1	Tectonic controls on the long-term carbon isotope mass balance
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17	Author contributions.
18	G.S. designed the study, B.M. computed numerical results, and both authors contributed to
19	the analysis and writing.
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21	

22 Abstract

The long-term, steady-state marine carbon isotope record reflects changes to the 23 proportional burial rate of organic carbon relative to total carbon on a global scale. For 24 this reason, times of high δ^{13} C are conventionally interpreted to be oxygenation events 25 caused by excess organic burial. Here we show that the carbon isotope mass balance is 26 also significantly affected by tectonic uplift and erosion via changes to the inorganic 27 28 carbon cycle that are independent of changes to the isotopic composition of carbon input. This view is supported by inverse co-variance between δ^{13} C and a range of uplift proxies, 29 including seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, that demonstrates how erosional forcing of carbonate 30 31 weathering outweighs that of organic burial on geological time scales. A model of the long-term carbon cycle shows that increases in $\delta^{13}C$ need not be associated with increased 32 organic burial and that alternative tectonic drivers (erosion, outgassing) provide testable 33 and plausible explanations for sustained deviations from the long-term δ^{13} C mean. Our 34 approach emphasizes the commonly overlooked difference between how net and gross 35 36 carbon fluxes affect the long-term carbon isotope mass balance, and may lead to reassessment of the role that the δ^{13} C record plays in reconstructing the oxygenation of 37 Earth's surface environment. 38

40 Significance

41 The carbon isotope record has played a major role in reconstructing the oxygen and carbon 42 dioxide content of the ancient atmosphere. However, known oxygenation events are not always reflected in the isotopic record of marine carbonate rocks, while conventional interpretations 43 44 imply that less organic matter is buried when erosion rates are high, which is hard to explain. Here we show that both issues can be resolved if limestone weathering makes up a 45 proportionately greater fraction of the global carbon cycle at high erosion rates. We argue that 46 the link between carbon isotopes and oxygenation is more tenuous than commonly assumed, 47 and propose a case-by-case re-examination of Earth's oxygenation history. 48 49 50 /body 51 52

53

55 Introduction

Earth's highly oxygenated atmosphere derives largely from the splitting of the water molecule during photosynthesis. Respiration and decay reverse this process, consuming oxygen, but the burial of organic matter in sediments allows oxygen to accumulate in the atmosphere. Net oxygenation may also arise from burial of reduced sulphur species, but the organic carbon burial flux has been the major source of oxygen throughout the Phanerozoic (1-6).

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Because photosynthesis results in ¹³C-depleted organic carbon, the carbon isotope composition 62 63 of past oceans has played an important role in tracing the oxygenation of Earth's surface 64 environment. The conventional interpretation of C-isotope mass balance (7) presumes that prolonged intervals of high carbonate δ^{13} C are the result of elevated rates of organic carbon 65 burial (removing a larger fraction of ¹³C-depleted organic matter), and so correspond to an 66 67 excess of oxygen production over consumption, which is in large part due to the oxidation of organic matter during surface weathering. This paradigm has led to the view that atmospheric 68 oxygen levels rose at three crucial junctures in Earth history: at ~2.1 Ga (8-9), ~0.8 Ga (10-11) 69 70 and ~ 0.3 Ga (7,12), and this has become generally accepted (13).

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72 This paradigm encounters difficulties. Firstly, although Earth's oxygenation history does not 73 rely solely on carbon isotope data, it is remarkable that independent evidence for oxygenation does not always coincide with high $\delta^{13}C$ (14). The Ediacaran-Cambrian faunal radiation 74 75 (Cambrian Explosion), which is commonly attributed to oxygenation, is strangely accompanied by low, rather than high δ^{13} C (Fig. 1), while the many fluctuations in atmospheric oxygen 76 77 between 15% and 32% that have been identified using the Phanerozoic carbon isotope record 78 (12), lack corroborating evidence (14). Although such inconsistencies are widely acknowledged, alternative explanations to explain global trends in δ^{13} C are uncommon. One 79

80 possibly viable alternative attributes δ^{13} C fluctuations to the amount of diagenetically precipitated (and isotopically light) carbonate cement worldwide (14-15). Such large changes 81 remain unsubstantiated, while the link to the global carbon cycle must appeal to a sampling 82 83 bias, wherein a great mass of isotopically light material can be buried (to drive a positive excursion) yet does not lower the bulk isotopic composition of the carbonates which are 84 analyzed. We argue that the preservation of a δ^{13} C signal that is correlated with other global 85 processes is evidence against such sampling errors, and must be the result of definable system 86 87 interactions (Fig. 1).

88

89 A second problem stems from the driving mechanism for increased organic burial during times of high δ^{13} C. It is widely supposed that higher rates of organic burial are caused by increased 90 91 nutrient input and/or sedimentation rates through weathering and erosion (5,11,16-17). 92 However, long-term carbon isotope trends exhibit low, not high values during the collisional phases of supercontinent formation, while δ^{13} C shows an unexpected inverse relationship with 93 erosion proxies, such as seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and reconstructed sediment masses (Fig. 1, see SI 94 95 for correlations), best illustrated by the Ediacaran-Ordovician orogenic interval of exceptionally high sedimentary fluxes, which are independently verified by zircon isotope 96 97 studies (see SI). The C isotope record implies therefore that erosional forcing of organic burial does not control the long-term C isotope mass balance, and that any such effect may be 98 99 outweighed by an erosional forcing of carbonate burial.

100

101 The long-term carbon isotope mass balance

Figure 2 shows a representation of the long-term carbon cycle, which forms the basis for isotope mass balance calculations (18). Carbon enters the atmosphere/ocean system by four routes: oxidative weathering of fossil carbon (F_{wg}), carbonate weathering (F_{wc}) and 105 metamorphic degassing of sedimentary organic carbon (F_{mg}) and carbonates (F_{mc}). Carbon 106 leaves the surface pool via burial of organic carbon (F_{bg}) and inorganic carbonates (F_{bc}), with 107 the fraction of total burial leaving via the organic route denoted f_{org} . The dashed lines in figure 108 2 show an important difference between net (solid lines) and gross (all lines) fluxes in the 109 carbon cycle, which arises because the carbonate weathering-precipitation cycle is a CO₂ 110 neutral process on long time-scales (19) (see SI).

