

A molybdenum-isotope perspective on Phanerozoic de-oxygenation events

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The expansion and contraction of sulphidic depositional conditions in the oceans can be tracked with the isotopic composition of molybdenum in marine sediments. However, molybdenum isotope data are often subject to multiple, conflicting interpretations. Here I present a compilation of molybdenum isotope data from three time intervals: the Toarcian Oceanic Anoxic Event about 183 million years ago, Oceanic Anoxic Event 2 about 94 million years ago, and two early Eocene hyperthermal events from 56 to 54 million years ago. A comparison of data from sites located in different hydrographic settings tightly constrains the molybdenum cycle for these intervals, allowing a direct comparison of the expanse of sulphidic conditions in each interval compared to today. Nonetheless, tracing rates of redox change over such rapid climatic events using molybdenum-isotopes remains challenging. Future efforts to achieve this goal might be accomplished by analysing specific mineral phases, using complementary redox-sensitive geochemical techniques, and by linking isotopic observations with Earth System modelling. Such improvements will make it possible to more fully assess the links between ocean deoxygenation, climatic and oceanographic changes, and biotic turnover.

Episodes of environmental change in Earth's history are often associated with the extinction, adaptation and turnover of marine fauna and flora, the widespread burial of organic matter and trace metals, and disruptions to biogeochemical cycling. These features have often been attributed to the expansion and intensification of deoxygenated water masses in the world's oceans. Deoxygenation occurs when the consumption of oxygen during microbial degradation of organic matter outstrips its supply by diffusion across the air-sea interface and subsequent advection into

30 the ocean interior. Thus, changes in the composition of marine primary producers, alleviation of
31 nutrient limitation, water mass stratification, and the flooding or desiccation of continental shelves
32 and marginal marine basins during episodes of sea-level change, have all been invoked as key
33 processes controlling marine deoxygenation, and in turn, on biogeochemical and biological
34 perturbations that occurred episodically throughout geological time¹.

35 Assessing the magnitude of marine deoxygenation during geological episodes of
36 environmental perturbation is an important task, because the importance of the different processes
37 controlling oxygen distributions in the oceans may not have been constant through time.
38 Furthermore, estimating rates of oxygen change is important because these can strongly impact
39 the ability of organisms to adapt or respond to environmental stress². Unfortunately, accurate
40 reconstructions of oxygen concentrations in the past are difficult to achieve. This difficulty arises
41 partly because of the lack of proxy approaches that are able to quantitatively constrain oxygen
42 concentrations in seawater, and partly by the loss to subduction of the sedimentary record
43 deposited on oceanic crust during some of the largest climatic and biotic extinction events in the
44 Phanerozoic Aeon. Consequently, to assess the extent and magnitude of marine deoxygenation at
45 these times, isotopic methods that can record global-scale redox processes need to be employed
46 on fragments of the marine sedimentary record left preserved on the continental crust.

47 One such method, the molybdenum-isotope redox proxy, has been widely used to
48 reconstruct the distribution of oxic and euxinic (anoxia with hydrogen sulphide in seawater)
49 conditions in past oceans^{3–10}. However, disentangling the isotopic effects of local Mo-speciation in
50 sediments from global-scale changes in the Mo mass balance of the oceans can be difficult. This
51 contribution highlights how data from multiple sedimentary successions deposited in demonstrably
52 euxinic environments, but in contrasting hydrographic regimes, can be compared in order to arrive
53 at precise estimates of the Mo-isotope composition of open-ocean seawater. The first compilation
54 of Mo-isotope data for several rapid environmental change events of the Phanerozoic is presented,
55 to highlight the progress that has been made using Mo isotopes to understand the magnitude of
56 de-oxygenation during these events. The limitations of the Mo-isotope proxy are discussed,
57 especially in view of understanding rates of redox change over geologically short time-intervals,
58 and future research efforts are outlined that may be directed to circumvent these limitations.

