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1	Vertical decoupling in Late Ordovician anoxia due to
2	reorganization of ocean circulation
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20 ABSTRACT

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22 Geochemical redox proxies indicate that seafloor anoxia occurred during the latest Ordovician 23 glacial maximum, coincident with the second pulse of the Late Ordovician mass extinction. 24 However, expanded anoxia in a glacial climate strikingly contrasts with the warming-associated 25 Mesozoic anoxic events, and raises questions both as to the causal mechanism of ocean 26 deoxygenation and its relationship with extinction. Here we firstly report iodine to calcium ratio 27 (I/Ca) data that documents increased upper-ocean oxygenation despite the concurrent expansion 28 of seafloor anoxia. We then resolve these apparently conflicting observations as well as their 29 relationship to global climate, by means of a series of Earth System model simulations. Applying 30 available Late Ordovician (Hirnantian) sea-surface temperature estimates from oxygen isotope 31 studies as constraints, alongside our I/Ca data, leads us to identify a scenario in which Hirnantian 32 glacial conditions permit both the spread of seafloor anoxia and increased upper-ocean 33 oxygenation. Our simulated mechanism - a reorganization of global ocean circulation, with 34 reduced importance of northern-sourced waters and a poorer ventilated and deoxygenated deep 35 ocean – has parallels with Pleistocene state transitions in Atlantic meridional overturning 36 (despite a very different continental configuration), and suggests that no simple and predictable 37 relationship between past climate state and oxygenation may exist.

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42 The Late Ordovician mass extinction (LOME) is the first of the 'Big Five' mass extinctions<sup>1</sup> and 43 was characterized by the disappearance of  $\sim$ 85% of marine species<sup>2</sup>. Extinction clustered in two apparent pulses<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 1) – at the beginning of the Hirnantian and near the end of the Hirnantian 44 45 ('LOME 1' and 'LOME 2', respectively). LOME 1 may be related to habitat loss associated with glacioeustatically-driven sea-level changes or potentially volcanism<sup>2-4</sup>, while the drivers 46 47 responsible for LOME 2 are more debated. In the traditional time-line interpretation, LOME 2 48 occurred during deglaciation; extinction was then triggered by the expansion of anoxia onto the 49 shelves during the associated sea-level rise<sup>5</sup>. However, studies conducted at higher stratigraphic resolution have recently challenged this model<sup>6,7</sup> and suggest that seafloor anoxia<sup>7</sup> was already 50 51 well established during the latest Hirnantian glacial maximum<sup>7,8</sup>. 52 The increased areal extent of seafloor anoxia, indicated by  $\delta^{238}$ U, coincident with glacial 53 conditions rather than global warming, presents several apparent conundrums. Firstly, this is 54 seemingly at odds with the well-established conceptual model for typical Mesozoic Ocean 55 Anoxic Events which links volcanism with greenhouse-driven warming and hence the 56 occurrence of global-scale anoxia<sup>9</sup>. Indeed, previous ocean biogeochemical modeling studies of Hirnantian climate have reported increased oxygenation during glaciation<sup>10</sup> – the expected 57 corollary of decreased oxygenation during Mesozoic warming episodes<sup>9</sup>. Secondly, despite 58 59 uranium isotopic evidence for expanded seafloor anoxia globally<sup>7</sup>, most preserved stratigraphic 60 sections, deposited at various latitudes in shelf and slope settings, record a shift to more oxic 61 depositional facies during the Hirnantian<sup>11</sup>. How can deep ocean deoxygenation develop in a cold climate, and become decoupled from increased shallow marine oxygenation? 62 63 We resolve this conundrum through a series of Earth System model experiments that reveal 64 how state transitions in large-scale ocean circulation in response to Ordovician climate change

can lead to a dramatic redox restructuring of the marine environment. However, we start by
confirming the existence of surface-to-deep redox decoupling during the latest Ordovician and
report the results of carbonate I/Ca measured in two Laurentian sections spanning the late Katian
to earliest Silurian (Rhuddanian).