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The C-isotope mass balance (eq. 1) is based around the principle that on time scales greater than the residence time of carbon in the ocean (about 10⁵ years), the quantity and isotopic composition of carbon entering and exiting the atmosphere-ocean system (A) must be the same (18):

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$$\delta^{13}C_{in} = \delta^{13}C_{org} f_{org} + \delta^{13}C_{carb} (1 - f_{org})$$
 (1)

118

119 Standard calculations then assume that the average isotopic composition of carbon input 120 $(\delta^{13}C_{in})$ is constant and approximately equal to $\delta^{13}C_{mantle}$ or about -6‰ ±1‰. Rearranging 121 equation (1) then allows the proportion of carbon buried as organic matter (f_{org}) to be read 122 directly from the carbonate C isotope record (20). Knowledge of f_{org}, and the total input (\approx 123 output) rate of carbon, F_{total}, then allows the rate of organic carbon burial, and hence oxygen 124 production to be estimated (9,10):

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126
$$F_{bg} = F_{total} \times \left(\delta^{13} C_{carb} - \delta^{13} C_{in} \right) / \Delta B$$
(2)

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Following this reasoning, positive δ^{13} C excursions are commonly interpreted as organic C burial events, whereby the resultant oxygenation is quantified using the assumptions that total 130 C throughput and net fluxes (the net carbon flux on geological time scales excludes the carbonate weathering flux) were similar to the present day, and that forg approximates the 131 132 proportion of outgassed CO₂ (including weathering sources) that is reduced to organic carbon 133 (9,15). For example, the sustained baseline increase of ~5-6‰ during the early Neoproterozoic (11) is interpreted to imply an approximate doubling of organic burial due to increased 134 135 phytoplankton body size (10) or high sedimentation rates (11). For the ~2.1 Ga Lomagundi Event of high δ^{13} C, the total excess oxygen produced has been estimated at a massive 12-22 136 times the present inventory of atmospheric oxygen (8,9), with organic burial rates thought to 137 138 increase by >20 times over the course of the isotope excursion (21).

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140 Such large increases in organic carbon burial are difficult to reconcile with the operation of the 141 long-term carbon cycle. Whilst organics contribute only around 20-25% of gross carbon burial (i.e. $f_{org} \approx 0.20-0.25$), they constitute more than 50% (19,6) and even as much as 72% (22) of 142 143 the net carbon sink. Even a doubling of global organic carbon burial over geological timescales 144 would therefore require a massive reorganization of the carbon cycle, alongside a 145 contemporaneous increase in carbon sources through weathering and degassing, due to the impossibility of the other net sink (carbonate deposition following silicate weathering) being 146 147 reduced below zero.

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149 A physical erosion control on the carbon isotope mass balance

We propose here that long-term variation in f_{org} , and hence $\delta^{13}C$, may sometimes be driven by changes in the inorganic, rather than the organic side of the carbon cycle. Because the carbonate weathering – deposition cycle is CO₂ neutral on time scales relevant to the C-isotope mass balance, increasing the carbonate weathering (and deposition) rates acts to decrease f_{org} without impacting the net carbon fluxes responsible for driving climate. Although this is not the first study to link changes in carbonate weathering to δ^{13} C, for example, it has been shown that a transient increase in carbonate weathering rates would drive an increase in δ^{13} C_{in} (23), our proposition differs from previous work by highlighting how sustained changes in carbonate deposition rates can alter f_{org} directly.

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160 Such changes in the inorganic carbon cycle may be brought about by variation in erosion rates, driving step changes in carbonate weathering, and therefore gross carbon throughput. Whilst 161 changes in erosion rate may also initially affect the net fluxes of silicate weathering and organic 162 163 C burial, these must eventually return to balance the carbon cycle at steady state via temperature 164 and nutrient feedbacks. There is no such requirement for carbonate weathering. This key 165 difference between the net and gross carbon fluxes may explain why the erosional forcing of 166 organic burial does not keep pace with carbonate burial during the early Palaeozoic and other orogenic events (Fig. 1). 167

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170 Considering that mountains dominate global denudation rates (24), and that carbonate weathering is proportionately more important at higher erosion rates (25), we argue that forg 171 (and hence the δ^{13} C composition of the atmosphere-ocean system) will be lowered by tectonic 172 uplift and erosion, unless compensated for by increased rates of net carbon flux (outgassing). 173 Conversely, during periods of low denudation rates, δ^{13} C values will tend to be higher, although 174 175 the overall weathering flux and organic burial rates may be lower. This is apparent when considering the evidence for low $\delta^{13}C$ during times of supercontinent formation and high $\delta^{13}C$ 176 during times of supercontinent stability (16, 26), and can be observed by rearranging equation 177 (2), assuming that erosion affects F_{total}: 178

$$180 \qquad \delta^{13}C_{carb} = (F_{bg} \times \Delta B)/F_{total} + \delta^{13}C_{in}$$
(3)

181

Taking average values from the literature for carbon fluxes ($F_{wg} = 7.75 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}$, $F_{wc} =$ 182 $24 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}; F_{mg} = 1.25 \text{ x} 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}; F_{mc} = 8 \text{ x} 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}; F_{bg} = 9 \text{ x} 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}; F_{total} = F_{wc} + 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}; F_{total} = 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}; F_{total$ 183 $F_{mc} + F_{wg} + F_{mg} = 41 \text{ x} 10^{12} \text{ mol/yr}$ (19, 27), equation (3) suggests that trends in the long-term 184 δ^{13} C average of ~-1‰ to ~+5‰ can be explained by varying the carbonate weathering flux 185 between 1.5 times and 0.2 times the present day rate, respectively, without requiring any 186 187 change in the rate of organic carbon burial. Such changes are within the limits of published estimates based on the Sr isotope record and/or sedimentation rates (see SI). Note that this 188 mechanism does not require changes in $\delta^{13}C_{in}$. 189

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191 Modelling the carbon isotope mass balance

To illustrate this idea, we compute the steady states of the long-term carbon cycle model with 192 respect to the relative global erosion rate (Figure 3). The flux calculations follow the 193 GEOCARB and COPSE models (6, 26) under present day conditions, including both direct 194 195 erosion and temperature effects on weathering fluxes. The isotope mass balance calculations in our model do not differ from those employed in Berner's analysis (5), but critically our 196 197 model takes into account the effects of erosion on carbonate weathering. This is in line with 198 the above discussion, and with direct evidence for considerable carbonate weathering in areas 199 of high erosion and relief, e.g. the mountainous and foreland areas of the Andes (28). See SI 200 for further model discussion.

201

An important consideration in this work is that changes in erosion rate also alter the rate of organic carbon burial via changes to the phosphorus cycle. To explore this further we link the rate of organic carbon burial in the model to the availability of phosphorus (22, 6). Phosphorus enters the surface system via the weathering of silicate, carbonate and organic C-bearing rocks,
and the strength of the relationship between erosion and organic C burial depends on the P
delivery from the weathering of each individual rock type.

208

Recent studies of P delivery from different rock types (29, 30) suggest that silicates play the major role, delivering more than 50% of riverine P (see SI). The model run showing this setup (M1) is shown in bold in figure 3. When the weathering of silicates is chiefly responsible for P delivery, an increase in erosion will not greatly affect the steady state P delivery or organic C burial, because the global silicate weathering rate is tightly controlled at steady state by the rate of CO_2 release (which remains constant in the model), and by any imbalance in the organic C cycle.

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Dashed lines in figure 3 show results when silicates are assumed to contribute only ~17% of 217 218 global P delivery (M2), as was assumed in the original COPSE model, based on crustal 219 inventories rather than supply rates (6). The dotted lines (M3) show a more extreme case where 220 all P delivery results from carbonate weathering. These configurations show that if most P is supplied by the weathering of carbonates, or follows a similar erosional forcing to carbonates 221 222 (i.e. preferentially weathered at high erosion rates) (25), then an increase in erosion rate would significantly increase P delivery, and therefore organic C burial, at steady state. This would act 223 to counter the direct effect of increased erosion and carbonate weathering/deposition on δ^{13} C, 224 225 but only as far as carbon mass balance can allow.

