1 Permian-Triassic mass extinction pulses driven by major marine carbon cycle 2 perturbations doi.org/10.1038/s41561-020-00646-4 3 Hana Jurikova^{1,2*}, Marcus Gutjahr¹, Klaus Wallmann¹, Sascha Flögel¹, Volker 4 Liebetrau¹, Renato Posenato³, Lucia Angiolini⁴, Claudio Garbelli³, Uwe Brand⁵, 5 Michael Wiedenbeck², and Anton Eisenhauer¹ 6 7 8 ¹GEOMAR Helmholtz-Zentrum für Ozeanforschung Kiel, Wischhofstr. 1–3, 24148 9 Kiel, Germany 10 Deutsches GeoForschungsZentrum – Helmholtz Zentrum Potsdam, 11 Telegrafenberg, 14473 Potsdam, Germany 12 ³Dipartimento di Fisica e Scienze della Terra, Università di Ferrara, Polo Scientifico-13 tecnologico, Via Saragat 1, 44100 Ferrara, Italy 14 ⁴Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Via Mangiagalli 34, Università di Milano, 20133 15 Milan, Italy 16 ⁵Department of Earth Sciences, Brock University, 1812 Sir Isaac Brock Way, St. 17 Catharines, Ontario L2S 3A1, Canada 18 *Present address: University of St Andrews, School of Earth and Environmental 19 20 Sciences, St Andrews KY16 9AL, United Kingdom (hj43@st-andrews.ac.uk) 21 22 The Permian-Triassic boundary approximately 251.9 million years ago marked 23 the most severe environmental crisis identified in the geological record that 24 dictated the onwards course for the evolution of life. Magmatism from Siberian

Traps is thought to have played a significant role, but the causational trigger and

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its feedbacks are yet to be fully understood. Here, we present a new boron isotopederived seawater pH record from fossil brachiopod shells deposited on the Tethys
shelf that demonstrates a substantial decline in seawater pH coeval with the onset
of the mass extinction in the latest Permian. Combined with carbon isotope data,
our results are integrated in a geochemical model that resolves the carbon cycle
dynamics as well as ocean redox conditions and nitrogen isotope turnover. We find
that the initial ocean acidification was intimately linked to a large pulse of carbon
degassing from the Siberian sill intrusions. We unravel the consequences of the
greenhouse effect on the marine environment, and show how elevated sea surface
temperatures, export production and nutrient input driven by increased rates of
chemical weathering gave rise to widespread de-oxygenation and sporadic
sulphide poisoning of the oceans in the earliest Triassic. Our findings enable us to
assemble a consistent biogeochemical reconstruction of the mechanisms resulting
in the largest Phanerozoic mass extinction.

Current lines of evidence point to a rather rapid catastrophe (~61 ± 48 thousands of years, ka)¹ linked to greenhouse gas emissions from the Siberian Traps large igneous province (LIP)^{2,3,4}. The magmatism apparently induced a lethal combination of a substantial input of relatively light carbon to the atmosphere^{4,5}, increase in global sea surface temperature^{6,7,8,9,10}, sporadic to widespread anoxia^{11,12,13} or euxinia^{14,15}, and ocean acidification^{16,17,18}. The exact causes and consequences, however, remain controversial, and a coherent unifying scenario for the environmental evolution over this important interval in Earth's history is still lacking. To reconstruct the carbon cycle dynamics, we generated a new record of ocean pH for the Permian-Triassic boundary (PTB) using boron isotopes (a well-established proxy for ambient seawater

pH)^{19,20,21,22,23} paired with carbon and oxygen isotope data. Our records are assimilated into a box model, which enables us to simulate the carbon release and turnover, and study its effects on the Earth's system – a critical exercise for untangling the driving mechanisms of the extinction, as well as for improving our overall understanding of Earth's climatic and ecological sensitivities.

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Boron isotope record of Tethys ocean acidification

We generated high-resolution boron (δ^{11} B), carbon (δ^{13} C) and oxygen (δ^{18} O) isotope records from pristine fossil brachiopod shells⁷ composed of low-magnesium calcite (Fig. 1; Methods and Supplement). Our records are based on samples from three stratigraphically well-characterized sections²⁴ in the Southern Alps of northern Italy – Sass de Putia, Tesero and Val Brutta - where the comparatively uncondensed sedimentary sequences enable a chronologically well-resolved exploration of Tethys Ocean conditions at the PTB (Fig. 1a). This interval covers the global negative carbon isotope excursion (CIE), a characteristic feature of the PTB, associated with major biotic and environmental changes. In addition, several brachiopod specimens from a distant Shangsi section in South China¹⁸ were analysed for comparison. Due to limited sample availability, the Shangsi record does not overlap with that from the Southern Alps; albeit a precise stratigraphic correlation at such high-resolution between the two sites is rather complicated. Nevertheless, the critical decline in δ^{11} B values, as well as δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O, following the CIE is registered by brachiopod shells from both South China and Southern Alps, lending strong support to our records and that these are representative of Tethys-wide conditions.