#### 69 I/Ca data and upper-ocean oxygenation during LOME 2

70 Bulk carbonate I/Ca (Methods) reflects changes in dissolved iodate (IO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) concentration, which 71 decreases in the presence of low-oxygen water masses<sup>12,13</sup>. Lower I/Ca values have been documented previously during Mesozoic warming events<sup>12</sup>, providing evidence for the ocean 72 73 deoxygenation/warming link. Here, results obtained for two Laurentian sections (Extended Data 74 Fig. 1) show increasing mean I/Ca values from the middle segment of the Hirnantian Isotope 75 Carbon Excursion (mid HICE) to the late HICE and LOME 2 (Fig. 1, Extended Data Fig. 2). The 76 higher I/Ca values recorded in the Laurentian epicontinental seas (water depths  $< \sim 200$  meters) 77 suggest that latest Ordovician cooling was contemporaneous with increased oxygenation of the 78 upper ocean, which is independently supported by the Anticosti Island organic biomarker analysis of Rohrssen et al.<sup>14</sup> and is not easily explained as a diagenetic artifact<sup>15,16</sup> 79 80 (Supplementary Discussion and Extended Data Fig. 3). Furthermore, I/Ca values are higher at Anticosti Island (Canada)<sup>7</sup> than at Copenhagen Canyon (USA)<sup>17</sup> during LOME 2 (Fig. 1). This is 81 82 consistent with Copenhagen Canyon being deposited in predominantly poorly oxygenated 83 offshore waters and closer to the large Laurentian oxygen minimum zone (OMZ; Extended Data 84 Fig. 1) core as well as with Fe-speciation data from Vinini Creek (Nevada) recording local anoxic deep waters in an upwelling setting<sup>18</sup> (Fig. 1). 85

# 86 Two models for seafloor anoxia in a cold climate

To reconcile the various observations of increased seafloor anoxia from uranium isotopes<sup>7</sup>, but 87 88 increased upper-ocean oxygenation from I/Ca, we carry out a gridded parameter ensemble of simulations using the cGENIE Earth System model of intermediate complexity<sup>19</sup> configured with 89 90 Ordovician continental boundary conditions and reduced (3.65 %) Ordovician solar luminosity 91 value (Methods). We simulate a range of plausible Hirnantian climatic conditions by running the 92 model multiple times using different atmospheric  $pCO_2$  values (the first parameter axis in the 93 ensemble), for which we chose a range spanning  $\times 5$  through  $\times 24$  pre-industrial (280 ppm) 94 concentrations<sup>20</sup> – equivalent to 1400 to 6720 ppm. 95 In the ocean, it is likely that nutrient inventories were lower than modern as a consequence of reduced (compared to modern) Ordovician plant cover<sup>21</sup> and high sea level<sup>22</sup>, both tending to 96 97 suppress terrestrial weathering and cause lower river-nutrient input than today. We therefore also 98 simultaneously considered a range of ocean dissolved phosphate inventories, from 0.2 to 1.0 99 times the present-day mean oceanic concentration ([PO<sub>4</sub>]) of 2.159 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2), which 100 constitutes the 2<sup>nd</sup> parameter axis of our ensemble. We hence explore a total of 30 different 101 combinations of pCO<sub>2</sub> and ocean phosphate inventory in a regular grid. All simulations were run 102 to steady state (10,000 years) and the ensemble we focus on assumes a reasonable estimate for the Ordovician atmospheric oxygen abundance<sup>23–25</sup> of 8.38  $\% - \times 0.4$  the modern value of 20.95 103 104 %. Changes in the extent of seafloor anoxia simulated in response to changes in both 105 atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> and ocean [PO<sub>4</sub>] are shown in Fig. 2. 106 At  $\times 0.2$  [PO<sub>4</sub>], the model Ordovician seafloor is fully oxic, regardless of the value of pCO<sub>2</sub> 107 and hence climatic state (Fig. 2). As expected, the extent of seafloor anoxia (defined as benthic