226

We conclude from this analysis that changes in erosion rates most likely exert a powerful firstorder control on long term carbonate δ^{13} C, which is only partially nullified by associated changes in the phosphorus cycle and organic carbon burial.

We acknowledge that the long-term effects of erosion on global P delivery and organic carbon 231 232 burial are still poorly constrained. Uncertainties exist in the various temperature and erosion 233 effects on individual chemical weathering fluxes, the degree of preferential chemical weathering of accessory apatite minerals, and the possibility that changes in sedimentation rate 234 235 may impact organic carbon burial differently to the burial of carbonates. In particular, it has been proposed that increased rates of sedimentation will enhance the preservation of buried 236 237 organic carbon and phosphorus (5). Our model calculates the rate of organic carbon burial 238 based on a relationship between ocean phosphate, new production and sedimentation rate (31), 239 but we have also run an alternative model setup to further explore this idea, wherein we 240 strengthen this relationship by giving the burial rates of organic carbon and phosphorus an 241 additional linear dependence on the global erosion rate. The model results for ocean phosphate concentration are altered under these assumptions, but the steady-state burial rates of carbon 242 243 and phosphorus are not affected, as they are ultimately constrained by the supply flux of P from 244 weathering (see SI for more details).

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246 Our model run M1 shows what we consider to be the current best guess for these mechanisms 247 (see SI for more details and other model runs), but a model is not unequivocal proof, and it is clearly theoretically possible for erosion to increase organic C burial more than it increases the 248 249 burial rate of carbonates (e.g. model run M3). However, if this were the case we would expect 250 δ^{13} C values to increase with increasing erosion rates, but this is effectively falsified by the anticorrelation of δ^{13} C and all available erosion proxies. We therefore conclude that although 251 252 erosion rates must certainly increase the rate of P delivery and organic C burial, such increases 253 must be less than the increases to the burial rate of carbonates.

Figure 4 shows a series of time-dependent model runs where a +3% positive excursion in $\delta^{13}C$ 255 256 is caused by either increasing organic carbon burial (via increased P delivery), or decreasing the erosion rate. Increasing δ^{13} C via an organic C burial event (Figure 4. A-E) results in a 257 decrease in the atmosphere/ocean carbon reservoir, i.e. a decrease in atmospheric pCO₂, and 258 global cooling. Driving a similar positive excursion via a reduction in erosion rates (Figure 4. 259 F-J) causes a warming event due to the weakening of silicate weathering. Importantly, we show 260 261 that a positive δ^{13} C excursion may be coincident with either an increase, or decrease in the rate of organic carbon burial. This should be a serious consideration for work aiming to tie the C 262 263 isotope record to global biogeochemical events.

264

265 An important factor influencing the time-dependent response of the model is the assumption 266 of 'rapid recycling' of isotope signals due to the predominant weathering of recently-deposited 267 sediments. This idea has been explored in early carbon and sulphur cycle models (7), and is included in the GEOCARB models (5). We include this effect here by reducing the size of the 268 269 crustal pools of organic carbon and carbonates to around 10% of the total crustal inventory, 270 allowing for much quicker variation in isotopic composition (RR on, solid lines in figure 4). 271 This follows Berner (5, 7). Dashed lines assume no rapid recycling, i.e. that the isotopic 272 signature of weathered material represents the whole crustal inventory. As may be expected, the rapid recycling model acquires steady state around an order of magnitude quicker than the 273 non-RR model. However, the choice of models does not affect the qualitative dynamics we 274 275 wish to demonstrate.

276

277 The isotopic composition of carbon inputs ($\delta^{13}C_{in}$) is not fixed in our model, but responds to 278 the changing composition of the crustal reservoirs. Although changes to $\delta^{13}C_{in}$ (e.g. due to 279 preferential weathering of high- $\delta^{13}C$ lithologies) have been shown to drive C isotope excursions (20, 23), the mechanism explored in this paper does not depend on variations in $\delta^{13}C_{in}$. As an example we run the model with this parameter fixed (Figure S7), which shows the same qualitative results.

283

284 Interrogating carbon isotope excursions

285 A positive carbon isotope excursion caused by changes to the inorganic carbon cycle has different climatic effects from one caused by increasing the burial rate of organics: notably an 286 287 increase in CO_2 and surface temperature, rather than a decrease. Such testable distinctions 288 allow us to constrain the causes of specific carbon isotope events, and suggest that major, but short-lived δ^{13} C events, which coincide with global cooling, such as the late Ordovician 289 290 Hirnantian event, could potentially relate to excess organic burial. The longer Permo-Carboniferous glaciations also occurred at a time of generally high δ^{13} C, and are thus consistent 291 292 with an elevated organic burial flux, perhaps associated with the evolution of a modern land biota (32). However, relatively low erosion rates throughout this period imply that rates of 293 294 organic C burial need not have been as high as previously thought – potentially resolving 295 conflicts over the prediction of hyperambient O₂ levels (5). By contrast, glaciation during the Cenozoic is associated with decreasing δ^{13} C, and so appears to be more consistent with the 296 notion that the erosional forcing of carbonate deposition outweighed that of organic burial. 297

298

Some times of elevated δ^{13} C do not coincide with glaciation, and this is the case for the postglacial Lomagundi Event of exceptionally high δ^{13} C during the Palaeoproterozoic . Such high δ^{13} C values may result from a hugely increased oxidative weathering flux (21), following the Great Oxidation Event, which could have been self-sustained by oxygenic siderite (iron carbonate) weathering (22). Although not related to decreased erosion rates, the Lomagundi Event can still be viewed as a time of proportionately higher net carbon flux relative to gross 305 carbon throughput, in the same way as we argue for other times of high baseline δ^{13} C, such as 306 during the Tonian Period of supercontinent peneplanation. Note that in none of these cases 307 does high δ^{13} C imply net oxygenation. Previously, these well-established δ^{13} C events were 308 first-order determinants in our understanding of Earth's oxygenation history.

309

310 Despite our emphasis here on erosional controls on δ^{13} C, we view the carbon isotope mass 311 balance as a proportional parameter, whereby changes to the long-term norm correspond to 312 changes in the proportion that carbonate weathering makes up of the global carbon cycle. In 313 this regard, the anti-correlation between δ^{13} C and 87 Sr/ 86 Sr over the past billion years could 314 reflect the dependence of both these parameters on the competing tectonic influences of 315 volcanism versus uplift, rather than erosion *per se*.

316

317 Conclusions

The carbon isotope record is most commonly viewed in terms of changing organic carbon 318 319 burial rates, and less in terms of the proportional organic component of the carbon cycle. By viewing δ^{13} C as a combination of net and gross carbon fluxes (and removing the common 320 321 assumption that carbonate / silicate / organic weathering systematics are invariantly 322 proportional), we show that higher proportional organic burial (higher f_{org}) can result from a 323 decreased global weathering (carbonate) flux to the ocean and may not be driven directly by 324 changes in the organic carbon burial flux. Moreover, it appears that tectonic controls may 325 plausibly be the underlying drivers of carbon isotope trends that were previously attributed either to organic carbon burial or to the changing isotopic composition of carbon sources. This 326 is evidenced by the anti-correlation between carbonate δ^{13} C and erosion proxies such as 327 ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and reconstructed sediment abundance. There seems to be no systematic relationship 328 between $\delta^{13}C$ and oxygenation through carbon burial, and we suggest therefore that the 329

330 oxygenation history of the Earth be reassessed on a case-by-case basis in order to better take

into account the distinction between net and gross fluxes.