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The preservation of original chemical signals in the samples and potential influences

from matrix contamination were thoroughly inspected using a wide suite of prescreening routines, including minor and trace element analyses (Extended Data Fig. 1; Methods and Supplement). The latter showed that the composition of our samples is broadly consistent with those expected for modern brachiopod species. In several samples though, increased Al/Ca values were detected that are not compatible with primary Al incorporation into the crystal lattice, and may be indicative of sample contamination from clay sediments from the enclosing matrix. These high Al/Ca values, however, did not translate into systematically enriched B/Ca or reduced δ^{11} B; the general trend in our δ^{11} B record can be reconstructed solely from samples with low Al/Ca values (Extended Data Fig. 2). In addition, the integrity of our δ^{11} B compositions was cross-checked by combining solution-based and secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) analyses on selected key specimens. The *in situ* nature of the SIMS approach allows for direct δ^{11} B measurements within specific shell structures, providing further supporting evidence that our δ^{11} B record was not significantly affected by secondary impurities or post-depositional alterations.

The CIE in the Southern Alps in excess of -4.5 ‰ (Fig. 1c) is accompanied by a decrease in $\delta^{11}B$ values of more than -1.5 ‰ (Fig. 1b) within some 20 ka of the latest Permian (see also Extended Data Fig. 3). This is also closely reflected by a declining $\delta^{18}O$ trend (Fig. 1d), suggesting a dramatic increase in seawater temperatures. Following the CIE, comparably low $\delta^{11}B$, $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values are also found in South China (Fig. 1). We do not observe a recovery to pre-event isotope values after the boundary and into the earliest Triassic. Given the pH-dependent incorporation of $\delta^{11}B$ into biogenic calcite, a substantial suppression of ocean pH accompanying the CIE is evident from our $\delta^{11}B$ data alone. For a quantitative estimate, we convert the $\delta^{11}B$

record to pH considering different $\delta^{11}B$ to pH relationships and ambient seawater $\delta^{11}B$ scenarios (δ¹¹B_{sw}; Methods). Our preferred scenario accounts for biological 'vital effects' on the incorporation of boron into brachiopod calcite, however, in addition we also consider an alternative scenario based on aqueous borate ion relationship (Extended Data Fig. 3). While the first scenario (hereinafter 'standard case scenario') assumes that the $\delta^{11}B$ -pH dependency of brachiopod shells is influenced by their internal regulating processes, the second scenario (hereinafter 'borate ion scenario') considers boron incorporation following the inorganic δ^{11} B-pH relationship, and hence the lack of vital effects. These two scenarios effectively envelop the plausible $\delta^{11}B$ -pH relationships of brachiopod shells²³. Had ancient brachiopods potentially higher degrees of vital effects, the $\delta^{11}B$ drop in our record would likely translate to an even more extreme acidification scenario, due to the stronger internal pH regulation and resulting dampened sensitivity to ambient seawater pH. The calibration choice is detailed in the Methods section, and further discussion of vital effects including a pH and model reconstruction considering the alternative 'borate ion scenario' are available in the Supplement. We anchor our initial, pre-CIE δ^{11} B-derived surface ocean pH to plausible pre-event conditions based on previous estimates and our model output. Our $\delta^{11}B$ record then predicts the timing and the magnitude of pH fluctuation with respect to the unperturbed starting conditions prior to the mass extinction event. We find, for the first time, a considerable drop of ~0.5 units in ocean pH at the onset of the extinction in the latest Permian that persists into the earliest Triassic (Fig. 2c).

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Carbon release impact on redox and nutrient feedbacks

To characterise the associated carbon release and its impact on the environment, we assimilate the carbon isotope and pH data into a geochemical box model (Methods; see

also Extended Data Figs. 4 and 5). The magnitude, dynamics, as well as the most realistic time-resolved δ^{13} C composition of emitted CO₂ over the PTB is estimated by fitting the model to the data. In addition to our brachiopod data, we consider numerous PTB δ^{13} C bulk carbonate (δ^{13} C_{carb}; Fig. 2d) as well as organic carbon isotope records (δ¹³C_{org}; Fig. 2f), comprising different geographical locations and CIE magnitudes, thereby assuring global representation. Our resulting degassing flux (Fig. 2a) amounts to 8800×10^{12} mol CO₂ (106 Pg C, petagram = 1×10^{15} g) over the modelled duration of 1 Ma (–500 ka to 500 ka relative to the CIE). A total amount of $\sim 800 \times 10^{12}$ mol CO₂ (9.6 Pg C) with mantle signature (-6 %) is initially released until -35 ka before the CIE. Subsequently, the model diagnoses the emission of $\sim 8000 \times 10^{12}$ mol CO₂ (96 Pg C) of isotopically substantially lighter CO₂ (-18 %). These low δ^{13} C values reflect the metamorphic degassing of organic carbon during volcanic intrusions into coal basin sediments and are required to match our pH and δ^{13} C constraints (Fig. 2b). Our outlined emission scenario explains the CIE excursion without invoking light δ^{13} C signal from methane clathrates. The LIP carbon budget implied by our model is also broadly consistent with other independent estimates and field data^{2,3,4} (Supplement). Interestingly, the emitted δ^{13} C signatures and their temporal resolution are also comparable with volcanic degassing processes from the North Atlantic Igneous Province during the Palaeocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM)²¹ some 56 Ma ago, although the involved carbon budget for the PTB is nearly an order of magnitude greater (106 Pg C as opposed to 12.2 Pg C during the PETM).