60 *The molybdenum-isotope redox proxy*

61 At a global scale, the Mo-isotope composition of seawater (expressed as $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo} = (((98/95)_{\text{sample}} - 98/95_{\text{NIST 3134}}) / 98/95_{\text{NIST 3134}}) * 1000) + 0.25$)¹¹ is controlled by the amount and isotopic
 62 composition of input fluxes of Mo to the oceans from the weathering of upper continental crust
 63 rocks^{12–14} and low-temperature hydrothermal fluids^{14, 15}; and by the amount and isotopic
 64 composition of output fluxes of Mo into oxide-rich and sulphide-rich sedimentary deposits (Fig. 1).
 65 The input fluxes of Mo to the oceans may be altered by catchment-scale processes such as
 66 interaction with oxyhydroxides and organic matter in soils, rivers and estuaries^{13, 14, 16, 17}, and by
 67 incongruent weathering of rocks with varying concentrations and isotopic compositions of Mo in
 68 different mineral phases¹³. The output fluxes of Mo from the ocean are governed by the adsorption
 69 of Mo onto manganese and iron oxyhydroxide minerals, which are fractionated from seawater by -
 70 0.8 to -3‰^{12, 18–21}; and by the formation of Mo-sulphides in the water column and below the
 71 sediment-water interface, which are -0.9‰ to -0.5‰ lighter than seawater^{22, 23}. The exact
 72 magnitude of the difference between Mo-sulphides and seawater depends on the concentration of
 73 aqueous H_2S and the sulphur-speciation of dissolved $\text{Mo}^{24–27}$, with low aqueous H_2S
 74 concentrations yielding very light sedimentary isotope compositions^{26–28}. Today, the balance
 75 between the input and output fluxes of Mo to the oceans results in a seawater residence time of
 76 ~440 ka²⁹ and a homogenous isotopic composition of 2.34 ‰^{11, 30}. This composition reflects
 77 approximately equal removal fluxes of Mo into sulphide-rich and oxide-rich sediments, due to the
 78 higher efficiency of Mo removal into sulphidic environments, which cover <0.5 % of the present-day
 79 global seafloor^{23, 31}. If the balance of the input and redox-dependent output fluxes change, the Mo-
 80 isotope composition of global seawater will change, with a decrease to lighter values signifying a
 81 proportional increase in the removal flux of Mo into sedimentary sulphides.

83 The seawater Mo-isotope composition of past oceans can be traced in marine basins
 84 where deep-water renewal rates are low, where a stable chemocline is located within the water
 85 column, where the remineralisation of organic matter enables aqueous H_2S concentrations to
 86 increase, and where there is a supply of reactive iron³². In these circumstances, the removal flux of
 87 Mo into sediments can be efficient due to the conversion of molybdate to tetrathiomolybdate²⁴.

88 Tetrathiomolybdate (or polysulphide molybdenum species³³) can be rapidly scavenged by organic
89 matter³⁴, pyrite³⁴, or Mo-Fe-S colloids³². The removal of >90 % of dissolved Mo into accumulating
90 sediments (e.g. in the Black Sea^{27, 35}) can cause the basin seawater to evolve to a heavier isotopic
91 composition. Sediments accumulating from the seawater in these settings can ultimately evolve to
92 isotope compositions that are close to that of dissolved Mo in the global ocean (Fig. 1). This
93 behaviour is referred to as 'quantitative drawdown'.

94 Identifying quantitative drawdown of Mo in the palaeo-record is difficult. Verifying the
95 presence of palaeo-euxinia is an important first step³⁶, using methods including iron-speciation^{8, 9,}
96 ^{31, 36}, biomarkers for H₂S in the water column^{6, 37} and trace-metal distributions³⁻⁸. Euxinia limits the
97 potential for the mixing of isotopically light Mo into sediments, and increases the likelihood that
98 H₂S_{aq} concentrations were high enough to allow the conversion of Mo into tetrathiomolybdate.
99 However, quantitative removal of Mo may be inhibited in euxinic basins due to extremely high or
100 extremely low concentrations of aqueous H₂S, very high seawater pH, or where Mo renewal rates
101 through exchange with open-ocean seawater are high^{32, 35}. In these settings, sedimentary Mo-
102 isotope compositions are typically ~0.7 ‰ lower than that of global seawater^{3, 4, 22, 31}, with much
103 lower values in situations with very low H₂S concentrations²⁶ (Fig. 1). The Mo-isotope composition
104 of sediments deposited in euxinic conditions is therefore often considered as a minimum constraint
105 on the composition of coeval seawater^{9, 31, 37, 38}. Over ~10⁷⁻⁹ year intervals of Earth history, this
106 problem does not inhibit the use of Mo isotopes to discern first-order shifts in global ocean redox^{3, 9,}
107 ³⁸. However, for the shorter, potentially smaller magnitude shifts in redox hypothesized for
108 Phanerozoic events¹, such imprecision in detecting the seawater Mo-isotope composition
109 complicates interpretations of redox change.