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- 461

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- 469 point moving average of 1 Myr bins over the Phanerozoic (Fig. 1).
- 470
- 471
- 472

473 **Figure legends**

474

Fig. 1. Phanerozoic records of marine carbonate δ^{13} C (33), seawater Sr isotope composition (33) and mass of sedimentary material (two shades correspond to measured and estimated total mass, respectively) (34). Diverse tectonic proxies identify the Ediacaran-Ordovician interval as a time of maximal uplift and erosion, but minimal δ^{13} C (see SI).

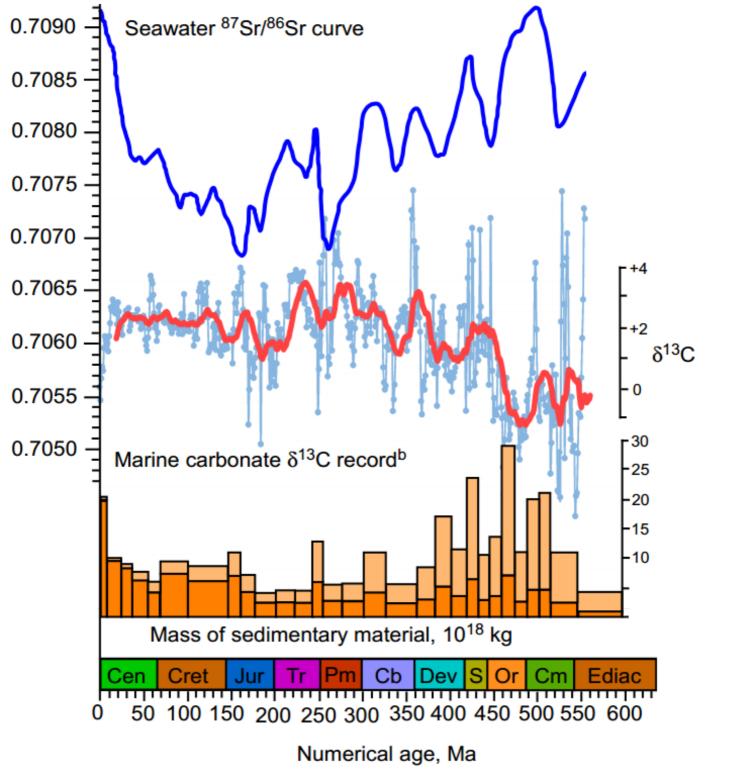
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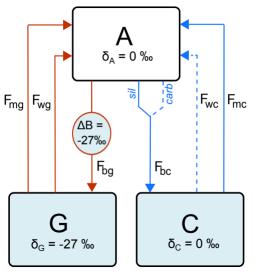
Fig. 2. Long term carbon cycle showing isotope fractionation. A is atmosphere and ocean carbon, G is buried organic carbon and C is buried carbonate carbon. F_b refers to burial fluxes, F_w to weathering and F_m to metamorphic/degassing fluxes. δ_x denotes the isotopic fractionation of reservoir X, and ΔB is the fractionation effect applied to buried organic carbon, taken to represent an average value over the Phanerozoic (35). *Sil* and *Carb* show alkalinity fluxes from silicate and carbonate weathering, respectively, which are combined to calculate F_{bc} (see SI). Dashed lines denote the 'null' carbonate weathering – deposition cycle.

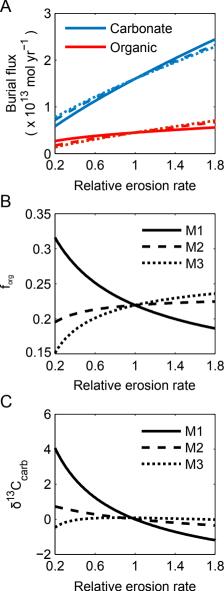
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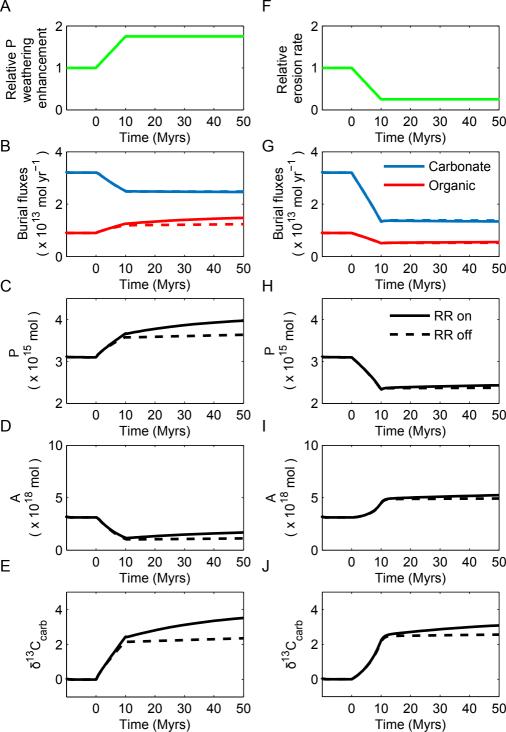
Fig. 3. Steady states of the long-term carbon cycle model. The system shown in Figure 2 is run 488 to steady state for different values of the relative global uplift/erosion rate. Bold lines (M1) 489 490 show results when silicate weathering delivers around 58% of ocean phosphate (29, see SI), dashed lines (M2) show results when when silicate weathering delivers only 17% of ocean 491 492 phosphate (6), and dotted lines (M3) show results when all P delivery is instead from carbonate 493 weathering. The equations governing the response of fluxes to reservoir sizes and global 494 temperature follow current models (6, 26). See SI for full model description, MATLAB code, 495 and further evaluation.

Fig. 4. Comparison of positive δ^{13} C excursions driven by burial and erosion events. Panels 497 498 show A: Relative model forcing factor. B, Burial fluxes for carbonate (F_{bc}, blue) and organic carbon (F_{bg}, red). C, Ocean phosphate. D, Atmosphere and ocean carbon. E, $\delta^{13}C$ of 499 atmosphere/ocean carbon reservoir. Panels F-J repeat these quantities for the second model 500 scenario. A positive δ^{13} C excursion is driven by increased organic carbon burial, via 501 enhancement of phosphorus weathering (A-E), and is compared to a positive δ^{13} C excursion 502 503 driven by a change in erosion (F-J). Both forcings (green lines) are ramped over a 10 Myr 504 period, beginning at t=0. Solid lines show rapid recycling model (RR on, see text), dashed lines show no rapid recycling. Note that the positive excursion driven by organic C burial is 505 506 associated with a decrease in atmosphere/ocean carbon (panel D), whilst the excursion driven 507 by erosion is associated with an increase in the carbon reservoir (panel I). P input from weathering follows Hartmann et al. (2014) (29). Full model output is included in the SI. 508