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Using a new redox-resolving ocean model²⁵ we determine the ensuing series of changes in the ocean chemistry (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). We find that degassing from the Siberian Traps leads to a steep increase in atmospheric pCO₂, even though a large fraction of the

emitted CO₂ is dissolved in the surface ocean, transferred into depth via a gradual increase in export production, and rapidly consumed and converted into bicarbonate via enhanced silicate and carbonate weathering (Fig. 2). Initially, the partial pressure of CO₂ in the atmosphere is relatively low in the Late Permian (~500 to ~800 ppm, sensu stricto vppm; Fig. 2e). Following the CIE, at the onset of the extinction CO₂ levels rise abruptly peaking at 44 ka (up to max. 4400 ppm), and remain elevated (~1500 ppm) consistent throughout the Early Triassic, with previous palaeo-pCO₂ estimates^{5,26,27,28,29}. The sharp increase in CO₂ imposes a lasting disruption to the marine carbonate cycle, prompting a severe decline in surface ocean pH (Fig. 2c), which only partially recovers during the Early Triassic. In response to the carbon emission, our model predicts warming by almost 10 °C (Fig. 2h) in agreement with proxy-based evidence^{6,30,31}. Rates of chemical weathering strongly increase (Fig. 2g), as does marine export production (Fig. 2i) and nutrient input, which is congruent with the increase in detrital fluxes to the global ocean observed in numerous sedimentary PTB records³².

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Dissolved oxygen concentrations (Fig. 3a) in sub-surface waters decline abruptly soon after the CIE and remain low over the Early Triassic due to the increase in export production and respiration. The surface ocean remains oxygenated through exchange with the atmosphere. Dissolved nitrate (Fig. 3b) sharply increases with the CIE, promoted by a rise in sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and temperature-dependent nitrogen fixation, but it declines again with a coeval increase in pelagic and benthic denitrification brought on by the spread of low-oxygen conditions. Complete depletion of oxygen and nitrate is only attained in the intermediate waters of the Tethys where it results in an accumulation of dissolved sulphide (Fig. 2f). Under the post-PTB low-

oxygen conditions, ammonium (Fig. 3c), phosphate (Fig. 3d) and iron (Fig. 3e) are released from seabed sediments into the overlying water column and support the rise in export production and respiration in a strong positive feedback loop.

We further extend our model to simulate the turnover of stable nitrogen isotopes (δ^{15} N; Supplement), which reflect the composition of marine organic matter formed in the surface ocean (Fig. 3h). The initial δ^{15} N decline following the CIE is linked to a rapid rise in nitrogen fixation, but subsequently δ^{15} N increases due to pelagic denitrification that consumes a large portion of the dissolved nitrate pool in sub-surface waters, preferentially removing the light isotope (Fig. 3g). Following the consumption of the excess nitrate, δ^{15} N declines again as a result of ongoing nitrogen fixation. Due to the strong denitrification under low oxygen conditions, modelled plankton growth is largely limited by nitrate, while nitrogen fixation is limited by phosphate. Although we acknowledge that the δ^{15} N model fit, in particular close to the PTB, is less reliable due to the large scatter in the data, the modelled changes explain the overall low δ^{15} N values in the Early Triassic relative to the Late Permian, a feature reported from numerous sedimentary records^{33,34}. This advocates for high SST and increase in the riverine phosphate flux to the ocean induced by enhanced weathering and erosion as triggers of the observed rise in nitrogen fixation and productivity after the PTB.

The increase in global productivity along with the depletion of dissolved oxygen simulated by our redox-resolving model is consistent with data-based reconstructions. Accumulation rates of organic carbon and barite determined in numerous sediment cores from the Tethys and Panthalassa indicate a significant increase in export production from the latest Permian into the Early Triassic^{32,35}. Marine plankton

communities underwent drastic restructuring over the PTB with warming and loss of oxygen fostering the proliferation of prokaryotic cyanobacteria over eukaryotic algae³⁵, which is consistent with the increase in nitrogen fixation predicted by the model. Global loss of oxygen across the PTB has been documented by δ^{238} U and Th/U records from the Tethys and Panthalassa indicating wide-spread uranium uptake in sediments after the PTB^{11,12,13}. Conditions where oxygen and nitrate rather than sulphate are used as terminal electron acceptors for organic matter degradation are also characteristic of modern oxygen minimum zones³⁶ and lead to uranium accumulation in marine sediments³⁷. Evidence for euxinic conditions, where sulphide dissolved in shallow intermediate waters is transported to the euphotic zone has been reported from biomarker studies¹⁵.

