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Title: Ocean Acidification and the Permo-Triassic Mass Extinction

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Abstract: Ocean acidification triggered by Siberian Trap volcanism has been implicated as a kill

- mechanism for the Permo-Triassic mass extinction, but evidence for an acidification event
- remains inconclusive. To address this, we present a high resolution seawater pH record across
- this interval, utilizing boron isotope data combined with a quantitative modeling approach. In the
- latest Permian, the alkalinity of the ocean increased, priming the Earth system with a low level of
- 23 atmospheric CO_2 and a high ocean buffering capacity. The first phase of extinction was

 coincident with a slow injection of isotopically light carbon into the atmosphere-ocean, but the ocean was well-buffered such that ocean pH remained stable. During the second extinction pulse, however, a rapid and large injection of carbon overwhelmed the buffering capacity of the ocean, causing an abrupt and short-lived acidification event that drove the preferential loss of heavily calcified marine biota.

 One Sentence Summary: Ocean acidification caused the second phase of mass extinction in the Permo-Triassic, due to a rapid and large injection of carbon which overwhelmed the buffering capacity of the ocean.

 Main Text: The Permian Triassic Boundary (PTB) mass extinction, at ~ 252 Ma, represents the most catastrophic loss of biodiversity in geological history, and played a major role in dictating the subsequent evolution of modern ecosystems (*[1](#page-10-0)*). The end-Permian extinction event spans ~60 kyrs (*[2](#page-10-1)*) and can be resolved into two distinct marine extinction pulses, with the respective kill mechanisms appearing to be ecologically selective (*[3](#page-10-2)*). The first occurred in the latest Permian (Extinction Pulse 1; EP1) and was followed by an interval of temporary recovery before the second pulse (EP2) which occurred in the earliest Triassic. The direct cause of the mass extinction is widely debated with a diverse range of overlapping mechanisms proposed, including widespread water column anoxia (*[4](#page-10-3)*), euxinia (*[5](#page-10-4)*), global warming (*[6](#page-10-5)*) and ocean acidification (*[7](#page-10-6)*).

44 Models of PTB ocean acidification suggest that a massive, and rapid, release of $CO₂$ from Siberian Trap volcanism, acidified the ocean (*[7](#page-10-6)*). Indirect evidence for acidification comes from the interpretation of faunal turnover records (*[3,](#page-10-2) [8](#page-10-7)*), potential dissolution surfaces (*[9](#page-10-8)*) and Ca

 isotope data (*[7](#page-10-6)*). A rapid input of carbon is also potentially recorded in the negative carbon isotope excursion (CIE) that characterizes the PTB (*[10,](#page-10-9) [11](#page-10-10)*) . The interpretation of these records is, however, debated (*12*), and of great importance to understanding the current threat of anthropogenically-driven ocean acidification (*[11](#page-10-10)*).

 Here, we test the ocean acidification hypothesis by presenting a novel proxy record of 52 ocean pH across the PTB, using the boron isotope composition of marine carbonates ($\delta^{11}B_{\text{carb}}$) (SM sections 2 to 4)*.* We then employ a carbon cycle model (SM sections 3 to 5) to explore 54 ocean carbonate chemistry and pH scenarios that are consistent with our $\delta^{11}B$ data and published records of carbon cycle disturbance and environmental conditions. The quantitative model uses 56 previous estimates for background Early Permian conditions (13) suggesting either high $pCO₂$ 57 (CO₂Hi: ~10 PAL, pH ~7.5 $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ ~36.8‰), or low pCO_2 (CO₂Lo: ~3 PAL, pH ~8, $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ ~34‰) (see SM sections 5 and 6 for further details). Through this combined geochemical, geological and modelling approach we are able to produce an envelope that encompasses the most realistic range in pH, which then allows us to resolve three distinct chronological phases of carbon cycle perturbation, each with very different environmental consequences for the Late Permian-Early Triassic Earth system.

Figure 1

 We analyzed boron isotope data from two complementary transects in a shallow marine, open water carbonate succession from the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E.), where depositional 67 facies and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ are well constrained (14) (see SM sections 1 and 2). During the Permian- Triassic the U.A.E formed an expansive carbonate platform that remained connected to the central Neo-Tethyan Ocean (*15*) (Fig 1). The run-up to PTB in the Tethys is characterized by 70 two negative δ^{13} C excursions interrupted by a short-term positive event (*10*). There is no 71 consensus as to the cause of this rebound event and so we focus on the broader δ^{13} C trend. Our δ^{13} C transect (Fig. 2) starts in the Changhsingian with a gradual decreasing trend, interrupted by 73 the first negative shift in $\delta^{13}C$ at EP1 (at 53 m or ~251.96 Ma, Fig. 2). This is followed by the minor positive 'rebound' event (at 54 m or ~251.95 Ma, Fig. 2) prior to the minima of the second phase of the negative CIE (58-60 m or ~251.92 Ma, Figs. 2 and 3) that marks the PTB itself. 76 After the CIE minimum, δ^{13} C gradually increases to ~1.8‰ and remains relatively stable during earliest Triassic and across EP2.

78 Our boron isotope transect shows a quite different pattern. $\delta^{11}B$ is persistently low (Fig. 2), 79 at the start of our record during the late-Changhsingian (Late Permian), with an average of 10.9 \pm 0.9‰ (1σ). This is in agreement with δ^{11} B values (average of 10.6 \pm 0.6‰, 1σ) reported for 81 early-Permian brachiopods (*16*). Further up section (at ~40 m or ~252.04 Ma, Fig. 2), there is a 82 stepped increase in $\delta^{11}B$ to 15.3‰, and by implication an increase in ocean pH of ~0.4-0.5 pH 83 units (Fig. 3). Then $\delta^{11}B$ values remain relatively stable, scattering around 14.8‰ (\pm 1.0, 1 σ) and 84 implying variations within 0.1-0.2 pH units, into the Early Griesbachian (Early Triassic) and 85 hence across EP1 and the period of carbon cycle disturbance (Figs. 2 and 3).

86 After δ^{13} C had increased and stabilized (at ~85 m or ~251.88 Ma, Fig. 2), δ^{11} B begins to 87 decrease rapidly to 8.2‰, implying a sharp drop in pH of ~0.6-0.7 pH units. The $\delta^{11}B$ minimum

88 is coincident with the interval identified as EP2. This ocean acidification event is short-lived 89 (~10 kyrs) and $\delta^{11}B$ values quickly recover toward the more alkaline values evident during EP1 90 (average of \sim 14‰).

91 The initial rise in ocean pH of ~0.4-0.5 units during the Late Permian (Fig. 3) suggests 92 a large increase in carbonate alkalinity (17). We are able to simulate the observed rise in $\delta^{11}B$ 93 and pH through different model combinations of increasing silicate weathering, increased pyrite 94 deposition (*[18](#page-11-0)*), an increase in carbonate weathering and a decrease in shallow marine carbonate 95 depositional area (see SM section 6.1). Both silicate weathering and pyrite deposition result in a 96 large drop in pCO_2 (and temperature) for a given increase in pH and saturation state (Ω). There is 97 no evidence for a large drop in $pCO₂$, and independent proxy data indicate only a minor 98 temperature decrease of a few degrees C during the Changsingian *(19*), suggesting that these 99 mechanisms alone cannot explain the pH increase (see sensitivity tests in SM section 6.1).

100 Conversely, an increase in carbonate input or a reduction in rates of carbonate deposition both 101 result in increases in Ω , with a greater impact on pH per unit decrease in pCO_2 and temperature 102 (see Fig. S6).

103 This suggested decrease in carbonate sedimentation is consistent with the decrease in 104 depositional shelf area that occurred due to the 2nd order regression of the Late Permian ([20](#page-11-1)). 105 With the added expansion of anoxia into shelf environments (*21*) this would effectively create 106 both bottom-up and top-down pressures to reduce the area of potential carbonate sedimentation. 107 Sea level fall also exposed carbonates to weathering (*20*), which would have further augmented 108 the alkalinity influx. The pH increase event supports the $CO₂Lo$ initialisation scenario (CO₂ ~3 109 PAL, pH ~8, $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ ~34‰) as the simulated CO₂ and temperature decrease is much reduced, 110 and therefore more consistent with independent proxy data (22), compared to $CO₂Hi (CO₂~10)$ 111 PAL, pH ~7.5 $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ ~36.8‰) (Fig. 3D).

112 Prior to EP1, $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ values begin to decrease before reaching the minimum of the 113 globally recognized negative CIE at the PTB (Fig. 2). At this time both $\delta^{11}B$ and ocean pH 114 remained stable. Hypotheses to explain the negative CIE require the input of isotopically light 115 carbon, such as from volcanism (*14, 23*) with the assimilation of very light organic carbon from 116 the surrounding host rock (*24*), methane destabilization (*22*), collapse of the biological pump 117 (*[15](#page-15-0)*), and/or a decrease in the burial of terrestrial carbon (*16*). We can simulate the observed drop 118 in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$, whilst remaining within the uncertainty of the $\delta^{11}B$ data (Fig. 3), by combining a 119 cessation of terrestrial carbon burial with a relatively slow (50 kyr) carbon injection from any of 120 the above sources (see section S6.2.4, Fig S8). A small source of methane $(3.2 \times 10^{17} \text{ mol C with}$ 121 $\delta^{13}C = -50\%$) gives the least change in $\delta^{11}B$ and pH, whilst either a larger source of organic 122 carbon (~6.5x10¹⁷ mol C with δ^{13} C = -25‰) or a mixture of mantle and lighter carbon sources 123 $(-1.3x10^{18} \text{ mol C with } \delta^{13}C = -12.5\%)$ are still within the measured uncertainty in $\delta^{11}B$.