1 Supporting Information

2 SI Materials and Methods

3

4 Co-variation of erosion rates and carbonate δ^{13} C.

Inverse correlation between carbonate δ^{13} C and seawater 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratios has been noted in 5 6 previous studies (36-38), and similar correlations with the reconstructed rate of sediment 7 deposition (34) and the 'relative uplift/erosion' parameter from long term carbon cycle models (5, 6) can be observed using scatter plots (Figure S1). Computing the Pearson product moment 8 9 correlation coefficient (PMCC) for these datasets gives values of ~-0.5 to -0.4, and fitting a linear regression model (red lines in Figure S1) to the data results in a negative slope, with R^2 10 11 values between 0.17 and 0.25. Together, these tests confirm a weak but observable negative correlation in all cases. Efforts to remove the sedimentary recycling 'memory flux' from the 12 87 Sr/ 86 Sr record have resulted in an improved correlation with δ^{13} C (38). We do not expect a 13 strong correlation between erosion proxies and $\delta^{13}C$ due in part to heterogeneities in both 14 15 datasets, driven by the spatial nature of paleoenvironments, and by sampling and preservation 16 errors. But more importantly, erosion is not the only driving force behind C isotope variation: 17 the argument in this paper is that erosion, via the changing proportion that carbonate weathering makes of total carbon throughput, acts as a base-level control over ~100 Myr time scales, which 18 19 is supported by the correlations we show here.

20

Reconstructing paleo-erosion fluxes is difficult, and each method has its own caveats: Sr isotope ratios are controlled by the age and distribution of weathered material, which is undoubtedly influenced by erosion, but has other drivers. Similarly, the observed abundances of sedimentary rocks are subject to preservation and sampling bias. However, over ~100 Myr time scales, the Wilson cycle of supercontinent formation and break-up is widely accepted to

have led to a prolonged period of mountain uplift during the Late Precambrian and early
Paleozoic (39-42), followed by a time of supercontinent stability and low erosion rates during
the late Paleozoic and Early Mesozoic (43). The relative erosion rate used to drive long-term
carbon cycle models (e.g. GEOCARBSULF (5), Figure S1 B) uses a quadratic curve to
represent Phanerozoic erosion, analogous to the Wilson cycle and the long-term average
variation in sediment mass and Sr isotope ratios (44).

32

33 This long-term dynamic is independently evidenced by records of orogenies, collisions and 34 paleogeographies (45-48), and has recently been elucidated by the study of zircon hafnium and oxygen isotope compositions. Zircon ε Hf and δ^{18} O values (48, 43) highlight the Ediacaran-35 Cambrian interval of low carbonate δ^{13} C as a time of exceptional uplift (unroofing) of deep 36 crustal roots and of sediment reworking, respectively, providing independent and quantitative 37 support for the Wilson cycle dynamic (Figure S2). Consistent with this interpretation, the 38 39 earlier 'Tonian' interval of exceptionally high δ^{13} C (10,11) is interpreted as a time of relative 40 tectonic quiescence (48): This peak in carbonate f_{org} , confirmed most recently by Krissansen-Totton et al. (49), occurred during the initial rifting phase of the greatly denuded supercontinent 41 42 Rodinia (Fig. S2). We conclude that despite the difficulty in reconstructing variation in past erosion rates, the established long-term cyclic changes over the Phanerozoic show a marked 43 inverse correlation with average δ^{13} C since 500 Ma, and possibly earlier. 44

45

46 Net and gross fluxes in the long-term carbon cycle

The representation of the long term carbon cycle, which forms the basis for isotope mass balance calculations (1, 7, 8) (ms Figure 2), considers changes in the following fluxes: carbon inputs to the surface system via oxidative weathering of fossil carbon (F_{wg}), carbonate weathering (F_{wc}), metamorphic degassing of sedimentary organic carbon (F_{mg}), and degassing of carbonates (F_{mc}), and carbon outputs via burial of organic carbon (F_{bg}) and burial of inorganic carbonates (F_{bc}).

53 The rate of change of the reservoir of CO_2 in the atmosphere and ocean (A) is:

54

55
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = F_{source} - F_{sink} = F_{wg} + F_{wc} + F_{mg} + F_{mc} - F_{bg} - F_{bc}$$
 (1)

56

For CO₂ steady state, F_{sink} will be close to F_{source} and $\frac{dA}{dt} = 0$. Burial of carbonates (F_{bc}) is calculated assuming marine alkalinity balance, i.e. that input from weathering of terrestrial carbonate and silicate rocks will be balanced by total carbonate deposition (19), i.e.

60

$$61 F_{bc} = F_{wc} + F_{sil\ weathering} (2)$$

62

63 Carbonate weathering (F_{wc}) absorbs one CO₂ molecule for every CaCO₃ molecule dissolved, 64 according to the following reversible reaction:

65

$$66 \quad CaCO_3 + CO_2 + H_2O \leftrightarrow 2HCO_3^- + Ca^{2+}$$
(3)

67

Calcium carbonate deposition simply reverses the effect of carbonate weathering (eq. 3) and so the carbonate weathering-precipitation cycle is a CO₂ neutral process on long time-scales; this is highlighted by the dashed lines in Figure 2 (see manuscript). This means that the remaining 'net' CO₂ sources must be completely balanced by the two 'net' carbon sinks, which are: organic carbon burial and carbonate deposition following Ca-Mg-silicate weathering. Therefore, the stability of the atmosphere and ocean carbon reservoir over geological timescales is determined by:

76
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = (F_{wg} + F_{mg} + F_{mc}) - (F_{bg} + F_{sil weathering})$$
(4)

The carbonate weathering flux, and the rate of carbonate deposition following carbonate weathering, are not required for the standard calculation of carbon cycle stability. But these fluxes are essential when considering changes in $\delta^{13}C$ – the isotopic signature of carbon liberated during the weathering of carbonates is controlled by the crustal value, whilst the signature of buried carbonates reflects the value in the surface system. Therefore, these terms cannot be removed from the equation governing the change to atmosphere and ocean $\delta^{13}C$.

84

Low-temperature alteration of the ocean crust is an additional net carbon sink, with increased
importance in early Earth history (50), but because it does not impart an isotopic fractionation
it may be absorbed into the silicate weathering term without significantly altering our analysis.

The net carbon fluxes drive climate, but the gross fluxes (i.e. including the carbonate 89 weathering-deposition cycle) control δ^{13} C. Moreover, these gross fluxes may potentially have 90 91 changed by an order of magnitude over the Phanerozoic (due to erosion rate changes - see 92 manuscript) without significantly impacting our picture of the net changes in global carbon cycling and, by extension, climate. Current isotope mass balance models (5, 51) correctly base 93 their δ^{13} C inversion on the changing gross carbon cycle fluxes, but their analysis assumes that 94 erosion rates do not affect the rate of carbonate weathering, and that rates of erosion over the 95 96 Phanerozoic have followed a simple cubic trajectory and remained within 0.5 - 1 times the 97 present day rate (44). Implicit in their analysis is therefore the assumption that gross carbon fluxes have remained similar to the present day, and that $\delta^{13}C$ changes must then reflect a 98 99 change in the net fluxes. For this reason, the predicted rates of organic carbon burial (and 100 oxygen release) in all previous isotope mass balance studies have closely followed the 101 measured variations in carbonate δ^{13} C.