The carbon cycle perturbations culminate at about 100 ka after the CIE with waning LIP emissions, although neither the atmospheric pCO₂ nor the marine biogeochemical cycles return to pre-event conditions during the Early Triassic (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). LIP-CO₂ is converted into seawater alkalinity via enhanced chemical weathering. Upsurge of export production aids the drawdown of atmospheric pCO₂, and the ocean pH recovery is additionally augmented by alkalinity production (Fig. 2k) during denitrification under suboxic conditions. Neritic carbonate burial initially declines following the CIE due to strong acidification of surface waters, but increases after the PTB in response to an increase in alkalinity (Fig. 2j). Since calcifying phytoplankton emerged only later in the Mesozoic, pelagic carbonates were absent during this time and carbonate burial may have only occurred on the shelf. Under such conditions, carbonate compensation would be less efficient than in the modern ocean and could have led to strong calcite oversaturation of surface waters³⁸ (Fig. 2l). Our model

calculations are also in line with carbonate burial rates derived from strontium and calcium isotope records across the PTB^{39,40}, and geologic evidence of unusually high abiotic calcium carbonate precipitation in the Early Triassic⁴¹. The marine crisis, however, persists through the Early Triassic, due to the delayed recovery of the redox state. We note that the evolution of the surface ocean pH and the transition to suboxic conditions is heavily dependent on the initial oxidation state of the ocean as shown by additional model simulations and sensitivity tests (Supplement). For instance, an increase or decrease of 50% in riverine phosphate input leads to substantial changes in export production and nitrogen fixation, and thereby the corresponding drawdown of atmospheric pCO₂. Yet these simulations fail to reproduce the proxy-based evidence, such as the δ^{13} C, pH or δ^{15} N records, making a strong argument in favour of the 'standard case scenario' presented here.

Global consequences for the marine ecosystem

These findings lead us to view the PTB mass extinction as a cascading marine collapse, triggered by a multi-millennial-scale voluminous injection of carbon to the atmosphere by the emplacement of Siberian Traps sill intrusions^{2,42}. Its magnitude profoundly altered the biogeochemical processes, setting off a chain of events that selectively eliminated different groups of marine organisms⁴³. In the latest Permian, the CO₂ greenhouse effect resulted in strong heating and acidification of the surface ocean, which prompted the initial disappearance of all reef-building taxa^{44,45}. Experiments on modern organisms⁴⁶ indicate that an increase in pCO₂ alone is generally insufficient to severely impair marine calcification. It is the synergic effect of acidification and rising temperatures that is detrimental, and which presumably was lethal to ancient biota. The subsequent extinction pulse followed in the earliest Triassic, with a strong positive

redox feedback driving the deoxygenation of sub-surface waters. Both our 'standard model scenario' as well as further sensitivity tests (Supplement) suggest that the deep ocean remained in a depleted oxygen state but was not seriously affected by sulphide poisoning. Sulphide formation may have, however, reached toxic levels along the Tethys' continental margins and in upwelling regions of Panthalassa, where low oxygen and high nutrient concentrations in ascending sub-surface waters could have promoted anoxic and/or euxinic conditions, aggravating the environmental crisis. The protracted recovery from suboxic conditions, nitrate limitation, possibly amplified by spreading anoxia or sulphide poisoning, would have preferentially wiped out the non-motile and physiologically unbuffered taxa⁴³. Together, the distinct stressors led to a physiological crisis accompanied by a dramatic shrinking of the habitable realm, limiting the marine refuge to a narrow zone in the upper water column^{24,47}.

Considering the vastly differing timescales and carbon budgets involved LIP carbon cycle dynamics is a poor analogy for present-day fossil fuel emissions, notwithstanding that, the modern geologic carbon reservoirs are insufficient for anthropogenic release beyond centennial time scales. It is, however, noteworthy that even the peak emissions rate during the largest known mass extinction $(58 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ or } 0.7 \text{ Pg C per year})$ is still more than 14 times less than the current anthropogenic rate $(9.9 \pm 0.5 \text{ Pg C per year})^{48}$. The environmental deterioration during the PTB took several thousands of years to unfold, whereas the current, unprecedented emissions rate already has started to take a toll on the marine ecosystems⁴⁹. A coupled increase in atmospheric pCO₂ and a decrease in surface ocean pH⁴⁹, global warming, changes in productivity as well as oxygen depletion⁵⁰ have been reported world-wide, suggesting that the scenario

- 275 outlined here for the PTB may also be relevant for understanding future environmental
- and climatic trends.