108  $[O_2] \le 0 \text{ } \mu\text{mol } kg^{-1}$  and the presence of free sulphide (H<sub>2</sub>S) in the model) shows a generally

109 positive saturating relationship with increasing phosphate inventory – a direct response of the

110 changing bacterial oxygen demand as biological primary productivity and carbon export to the 111 ocean interior (and the strength of the 'biological pump') increase. In contrast, we find an 112 unexpected and highly non-linear relationship between the extent of seafloor anoxia and pCO<sub>2</sub>, 113 with a prominent maximum in % anoxia reached for intermediate pCO<sub>2</sub> values (between ×6 and 114 ×10 CO<sub>2</sub>) at ×0.4 [PO<sub>4</sub>].

115 To identify a plausible scenario through climate-productivity space for the cooling climate 116 leading into the Hirnantian glacial maximum (Fig. 2), we first compare modeled surface ocean temperatures with estimates from carbonate clumped isotopes<sup>26</sup> and  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}^{7,27}$  (Supplementary 117 118 Results). Hirnantian climate trends are not currently known with sufficient resolution on 119 Anticosti (or elsewhere) to precisely establish the timing of the onset of cooling leading into the late HICE glacial maximum and its relationship to the  $\delta^{238}$ U and I/Ca records. We estimate the 120 121 magnitude of cooling by comparing paleotemperatures from the Laframboise Member of the 122 Ellis Bay Formation with those from the lower Ellis Bay Formation (because the Laframboise 123 Member is interpreted as representing deglacial transgression rather than the glacial maximum<sup>6</sup>, 124 our estimated temperature changes are best regarded as minimal). Clumped isotopes suggest a decrease from ca. 33 °C to 29 °C, while  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}$  suggest a decrease from ca. 30 °C to 23 °C. 125 126 We use these estimates to posit 2 end-member possibilities for the associated change in atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> within the model ensemble – a drop from  $\times 24$  to  $\times 8.5$  CO<sub>2</sub><sup>26</sup> (cooling 127 128 Scenario #1), or a drop from  $\times 7$  to  $\times 5$  CO<sub>2</sub><sup>7,27</sup> (cooling Scenario #2). 129 Next, and with these 2 plausible cooling scenarios in mind, we seek to constrain pairs of 130 simulations that are characterized by an appropriate expansion of seafloor anoxia in the cold climatic state. Mass balance modeling of the late Hirnantian negative carbonate  $\delta^{238}$ U excursion 131 132 at Anticosti Island<sup>7</sup> permits us to refine the estimate of anoxia extent by accounting for the

marine uranium budget<sup>28</sup> and indicates a shift from near-modern levels of ocean oxygenation (<</p>
134 1 % seafloor area anoxic)<sup>7,8</sup>, to anywhere from 3 % to 80 % total anoxic seafloor area<sup>8</sup> (Extended
135 Data Fig. 4; Supplementary Results). We can hence further refine our choice of model
136 simulations to pairs in which the extent of seafloor anoxia is initially (in the warm state) close to
137 modern but is substantially expanded in the cold state.

138 As illustrated in Fig. 2 (and Extended Data Fig. 5), for Scenario #1 (a pCO<sub>2</sub> drop from  $\times$ 24 to 139  $\times$ 8.5 CO<sub>2</sub>), we identify a pair of model experiments consistent with our criteria for anoxia 140 expansion (in this case, from ca. 0 % to 45 % of seafloor area) at a constant nutrient inventory of 141  $\times 0.4$  [PO<sub>4</sub>]. For #2 (pCO<sub>2</sub> decreasing from  $\times 7$  to  $\times 5$  CO<sub>2</sub>), an increase in ocean phosphate is 142 required in addition to the cooling in order to trigger deep-ocean deoxygenation. We identify an 143 increase from  $\times 0.2$  to  $\times 0.6$  [PO<sub>4</sub>] as consistent with our criteria for seafloor anoxia expansion 144 (Fig. 2, Extended Data Fig. 5). The possibility of an increase in ocean nutrient inventory is 145 supported by models and experiments suggesting that colonization of the continents by (non-)<sup>21</sup> vascular<sup>29</sup> land plants could have driven a substantial increase in phosphorus weathering flux 146 during the Hirnantian<sup>21,30</sup>. Additional simulations run under alternative assumptions of 147 148 atmospheric  $pO_2$  (Extended Data Fig. 6) reveal that these nutrient scenarios are not unique, and 149 that different combinations of  $pO_2$  and ocean phosphate inventory may produce similar modelled 150 values of seafloor anoxia. However, the major distinction between the two scenarios remains the 151 same: cooling alone, triggers the expansion of seafloor anoxia in Scenario #1, while cooling in 152 Scenario #2 requires a simultaneous increase in ocean nutrient inventory.