102

103 Carbon cycle modelling

We develop a simple carbon cycle model to test the effects of changes to net and gross carbon fluxes. This model incorporates the temperature dependence of weathering rates and the recycling of crustal material, and is essentially a reduced version of the GEOCARB and COPSE models (19, 5, 6) which considers only the carbon cycle and its variation around the present day steady state. The model code is included here for use with Matlab.

109

110 A) Flux calculations

Each flux in the model is defined by a present day rate, F(0), and a set of multipliers that define dependence of the relative rate on other model variables. This follows the approaches used in the most common biogeochemical box models for Phanerozoic climate.

114

115 Carbonate and Silicate weathering (F_{wc} and $F_{sil weathering}$) are assumed to have a temperature 116 dependence as described in the GEOCARB models (19, 26, 5), with the linear functional form 117 for relative river runoff rate approximated with an exponential (52), to avoid nonphysical 118 negative values when temperature is very low. Dependence of weathering rates on the relative 119 erosion rate (U) follows (53), with a weaker dependence for silicate weathering, as observed 120 in field studies (25). The dependence of carbonate weathering rate on the crustal carbonate 121 inventory, C, follows the COPSE model (6). Here T is temperature in Kelvin.

123
$$F_{wc} = F_{wc}(0) \times U^{0.9} \times \frac{c}{c(0)} \times e^{0.05(T-288)}$$
 (5)

124
$$F_{sil\ weathering} = F_{sil\ weathering}(0) \times U^{0.33} \times e^{7537.69\frac{T-288}{288T}} \times (e^{0.03(T-288)})^{0.65}$$
 (6)

125

Weathering of organic carbon (F_{wg}) depends on the relative uplift/erosion rate U, and on the relative abundance of organic carbon in the crust (G). Degassing of organic carbon (F_{mg}) , and degassing of carbonates (F_{mc}) are assumed to depend on the crustal inventories of these species, and the material subduction rate, termed D. These follow COPSE (6).

130

131
$$F_{wg} = F_{wg}(0) \times U^{0.9} \times \frac{G}{G(0)}$$
 (7)

132
$$F_{mg} = F_{mg}(0) \times D \times \frac{G}{G(0)}$$
(8)

133
$$F_{mc} = F_{mc}(0) \times D \times \frac{c}{c(0)}$$
(9)

134

Burial of organic carbon follows the COPSE model, wherein carbon burial scales with bulk
sedimentation rate, which has a quadratic dependence on phosphate-limited primary
production (6, 31, 54).

138

139
$$F_{bg} = F_{bg}(0) \times \left(\frac{P}{P(0)}\right)^2$$
 (10)

140

141 Burial of carbonates follows equation (2) above.

142

143 B) Phosphorus delivery and burial

Following the COPSE model, it is assumed that phosphorus input from weathering is relatedto the relative rates of silicate, carbonate and organic C weathering.

147
$$F_{Pinput} = F_{Pinput}(0) \times OB \times \left(\%sil\left(\frac{F_{sil\,weathering}}{F_{sil\,weathering}(0)}\right) + \%carb\left(\frac{F_{wc}}{F_{wc}(0)}\right) + \%org\left(\frac{F_{wg}}{F_{wg}(0)}\right) \right)$$
148 (11)

Here %sil, %carb and %org are the fractions of present day P weathering from each rock type. 149 150 OB is an arbitrary enhancement of P weathering used to test increased organic C burial. Based on the size of each rock reservoir, the COPSE model assumed that $\% sil = \frac{2}{12}$, % carb =151 $\frac{5}{12}$, % or $g = \frac{5}{12}$. Hartmann et al. (29, 55) estimate P fluxes directly, and show total P release 152 of ~ 2.7×10^{10} mol/yr from silicate weathering, and ~ 1×10^{10} mol/yr from carbonates. The 153 organically-derived P flux is difficult to measure, and Compton et al. (30) give $\sim 1.3 \times 10^{10}$ 154 mol/yr as a maximum. The COPSE model assumes that total P delivery is 4.35×10^{10} mol/yr, 155 which would indicate organic P input of 0.65×10^{10} mol/yr, when taking silicate and 156 carbonate weathering into account. For this work we set organic P delivery at 1×10^{10} mol/yr, 157 as a compromise between these estimates. This gives a total P input of 4.7×10^{10} mol/yr, and 158 sets % sil = 0.58, % carb = 0.21, % org = 0.21. We test the model using both these newly-159 derived P fluxes and the original COPSE input fractions. 160

161

The COPSE model calculates P burial via organic, calcium-bound and iron-sorbed forms. 86% of the combined burial flux is through the organic and Ca-bound routes, which are both linked linearly to organic C burial (6). The Fe-bound P burial flux has a complex relationship to ocean anoxia, which is difficult to represent in a non-dimensional model and is beyond the scope of the current study, we therefore simplify the burial function to be a single term, dependent on organic C burial rate.

168
$$F_{poutput} = F_{poutput}(0) \times \left(\frac{F_{bg}}{F_{bg}(0)}\right)$$
 (12)

169 The organic C burial and P cycling in the model is a simplified system based on the dynamics 170 of the marine system, but intended to represent the biosphere as a whole. The qualitative 171 relationship between total P weathering and organic C burial over long timescales is not altered 172 by the evolving land biosphere (6), but additional complexities and feedbacks may affect the 173 quantitative dynamics – potentially resulting in the strengthening or weakening of the 174 relationship between erosion and δ^{13} C values at different points in Earth history.

175

176 C) Reservoir calculations

Total atmosphere and ocean carbon, *A*, is calculated following equation (1). The crustal
reservoirs of oxidised carbonate (C) and reduced organic carbon (G) are calculated by summing
their respective sources and sinks.

180
$$\frac{dA}{dt} = F_{wg} + F_{wc} + F_{mg} + F_{mc} - F_{bg} - F_{bc}$$
(13)

181
$$\frac{dG}{dt} = F_{bg} - F_{wg} - F_{mg}$$
 (14)

182
$$\frac{dC}{dt} = F_{bc} - F_{wc} - F_{mc}$$
 (15)

$$183 \quad \frac{dP}{dt} = F_{pinput} - F_{poutput} \tag{16}$$

184

185 In order to track the isotope composition of each reservoir (δR , its δ^{13} C value), the quantity 186 $R \times \delta R$ is calculated for each reservoir R. δ^{13} C is then calculated by dividing the $R \times \delta R$ value 187 by the size of the reservoir.

188

......

189
$$\frac{d(A\delta A)}{dt} = F_{wg} \times \delta G + F_{wc} \times \delta C + F_{mg} \times \delta G + F_{mc} \times \delta C$$

190
$$-F_{bg} \times (\delta A - \Delta B) - F_{bc} \times \delta A$$
(17)

$$d(G \times \delta G)$$

191
$$\frac{u(\delta \wedge \delta G)}{dt} = F_{bg} \times (\delta A - \Delta B) - F_{wg} \times \delta G - F_{mg} \times \delta G$$
(18)

192
$$\frac{d(C \times \delta C)}{dt} = F_{bc} \times \delta A - F_{wc} \times \delta C - F_{mc} \times \delta C$$
(19)

193

194 The above equations show the importance of changes in carbonate weathering for calculation 195 of δ^{13} C values: although the identity $F_{bc} = F_{wc} + F_{sil weathering}$ can be used to cancel out F_{wc} 196 in equation (11), the same cannot be applied to equation (14) due to the difference in isotopic 197 compositions.