 This relatively slow carbon addition minimises the tendency for a transient decline in 125 surface ocean pH in an ocean that was already primed with a high Ω and hence high buffering capacity from the Late Permian. The global presence of microbial and abiotic carbonate fabrics 127 after EP1 (Fig. 2) (25) are indicative that this high Ω was maintained across the CIE. The carbon 128 injection triggers an increase in $pCO₂$, temperature and silicate weathering, thereby creating an additional counterbalancing alkalinity flux. This is consistent with independent proxy data (*6*)*.* The alkalinity source may have been further increased through soil loss (*26*), the emplacement of easily-weathered Siberian Trap basalt, or the impact of acid rain (*27*) that would have increased weathering efficiency.

133 The negative $\delta^{11}B_{\text{carb}}$ excursion at 251.88 Ma represents a calculated pH decrease of up to 134 0.7 pH units. It coincides with the second pulse of the extinction (Fig. 2), which preferentially 135 affected the heavily calcifying, physiologically un-buffered and sessile organisms (*[3](#page-10-2)*). This was 136 also accompanied by the temporary loss of abiotic and microbial carbonates throughout the 137 Tethys (28, 29) thereby suggesting a coeval decrease in Ω (30). To overwhelm the buffering 138 capacity of the ocean and decrease pH in this way requires a second, more abrupt injection of 139 carbon to the atmosphere, yet remarkably, the acidification event occurs after the decline in $\delta^{13}C$, 140 when δ^{13} C has rebounded somewhat and is essentially stable (Fig. 2).

141 Unlike the first carbon injection, the lack of change in δ^{13} C at this time rules out very ¹³C-depleted carbon sources, because no counterbalancing strongly ¹³C-enriched source exists. Instead, it requires a carbon source near ~0‰. A plausible scenario for this is the decarbonation of overlying carbonate host rock, into which the Siberian Traps intruded (*24*) or the direct

145 assimilation of carbonates and evaporites into the melt (*[31](#page-12-0)*). Host carbonates would have had 146 δ^{13} C ~+2-4‰, which when mixed with mantle carbon (~-5‰), potentially produces a source 147 near 0‰. We can simulate the sharp drop in pH and stable δ^{13} C values (Fig. 3) through a large 148 and rapid carbon release of $2x10^{18}$ mol C over 10 kyr (Fig S8). This second rapid carbon release 149 produces a sharp rise in $pCO₂$ to ~20 PAL and warming of ~15[°]C, consistent with the 150 observation of peak temperatures after EP1 (*26*). Initialization of the carbon cycle model under 151 CO₂Hi cannot generate the magnitude of $\delta^{11}B$ drop (Fig. 3A) because the non-linear relation 152 between pH and $\delta^{11}B$ fractionation sets a lower limit of $\delta^{11}B$ at ~10‰ in this case (Fig. S3). Thus 153 low initial CO_2 of \sim 3 PAL in the late Permian (CO_2Lo) is more consistent with the data 154 presented here.

155 The documented acidification event lasted for only ~10 kyrs. This time span is consistent 156 with the modelled timescale required to replenish the ocean with alkalinity, as carbonate 157 deposition is reduced and weathering is increased under higher $pCO₂$ and global temperatures. 158 Increased silicate weathering rates drive further $CO₂$ drawdown resulting in stabilization (Fig. 159 S7). High global temperature (*6*) and increased silicate weathering are consistent with a sudden 160 increase in both ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ([32](#page-12-1)) and sedimentation rates (26) in the Griesbachian.

 The Permo-Triassic transition was a time of extreme environmental change, and our combined data and modeling approach falsifies several mechanisms for the changes observed. Whilst the coincident stresses of anoxia, increasing temperatures, and ecosystem restructuring 164 were important during this interval, the $\delta^{11}B$ excursion strongly suggests that widespread ocean acidification was the driver of the second pulse of the mass extinction, and thus ultimately ended the temporary recovery (*[3](#page-10-2)*) from the first extinction pulse. The carbon release required to drive the observed acidification event occurred at a rate comparable to the current anthropogenic perturbation, but far exceeded it in expected magnitude (*33*). We show that such a rapid rate is critical to causing the combined synchronous decrease in both pH and saturation state that defines an ocean acidification event (*[11](#page-10-10)*).

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 Fig. 1: Paleogeographic reconstruction for the Late Permian denoting the studied section Wadi Bih, in the Musandam Mountians of U.A.E that formed an extensive carbonate platform in the Neo-Tethyan Ocean. Modified from (*14*).

 Fig. 2: Carbon cycle dynamics, macrofauna distribution (*34*), and Extinction Phase 1 (EP1) and Extinction Phase 2 interval (EP2) across the Permian Triassic Boundary for Wadi Bih, A: 472 shallow water $\delta^{13}C$ record (14); B: Boron isotope ($\delta^{11}B$) record (propagated uncertainty given as $2\sigma f$) and average Early Permian brachiopod value (n=5) (*16*). Blue symbols are for SHA1 474 transect, black symbols are for WSA transect. The two transects are separated by ~ 1 km and facies are laterally continuous. Only *H. parvus* has been found so far in this section and the 476 conodont zones with dashed line are identified from the δ^{13} C record (34-36).

478 **Fig. 3**: Model results of carbon cycle parameters for the two end-member CO_2 scenarios (CO_2 *Hi*

479 and CO₂Lo). A - Model reproduced $\delta^{11}B$ vs data. B – Modelled $\delta^{13}C$ vs data. C – Modelled pH

- 480 envelope incorporating uncertainty of $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ and dynamic temperatures. D calculated
- 481 atmospheric CO₂. See SM section 1.2 for details on age model.

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 Supplementary Materials: Materials and Methods Figures S1-S9 Tables S1-S10 References (*37-96*)

Supplementary Materials

1. Materials and Methods

1.1 Sample Section

 Carbonate samples were obtained from a shallow-marine platform section at Wadi Bih on the Musandam Peninsula, United Arab Emirates (UAE). GPS co-ordinate for main transect in Wadi 495 Shahha are N 025° 50' 31.7", E 056° 06' 41.7". This is a near-continuous and exclusively shallow marine carbonate succession from the late Permian and entire Early Triassic that allows analysis of a high-resolution signature in the absence of significant depth-dependent or lithological controls (*14*). Late Permian facies are predominantly intertidal mud-and-wackestones and open lagoon wackestones, occasional windward and leeward shoals of bioclastic pack-and- grainstones (*34*). The PTB and Early Triassic are regionally represented by ooidal grainstones and a thrombolite horizon (*14, 34*). Samples were taken from two transects Wadi Shahha (WSA) 502 and Sha (SHA1), ~1000 m apart.. Facies are laterally continuous and carbon isotopes were used to ensure careful integration of the two datasets. For this study, we have analyzed 25 carbonate samples in total, taken in approximately 1 to 10 m scale intervals and covering a total thickness of 98 m, starting in the mid-Changhsingian (Permian), going up into the mid-Griesbachian (Triassic) and bracketing the complete Permian Triassic Boundary (PTB) extinction event (Table S1).

Table S1: Boron, carbon and oxygen isotope data from Wadi Bih; U.A.E.; pH values are derived from a simplified and non-dynamic calulation using the $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ range given by the model calculation and a constant pK_B for 25°C, 35 psu, 0 dbar.

* Ages are calculated based on tie points from Burgess et al.(2), see section S1.2

 $^+$ external uncertainty for B isotope data are valid for the last digits (2 σ)

508 # propagated uncerteinties for B isotope data

509

510 **1.2 Age Model**

511 The age model for this study was based on the most recent findings of Burgess et al., (*[2](#page-10-1)*) (see

512 Table S1). The age tie points are 252.10 Ma for 20 m (Fig. 2) thought to be equivalent to Bed 22

513 in Meishan from the δ^{13} C record; 252.00 Ma for the decline in δ^{13} C at 49 m and 251.90 Ma for

514 the first occurrence of *H. parvus* at 61m. EP2 is known to occur at the end of the *I. staeschi* zone,

515 Bed 28 Meishan (*[3](#page-10-2)*), which is not recorded in the Neo-Tethys but is equivalent to the carbon

 isotope rise between the *H. Parvus* and *I. isarcica* zones. In Wadi Bih we see the loss of gastropods and bivalves at this point (*34*), however the full resolution of the second extinction phase has not been confirmed at this locality. Therefore we identify a 10 m interval for EP2. In order to complete the age model we set the mid-point of EP2 as 251.88 Ma based on the absolute age for EP2 in Meishan (*[2](#page-10-1)*).

1.3 Analytical methods

 Carbon and oxygen isotope ratios were determined at Edinburgh University and University of Graz using the preparation technique and measurement routine as detailed in (*19*). All carbonate 525 isotopic values are quoted in the conventional δ per mil (‰) notation relative to VPDB. Calibration to international reference material was through NBS 19 and the reproducibility of replicate analyses for reference material, standards (in-house) and carbonate samples was better 528 than ± 0.05 ‰ for δ^{13} C and ± 0.1 ‰ for δ^{18} O at one standard deviation. For a detailed discussion of the C and O isotopic data see (*19*).