110

111 *Constraining seawater Mo-isotope compositions with multi-site data compilations*

112 The problem of identifying quantitative Mo drawdown in the geological past can be tackled
113 empirically. In the absence of oxyhydroxide-associated molybdenum phases, time-equivalent
114 successions of marine sediments deposited in euxinic conditions should exhibit Mo-isotope
115 compositions approximately spanning the ~0.7 ‰ range that exists between modern euxinic
116 settings experiencing quantitative and non-quantitative removal of Mo from seawater (Fig. 2). If this

117 isotopic range can be identified in time-equivalent black-shale deposits that accumulated
118 underneath euxinic water columns, the global seawater isotope composition can be estimated from
119 the upper end of the measured range of values. This assumption would hold regardless of the
120 removal mechanism invoked to explain the high proportion of Mo removal from the water column in
121 restricted marine basins^{24, 25, 32–34}.

122 This approach can be demonstrated for three time intervals from the early Cenozoic and
123 Mesozoic eras: the early Eocene, encompassing the Paleocene–Eocene Thermal Maximum
124 (PETM, ~55.9 Ma) and Eocene Thermal Maximum 2 (ETM-2, ~54 Ma); the mid-Cretaceous,
125 encompassing Oceanic Anoxic Event 2 (OAE-2, ~94 Ma); and the early Jurassic, encompassing
126 the Toarcian Oceanic Anoxic Event (T-OAE, ~183 Ma). Each of these intervals is associated with
127 perturbations to the global carbon cycle, climatic disruption, and enhanced organic matter burial¹.
128 Organic-rich mudrock successions have been identified for each interval where depositional
129 euxinia has been independently demonstrated, and where molybdenum isotopes have been
130 measured^{5–8, 31, 40–43}. The datasets can be categorized for their hydrographic situation using
131 elemental co-variation plots such as Mo/total organic carbon and $\text{Mo}_{\text{EF}}/\text{U}_{\text{EF}}$ (where ‘EF’ denotes the
132 elemental enrichment above typical upper continental crust concentrations), which reflect the Mo
133 inventory and the degree of hydrographic restriction in euxinic ocean basins^{35, 44}. The modern
134 Black Sea, where quantitative drawdown occurs, is characterized by low Mo/TOC ratios and a
135 shallow gradient of $\text{Mo}_{\text{EF}}/\text{U}_{\text{EF}}$ ^{35, 44}. Additionally, a host of additional observations, such as
136 sedimentary structures and the occurrence of sea-floor dwelling fauna, can provide evidence for
137 the hydrographic situation of a marine basin^{6–8, 37}.

138 When categorized by hydrographic state, the comparison of Mo-isotope data for euxinic
139 settings in each episode of geological time in Fig. 2 clearly exhibits the same ~0.7 ‰ range
140 between ‘restricted’ and ‘unrestricted’ settings as seen for the modern data. This range can also be
141 observed as oscillations in $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$ over short stratigraphic intervals at the same site, where
142 associated elemental indices demonstrate repeated shifts between ‘quantitative drawdown’ and
143 ‘non-quantitative’ drawdown of Mo, along with the sustained presence of euxinic depositional
144 conditions^{5, 7, 42}. The heaviest value for each event can be taken to approximate the Mo-isotope
145 composition of global seawater, especially when the lower range of the oscillations is

146 independently pinned with data from a separate euxinic location experiencing non-quantitative
147 drawdown.

148

149 *Estimating the magnitude of past marine euxinia*

150 The compilations in Fig. 2 show that the seawater Mo-isotope compositions during the early
151 Eocene, mid-Cretaceous, and the Early Jurassic were unambiguously lower than at the present
152 day. Furthermore, the range of values for demonstrably euxinic sedimentary successions
153 highlights the danger of taking evidence for palaeo-euxinia as *de-facto* reasoning to infer
154 quantitative drawdown of Mo in the sedimentary record, especially in the absence of additional
155 constraints on basin configuration and palaeogeography^{9, 31, 37, 38}.