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Author contributions

H.J., M.G., V.L., and A.E. developed the concept and designed the study. H.J. carried out chemical sample preparation as well as elemental and isotopic analyses. M.W. provided isotopic micro-analyses. U.B., R.P., L.A. and C.G. provided and screened the samples. R.P., L.A., C.G. and H.J. developed the age model. K.W. and S.F. devised the box model and performed the analyses. H.J. wrote the manuscript, and all authors

discussed the results, contributed to the interpretation of the data and the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure 1. Brachiopod-based stable isotope data from Italy and China. a Late Permian palaeogeographic reconstruction (Methods) with location of the sampling sites; \mathbf{b} $\delta^{11}\mathrm{B}$; \mathbf{c} $\delta^{13}\mathrm{C}$ and \mathbf{d} $\delta^{18}\mathrm{O}$ record derived from brachiopod shells from Southern Alps (Sass de Putia, Tesero and Val Brutta; BWFB – Bellerophon-Werfen Formation boundary) and South China (Shangsi). Error bars in \mathbf{a} indicate the analytical uncertainty for solution-based $\delta^{11}\mathrm{B}$ (2SD = 0.2 ‰) and SD between multiple ion spots measurements within a single shell for SIMS $\delta^{11}\mathrm{B}$. Stratigraphy of the GSSP Meishan is shown for comparison. Purple field marks the onset of the CIE as defined in our age model (see Methods and Supplement), with geochronology based on latest age estimates¹.

Figure 2. Modelled marine carbonate system and climate change. a CO₂ release via Siberian Traps LIP degassing applied as model forcing; **b** isotopic composition of released CO₂; **c** surface pH of Tethys Ocean; **d** carbon isotope composition of carbonates deposited on Tethys shelf (data sources in Supplement); **e** global atmospheric partial presurre CO₂ projected by the carbon cycle model; **f** carbon isotope composition of organic carbon in sediments deposited on Panthalassa seafloor (data sources in Supplement); **g** global rate of silicate (granite + basalt) and carbonate weathering; **h** sea surface temperatures (SSTs) for Tethys and Panthalassa; **i** marine

export production of particulate organic carbon (POC) across 100 m water depth; **j** burial of POC and neritic carbonate on the global shelf; **k** seawater total alkalinity (TA); and **l** saturation state of surface (0–100 m) and deep waters (>1300 m) of Tethys and Panthalassa with respect to calcite.

Figure 3. Modelled redox state of the ocean, dissolved nutrient concentrations and nitrogen cycling. a dissolved oxygen in surface (0–100 m), intermediate (100–1300 m) and deep waters (>1300 m) of Tethys and Panthalassa; b dissolved nitrate; c dissolved ammonium; d dissolved phosphate; e total dissolved iron; and f total dissolved sulphide; g reconstruction of nitrogen cycling in Tethys Ocean; and h nitrogen isotope composition of Tethys sediments (data sources are provided in the Supplement).

517 Methods

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Site and sample information

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We selected fossil brachiopods from well-constrained successions of the eastern Southern Alps (Sass de Putia, Tesero and Val Brutta in Italy; ref. 51 for an overview) and Shangsi (China)¹⁸ spanning the Permian-Triassic boundary (PTB) interval. We opted for this novel archive approach for two particular reasons; firstly because skeletal components of marine calcifiers are the most appropriate boron-based pHrecorders 19,20,21,22,23 and secondly because brachiopod shells are composed of lowmagnesium calcite, the most robust polymorph of calcium carbonate to diagenetic alterations. Our records are based on carefully chosen unaltered specimens from a collection⁷ that has been extensively pre-screened involving optical and petrographic inspections, scanning electron microscopy (SEM; see also in Supplement), cathodoluminescence (CL), and polarising microscopy alongside criteria based on trace, rare earth and redox sensitive elements to assure microstructural and chemical integrity. Additionally, further related specimens from the collections of Renato Posenato and Lucia Angiolini were used to complement the set, which allowed us to extend the timeline and the resolution of the previous records, and capture the full span of the δ^{13} C excursion. Brachiopods from these PTB sections are extremely well preserved with discernible internal layers analogous to that in modern brachiopods^{7,53,54,55}. The brachiopod taxa from the Southern Alps comprise the genera Comelicania, Comelicothyris, Janiceps and Orbicoelia of the Class Rhynchonellata, and Ombonia and Orthothetina of the Class Strophomenata. To evaluate whether the pH suppression observed in our record from Southern Alps was a Tethys-wide event, we also included selected *Paracrurithyris* (Rhynchonellata) specimens from the distant Shangsi section¹⁸ to the record for a comparison. The age model was based on a stratigraphic correlation to Meishan GSSP and the latest absolute geochronologic dates¹. Further description of the stratigraphy and our devised age model is available in the Supplement (S1). The palaeogeographic map reconstruction including the extent of the Siberian Traps province was based on geological evidence^{56,57}.