 Boron isotope ratios were determined in the isotope geochemistry laboratory at the University of Bremen (Department of Geosciences and MARUM-Center for Marine Environmental Sciences) using a ThermoFisher Scientific TRITON Plus Thermal Ionization 533 Mass Spectrometer. The $n(^{11}B)/n(^{10}B)$ measurements were performed using negative thermal ionization mass spectrometry (N-TIMS) following the method detailed in (*37*). For analyses, 10 535 mg of the sample powder was dissolved in 100 μ l 1 N HCl for 24 h at 20 \degree C and subsequently 536 centrifuged. 1 µl boron-free seawater emitter (38) together with 1 µl of the sample solution containing ~1 ng B were placed and dried on a degassed Re single filament. Analyses were carried out at filament temperatures of 970°-1050°C. Boron isotopes were registered as $BO₂$

539 complexes on masses 42 and 43, and measurements were carried out at ion beam intensity of \sim 10 pA on mass 43. Each sample measurement involved up to 200 blocks with 10 cycles each, taking about 2 hours of data acquisition. B isotope ratios are given relative to NIST SRM 951 in 542 the conventional $\delta^{11}B$ (‰) notation. The external reproducibility of the certified reference 543 material NIST SRM 951 showed an $n(^{11}B)/n(^{10}B)$ ratio of 4.0065±0.0017 (2 σ = 0.42‰, n=23) over a period of 6 month of sample analyses. The long term (18 month) reproducibility is 545 4.0066±0.0018 ($2\sigma = 0.44\%$, n=58). The $n(^{11}B)/n(^{10}B)$ ratio of the reference material for each 546 analytical session was reproduced better than 0.6% (2σ). In addition to the NIST material, the 547 standard material M93-TB-FC-1, a *Porites* coral with a published value of $24.8\pm0.4\%$ ($2\sigma_{\text{mean}}$), as determined by different multicollector techniques (*39*) was also regularly analysed. The coral 549 replicates gave δ^{11} B values of 24.1±0.7‰ (2 σ , n=16). Each sample solution was as a minimum run in full duplicate and the uncertainty of the reference material was propagated into the 551 external uncertainty (2σ) on the isotope ratio of the sample ($2\sigma f$; Table S1). For further information on the preparation and analytical methods see (*40*)*.*

2. Sample Selection

 A critical issue in using the B isotope composition of Permo-Triassic carbonate rocks for reconstruction of ocean pH is the potential overprinting of the original isotope signal via alteration. To obtain high-quality samples in which primary B isotope signals are still preserved, we applied the sample selection procedures successfully used on Neoproterozoic carbonate rocks to reconstruct Cryogenian and Ediacaran ocean pH variation *(37, 40, 41)*. In brief, samples selected for isotope analyses were screened macroscopic (in the field), microscopic (scanning electron microscope) and geochemically (carbon and oxygen isotopes), and selected because of

 their uniformity in texture, absence of late stage secondary alteration and no correlation between carbon and boron with oxygen isotopic signatures (Figs. S1 and S2).

 The PTB interval itself was thought to occur in a regional cross-bedded ooid grainstone, however, reconsideration of published thin-section images (*34*) (Fig S1 samples from WSA transect, 0611300847 and 0611181243) demonstrate these are in fact microspheres (a.k.a calcispheres). This fabric is unusual for the Phanerozoic but appears to represent supersaturated conditions and these are thought to be primary spar precipitates (*42*).

 To gain the highest potential for recording a primary boron signature we microdrilled areas of pure micrite from micritc mudstones and micritised calcisphere grainstones where there was no micro-optical evidence for veining, fracturing, clay minerals or bioclastic material. Samples containing evidence of late stage secondary alteration or recrystallization, i.e. any spar/microspar, were discarded. Potential analyses of disseminated detrital material in the carbonates was also checked through elevated Al, Si and Ba concentrations and showed either no or only minor dissemination of clay. The low availability of bioclastic material in this interval, due to the extinction, argues against the potential of trends being caused by vital effects. In particular the calcisphere grainstones of the PTB interval are classed as an abiotic carbonate that 578 provides an excellent opportunity to record seawater $\delta^{11}B$ in the absence of vital effects.

0611301104 (87m)

 Fig S1: Examples of thin section images for the Wadi Bih section, WSA transect. WSA samples 582 demonstrate homogeneous micritic texture of samples used for $\delta^{11}B$ analysis. 06- samples are from Maurer et al., (*34*) illustrating grainstones. The lack of compaction of grains and pore filling equant spar cements indicate very early/syn-sedimentary cementation. This fabric is consistent with indicators for supersaturated conditions in this interval, including thrombolites and flat pebble conglomerates, and suggests preservation of the original depositional fabric. Sample heights (m) as in Fig. 2 and Table S1.

 Fig S2: Cross-plots of boron, carbon, and oxygen isotope data for the marine carbonate samples from the Wadi Bih section. No significant correlation can be observed.

2.1 Diagenetic Influences

 The PTB interval grainstone is composed of microspheres (a.k.a calcispheres). Microspheres are micritized and cemented with coarse equant spar cement (Fig S1). The lack of compaction of the microspheres suggests that the spar cement was extremely early and probably syn-sedimentary. This is a feature of other grainstones throughout this interval (WSA transect, sample 0611301104). Critically the presence of such well cemented fabrics in the grainstones of this interval would have prevented later stage fluid migration, and hence any late stage dolomitization. The total negative boron isotope excursion at EP2 is recorded across a numberof fabrics and facies, including micrite and the early cemented grainstones. Petrographic analysis

 shows the extreme of the acidification event is recorded in fine-grained micrite where textures are very homogenous samples WSA 1, 1B, 2, and 2A (Fig. S1).

 Dolomitization in the Wadi Bih section is observed *(14*), and occurred in two phases where the first phase was fabric retentive syn-sedimentary dolomitization. The second phase of dolomitization leads to the recrystallization of facies where near depositional porosity and permeability had been maintained, i.e. preferentially in non-cemented grainstones. Neither of these phases is classed as deep burial dolomitization (as confirmed by petrography in Figure S1 608 and the δ^{18} O data, Table S1). In the Musandam Peninsula the impact of dolomitization on carbon and oxygen isotopes can be seen only in the close proximity to regional faults that provided high permeability pathways for late burial dolomitizing fluids (*43*), which were avoided for this study.

 Diagenetic effects were also checked with geochemical tests for selected trace element analyses, using secondary ionisation mass spectrometer Cameca ims 4f at the University of Edinburgh. Diagenetic alteration was explored via Mn/Sr, which is often used as a geochemical indicator of alteration and meteoric diagenesis in ancient carbonates (*44*). While low Mn/Sr has been found in ancient carbonates where there is clear optical evidence for recrystallization (*45*), high Mn/Sr may indicate carbonate precipitation from anoxic waters. In the selected samples, 617 Mn concentration is $\leq 300 \mu g g^{-1}$, Sr concentration ranges from 140 to 1400 $\mu g g^{-1}$, and the Mn/Sr ratio is low (< 2), so suggesting no influence of meteoric fluids. The boron concentration 619 for the carbonate rocks is, on average, 1 μ g g⁻¹ and ranges between 0.2 and 1.7 μ g g⁻¹.

 Post-depositional alteration, especially meteoric diagenesis and recrystallization, is assumed to decrease the isotopic composition of oxygen, boron and carbon isotopes (e.g. *46-48*). Our selected carbonate samples show the distinct carbon isotope trend found at every PTB 623 section globally and δ^{18} O values ranging between -0.5 and -4.0‰, indicating no significant deep

 burial alteration. All carbon and oxygen isotope data are given in Table S1. No statistically significant correlation between carbon, oxygen and boron isotope data can be observed in our data (Fig. S2).

627 The replication of the $\delta^{11}B$ across two complementary transects further support the preservation of a primary seawater isotope signature as late stage dolomitization is expected to be highly laterally variable and disrupt the smooth trends seen in the data.

3. Support for a primary Boron isotope signature

632 3.1 Published $\delta^{11}B$ data

633 So far, $\delta^{11}B$ data for Triassic carbonates have not been published and only limited $\delta^{11}B$ data, based on low-Mg calcite brachiopod calcite from Oman (Saiwan Fm.), are available for the 635 Permian (Late Sakmarian). Keeping in mind the modern residence time of boron ($T \sim 14$ to 20 Ma 636 (47, 49), it is important to note that the range in $\delta^{11}B$ values (10.9±0.9‰ (1 σ , n=4), 252.05-637 252.15 Ma, mid-Changhsingian) overlap with the range in $\delta^{11}B$ values between 10.1 and 11.7‰ 638 of the 285 Ma old brachiopod carbonates (average $10.6\pm0.%$, 1σ , n=5, (*16*)), which support the primary nature of our boron isotope data.

3.2 Environmental controls on the boron isotope composition

 The speciation of boron in seawater is predominantly pH dependent with minor controls from temperature, salinity and pressure (*[50\)](#page-13-0)*. In our model we consider a dynamic temperature effect 644 on pK_B to calculate the pH of the seawater from the boron isotope composition preserved in Permo-Triassic carbonate (see SM 4 and 5) however below we evaluate geological evidence to consider whether these variables could drive the trends seen in our data.