#### 153 **Reconciling shallow- and deep-marine oxygenation trends**

154 To distinguish between the 2 model scenarios, we now turn to evidence for upper-ocean

155 oxygenation changes. A key difference between Scenarios #1 and #2 is the change in the oxygen

156	concentrations simulated in the upper ocean (Fig. 3). In Scenario #1, oxygen concentrations in
157	the upper ocean increase in response to climate cooling because oxygen solubility increases in
158	colder water <sup>10,31</sup> while the metabolic rates of marine organisms, and thus primary productivity,
159	decrease <sup>32</sup> . The rate at which particulate organic matter is degraded in the ocean interior also
160	decreases in response to lower temperatures <sup>32,33</sup> , with less remineralization (and hence demand in
161	oxygen) occurring in the upper water column, leaving a relatively larger flux to be consumed at
162	greater depths. A more efficient (deeper penetrating) biological pump also reduces the return
163	nutrient flux to the ocean surface, further lowering primary productivity (see Methods and
164	Supplementary Results). In contrast, for Scenario #2, upper-ocean (subsurface) oxygen
165	concentrations decrease primarily as a consequence of a dominant nutrient inventory-driven
166	enhancement of the biological pump which overwhelms the effects of cooling (Supplementary
167	Results). Our I/Ca measurements then distinguish between the two scenarios and identify
168	Scenario #1 as best capturing the overall Hirnantian ocean redox changes, with the spread of
169	seafloor anoxia <sup>7</sup> paired with increased oxygenation of the upper ocean (Fig. 1).
170	By applying multiple data constraints to an ensemble of different realizations of Ordovician
171	climate and marine biogeochemical cycle states, we can reconcile the divergent trends in seafloor
172	and upper-ocean oxygenation in response to ongoing global cooling. In the model, we account
173	for the observations as a result of a fundamental reorganization occurring in large-scale ocean
174	circulation patterns. In the warmest $\times 24$ CO <sub>2</sub> state, deep-water formation in the model
175	predominantly occurs at the highest ocean latitudes (which in the Late Ordovician were located
176	in the Northern Hemisphere) and ventilates much of the Ordovician seafloor with highly
177	oxygenated waters (Fig. 4i-l). As pCO <sub>2</sub> is lowered through to $\times 8.5$ , seasonal sea ice appears over
178	the North Pole (Fig. 4e-h). Seasonal freshwater fluxes associated with retreating sea-ice cover

179 locally stratify and thus stabilize the water column (Supplementary Results). This mechanism, 180 possibly strengthened by a positive feedback between reduced northwards salinity transport and 181 deep-water formation and hence overturning, leads to a shutdown of deep-water formation over 182 the North Pole. Although Southern Hemisphere overturning strengthens, this is restricted to the 183 West of the low-latitude Laurentia and Baltica continents and leaves much of the ocean floor 184 (particularly to the East of Laurentia and Baltica) poorly ventilated (Fig. 4f-g). We find support 185 for such a shift in large-scale ocean circulation occurring in response to cooling, in the higher resolution MITgcm study of Pohl et al.<sup>10</sup>. Despite using a different continental reconstruction of 186 187 the Late Ordovician<sup>34</sup>, they found a shut-down of northern-sourced, deep water in response to a 188 reduction in the solar constant and cooling, with a similar change in the pattern of global 189 overturning (Supplementary Results) and a restriction of southern-sourced oxygenation to the 190 West of Laurentia and Baltica. More idealized basin geometry (and coincidently also using 191 MITgcm) modelling also demonstrates the potential for abrupt transitions in meridional overturning circulation and Rose et al.<sup>35</sup> find this specifically in response to the incipient growth 192 193 of a polar sea-ice cover. Regardless, further work using coupled climate models that can account 194 for the potential role of inter-annual variability and ocean-atmosphere modes in the state-195 dependence of large-scale circulation patterns in the Ordovician (that we are unable to address 196 with the cGENIE model) is important and would help identify which modes of Late Ordovician 197 ocean circulation are robust (and which might be model-dependent) and how they respond to 198 climate change.