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Sample preparation and geochemical analyses

The inner secondary layer of brachiopod shells is deemed as the most appropriate part for geochemical analyses ^{58,59} and was carefully sampled using a handheld precision drill (Proxxon) with a mounted dental tip or a carbide pen under a binocular microscope. Approximately 1–5 mg of homogenous calcium carbonate powder was collected in 1.5 ml centrifuge vials. A small fraction of the powder was analysed for δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O composition on a Thermo Finnigan MAT252 stable isotope mass spectrometer coupled online to an automated Kiel carbonate preparation line. The rest was measured for elemental content and δ^{11} B using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry on a Quadrupole ICP-MS (Agilent 7500x) and Thermo Scientific Neptune Plus MC-ICP-MS, respectively. Measurements and sample preparation work was carried out at the GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel. Purification and the treatment of the samples for elemental and δ^{11} B analyses was carried out according to previously established protocols ^{52,60}. The powder material was at first thoroughly cleaned to remove any adhering clays, then oxidatively cleaned using buffered peroxide and finally dissolved in 0.5 M HNO₃. Prior to δ^{11} B analyses, samples

were additionally screened for chemical consistency by checking various elemental ratios (Al/Ca, B/Ca, Mg/Ca, Sr/Ca, Mn/Ca, Fe/Ca and U/Ca; Extended Data Fig. 1; see also Supplement S2). Although few samples had elevated Al/Ca, similar to observations from previous studies²¹, this did not translate into altered δ^{11} B values, as supported by the good agreement between solution-based and in situ SIMS measurements. Likewise, we observed variable B/Ca, Mg/Ca, Sr/Ca, Mn/Ca, Fe/Ca and U/Ca, however, with the exception of few samples, measured values were within the range of recent brachiopods⁵⁸ and without significant systematic effect on the $\delta^{11}B$ values. We also underscore that, for most parts, our record is based on several specimens per stratigraphic horizon, with good agreement in δ^{11} B values between them despite variable Al/Ca or other ratios, implying that any potential source of contamination to the samples had limited impact on the $\delta^{11}B$ values. This is also supported by the very depleted B/Ca, but elevated and variable Al/Ca of the enclosing matrix based on three samples of Late Permian cement (Extended Data Fig. 1), which was the likely source. Ultimately though, as mentioned in the main text, our overall δ^{11} B trends may still be reconstructed when samples with low Al/Ca only are taken into account. Our total procedural blanks were below <100 pg B ($\delta^{11}\text{B} \sim 0-20 \text{ }\%$) and hence negligible considering the typical sample size of 10-50 ng B. The external reproducibility on $\delta^{11}B$ was \pm 0.2 ‰ (2SD) assessed by repeated measurements of purified carbonate standard reference materials measured along with samples and treated identically ($\delta^{11}B = 24.51 \pm 0.18$ %, n = 5 for the coral reference material JCp-1; and $\delta^{11}B = 15.96 \pm 0.21$ %, n = 16 for our in-house brachiopod standard MVS-1), in line with our previously published results⁵². In addition, in situ boron isotope measurements were carried out on selected key specimens using secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS). This approach allows for determination of $\delta^{11}B$ values in brachiopod shells directly, without the chemical processing of samples, and with measured isotopic ratios being directly comparable to the solution-based MC-ICP-MS technique^{52,61}. SIMS analyses and sample preparation was done at the GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences - Helmholtz Centre Potsdam. Measurements were performed on a CAMECA 1280-HR SIMS instrument as described in detail in Supplement (S3). In brief, cross-sections of brachiopod shells were embedded in epoxy, polished and coated with gold. We used a ¹⁶O⁻ primary beam operated in Köhler illumination with intensity varying between approximately 40 to 60 nA that was focused into an aperture delimited spot of ~30 μm. The analyses were conducted in a multi-collection mode by simultaneously measuring 10B and 11B on electron multipliers. For instrument calibration and reporting of measured isotopic ratios to the common NIST 951 scale we used the inorganic calcite standard reference material UWC-1⁶². The count rate on the ¹¹B⁺ mass station on the UWC-1 was typically in the range 5000 to 10,000 ions/second, which translated to an uncertainty ~1 to 1.5 \% (SD) for individual analyses (for the brachiopod samples the count rate was usually at least double that of the UWC-1). The external analytical repeatability based on 82 determinations on the UWC-1 over 4 days of the measurement session was better than \pm 1.4 ‰ (SD, n = 82). Results are shown as a mean of multiple ion spot measurements within a single specimen with SD between them.