3.2.1 Temperature

 Oxygen isotope data preserved in conodont apatite and low-Mg calcite brachiopods from Permian-Triassic sections in Iran document tropical sea surface temperatures (SST) of 27–33°C 650 during the Changhsingian with a negative shift in δ^{18} O starting at the extinction horizon, translating into a warming of SSTs to well over 35°C in the mid-Griesbachian (*51*). The results are consistent with SSTs of the South Chinese sections, where a rapid increase in seawater temperature from about 25° to 36°C across the Permian-Triassic section was proposed based on 54 conodont apatite (6). Since the dissociation constant of boric acid (pK_B) decreases with increasing temperature (*50*), the proposed increase in SST could drive an increase in the B isotope composition of the carbonates precipitated at the time of global warming and imply an 657 increase in ocean pH, even if ocean pH stayed stable. Using the pK_B data from ([50](#page-13-0)), the potential 658 increase in SST at a given pH of 8 would drive an increase in $\delta^{11}B$ of the carbonates by 2‰ and generate an artificial increase of < 0.2 pH units. Consequently, it could be argued that our calculated pH variations are in essence the result of an increase in sea surface temperatures. However, the oxygen isotope pattern (*51*) shows a continuous increase in temperatures across the Permian-Triassic boundary and a thermal maximum in the mid-Griesbachian (~251.85 Ma). 663 Instead our data show a sharp increase in $\delta^{11}B$ and ocean pH in the Late Permian, well before the 664 increase in temperatures at EP1. The slight variability in $\delta^{11}B$ above the PTB, however, could be driven by temperature variations.

3.2.2 Salinity

671 Similar to temperature, the pK_B is sensitive to salinity and increases with decreasing salinity (52). To drive significant salinity-associated isotope variations across the Permo-Triassic boundary, drastic changes in salinity (e.g. down to 25 psu compared to 35 psu) would be necessary. However, even if modelled sea surface salinity values for the late Permian indicate generally more saline conditions than present day (*[52\)](#page-14-0)*, sea surface salinity values for e.g. Iran and South China still range between 34 and 35 psu (*[51\)](#page-14-1)* and will not have a significant effect on our pH calculation. These samples come from an exclusively shallow water environment far from any freshwater input, and so decreases in salinity would not affect our pH interpretations. The depositional environment here ranges between open water ooid shoals to open and restricted lagoon settings, which results in cyclic deposition on the scale of 5m. A shift toward more 681 restricted settings could drive increases in salinity that would affect the $\delta^{11}B$ record; however, 682 these depositional cycles are not on the same scale as the secular trends seen in $\delta^{11}B$.

3.2.3 Water Depth

 Permo-Triassic seawater pH values have been reconstructed assuming carbonate precipitation at sea surface conditions. Modern bathymetric pH and temperature profiles from the tropics show 687 that pH can decrease by up to \sim 0.2 units and temperature can drop by 15 \degree C in the first 300 m (*53*). Thus the B isotope composition of carbonates precipitated at greater water depths would be more negative compared to surface precipitates. This potential depth effect is thought to be of minimal influence to the Wadi Bih carbonates due to the exclusively shallow marine (subtidal to intertidal) nature of the succession.

692 Consequently, uncertainties in the δ^{11} B-ocean pH relationship potentially introduced by 693 changes in temperature, salinity, bathymetry or biofacies would not be able to produce the 694 observed B isotope pattern with the sharp increase in the mid-Changhsingian $(\sim$ 252.04 Ma) and 695 the temporary decrease in the mid-Griesbachian (~251.88 Ma), but would be capable of 696 explaining some of the slight variations across the PTB.

697

698 **4. Boron-pH calculations**

699 The boron isotope composition of marine carbonates is used to reconstruct seawater pH values 700 and atmospheric pCO_2 concentrations (e.g. $54-58$). The application of the B isotope system as a 701 proxy for ocean pH is based on the observation that the fractionation factor for isotope exchange 702 between the two different speciation of boron $(B(OH)_3)$ and $B(OH)_4$ ⁻) is pH sensitive and 703 produces significant and traceable changes in the isotopic composition of carbonates (e.g. *57*).

The carbonate-associated boron isotopic composition $\delta^{11}B_{\text{carb}}$ is assumed to be equal to 705 that of seawater $B(OH)_4$. The isotopic composition of the two boron species $B(OH)_4$ and 706 B(OH)₃ is determined by the isotopic fractionation factor $\alpha_{B3-B4} = 1.0272$ (59), the speciation (a 707 strong function of pH, with smaller dependencies on temperature, pressure and salinity), and the 708 overall isotopic composition of seawater $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$. The relationship between pH and $\delta^{11}B_{carb}$ is 709 given by:

$$
pH = pK_B - log \left[-\frac{\delta^{11}B_{sw} - \delta^{11}B_{carb}}{\delta^{11}B_{sw} - \alpha_{B3 \cdot B4} \cdot \delta^{11}B_{carb}} - 1000 \cdot (\alpha_{B3 \cdot B4} - 1) \right]
$$

711 where the effective dissociation constant pK_B includes the temperature, pressure and salinity 712 dependence. We dynamically calculate pK_B using CO2SYS-MATLAB v1.1 (60) (detailed in SM 713 5), which is consistent with the calculation and constants used by (*61*).

 A prerequisite for reconstruction of past ocean pH values via B isotope data is the 715 knowledge of the primary B isotope composition $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ of the ambient seawater. The B isotope 716 composition of modern seawater is regarded as being homogeneous with a $\delta^{11}B$ value of 39.5‰ *(54*). However, recent work on Precambrian to Phanerozoic carbonates and evaporites has shown that the B isotope composition of seawater was highly variable in the geological past (*16, 45, 46*) driven mainly by variations in the global boron budget during Earth history (*23*), exceeding the residence time of B in seawater. Permo-Triassic seawater have been calculated based on changes in processes controlling the oceanic boron budget, e.g. oceanic crust production rate and 722 continental boron flux ([16](#page-11-2)) and suggests $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ values of ~38‰ for the early Permian (285 Ma, Late Sakmarian) and ~34‰ just before the PTB (*16*).

724 Given this uncertainty in $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$, we consider a range of values, determined by the 725 overall consistency of the δ^{11} B_{carb} data with model-derived constraints on the seawater carbonate 726 chemistry and hence pH, resulting in an envelope for the pH calculation. The model scenarios 727 encompass the range of previous estimates for background Early Permian conditions (*13*), which 728 suggest either high pCO_2 with lower pH (CO₂*Hi*: ~10 PAL, pH ~7.5), or low pCO_2 with higher 729 pH $(CO_2Lo: \sim 3$ PAL, pH ~ 8). In our model we consider these two scenarios with corresponding 730 seawater boron isotopic composition ($\delta^{11}B_{SW} = 34\%$ and 36.8‰) required to reproduce the 731 observed δ^{11} B_{carb} (see SM Section 6 for further details of the model scenarios).

732 We illustrate the effect of uncertainties in $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ and temperature on pH, and the overall 733 consistency with the $\delta^{11}B_{\text{carb}}$ data in Figure S3 and Table S1 (note that the full model described 734 in SM 4 also includes a dynamic calculation of temperature). The lowest $\delta^{11}B_{SW} = 34\%$ and 735 highest pH considered (scenario CO₂Lo) is effectively constrained by the model limitation on the 736 highest pH values immediately prior to EP1. The highest δ^{11} B_{SW} =36.8‰ and lowest pH

737 (scenario CO₂*Hi*) is effectively constrained by the limit of propagated uncertainty (2σ f) on the 738 Iowest observed $\delta^{11}B_{\text{carb}}$ combined with the non-linearity of the B isotope system.

739 An additional uncertainty in interpreting $\delta^{11} B_{\text{carb}}$ is introduced by any potential offset or 740 fractionation between seawater borate $\delta^{11}B(OH)_4$ and $\delta^{11}B_{\text{carb}}$. As shown by (59), the laboratory measured fractionation of abiotic carbonate (*61*) shows both an offset relative to that of the 742 artificial seawater, and a shallower slope with increasing pH. As we consider $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ as a model parameter to be determined, an overall offset is effectively subsumed within this. However a 744 shallower slope than that used here $({}^{11-10}K_B = 1.0272$ [*ref 59*], cf the one given for inorganic carbonates (1.0267; [*ref 62*])) would require a larger pH change for a given observed change in $\delta^{11}B_{\text{carbon}}$. Sanyal et al. (63) published B isotope values for inorganic calcite precipitates at three different pH conditions - 7.9, 8.3, and 8.6. This same experimental inorganic calcite data and 748 associated estimates of $^{11-10}K_B$ in seawater were also presented by Klochko et al. (59, 64). To date, there is no agreement as to the actual deviation of Sanyal's data (*63*) from the now generally-accepted empirical fractionation factor given by Klochko et al (*59*). A best fit value of 1.0267 for the inorganic calcite precipitation was given by Pagani et al. (62). But by contrast, the deviation between the inorganic carbonate values and the empirical fractionation appears much bigger in Klochko et al. (*59*) and the best-fit value is given as 1.0260. This increased deviation is explained by the difference in pH scale between natural or artificial seawater used for the calibration experiments, and the experimental seawater pH measured on the (freshwater) NBS 756 scale. Klochko et al. (64) tries to address the deviations in $\delta^{11}B$ of inorganic precipitates from empirical calibration studies and concludes that boric acid incorporation may contribute to the $11B$ enrichment observed in inorganic precipitates, especially at lower pH. They point out,

759 however, that all carbonates precipitated under controlled pH conditions were enriched in ${}^{11}B$ relative to seawater borate (*63*).