198

199 D) Parameter values and rapid recycling

Size of reservoirs at present day follows GEOCARB (19, 5) and COPSE (6), considering 200 201 only the 'young' rock reservoirs for C and G, which constitute the vast majority of interaction 202 with the surface system, and are approximately 10% of the total carbon inventory. This setup 203 mimics the 'rapid recycling' model of (7), which is applied in current GEOCARB modelling 204 (51). In rapid recycling, the larger, ancient rock reservoirs are assumed to remain constant in 205 size, and are therefore omitted from the analysis. The key feature of rapid recycling is that isotopic signatures recorded in young sediments are more quickly recycled to the surface 206 system through weathering. Therefore, atmosphere/ocean δ^{13} C responds more quickly to 207 208 changes in carbon fluxes (see manuscript figure 4), but eventually reaches the same steady 209 state. Rapid recycling is removed from the model by increasing the sizes of the modelled crustal organic carbon (G) and carbonate carbon (C) pools by a factor of 10, to represent the 210 211 entire reservoir. i.e. replacing equation 21 and 22 with 21* and 22*.

212
$$A(0) = 3.193 \times 10^{18} \text{ mol}$$
(20)213 $G(0) = 1.25 \times 10^{20} \text{ mol}$ (rapid recycling)(21)214 $C(0) = 5 \times 10^{20} \text{ mol}$ (rapid recycling)(22)215 $G(0) = 1.25 \times 10^{21} \text{ mol}$ (no rapid recycling)(21*)216 $C(0) = 5 \times 10^{21} \text{ mol}$ (no rapid recycling)(22*)

217	$P(0) = 3.1 \times 10^{15} \text{ mol P}$	(23)
218	$\delta A(0) = 0 \ \infty$	(24)
219	$\delta G(0) = -27 \ $	(25)
220	$\delta C(0) = 0 \%$	(26)
221		

222 The magnitude of present day carbon fluxes is taken from an assessment of the current223 literature, taking average values (see manuscript).

225
$$F_{bg}(0) = 9 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (27)

226
$$F_{wg}(0) = 7.75 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (28)

227
$$F_{mg}(0) = 1.25 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (29)

228
$$F_{wc}(0) = 24 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (30)

229
$$F_{mc}(0) = 8 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (31)

230
$$F_{sil weathering}(0) = 8 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (32)

231 P outputs are assumed to equal inputs at the present day (pre-industrial).

232
$$F_{pinput}(0) = 4.7 \times 10^{10} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (33)

233
$$F_{poutput}(0) = 4.7 \times 10^{10} \text{ mol yr}^{-1}$$
 (34)

234

E) Temperature approximation

The CO₂ and temperature approximation follows (56), as in the COPSE model (6). This calculation takes into account the solar insolation (fixed here), atmospheric pCO₂, and a dynamic albedo function. A small correction, *tempcorrect*, is made to give T(0)=288K, as in COPSE, and average surface temperature is calculated from the black body equation, where σ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.

242
$$pCO_2 = \frac{A}{A(0)} \times 280 \times 10^{-6}$$
 (35)

243 SOLAR =
$$1368 \text{ W m}^{-2}$$
 (36)

244 ALBEDO =
$$1.4891 - 0.0065979 \times T + (8.567 \times 10^{-6})T^2$$
 (37)

245
$$tempcorrect = 0.194$$
 (38)

246
$$\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8}$$
 W m⁻² K⁻⁴ (39)

248
$$T_{CO2} = 815.17 + (4.895 \times 10^7)T^{-2} - (3.9787 \times 10^5)T^{-1}$$

249
$$-6.7084(\log(\text{CO2atm}))^{-2} + 73.221(\log(\text{CO2atm}))^{-1}$$

$$247 - 30882T^{-1}(\log(\text{ CO2atm}))^{-1}$$
(40)

250
$$T = \left(\frac{SOLAR(1-ALBEDO)}{4\sigma}\right)^{1/4} + T_{CO2} + tempcorrect$$
(41)

251

252 F) Model code

The attached model code consists of two Matlab scripts: solver.m and equations.m. To run the model, run the solver script in Matlab. Modifications to the model may require alteration of either script, but the scenarios explored in this paper require only modification of the solver script. A 'user panel' is defined at the beginning of the solver script, containing all of the values that must be changed to create the output for this work. Output figures are generated automatically but these and any workspace data must be saved manually if required. The model uses the Matlab ODE solver suite for 'stiff' systems (ODE15s).

260

Full model output

Figures S3 to S6 show complete model output for the scenarios explored in the manuscript.

Figures S3 shows the full model output for ms Figure 3. Figure S4 shows the sensitivity to

rapid recycling, under the Hartmann at al. (29) P inputs. Figure S5 shows the full model output

for ms Figure 4 (A-D): Carbon isotope excursion driven by an organic C burial event. Figure

S6 shows the full model output for ms Figure 4 (E-H): Carbon isotope excursion driven by anerosion rate change.

268

A) Effect of an additional direct link between global erosion rates and organic carbonburial.

271 Whilst sedimentation rates (and therefore organic C burial rates) appear to correlate with primary production (31), it is possible that a global increase in erosion rates may enhance 272 organic carbon burial by a greater factor than is considered in our model through additional 273 preservation effects (5). We explore this idea by giving the rate of organic C burial an additional 274 275 direct dependence on the global uplift/erosion rate in figure S4. Aside from the concentration 276 of ocean phosphate (shown in magenta), the steady state results are unchanged and plot over 277 the original model runs. This is because increased preservation of organic carbon results in an increased phosphate sink, which is self-limiting. The organic C burial rate in our model adjusts 278 279 so that the amount of phosphate buried is equal to the phosphate input, which is unchanged in 280 the new scenario.

This discussion is by no means complete, and the drivers of organic C burial rates at the global scale remain complex and incompletely understood. But as we note in the manuscript, a strong link between the global erosion rate and the rate of organic C burial is effectively falsified by the anti-correlation between carbonate δ^{13} C and erosion/sedimentation proxies.

285

286 B) Effect of fixing the δ^{13} C value of carbon inputs.

Figure S7 shows the same scenario as figure S6, but with the isotopic value of carbon inputs ($\delta^{13}C_{in}$) fixed at -6‰. Under this assumption (red lines), the response of $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ to the reduction in erosion rate is reduced by around 1‰, but is qualitatively similar. This confirms that the mechanism we describe in the manuscript does not rely on changes in the $\delta^{13}C$ value of carbon inputs, although these changes do contribute to the values of $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ predicted by our model. $\delta^{13}C_{in}$ is affected both by the changes to carbonate and organic carbon weathering fluxes brought about by erosion rate changes, and by the changing isotopic composition of the crustal carbon reservoirs themselves. 295

Figure legends

296
297 Fig. S1. Correlations between carbonate δ¹³C and rates of sediment deposition (A),
298 erosion/uplift parameter used in long term models (B) and ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of seawater. The δ¹³C
299 data follows (33), and is averaged over the bins used in the study of (34) for panel A, and
300 over 10 Myr bins for panels B and C.