We suggest that a helpful analogy for better visualizing the Ordovician circulation and oxygenation changes that occur in our model between ×24 and ×8.5 pCO<sub>2</sub> (Scenario #1), can be found during the glacial-interglacial cycles of the late Pleistocene. Specifically, we note how

northern-sourced, deep-water production in the Atlantic decreases as climate cools (and is
replaced at depth by deep water sourced from the South)<sup>36</sup>, with the potential for multiple
circulation states with abrupt transitions between them<sup>35,37</sup>. Furthermore, shallowing of the
Atlantic meridional overturning circulation coincides with proxy evidence for reduced
oxygenation at depth, despite glacial deep-ocean temperatures being colder than during
interglacials<sup>38,39</sup>.

208 Finally, an important conclusion we draw from our I/Ca data and simulations is that 209 increased seafloor anoxia is, by itself, an insufficient explanation for the LOME 2. There is no 210 evidence of reduced local upper-ocean oxygenation associated with LOME 2 at Anticosti; if 211 anything there is evidence of increased oxygenation based on I/Ca at this time (Fig. 1). The 212 majority of Anticosti taxonomic last occurrences also occur above the onset of the negative uranium isotope excursion<sup>40,41</sup>, and globally many of the taxa that disappear during LOME 2 213 214 occurred primarily in shallow-water habitats that would have remained well oxygenated under 215 almost any reasonable global change scenario. Thus, we suggest that cooling must have 216 interacted with other factors such as changes in nutrient cycling and primary producer communities<sup>11,42</sup>, and potentially heavy metal toxicity<sup>43</sup>, to drive the LOME 2 extinction. 217 218

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# **234 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

- A.P., Z.L. S.F. and A.R. designed the study and wrote the manuscript with input from all co-
- authors. AP. conducted the FOAM and cGENIE experiments and led the analysis of the model
- 237 results. Z.L., W.L., and R.H. carried out the I/Ca analyses. Z.L. led the analysis of the I/Ca
- results. R.G.S. conducted the mass balance modeling of the uranium isotope cycle.

# 239 COMPETING INTERESTS

- 240 The authors declare no competing interests.
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248 Figure 1. Stratigraphic, glacio-eustatic and geochemical records from (a) western Anticosti 249 Island (Quebec, Canada) and (b) Copenhagen Canyon (Nevada, USA). The I/Ca curves shown 250 with LOESS smoothing are from this study. Note the difference in scale for I/Ca between 251 Anticosti and Copenhagen Canyon. For western Anticosti Island, stratigraphic, sea level,  $\delta^{13}$ C, 252 and  $\delta^{238}$ U data are from refs<sup>6,7,44</sup>. For Copenhagen Canyon, stratigraphic, sea level, and  $\delta^{13}$ C data are from refs<sup>17,45</sup>; Fe-speciation data<sup>18</sup> are from a nearby section (Vinini Creek, Nevada). Gray 253 254 shaded bands indicate the approximate stratigraphic position of LOME extinctions. Numerical 255 ages are from ref<sup>46</sup>. Location of each section is shown in Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. 1. *HICE*: 256 Hirnantian Isotope Carbon Excursion; LOME 1 and 2: Late Ordovician Mass Extinction 257 apparent pulses #1 and #2.