 If we use the best fit value (1.0267) given by Pagani et al. (*62*) for the inorganic carbonates (Sanyal et al 2000) instead of the empirical value of Klochko et al. (*59*), then the offset for the majority of the data would be around 0.05 pH units. Visible changes to more acidic values would only appear at the lowermost pH estimates, but would still be less than 0.2 pH units and fall within the general uncertainty. If we take the 1.026 value, the offset would generally 766 increase between ≤ 0.1 and 0.2 (pH range between ~ 8.4 and 7.8) but would indeed result in significantly lower pH values of up to 0.5 units for the acidification event.

 Given the limited amount of experimental inorganic calcite data and this disagreement between the best-fit values, we have taken the simplest approach for the model representation and chosen to use the most generally-accepted empirical fraction factor given by Klochko et al. (*59*).

Figure S3 Effect of background $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ and temperature on relationship between $\delta^{11}B_{carb}$ and pH (total scale), for conditions appropriate to low-latitude surface ocean (atmospheric pressure,

- 775 (total scale), for conditions appropriate to low-latitude surface ocean (atmospheric pressure,
- 776 salinity 35 psu, temperature $25^{\circ}C$ (solid lines) and 35 $^{\circ}C$ (dashed lines)). Three values are shown for $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$: 39.61‰ (the contemporary value) and two values consistent with the end Permian data.
- 777 $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$: 39.61‰ (the contemporary value) and two values consistent with the end Permian data.
778 Data points and 2of errors are overlaid for the $\delta^{11}B_{SW}$ 34‰ case.
- Data points and 2σf errors are overlaid for the δ¹¹B_{SW} 34‰ case.

5. Model Description

5.1 Overview

 The overall model structure (shown in Figure S4) is essentially a superset of carbon cycle models previously applied to the end Permian (*65*, *66, 67)*, with additional consideration of the marine sulphur cycle. The model includes a three box ocean model as the minimum needed to demonstrate the effect of the biological pump on vertical DIC gradients and ocean redox state. The model is implemented as a set of coupled differential equations for the time evolution of reservoirs (Table S3), exchanging fluxes according to air-sea exchange, ocean circulation, applied external forcings and perturbations, and the biogeochemical processes described in Table S5. Model constants are defined in [Table S](#page-38-0)4. The model implements an open inorganic carbon 790 cycle, with atmospheric pCO_2 and marine DIC and Alk determined by the feedbacks between land-surface carbonate and silicate weathering and marine carbonate deposition. Oxidative weathering, volcanic degassing, and land and marine organic carbon burial are specified as forcings, as is marine phosphorus and hence productivity.

Figure S4 Model schematic. Ocean is represented by three boxes (s, h, d), with well-mixed atmosphere box a. Biogeochemical fluxes are shown in green, ocean circulation in blue. Biogeochemical reservoirs are shown as ovals.

a set by initial spin-up to steady-state.

797

798 Table S4 Model fluxes, constants, and forcings.

^a parameters k_{silw}, k_{12_ccdeg}, k_{carbsedshallow} are per-scenario external forcings.

	Table 33 Diogeochemical processes Flux Biogeochemical	Stoichiometry								Rate	Description
	transformation										
		CO _{2(a)}	DIC Ca		0 ₂	${\bf P}$	H_2S	SO_{4}^2	Alk		
	land surface										
$f_{\rm carbw}$	$CO_2 + H_2O + CaCO_3$ \rightarrow Ca ²⁺ + 2HCO ₃	-1	2	$\mathbf{1}$					2	Equation (S2)	Carbonate weathering
$f_{\rm silw}$	$2CO_2 + H_2O + CaSiO_3$ \rightarrow SiO ₂ + Ca ²⁺ + 2HCO ₃	-2	2	1					2	Equation (S1)	Silicate weathering
f_{oxidw}	$CH_2O + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$					$\mathbf{0}$	k_{17_oxidw}	Oxidative weathering
f_{locb}	$CO2+H2O \rightarrow CH2O + O2$	-1	$\mathbf{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$					$\boldsymbol{0}$	k_{5_lock}	Organic carbon burial
	marine										
$f_{\rm exp}$	$CO2+H2O + xP \rightarrow CH2OPr + O2$		-1	$\overline{0}$	$1+$ $2r_{\rm n:p}/r_{\rm c:p}$	$-1/r_{c:p}$	$\bf{0}$	$\overline{\mathbf{0}}$	$r_{n:p}/r_{c:p}$ a	see Section 3.2.4	Export production
	$CH2OPx + O2 \rightarrow CO2+H2O + xP$		$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$-1-$ $2r_{\rm n:p}/r_{\rm c:p}$	$1/r_{c:p}$	$\bf{0}$	$\overline{\mathbf{0}}$	$-r_{\rm n:p}/r_{\rm c:p}$ ^a	see Section 3.2.4	Aerobic remineralisation
	$CH_2OP_x + \frac{1}{2}SO_4^{2-}$		$\mathbf{1}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$1/r_{c:p}$		$0.5 - 0.5$	$\overline{1}$	see Section	Sulphate reduction
	\rightarrow HCO ₃ + xP + $\frac{1}{2}$ H ₂ S									3.2.4	
	$H_2S+2O_2 \rightarrow SO_4^{2-}+2H^+$		$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	-2	$\boldsymbol{0}$	-1	$\mathbf{1}$	-2	see Section 3.2.4	Sulphide oxidation
f_{mecb}	$Ca^{2+} + HCO_3^- \rightarrow H^+ + CaCO_3$		-1	-1	$\mathbf{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	-2	k carbsedshallow $X(\Omega_{\text{aragonite}}-1)^{1.7}$	Carbonate deposition
	$2H_2S + Fe(OH)_3$ \rightarrow FeS ₂ + $\frac{1}{2}$ H ₂ +3H ₂ O		$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	-0.5	$\boldsymbol{0}$	-2	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$		Pyrite formation and burial
f_{mock}	$CO2+H2O \rightarrow CH2O + O2$		-1	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$k_{2 \text{.} \text{mock}}$	Organic carbon burial

Table S5 Biogeochemical processes

a contribution from nitrate, assumed at Redfield ratio.

591 **5.2 Detailed description**

592 *5.2.1 pCO2 and temperature*

593 Global mean temperature T_{mean} is calculated from atmospheric $pCO₂$ using the energy 594 balance model as in COPSE *[\(68,](#page-15-1) 69),* with solar insolation appropriate for 250 Mya. Marine 595 temperature $T_{O(s,h,d)}$ is calculated from the global mean assuming a fixed high-low latitude 596 temperature difference and minimum temperature of 2.5^oC, with $T_{O(s)} = T_{mean} + 6.5$ ^oC and 597 $T_{\text{O(h d)}} = \max(T_{\text{mean}} - 12.5, 2.5)^{\circ}C$.

598

599 *5.2.2 Land surface weathering, degassing, and organic carbon burial*

 Land surface weathering is essentially a stripped-down version of that in COPSE (*69*), with carbonate and silicate weathering included but sulphur weathering and the long-timescale sedimentary reservoirs for sulphur and carbon are omitted. Atmospheric oxygen is fixed at 603 the present-day value. Silicate and carbonate weathering are controlled by atmospheric $pCO₂$ and temperature with functional forms:

$$
f_{\text{silw}} = k_{\text{silw}} e^{0.090(T_{mean} - T_0)} [1 + 0.038(T_{mean} - T_0)]^{0.65} \left(\frac{2 \text{ pCO}_2}{1 + \text{ pCO}_2}\right)
$$
 (S1)
 $f_{\text{carbw}} = k_{14_{\text{carbw}}} [1 + 0.087(T_{mean} - T_0)] \left(\frac{2 \text{ pCO}_2}{1 + \text{ pCO}_2}\right)$ (S2)

605 where $T_0=15 \,^0C$.

606

607 Atmospheric $CO₂$ is consumed, and carbon, alkalinity and calcium supplied to the ocean, 608 according to the stoichiometry defined in Table S5. Volcanic degassing, oxidative 609 weathering, and land organic carbon burial are prescribed as forcings.

- 610
- 611

5.2.3 Marine circulation and air-sea exchange

 Marine circulation is defined by a thermohaline circulation T, and high-latitude – deep 615 exchange f_{hd} . The marine box model includes P, O, DIC, Alk, SO₄, H₂S as per-box prognostic 616 variables, along with DIC δ^{13} C. Marine carbonate chemistry is calculated using a modified version of CO2SYS-MATLAB v1.1 *(60*), extended to include sulphide alkalinity using the 618 constants tabulated by (70) . Air-sea exchange of oxygen and $CO₂$ assume a fixed piston velocity and temperature-dependent solubility.

5.2.4 Marine productivity and burial

 Productivity and hence the biological pump are controlled by the marine phosphorus circulation. Biomass is produced in the surface ocean boxes, and exported and remineralized in the deep box according to the processes and stoichiometries defined in Table S5. Productivity in the 's' box is specified to consume all phosphorus down to negligible concentration. Productivity in the 'h' box is specified to consume a fraction 0.18 of input phosphorus. Remineralization in the deep ocean box consumes oxygen down to a limiting 628 concentration of 1μ M and thereafter reduces sulphate to sulphide.

 Shallow-water carbonate deposition occurs in the 's' box only and is controlled by aragonite saturation state and a parameter representing a combination of shelf area and calcification effectiveness, ie a 'Neritic' ocean without pelagic calcifiers (*[71\)](#page-15-2)*, functional 632 form $k_{carbsedshallow}*(\Omega_{aragonite-1})^{1.7}$. Ocean carbonate compensation is not included, on the basis this will be small for a 'Neritan' ocean.