301 Fig. S2. Secular trends in key isotopic parameters in zircons and marine carbonates (57, 48, 302 43). Magmatic zircon abundances reveal when five supercontinents formed through 303 orogenic collision (grey shading above), leading to greatly increased reworking of sediment 304 during magmatism (red arrows mark resultant increases in zircon δ^{18} O). The zircon Hf and 305 seawater Sr isotope records anti-correlate, confirming that the Ediacaran-Ordovician 306 interval was a time of exceptional erosional unroofing of crustal roots (48). The δ^{13} C (f_{org}) 307 minimum at ~500 Ma (49), shown as a dashed green line, occurred during the peak in 308 Gondwanan orogenesis. δ^{13} C (f_{org}) maxima (49), shown as dashed red lines, coincide with 309 the existence of Pangea and Rodinia, respectively, before onset of break-up.

Fig. S3. Full model output for ms figure 3 showing steady states for changes in the relative uplift rate. Organic carbon reservoirs and fluxes are coloured red and carbonate reservoirs and fluxes are coloured blue. 'deltaA' denotes the isotopic composition of reservoir A (‰ relative to PDB). As in the manuscript, M1 shows P input ratios derived from (29), M2 shows ratios from COPSE and M3 assumes that P weathering follows the same relationships to uplift and temperature as carbonate weathering.

Fig. S4. Full model output for ms figure 3 showing steady states for changes in the relative
uplift rate. This figure shows effect of rapid recycling on steady states: solid lines show RR

on, fainter lines show RR off. Note that surface reservoir steady states are unchanged, but
crustal reservoirs now show larger bulk values instead of 'young' values. The figure also
shows a scenario in which the rate of organic carbon burial has an additional linear
dependency on the relative uplift/erosion rate. This changes only the values for ocean
phosphate (shown in magenta).

Fig. S5. Full model output for ms figure 4 A-D (case 1) showing system response over time to
an increase in organic C burial rate. Organic carbon reservoirs and fluxes are coloured red
and carbonate reservoirs and fluxes are coloured blue. 'deltaA' denotes the isotopic
composition of reservoir A (‰ relative to PDB). Green lines show forcing functions for uplift

327 and relative P weathering enhancement.

Fig. S6. Full model output for ms figure 4 E-H (case 2) showing system response over time to

a decrease in the uplift/erosion rate. Organic carbon reservoirs and fluxes are coloured red

and carbonate reservoirs and fluxes are coloured blue. 'deltaA' denotes the isotopic

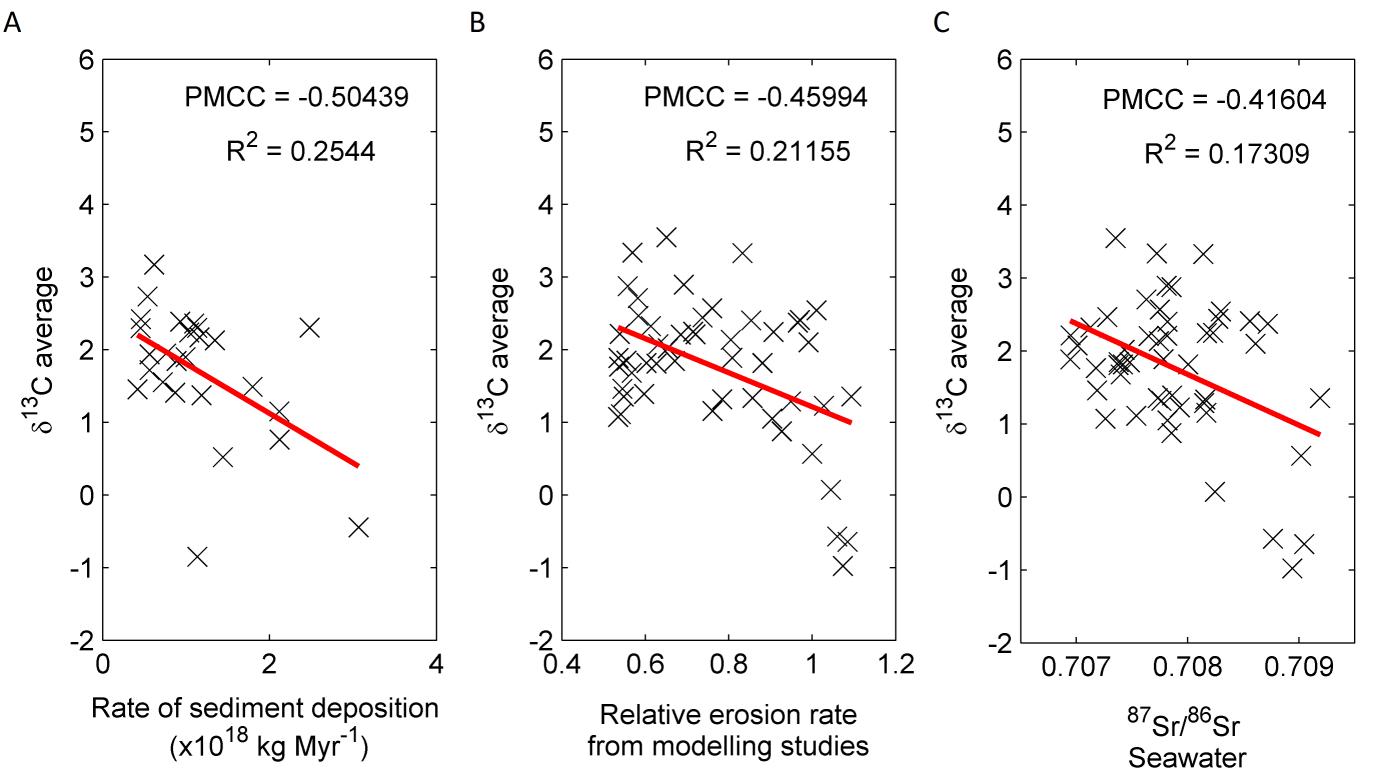
composition of reservoir A (% relative to PDB). Green lines show forcing functions for uplift

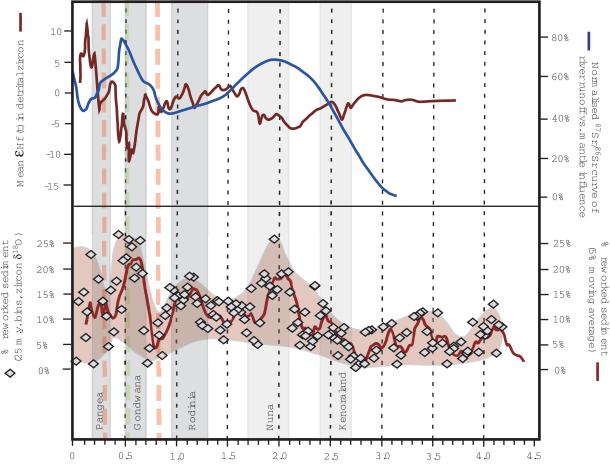
and relative P weathering enhancement.

Fig. S7. Additional model output for ms figure 4 E-H (case 2) showing system response over

time to a decrease in the uplift/erosion rate when the δ^{13} C value of carbon inputs is fixed at

335 -6‰ (red lines), compared to full model (black lines).





Age,Ga