pH calculation

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614 615 A prerequisite for the reconstruction of pH from $\delta^{11}B$ values of marine biogenic carbonates is the knowledge of $\delta^{11}B$ composition of seawater ($\delta^{11}B_{sw}$). Boron in seawater is homogenous with a residence time of approximately 11 to 20 Ma, and thus

the $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ needs to be constrained for the PTB. The $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ composition of the modern ocean is 39.6 ‰, but was proposed to have been lower in the past $(\sim 37 \% 60 \text{ Ma ago})^{63}$. Permian δ¹¹B_{sw} values were previously calculated by modelling of the boron geochemical cycle suggesting δ^{11} B_{sw} of ~38 % for the Early Permian (Late Sakmarian) and $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ of ~34% for the latest Permian, just prior to the PTB⁶⁵. To provide a further constrain on the $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$, but not obviating previous estimates, we considered a range of values that effectively envelopes the possible $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$, yet allows for the full expression of the proxy. Assuming that boron is incorporated into brachiopod calcite following the inorganic borate ion fractionation⁶⁵ with negligible vital effects, the maximum integer $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ that enables the calculation of pH from all our brachiopod $\delta^{11}B$ values within the dynamic range of the proxy is 38 ‰, with values ≥39 ‰ being beyond the sensitivity of the proxy at the lower pH spectrum. On the other hand, applying a brachiopod calibration that accounts for biological influence on the incorporation of boron⁶⁶, the highest feasible integer $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ is 35 % (similarly, values \geq 36 % are beyond the proxy range at the lower pH spectrum). A lower-end limit on the δ^{11} B_{sw} can be placed by tying our average pre-event brachiopod $\delta^{11}B$ (14 ± 0.5 ‰, 2SD, n = 7; based on the mean composition of brachiopods from beds wPK5 top, wPK6A, and wPK6A base; note that the specimens from beds PK4 are not included due less reliable constrains on their age; see also Supplement S1) to a probable pre-event pH conditions and inversely derive the δ¹¹B_{sw}. Considering that modern ocean mean pH is 8.1, and Late Permian was a high pCO₂ world, but the ocean did not contain a carbonate buffer due to the lack of pelagic carbonate producers, it is reasonable to assume that pre-event pH must have been lower than today. Assuming a mean pre-event pH of ~7.8, based on model-derived constraints of Late Permian pH for a 'Neritan' ocean⁶⁷, the $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ of ~38 % and ~35 % via borate ion fractionation and brachiopod calibration, respectively, may be calculated (in this case higher pre-event pH values would result in lower $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ estimates). The choice of the pre-event pH value, and hence $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$, can be further supported by additional runs of our geochemical box model when forced not to violate constrains given by LIP degassing and the global δ^{13} C record (see Supplement S4).

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In addition to the $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$, the application of an appropriate archive-specific $\delta^{11}B$ calibration is required in order to calculate pH from δ^{11} B values. Typically, more recent reconstructions spanning the Neogene employ extant archives (e.g. foraminifera or corals) for which a pH-dependent δ^{11} B calibration can be made using culture or field studies in order to assess the role of vital effects due to their internal biological processes. This is, however, not possible for any Palaeozoic brachiopods which are extinct and thus such assessments must be made indirectly. Similar to the calculation of $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$, in order to account for different influences on the incorporation of boron into brachiopod shells we consider two different calibrations; the inorganic $\delta^{11}B$ -to-pH relationship of aqueous borate ion⁶⁵ and a brachiopod calibration bracketing their vital effects⁶⁶. Because vital effects, as in other calcifiers, are also undoubtedly inherent to brachiopods, we chose the pH reconstruction based on brachiopod calibration⁶⁶ as our preferred scenario ('standard case scenario'). However, for comparison we also provide a second detailed scenario based on pH values calculated using the borate ion relationship ('borate ion scenario'; Extended Data Fig. 3; and detailed in Supplement S4).

Two further calibrations can be found in the literature; a calibration based on modern terebratellids⁶⁸ and a calibration based on cultured *Magellania venosa*⁵². The first one⁶⁸ results in pH estimates rather similar to that of the brachiopod calibration of ref. 66. In

comparison, the M. venosa calibration⁵² results being highly sensitive within the defined $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ envelope, with only minor $\delta^{11}B$ variations resulting in extreme pH change, which are in most instances beyond the dynamic proxy range. A pH reconstruction is, nonetheless, feasible using the M. venosa calibration⁵² if $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ <30 %. Such low $\delta^{11}B_{sw}$ values, however, at present appear rather unlikely for the PTB. Hence, while the M. venosa calibration appears to be applicable to other recent coldwater species as well, we suspect that it is not suited for Palaeozoic brachiopods. Moreover, many modern terebratellids, and specifically M. venosa, thrive in highly dynamic cold-water regimes characteristic of large seasonal variations and as a result likely exhibit stronger vital effects than ancient warm-water dwelling species.

Species-specific vital effects may further complicate the use of one general calibration 68 . To overcome this, and because the use of multiple brachiopod species appears inevitable for providing a PTB record of sufficient temporal resolution, we considered the following measures. First, we strictly limited the number of species used in our record, but in particular brachiopod classes since brachiopods vary mostly at a higher taxonomic level 69 . Second, because vital effects are closely linked to organism's niche, we examined the habitat and morphology parallels between the species used. Finally, we devised the record taking into account stratigraphic overlap between the different species during the pre-event as well as the event conditions, giving us confidence that the final reconstruction is not significantly affected by species-specific offsets. Indeed, the overall δ^{11} B trend of our full record holds when solely based on one brachiopod group (Rhynchonellata) from one site (Dolomites, N. Italy; Extended Data Fig. 2).