 Marine organic carbon burial from the 's' box and pyrite burial from the 'd' box are imposed as forcings. Given the uncertainties in controls on phosphorus input over the end- Permian interval, the marine phosphorus cycle is semi-closed (i.e. weathering feedback on phosphorus input is not included), with imposed perturbations (forcings) to source/sink 638 balance (riverine input vs burial) applied as inputs to the 's' box to control phosphorus 639 concentration.

640

641 *5.2.5 Carbon isotopes*

642 Carbon isotopes are implemented with additional reservoirs for each of atmospheric $CO₂$ and 643 marine $DIC_{(s,h,d)}$. Air-sea exchange fractionates according to the temperature-dependent 644 equilibrium and kinetic factors determined by Zhang et al. (*[72](#page-15-3)*). Marine export production is 645 at fixed fractionation relative to DIC, with $\delta^{13}C_{\text{exp(s,h)}} = \delta^{13}DIC_{(s,h)}$ - 25 ‰.

 Volcanic degassing, carbonate weathering, and oxidative weathering are assumed to add carbon at fixed fractionations of -4.9‰, 2.65‰, and -25‰ respectively. Atmospheric CO₂ consumed by silicate and carbonate weathering (and added to the ocean 's' box as DIC) 649 is fractionated relative to atmospheric CO_2 according to the freshwater fractionation of Zhang et al. (*72*).

651 Land and marine organic carbon burial is at fixed fractionation relative to atmospheric 652 CO₂ and marine DIC, with $\delta^{13}C_{\text{loop}}=\delta^{13}CO_2-19$ ‰ and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{mode}}=\delta^{13}DIC_{\text{(s)}}-25$ ‰. Marine 653 inorganic carbon burial is assumed to not fractionate relative to $\text{DIC}_{\text{(s)}}$.

654

655 *5.2.6 Boron isotopes*

656 Carbonate-associated boron isotopic composition $\delta^{11}B_{\text{cath}}$ is assumed to be equal to that of 657 seawater $B(OH)_4$. Speciation of $B(OH)_4$ and $B(OH)_3$ is calculated using CO2SYS-MATLAB 658 v1.1 (60). Isotopic composition is then calculated from speciation $x_{b04} = [B(OH)_4] / [B]$ total] 659 and seawater δ^{11} B_{SW} as

$$
\delta^{11}B_{carb} = \frac{\delta^{11}B_{sw} - 1000(1 - x_{bo4})(\alpha_B - 1)}{\alpha_B - x_{bo4}(\alpha_B - 1)}
$$

660 with the isotopic fractionation factor $\alpha_B = 1.0272$.

662

663 *5.2.7 Model spinup and steady state*

664 The model $pCO₂$ steady-state is defined by the imposed degassing rate, organic carbon burial 665 and oxidation, and silicate weathering parameterisations, where these together define a 666 unique value for the steady-state atmospheric pCO2 and temperature where $f_{\text{codeg}}+f_{\text{oxidw}} =$ 667 $f_{\text{silw}}+f_{\text{locb}}+f_{\text{mock}}$. During spin-up, the ocean chemistry and hence atmosphere-ocean CO_2 668 partitioning adjust (on the silicate weathering timescale of \sim 100kyr) to a steady-state, with 669 the aragonite saturation state adjusting such that carbonate burial balances inputs from 670 carbonate and silicate weathering.

671

672 *5.2.8 Sensitivity to seawater composition*

673 The Mg and Ca composition of end-Permian seawater (as determined from fluid inclusions) 674 is consistent with that of modern seawater ($[Mg] = 53$ mmol/kg, $[Ca] = 10.3$ mmol/kg), but 675 with large uncertainties (*[6](#page-15-4)*). Sulphate concentration may have been much lower than modern 676 values (*73, 74*). We estimate the uncertainties in carbonate system chemistry following the 677 approach of (75). We estimate the effect on K_1 and K_2 from model results ([74](#page-15-5)) as:

$$
\frac{K_1^*}{K_1} = 1 + 0.155 \frac{\Delta[\text{Mg}^{2+}]}{[\text{Mg}^{2+}]} + 0.033 \frac{\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]}{[\text{Ca}^{2+}]} - 0.019 \frac{\Delta[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]}{[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]} + \frac{\Delta[\text{Mg}^{2+}]}{[\text{Mg}^{2+}]} + 0.071 \frac{\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]}{[\text{Ca}^{2+}]} - 0.054 \frac{\Delta[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]}{[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]} + \frac{\Delta[\text{Mg}^{2+}]}{[\text{Mg}^{2+}]} - \frac{\Delta[\text{Ca}^{2+}]}{[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]} - \frac{\Delta[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]}{[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]} - \frac{\Delta[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]}{[\text
$$

678 where subscript m refers to modern values and an asterix to end-Permian values. Taking 679 extremal values $[Mg^{2+}]^*/[Mg]_m = 0.5$, $[Ca^{2+}]^*/[Ca]_m = 2$, $[SO^{2-}A]^*/[SO^{2-}A]_m = 0.1$, we have 680 $K_1^* / K_1 = 1 - 0.078 + 0.033 + 0.0171 = 0.972$ or $pK_1^* = pK_1 + 0.012$ (or for $[Mg^{2+}]$ alone, 681 *K*₁^{*}/*K*₁=0.92, p*K*₁^{*}=p*K*₁+0.035). For a fixed pCO₂, this implies a corresponding decrease in 682 [HCO₃] and hence DIC inventory, or equivalently an increase in pH for the same DIC 683 content. The corresponding effect on K_2 is much larger, $K_2^* / K_2 = 1$

684 0.32+0.0171+0.049=0.75.We estimate the effect of Mg concentration on the calcite solubility 685 constant K_{sp} using the parameterisation given by (76) as:

$$
\frac{K_{sp}^{*}}{K_{sp,m}} = 1 - 0.0833 \left(\frac{\left[\text{Mg}^{2+} \right]_{\text{m}}}{\left[\text{Ca}^{2+} \right]_{\text{m}}}-\frac{\left[\text{Mg}^{2+} \right]^{*}}{\left[\text{Ca}^{2+} \right]}\right)
$$

686 which gives K_{sp} ^{*}/ K_{sp} =1-0.33.

687 This sensitivity study shows that the uncertainty in K_1 therefore introduces only a small 688 uncertainty in pH (\sim 0.03) or equivalently a \sim 10% uncertainty in DIC inventory relative to 689 pCO₂. The combined uncertainties in K_2 , K_{sp} and $\lceil \text{Ca}^{2+} \rceil$ are larger, introducing corresponding 690 uncertainties in calcite saturation state. However, within the model employed here, this is 691 effectively absorbed into a rescaling of the parameter $k_{\text{carbsedshallow}}$.

692

693 **6- Model Scenarios**

 Given the uncertainty in the absolute value of the seawater boron isotope composition (section S4), we consider two scenarios with initial steady-state conditions as in Table S6: 696 scenario CO₂Hi uses $\delta^{11}B_{SW}=36.86$, and CO₂Lo uses $\delta^{11}B_{SW}=34$. Here ocean pH depends on 697 the combination of atmospheric pCO_2 and carbonate saturation state. Atmospheric pCO_2 (set by the ratio of net carbon sources : silicate weatherability) is tuned to 3 or 10 PAL, encompassing the range of conditions considered by previous model studies *[\(77,](#page-16-0) 78, 79)*. Ocean carbonate saturation state is set by carbonate sedimentation efficiency parameter kcarbsedshallow, which represents a combination of shelf area x deposition rate. A summary of 702 scenarios required to explain the three events in our $\delta^{11}B$ data are given in Table S7 and explored in further detail below.

	$\frac{1}{2}$ CO ₂ Hi	CO ₂ Lo			
			Units	Description	
Parameters					
$k_{12 \text{ }cdeg}$	11.80×10^{12}	11.80×10^{12}	mol CO ₂ yr-1	degassing	
k_{17}_oxidw	$5x10^{12}$	5.92×10^{12}	mol C yr-1	oxidative weathering	
$k_{\rm silw}$	$2.40x10^{12}$	6.60×10^{12}	mol CaSiO ₃ yr-1	Silicate weatherability	
Kcarbsedshallow	18.43×10^{12}	1.44×10^{12}	mol CaCO ₃ yr-1	Marine carbonate burial efficiency	
Steady-state conditions					
$pCO2$, ppm	2800	845			
T_{mean}	22.18	14.94	0C	Global mean temp	
$T_{O(s)}$	28.7	21.44	${}^{0}C$	Ocean temp	
$\Omega_{\text{arag(s)}}$	2.44	6.15		Aragonite saturation, \mathbf{s}' box	
pH	7.51,7.46,7.0 7	8.02, 7.99, 7.60	Total scale	pH, Ocean $'s$ ', 'h', 'd'	
DIC total	5.53×10^{18}	$6.01x10^{18}$	mol		
δ^{13} DIC(s)	$+3.32$	$+2.97$	$\%$		
Fluxes					
$f_{\rm carbw}$	27.46×10^{12}	15.58×10^{12}	mol CaCO ₃ yr^{-1}	Carbonate weathering	
$f_{\rm silw}$	$6.80x10^{12}$	7.72×10^{12}	mol "CaSiO ₃ " yr^{-1}	Silicate weathering	
f _{ccdeg}	11.80×10^{12}	11.80×10^{12}	mol $CO2$ yr ⁻¹	Degassing	
f_{mecb}	34.26×10^{12}	$23.30x10^{12}$	mol CaCO ₃ yr^{-1}	Marine carbonate burial	

705 Table S6 Steady-state initial conditions summary

707 Table S7 Overview of scenarios

Acidification, no δ^{13} C change 251.88 Ma Rapid (10kyr) isotopically heavy carbon addition

708

709

710 *6.1 Mechanisms for pH rise*

The rise in $\delta^{11}B$ at 252.05 Ma corresponds to a rise in pH from 7.5 to 8.0 for scenario CO₂*Hi*, 712 and from 8.0 to 8.3 for scenario $CO₂ Lo$. Given the major upheavals in the Earth system at the end-Permian, multiple mechanisms including changes in silicate and carbonate weathering, and marine changes in calcification and due to anoxia may potentially contribute to pH rise, and we use model sensitivity studies to determine potential constraints. We first review evidence for each mechanism, then summarize the model sensitivity studies and propose plausible scenarios involving multiple drivers.