260 Figure 2. Simulated sensitivity of ocean anoxia to climate and marine productivity. Extent of 261 seafloor anoxia (defined as percentage of the total seafloor area characterized by a benthic ocean  $[O_2] \le 0 \text{ }\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) as a function of both pCO<sub>2</sub> (x-axis) and ocean PO<sub>4</sub> inventory (y-axis). Values 262 263 and color in each cell represent the extent of anoxia of single simulation. Arrows and labels 264 represent Scenarios #1 and #2 discussed in the main text, selected to capture the expansion of 265 seafloor anoxia in the latest Hirnantian glacial climate, based on temperature estimates derived respectively from clumped isotopes<sup>26</sup> and  $\delta^{18}O_{apatite}^{7,27}$ . Note that pCO<sub>2</sub> values (x-axis) are shown 266 in two scales: ppm and  $\times$  CO<sub>2</sub> (times the preindustrial atmospheric concentration of 280 ppm). 267 268



270 Figure 3. Upper-ocean oxygen concentrations for Scenarios #1 and #2. Upper row (a, c, e) 271 corresponds to Scenario #1 (defined in text), bottom row (b, d, f) is Scenario #2. Left column (a, 272 b) shows the ocean oxygen concentration simulated between 80 and 175 m water depth (i.e., the subsurface grid level in the ocean model) before cooling in Scenarios #1 (a;  $\times 24 \text{ CO}_2$ ;  $\times 1 \text{ CO}_2$  = 273 274 280 ppm) and #2 (b; ×7 CO<sub>2</sub>). Middle column shows the impact of cooling on ocean oxygenation 275 at the same water depth in each scenario. Emerged landmasses are shaded white and contoured 276 with a thick black line. Red dots represent the paleo locations of Anticosti Island (A) and 277 Copenhagen Canyon (C) (see Fig. 1). Bar plots (e, f) give, for each scenario, the oxygen 278 concentration simulated at Anticosti and Copenhagen Canyon before (light grey) and after (dark 279 grey) cooling. Error bars are  $\pm 1$  standard deviation, calculated based on all oceanic neighboring 280 points in the model.

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285 Figure 4. Ocean circulation response to cooling. Meridional overturning circulation (1<sup>st</sup> column, 1 Sv =  $10^6$  m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), deep-ocean ventilation age ( $2^{nd}$  column) simulated at ca. 3900 m water depth, 286 deep-ocean oxygen concentration (3<sup>rd</sup> column) simulated at ca. 3900 m water depth and mean 287 annual sea-ice fraction (4<sup>th</sup> column) simulated using a pCO<sub>2</sub> of (a-d)  $\times$ 5, (e-h)  $\times$ 8.5 and (i-l)  $\times$ 24 288 289 (×1 CO<sub>2</sub> = 280 ppm). Results shown in panels (c), (g) and (k) were obtained at ×0.4 pO<sub>2</sub> and 290 ×0.4 [PO<sub>4</sub>]. In panels (a), (e) and (i), positive (negative) values in the meridional overturning 291 circulation represent clockwise (anticlockwise) cells. The ventilation age represents the time 292 since a parcel of water last reached the ocean surface. L: Laurentia; B: Baltica; S: Siberia. 293 294 **REFERENCES** 

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403				
404	METHODS			
405	Description of the model			
406	Simu	Simulations were conducted using the Earth System model of intermediate complexity		
407	cGENIE <sup>19</sup> (Supplementary Methods). cGENIE is rooted in a 3D ocean circulation model, but for			
408	speed	l, includes only a 2D energy-moisture-balance atmospheric component plus sea-ice module.		