The Late Permian record prior to the CIE is almost exclusively based on *Comelicania* sp., but also includes two specimens of *Janiceps* sp. (both Rhynchonellata), which show a close agreement, not larger than typical intraspecific variations among different *Comelicania* sp. shells. Just after the CIE, the record still includes several *Comelicania* sp., but also few other species belonging to both Rhynchonellata and Strophomenata. Note that bed wPK11B (app. 7 ka relative to the CIE) comprises *Janiceps* sp. and *Comelicothyris* sp. (both Rhynchonellata) as well as *Ombonia* sp. (Strophomenata) specimens, which show highly similar δ^{11} B values (13.18 \pm 0.48, SD between specimens, n = 6), further supporting the fact that interspecific variations, even at a class level, are minimal and do not significantly impact our δ^{11} B values. The latest part of our record documenting acidification, despite the scarcity of brachiopods in these beds, is based on both brachiopod classes with multiple specimens of *Orbicoelia* sp. (Rhynchonellata) and *Teserina* sp. (Strophomenata) from northern Italy, as well as *Paracrurithyris* sp. (Rhynchonellata) from South China, offering firm evidence for the pH trends presented in this study.

The effect of the dissociation constant for boric acid (pK_B*) on the calculated pH is comparatively only very minor. For our pH calculation we used pK_B* = 8.60, corresponding to the typical pre-event temperatures of about 25 °C and salinity of 35, based on our data as well as conodont-derived pre-event temperatures^{6,30} and considering that the general Late Permian salinity^{31,70} and major ion chemistry and mineralogy⁷⁰ was largely similar to present day conditions. We note that a temperature increase by 5 or 10 °C for example, would give a pK_B* of 8.54 or 8.48, which would translate to a decrease in pH values by 0.06 and 0.12 units, respectively. This would only magnify the reported pH decline simultaneous with the major phase of warming,

although at such low pH range the pK_B^* influences on pH values would be largely within the uncertainties.

Model setup

A geochemical box model was set up to simulate the processes in the global ocean based on a recent ocean circulation model⁸ for the PTB (see Supplement S4 for a detailed description of the model). Basin volumes, seafloor areas, and the water fluxes between the boxes employed in the model are taken from the circulation model (Extended Data Fig. 5). The recently developed redox-resolving biogeochemistry model REDBIO²⁵ was coupled to the box model to simulate the biogeochemical turnover in the ocean. REDBIO considers the following dissolved tracers: oxygen, nitrate, ammonium, phosphate, ferric iron, ferrous iron, total dissolved sulphide, dissolved inorganic carbon (12C and 13C) and total alkalinity. All tracer inventories change over time due to weathering inputs from land, CO2 and O2 fluxes across the ocean-atmosphere interface, nitrogen fixation, denitrification and redox-dependent fluxes at the seabed. Continental weathering and degassing fluxes, surface temperatures and atmospheric pCO₂ were simulated using the GEOCARB process formulations^{72,73}, whereas marine δ^{13} C values were calculated as described in a previous box model⁷⁴. REDBIO was further extended to simulate the turnover of stable nitrogen isotopes in the ocean, considering total concentrations of dissolved nitrate and ammonium as well as the concentrations of ¹⁵N-nitrate and ¹⁵N-ammonium.

The model was run for a period of 2 Ma to reach a Late Permian equilibrium. Subsequently, a pulse of volcanic/metamorphic CO_2 was released to study the consequences of LIP degassing. The boundary parameters including the equilibrium climate sensitivity of 3 °C per doubling of pCO₂ were chosen based on the GEOCARB⁷⁵ models. Model results are shown on a timescale where the zero point is set at the onset of the negative carbon isotope excursion (CIE). The CO_2 flux induced by LIP degassing and its isotopic composition were varied systematically until the $\delta^{13}C$ of carbonates deposited on the continental shelf of the Tethys (see Supplement S4 for data sources) and the pH values in Tethys surface water were consistent with the available data (Fig. 2). Comparison of our model-derived atmospheric pCO₂ with previously published estimates⁵ based on stomatal indices is available in Supplement (S5). Throughout the manuscript we use the terminology Tethys Ocean, which combines both Neotethys and Palaeotethys Oceans, since they are represented by a common box in the model.

Supplementary Information is available accompanying this contribution with further details on the stratigraphy and age model (S1), brachiopod samples (S2), analytical methods (S3), modelling (S4), and a comparison with stomatal pCO₂ estimates (S5).

756757 Data availability

We have chosen not to deposit the data in a repository at this time but all geochemical data analysed during this study are accessible in the **Supplementary Data** file.

Code availability

Computer code is available upon reasonable request from K.W. (kwallmann@geomar.de).

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