6.1.1 Carbonate weathering

 The overall high weathering rates across the Permian-Triassic boundary also imply an increase in carbonate weathering, possibly combined with any direct effect from chemical weathering of eroded clastic material itself.

 There is also direct evidence for later sea-level regression and subaerial weathering of the shallowest sections of the S. China carbonate platform, coincident with EP1 *(20)* which may contribute to maintaining pH over this interval. To estimate an order of magnitude for 725 enhanced carbonate shelf weathering: 10^{18} mol CaCO₃, density 2.8 g cm⁻³ has volume 36,000 km^3 , or 100m x 3.6x10⁵km², or 1800km of 200km wide shelf; this would provide a 727 weathering flux of 10^{13} mol CaCO₃ yr⁻¹ for 100 kyr, comparable to the background carbonate weathering rate.

6.1.2 Decrease in calcification effectiveness

 Overall global biotic calcification effectiveness is determined by the combination of available shelf area, and local ecosystem-dependent rates. A reduction in area of deposition could be because anoxic/euxinic waters extend onto the shelf bottom precluding those parts from hosting deposition, and/or because there is a sea level change reducing shelf area. The input of clastics prior to EP1 could also reduce carbonate production as a result of ecosystem impacts (*80, 81*).

6.1.3 Productivity-driven ocean anoxia, sulphate reduction, and pyrite burial

 Multiple lines of evidence suggest a (large) expansion of oxygen minimum zones prior to the PT boundary, while the deep ocean remains suboxic. These include U isotope evidence for ~6x increase in anoxic fraction (*82)*, extensive pyrite deposition (*83*), and GCM studies (*84*) illustrating the spatial distribution of anoxia.

 We represent productivity-driven ocean anoxia by increasing marine phosphorus from the present-day value to 2.3x present (the value used by (*66*). This is achieved by adding phosphorus to the marine 's' reservoir (representing a net excess of riverine input over 744 sediment output) at rate $3.9x10^{10}$ mol yr⁻¹ over the interval 252.15 – 252.05 Ma (cf present-745 day riverine input $\approx 2x10^{10}$ mol yr⁻¹) (64). This results in pCO₂ drawdown as a result of the 746 increased biological pump, and in sulphate reduction leading to \sim 50 μ M H₂S in the 'd' box. 747 Note that sulphate reduction increases alkalinity / pH in the 'd' box by $\Delta pH \sim 0.1$, but as the S redox shuttle is completed by sulphide oxidation at the base of the oxic surface box, this has no effect on the pH of the oxic surface ocean.

 High rates of pyrite formation are seen at and before EP1 (*[83,](#page-16-1) 85*). Pyrite burial results in a net alkalinity source (*86*). We assume that pyrite deposition is a water-column process, hence is limited by the availability of iron and sulphide. The most limiting factor for the scenarios considered here is iron. To quantify this, we estimate pyrite deposition rate 754 sustainable over a timescale of ~100kyr as ~1.25x10¹² mol FeS₂ yr⁻¹, based on availability of 755 reactive iron Fe_{HR} (in the contemporary oxic ocean, Fe_{HR} total input to the ocean is $\sim 6.8 \times 10^{12}$ 756 mol yr⁻¹, of which only \sim 1.3x10¹² mol yr⁻¹ gets to the deep ocean (87). Sulphide availability is determined by anaerobic organic carbon remineralisation in the 'd' box, which is a model-758 determined fraction of total export production $\sim 10^{14}$ mol yr⁻¹, and is less limiting than iron for the scenarios considered here. This assumes that sulphate for remineralisation (and hence sulphide availability) is unconstrained by marine sulphur availability, ie that the marine sulphate reservoir is drawn down. This is supported by (or at least consistent with) the data indicating low early Triassic marine sulphate, < 4mM (*75, 88*).

6.1.4 Silicate weathering

 Anomalously high sediment fluxes across the Permian-Triassic boundary *(80, 81*) imply soil loss and increased exposure of highly weatherable rock surfaces, with increases in both physical and chemical weathering. Early Siberian traps emplacement and an increase in area of weatherable basalt also may contribute to an increase in overall silicate weatherability. The main increase in silicate weathering is seen in the Griesbachian but increases may have accompanied the carbon injection for EP1.

6.1.5 Combined scenarios

 We summarize the effect of illustrative perturbations for the separate contribution of each 773 potential driver of pH increase in Table S8. Perturbations were applied to the $CO₂ Lo$ steady 774 state at 251.95Ma (corresponding to the pH rise seen in the $\delta^{11}B$ data), with effect shown 775 100kyr later (at EP1). The marine carbonate system responds on a timescale of \sim 10kyr, hence reaches a steady state source-sink balance, however the timescale for land-surface 777 weathering feedbacks is ≥ 100 kyr hence the system does not reach a steady state. The dynamic response is included in the full scenarios.

 As shown in figure S5, the perturbations fall into two groups. Increases in silicate weatherability and pyrite deposition leave carbonate input rate and calcification output 781 essentially unchanged, hence result in changes to atmospheric $pCO₂$ at nearly constant 782 saturation state. Changes to atmospheric $pCO₂$ alone are unable to produce a change in pH or 783 δ^{11} B as large as that seen in the data without implausibly low pCO₂ and hence temperature, hence these cannot be the sole drivers of pH increase. Reductions in calcification effectiveness or increases in carbonate inputs change both the carbonate system saturation 786 state and atmospheric $pCO₂$, resulting in a much larger increase in pH for a given decrease in 787 pCO₂. A major contribution from either or both of these mechanisms is therefore required.

Figure S5 Effect of illustrative perturbations (defined in Table S8) on carbonate system properties for atmosphere and ocean surface (s) box. Contours show carbonate system parameters for a constant temperature of 25 \overline{C} , salinity 35 psu, pressure 1 atm, hence do not exactly correspond to the full model results with varying temperature.

800

Figure S6 Scenario CO₂Lo: Contributions to pH increase. 'SA': effect of calcification effectiveness decrease. '+prod' effect of increased marine productivity and anoxia. '+pyr' pyrite burial, and '+carb' carbonate weathering

Mechanism	Perturbation	\mathbf{p} H _{tot(s)}	$\delta^{11}B_{(s)}$	$\Omega_{\text{arag(s)}}$	pCO ₂	T _{mean}	Comments
steady-state	none	8.02	11.83	6.15	845	14.94	Error! Reference source not found.
CO ₂ Lo							
		Δ	Δ	Δ	Δ	Δ	
'calc eff ²	$14.4x10^{11}$ k carbsedshallow	$\rightarrow +0.266 +2.72$		$+5.55$	-351	-2.58	
decrease	$2.47x10^{11}$ (ie x 0.17)						
	k_{carb sedshallow $14.4x10^{11}$	$\rightarrow +0.36 +3.78$		$+8.2$	-446	-3.39	
	1.23×10^{11} (ie x 0.085)						
pyr deposition	'x1': $1.25x10^{12}$ mol FeS ₂ yr ⁻¹	$+0.083$ $+0.71$		-0.03	-213	-1.39	
	'x2': 2.5x10 ¹² mol FeS ₂ yr ⁻¹	$+0.155$ $+1.36$		$+0.12$	-347	-2.46	
	'x4': $5x10^{12}$ mol FeS ₂ yr ⁻¹	$+0.318$ $+3.062$		$+0.46$	-557	-4.66	\sim upper limit from Fe availability
carb input	'+1x': add $15x10^{12}$ mol +0.082 +0.77			$+1.44$	-130	-0.81	$+1x$ = approx 2x background weathering
	$CaCO3 yr-1$						Ocean carb deposition rapidly rate.
							compensates
	$30x10^{12}$ $+2x$: add	mol $+0.147 +1.41$		$+2.76$	-219	-1.44	$+2x = -3x$ background weath rate
	$CaCO3 yr-1$						
	'+3x': add $45x10^{12}$ mol +0.20 +1.97			$+3.99$	-285	-1.94	$+3x = -4x$ background weath rate
	$CaCO3 yr-1$						
silw	weath x^2 k _{silw} 6.60x10 ¹² \rightarrow 13.2x10 ¹² +0.14		$+1.19$	$+0.35$	-329	-2.30	'Weatherability': drives pH primarily via
increase							pCO2 decrease
	$x4 \text{ k}_{\text{silw}} 6.60x10^{12} \rightarrow 26.4x10^{12}$ +0.32		$+3.08$	$+0.57$	-588	-5.09	
calc $eff + pyr$	$14.4x10^{11}$ \rightarrow $+0.37$ k_{carb sedshallow		$+3.91$	$+5.78$	-501	-3.98	used for Scenario $CO2 Lo$.
	$2.47x10^{11}$						
	'x1': $1.25x10^{12}$ mol FeS ₂ yr ⁻¹						
$\operatorname{carb} + \operatorname{pyr}$	'+2x': add $30x10^{12}$ mol +0.28		$+3.09$	$+2.92$	-485	-3.79	
	$CaCO3 yr-1$						
	'x2': 2.5x10 ¹² mol FeS ₂ yr ⁻¹						

803 Table S8 Sensitivity study for pH rise mechanisms. Perturbations applied to steady-state CO₂Lo at 252.05Ma, effect shown at 251.95Ma.

