional  $CO_2$  input at the upper end of the estimates of Stuart and Ague (2018). pCO<sub>2</sub> proxy data are highly scattered but do 445 446 broadly confirm a minor increase over the degassing interval, as predicted by the COPSE model. However, the model does not reproduce the degree of warming that is 447 indicated by the  $\delta^{18}$ O records. 448

449

# 450 5.2.3 Famennian cooling: the advent of seed plants or Arc-continent collisions?

451 The  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  record indicates two abrupt and transient cooling events across the 452 Frasnian-Famennian boundary, which have been reported in multiple low latitude453 sections (Joachimski and Buggisch, 2002; Balter et al., 2008; for summary see Huang 454 et al. 2018) and are attributed to a transient increase of organic carbon burial 455 (Joachimski and Buggisch, 2002). However, these short-term changes are not well 456 defined in the long-term records (Fig. 4). The long-term  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  record indicates 457 cooling starting in the early Famennian and accelerating into the earliest Carboniferous 458 (Fig. 4).

The Famennian cooling coincided with the origin and diversification of seed plants 459 (Fig. 5; Algeo et al., 1995), alongside the occurrence of more complex vascular systems 460 (Meyer-Berthaud et al., 1999; Hilton et al., 2003; Rowe and Speck, 2005; Wang and 461 Liu, 2015), diversification in leaf morphologies (Boyce and Knoll, 2002; Xue et al., 462 2015) as well as a significant increase in plant height (Mosbrugger, 1990; Dilcher et al., 463 2004; Meyer-Berthaud et al., 2010). The advent and diversification of seed plants 464 (Prestianni and Gerrienne, 2010) was of particular importance, since the reproduction 465 of seed plants is fully independent of water, enabling them to colonize drier uplands 466 (Algeo and Scheckler, 1998; Fairon-Demaret and Hartkopf-Fröder, 2004, Taylor et al., 467 468 2009). Consequently, vegetation coverage dramatically increased during the Famennian (Simon et al., 2007, Algeo and Scheckler, 2010). The taller, leafier plants had to develop 469 more advanced rooting systems and hosted more symbionts in order to obtain more 470 water and nutrients (Raven and Edwards, 2001). As a result, the root systems of 471 Famennian plants became larger (10 to 15 cm in diameter, up to 1.5 m in deep), more 472 complicated in morphology (Driese and Mora, 2001), with the total root mass, a 473 parameter regarded as a reliable proxy for pedogenic weathering intensity, dramatically 474 raising to near ~50% of modern levels (Algeo and Scheckler, 2010). These significant 475 476 innovations in vegetation may have resulted again in a significant promotion of terrestrial weathering. 477

It is interesting to note that reconstructions of active suture length in the tropics indicate an abrupt increase to ~3,000 kilometers in the latest Frasnian and Famennian (Macdonald et al., 2019). Basalt weathering following the emplacement of LIPs in the tropics has a similar climatic effect as low-latitude arc-continent collisions (Macdonald et al., 2019; Park et al., 2021). The emplacement of the Viluy and Kola-Dnieper LIPs

are dated as Middle to Late Devonian (Kusznir et al., 1996; Wilson and Lyashkevich, 483 1996, Courtillot et al., 2010, Kravchinsky et al., 2012), with the estimated LIP exposed 484 area increasing substantially over 385-380 Ma (Fig. 5), ranking this period as a peak 485 interval of basalt exposure (Macdonald et al., 2019). Weathering of freshly exposed 486 basalts or ophiolites may have provided a mechanism to drive climatic cooling (Dessert 487 et al., 2003). However, the increase in active suture length and basalt areas started in 488 the Givetian (380 Ma) and late Frasnian (375 Ma), respectively, during warming 489 climatic conditions and 12 and 7 Ma before the onset of Famennian cooling (Fig. 5). 490 This suggests that weathering of basalts or ophiolites did not immediately result in 491 climatic cooling. However, the relatively large basalt and ophiolite exposure areas 492 alongside with declining tectonic CO<sub>2</sub> degassing imply that these factors may still 493 possibly make a considerable contribution to the Famennian cooling, which culminated 494 in a short glaciation in the late Famennian (Caputo, 1985; Caputo et al., 2008). 495

In summary, enhanced silicate weathering in association with the advent of seed 496 plants and their deeper and complicated root systems could have played a leading role 497 498 in driving the Famennian cooling, which was further reinforced by weathering of ophiolites and basalts. The combined effect of these events would have significantly 499 accelerated removal of  $CO_2$  from the atmosphere (Berner et al., 2003), ultimately 500 leading to the global climate transition from the Early Paleozoic Greenhouse to the Late 501 Paleozoic Icehouse. The continued expansion of land plants and the weathering of 502 volcanic terranes were already included in the COPSE model run (in a basic form), and 503 504 it is capable of generating a  $CO_2$  record that is consistent with the proxy data and predicts cooling over the Famennian. However, as above, the model does not recreate 505 the large changes in tropical temperatures that are reconstructed from the  $\delta^{18}$ O record. 506 507 Given that the COPSE model is a simple nondimensional box model, the tropical temperature change is calculated from the global average temperature assuming a 508 constant poleward heat transport by multiplying the global temperature change by a 509 constant factor of  $\frac{2}{3}$  (see Mills et al., 2019). This is an oversimplification as the polar 510 amplification factor itself appears to be dynamic (Valdez et al., 2021), which could 511

512 change the assumed model 'tropical' temperatures by several degrees.