409 The model was configured on a 36×36 equal area grid, with 16 unevenly-spaced vertical levels in

410 the ocean. The cycling of carbon and associated tracers in the ocean is based on a single

411 (phosphate) nutrient limitation of biological productivity following Reinhard et al.<sup>47</sup> but adopts

412 the Arrhenius-type temperature-dependent scheme for the remineralization of organic matter

413 exported to the ocean interior of John et al.<sup>33</sup>. Compared to recent Earth System models of the

414 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6), the simplified climatic component of

415 cGENIE offers a rapid model integration time, facilitating the numerous sensitivity tests required

to quantify the impact of the uncertainty in the model boundary conditions pervading deep-time

417 studies, as well as the 10,000-year-long model simulations necessary to ensure deep-ocean

418 equilibrium (Supplementary Results).

# 419 **Description of the numerical experiments**

420 We adopted the Hirnantian (445 Ma) continental reconstruction of Scotese and Wright<sup>22</sup>

421 (Extended Data Fig. 1). In the absence of better constraints, a flat bottom ocean floor was used,

422 which is not expected to significantly impact simulated global benthic ocean oxygenation

423 patterns<sup>48</sup> (Supplementary Methods). We calculated solar luminosity at 445 Ma (1318.1 W m<sup>-2</sup>)

424 after Gough<sup>49</sup>, and employed a null eccentricity-minimum obliquity orbital configuration, which

425 provides an equal mean annual insolation to both hemispheres with minimum seasonal contrasts.

426 For each different atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> assumption, we first ran the FOAM<sup>50</sup> general circulation

427 model experiment for 2 kyrs using these boundary conditions (Supplementary Methods). We

428 then derived the 2D wind speed and wind stress, and 1D zonally-averaged albedo forcing fields

429 required by the cGENIE model, using the 'muffingen' open-source software version v0.9.20,

430 which is assigned a DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.4615664.

431 cGENIE model simulations were initialized with a sea-ice free ocean and homogeneous
432 temperature and salinity in the ocean (5 °C and 34.9 ‰, respectively). The model was then

433 integrated for 10,000 years until equilibrium of the deep-ocean oxygen concentration. Results of

434 the mean of the last simulated year were used for this analysis.

#### 435 Materials and I/Ca methods

436 Samples from two Upper Ordovician sections were analyzed for I/Ca: Anticosti Island, Quebec,

437 Canada and Copenhagen Canyon, Nevada, USA (Supplementary Methods). Rock samples were

438 crushed and homogenized to fine powder. Around 4 mg of powdered samples were weighed and

- 439 rinsed with de-ionized water to remove soluble iodine. Nitric acid (3%) was added to dissolve
- 440 carbonate. The samples were then diluted to a consistent matrix containing  $\sim$ 50 ppm Ca, 0.5%
- 441 tertiary amine (to stabilize iodine), 5 ppb In and Cs (internal standards). The measurements were
- 442 performed immediately on a quadrupole ICP-MS (Bruker M90) at Syracuse University. Iodine
- 443 calibration standards were prepared daily from KIO<sub>3</sub> powder. The sensitivity of iodine was tuned
- to 80-100 kcps for a 1 ppb standard. The reference standard JCp-1 was analyzed repeatedly to
- 445 monitor long-term accuracy<sup>12,24</sup>. The detection limit of I/Ca is on the order of 0.1  $\mu$ mol mol<sup>-1</sup>.

#### 446 DATA AVAILABILITY

- 447 The I/Ca data can be downloaded from Zenodo
- 448 (<u>https://zenodo.org/record/5136966#.YP5vClMzbu6</u>).

### 449 CODE AVAILABILITY

450 The code for the version of the 'muffin' release of the cGENIE Earth System Model used in this

451 paper, is tagged as v0.9.20, and is assigned a DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.4618023.

- 452 Configuration files for the specific experiments presented in the paper can be found in the
- 453 directory: genie-userconfigs/MS/ pohletal.NatGeo.2020. Details on the experiments, plus the
- 454 command line needed to run each one, are given in the readme.txt file in that directory. All other
- 455 configuration files and boundary conditions are provided as part of the code release.
- 456 A manual detailing code installation, basic model configuration, tutorials covering various
- 457 aspects of model configuration and experimental design, plus results output and processing, is
- 458 assigned a DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.4615662.

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