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807

810 **6.2 Sources of carbon and volatiles causing a negative** δ^{13} **C excursion or pH excursion** δ^{13}

811

812 *6.2.1 Terrestrial Carbon burial*

813 The effect of destruction of the land biota and a corresponding decline in land organic 814 carbon burial at the PT boundary was first considered by Broecker and Peacock (*89*). We 815 represent this by setting land organic carbon burial to zero at T=251.95Ma, resulting in a 816 drop in δ^{13} C_{carb} of ≈ 4‰ (comparable to that seen in end-Permian sections), but over 817 timescale of ~100 kyr.

818

819 *6.2.2 Marine Carbon burial*

820 Despite (or because of) ecological shifts to a cyanobacteria dominated ecosystem (*[3](#page-16-2)*), proxy 821 evidence for continued high sediment organic carbon fluxes (84) and a vertical δ^{13} C 822 gradient (*92, 93*) as well as continuing marine anoxia suggests that high marine 823 productivity continues through Permian-Triassic. Interruption to the marine biological 824 pump would result in a short timescale (ocean circulation timescale $\sim 10^3$ yr) increase in 825 surface ocean pH and decrease in surface ocean (and hence carbonate) δ^{13} C. This was 826 considered as a mechanism for short-timescale δ^{13} C fluctuations over the PT interval (67). 827 We do not consider this further here as this mechanism results in coupled perturbations to 828 both surface ocean pH and δ^{13} C, and hence cannot be the major driver for the ' δ^{13} C without 829 pH' or 'pH without δ^{13} C' signals. Smaller perturbations (interruptions) to the biological 830 pump may be plausible as a contributor to short-timescale δ^{13} C signals following EP1.

832 *6.2.3 Siberian traps volcanism and contact metamorphism*

833 In order to bound plausible model scenarios, we review here potential mechanisms for 834 volatile input from the Siberian Traps and summarise constraints on magnitudes and rates, 835 based on (*24, 27, 93*).

836 The Siberian Traps magma area is estimated as $2.5 - 5x10^6$ km² and volume > $2x10^6$ km³. This intruded into the Tungska sedimentary sequence, which reaches 12.5 km in 838 thickness and includes. ≈ 2.5 km of Cambrian evaporites containing abundant limestone, halite, dolomite and anhydrite (*24, 27*)*,* coal deposits, as well as Neo-Proterozoic petroleum-bearing shale and carbonate. Intrusion of magma into the sediments resulted in abundant sills and dykes with accompanying contact aureoles, and explosively-generated pipes. The igneous province is estimated to contain approximately 50% intrusive dykes and sills, 30% basalt lava flows, and 20% pyroclastic material (*94, 95*).

844 The volume of sediments affected by contact metamorphism is estimated (*27*) from 845 a sill area of $2x10^6$ km², thickness 200m, generating a contact aureole of thickness 400m. 846 This results in potential release of $0.8-2.3x10^{18}$ mol C (as isotopically light methane and 847 CO₂) from metamorphic degassing of organic carbon (assuming the TOC weight percent 848 reacted is $0.5 - 1.5\%$), over a timescale ≈50kyr. In addition, pipes (each with source region 849 \approx 5 km³) could release 0.1 – 0.3x10¹⁸ mol C over \approx 6.5 kyr. Intrusion into carbonates could 850 release comparable quantities of isotopically-heavy $CO₂$ via calcsilicate formation and 851 decarbonation of dolomite into periclase and calcite, and intrusion into anhydrite could 852 release comparable quantities of S as SO₂ ([96](#page-17-0)). Interaction between petroleum-bearing 853 inclusions and host rock salt could in addition generate halocarbons, estimated at $1-3x10^{17}$

 mol CH3Cl (*[35](#page-11-3)*). Intrusion into coal-seams could result in explosive interaction resulting in large-scale coal combustion (*[93](#page-17-1)*).

 The Siberian Traps magmas contain anomalously high quantities of S, Cl, F (*27*)*,* 857 estimated to result in total intrusive and extrusive degassing of 0.2 - 0.25×10^{18} mol S, 0.1 -858 0.25 x10¹⁸ mol Cl, and 0.4-0.7 x10¹⁸ mol F (31). The ultimate source of these volatiles is likely to be assimilation from sedimentary host rocks.

6.2.4 Carbon injection perturbations

 Given the episodic nature and likely variability in isotopic composition of carbon additions from Siberian Traps volcanism and contact metamorphism, we consider size, rate, and isotopic composition of carbon additions via sensitivity studies within plausible ranges.

865 The effect on $\delta^{13}C_{\text{cath}}$ of a carbon addition of isotopic composition $\delta^{13}C_{\text{cath}}$ is given approximately by mass-balance with the surface (atmosphere and ocean) carbon reservoirs (*[78,](#page-16-3) 79*)*.* The effect on pH is additionally dependent on the rate of addition. We show in Table S10 model results for combinations of addition size, isotopic composition and rate, 869 constrained to result in δ^{13} C_{carb} = -3 ‰, demonstrating the additional non-linear effect of land-surface weathering feedbacks ('land carbonate compensation').

871 The decline in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{carb}}$ over the P-T boundary is faster than can be accounted for by a decrease in land carbon burial alone, implying an additional pulse of isotopically light 873 carbon contribution ~-2‰ to the decline. We show in Figure S7 the constraints from the 874 δ^{11} B data on carbon additions over the 50kyr interval 251.95 – 251.90 Ma. The results demonstrate that providing the rate of carbon addition is relatively slow as here, the pH 876 constraints are in fact relatively weak, and are consistent with a range of input isotopic

877 compositions $\delta^{13}C_{\text{ini}}$.

yr)	Δ pH
	-0.07
	-0.28
	-0.18
	-0.64
$4.75x10^{17}$ 10^5 yr $2.47x10^{18}$ 10^5 vr $3.32x10^{17}$ 10 ⁴ yr 1.75×10^{18} 10^4 yr	Size (mol Duration Rate (mol / $\delta^{13}C_{\text{ini}}$) 4.75×10^{12} -50 2.47×10^{13} -10 3.32×10^{13} -50 1.75×10^{14} -10

Table S10 Carbon injection perturbations, constrained to result in δ^{13} C_{carb} = -3 ‰ when
879 applied to steady-state condition CO₂L_o

880

881 The acidification event at ~251.89Ma requires a rapid addition of carbon on a timescale \leq 10 kyr, with an isotopic composition δ¹³C_{ini}≈0 ‰ in order to leave δ¹³ C_{carb} unaffected, and 883 size $\ge 2x10^{18}$ mol in order to produce a sufficient decline in pH and $\delta^{11}B$ (Figure S8). 884 Larger (or more rapid) carbon additions produce relatively little additional response in 885 ocean pH, as the majority of the input carbon remains in the atmosphere, and the response 886 of the $\delta^{11}B$ is also non-linear at low pH. The rate of the inferred carbon addition is ~3 times 887 the estimates above for organic carbon from the combined effects of sills $(0.16 - 0.4 \times 10^{18})$ 888 mol C over 10 kyr) and pipes $(0.1 - 0.3 \times 10^{18} \text{ mol C over } -6.5 \text{ kyr})$, but is not unreasonable 889 given the carbonate carbon source and large uncertainties in these estimates.

890

891 *6.2.5 SO2 injection perturbation*

892 Contact metamorphism of evaporites resulting in large $SO₂$ release could potentially also 893 contribute to the acidification event. Quantitatively the effect (per mol) on ocean pH is approximately twice that of a carbon addition, and given the relative abundance of evaporites to carbonates is therefore likely to represent a smaller contribution to acidification.

Figure S7 Effect of changing size and isotopic composition of $CO₂$ input perturbations applied to scenario *CO2Hi* over 50kyr interval 251.95 ‒ 251.90 Ma. 'land only' shows the effect of interruption in land organic burial,'0.32. -50 only' shows the effect of carbon addition only. Other lines show combined effect of land burial and carbon addition. Perturbations are constructed to result in $\delta^{13}C_{\rm carb} \approx -2$ $\%$ ₀, and correspond to inputs of: $0.32x10^{18}$ mol / -50 $\%$ ₀; $0.65x10^{18}$ mol / -25 $\%$ ₀; 1.30x10¹⁸ mol / -12.5 %o

Figure S8 Effect of changing size of $CO₂$ input perturbations applied to scenarios *CO2Hi* and *CO2Lo* over 10kyr interval 251.89 ‒ 251.88 Ma. Perturbation sizes are $2x10^{18}$ mol and $4x10^{18}$ mol. Isotopic composition is 2.65 $\%$ ₀, ie equal to that of sedimentary carbonate.

Figure S9 Additional model output for $CO₂$ scenarios shown in main paper Figure 3. Weathering fluxes are shown for scenario $CO₂$ Lo only.