513

### 514 6. Conclusions

Multiple Devonian oxygen isotope records from different low latitude areas 515 illustrate a Devonian climate characterized by cooling during the Pragian to Emsian, 516 significant warming during the Givetian to Frasnian, and cooling starting in the 517 Famennian and accelerating in the earliest Carboniferous. A close comparison of the 518 climatic variations and vegetation innovation events suggests that the Pragian to 519 Emsian and Famennian cooling corresponded to the first establishment of vascular plant 520 root-soil interactions, and later to the advent of seed plants in conjunction with the 521 development of deep and morphological complex root systems. These dynamic 522 Devonian climatic changes add complexity to a more generally assumed gradual 523 decrease in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> resulting from the rise of the Devonian vegetation. In 524 addition, tectonic and volcanic activities are suggested to have played an important role 525 in driving the Devonian climate, with weathering of freshly exposed ophiolites and 526 527 basalts consuming CO<sub>2</sub> and thus driving climatic cooling in the Late Devonian, whereas contact metamorphism produced by orogenic activities likely contributed to a CO<sub>2</sub> rise 528 and climatic warming in the Middle Devonian. 529

530

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Fig. 1. A: Global palaeogeographic reconstruction for the Middle/Late Devonian
(revised from Golonka, 2000). B and C: Early and Late Devonian palaeogeographic
reconstructions for South China and location of study sections (revised from Ma et al.,
2009).



Fig. 2. Stratigraphic range of sections studied in South China. Absolute ages after
Geological Timescale 2012 (Gradstein et al., 2012). Light blue box represents sections
reported in Huang et al., 2018 and Chen et al., 2021. Pra. = Pragian, Givet. = Givetian,
Carb. = Carboniferous



Fig. 3. South China conodont apatite  $\delta^{18}$ O record (A) compared with published  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  (B) (Joachimski et al., 2009; Elrick et al., 2009; Girard et al., 2020) and brachiopod  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  records (C) (van Geldern et al., 2006). Solid lines represent Locfit regression, dotted lines give 95% confidence interval. All published data are recalibrated to Geological Timescale 2012 (Gradstein et al., 2012). Si = Silurian, Pra. = Pragian, Givet. = Givetian, Carb. = Carboniferous





Solid lines give Locfit regressions for samples from South China (data from the Dashatian section is excluded since  $\delta^{18}$ O likely influenced by freshwater input), Europe, USA and Australia; dotted lines give 95% confidence interval. Temperature calculated using temperature equations given by Lécuyer et al. (2013) assuming an average oxygen isotope value for Devonian oceans of -1‰ VSMOW. Abbreviations as Fig. 3



1017

Fig. 5. Comparison of Devonian temperature records with significant events in 1018 1019 terrestrial vascular plants, pCO<sub>2</sub>, volcanism and glaciation records. (A) Global LIPs (and other mafic rock) area and tectonic CO<sub>2</sub> degassing rate (magnitude normalized to 1020 the present) used to compute the COPSE model (Mills et al., 2017; 2019), including 1021 degassing pulse due to Acadian orogenic activity (Stewart and Ague, 2018), and 1022 glaciation record (Caputo et al., 2008). (B) Proxy (Royer et al., 2014; Foster et al., 1023 1024 2017) and modelling (Lenton et al., 2018; Tostevin and Mills, 2020) reconstructions of atmospheric  $pCO_2$  by assuming significant radiation of rooted terrestrial vegetation 1025

1026	started at ~410 or ~400 N	a. (C) Significant	plants innovation events	(Red Arrow and
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- 1027 Pentacle, Stein et al., 2012; Matsunaga and Tomescu, 2016; Xue et al., 2016), mega
- 1028 plant fossil diversities (Green line, Global Plant fossil diversity, Cascales-Minana,
- 1029 2016; and Histogram, Genus and Species level fossil diversity from South China, Xue
- 1030 et al., 2018) and terrestrial plant coverage in the existing land (Light green line, Simon
- 1031 et al., 2006) (D) Devonian low latitude temperature records (as Fig. 3) compared to
- 1032 low latitude temperatures modelled by COPSE. Abbreviations as Fig. 3.



1043 Fig. 6. Comparison of Devonian temperature records with sea level changes and 1044 carbonate  $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$  record. (A). North America (Johnson et al., 1985) and South China 1045 (Ma et al., 2009) relative sea level change curves (B)  $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$  record from whole rock 1046 carbonate (Buggisch and Joachimski, 2006), (C) Devonian temperature records (this 1047 study). Abbreviations as Fig. 3.