156 Assuming minimal change in the input flux of Mo to the oceans over long (10^7 year)
157 timescales (Fig. 3), the estimates of the seawater Mo-isotope composition for the events in Fig. 2
158 require the removal flux of molybdenum into sulphidic sediments to have been higher at these
159 times compared to the present. Quantifying the extent of seafloor euxinia from these data can be
160 achieved by scaling the present day Mo-sulphide removal flux to the equivalent area of seafloor
161 receiving this flux (~0.1–0.5 %), and applying this scaling factor to the Mo-sulphide removal fluxes
162 estimated from the isotopic data^{45, 46}. This exercise is subject to considerable uncertainties.
163 Complexities include the incorporation of Mo sulphides into sediments accumulating in zones of
164 sulphate reduction within the sedimentary column, but where aqueous H₂S is not present in the
165 overlying water column; and the fact that the scaling function exhibits non-linearity both due to the
166 progressive depletion of the oceanic dissolved Mo inventory during periods of expanded marine
167 euxinia, and due to the development of low-oxygen conditions mainly on oceanic shelves and
168 marginal basins⁴⁶. Nonetheless, such calculations provide crude limits on the extent of seafloor
169 euxinia during the two Mesozoic intervals of ~2–10 %, a range that is in agreement with estimates
170 from sulphur-isotope data⁴⁷. The extent of euxinia estimated from the Mo-isotope data imply that
171 substantial areas of the ocean remained non-euxinic during the two Mesozoic intervals. Non-
172 euxinic areas may have been fully oxygenated; or characterized by low-oxygen, but non-euxinic
173 conditions. The latter situation may have prevailed over large parts of the global seafloor during
174 OAE-2⁴⁸.

175 The compilation (Fig. 2) also shows that the Mo-isotope composition of euxinic rocks
176 deposited in restricted and non-restricted settings during the Jurassic and Cretaceous intervals
177 were strikingly similar. This similarity may point to near-identical redox conditions in the global
178 oceans. Alternatively, the input flux of Mo to the oceans may have been different during each
179 event. At the present day, the flux-weighted average Mo-isotope composition of rivers is higher
180 than that of upper continental crust rocks (~ 0.7 ‰ versus ~ 0.3 ‰^{3, 16}), a difference which is likely to
181 be due to trapping of the lighter Mo isotopes during their transit through river catchments. If the
182 gross weathering regime was more congruent during either the early Jurassic or the mid-
183 Cretaceous, it might have been possible for the flux-weighted riverine input of Mo to have had an
184 isotopic composition that was somewhat closer to that of upper continental crust rocks. Such a
185 difference would allow the inferred seawater Mo-isotope composition to reflect $\sim 15\%$ less burial of
186 Mo in sulphidic sediments globally than for a situation where the riverine input was isotopically
187 closer the present-day average of ~ 0.7 ‰¹⁶ (Fig. 3).

188

189 *Estimating rates of change of past marine euxinia*

190 Despite the ability of multi-site Mo-isotope compilations to advance our understanding of the
191 magnitude of marine deoxygenation, it is still difficult to use Mo isotopes to estimate rates of redox
192 change at a resolution $< 10^{6-7}$ years. This difficulty mainly arises because organic-rich sedimentary
193 archives are discontinuous in the geological record, making it difficult to splice together data from
194 multiple deposits (and also ideally from temporally equivalent successions).

195 Limitation on the temporal resolution of redox reconstructions obtainable from Mo isotopes
196 is a particular problem for investigating episodes of rapid environmental change where redox
197 conditions in the ocean may evolve over short timescales of $< 10^{3-4}$ years. For OAE-2, the global
198 seawater Mo inventory is likely to have experienced a ≤ 10 fold decrease⁴⁹. This decrease is likely
199 to have impacted the global seawater Mo-isotope composition, but current reconstructions only
200 allow for a snapshot of global redox from organic-rich sediments deposited at the peak of the
201 event^{7, 8, 40}.

202 Finding new ways for Mo isotopes to estimate rates of ocean de-oxygenation is an
203 important challenge. One approach is to investigate the use of alternative sedimentary phases as

204 carriers of the seawater Mo-isotope composition. Early investigations of carbonates are
205 promising¹⁰, but the fractionation of Mo from seawater into carbonates needs to be determined
206 experimentally, and the possible roles of biology and diagenesis in altering this signal need to be
207 better understood^{10, 50}. Furthermore, since Mo abundances are extremely low in carbonates, but
208 comparatively high in detrital phases, effective leaching techniques need to be established to
209 extract isotopic signals from the bulk carbonates that typify the ancient geological record. The Mo-
210 isotope composition of Fe-Mn crusts may also provide a route towards reconstructing secular shifts
211 in the global seawater composition¹². However, this approach is hindered by the difficulty of
212 generating accurate age-models for such sedimentary deposits. Additionally, there are a range of
213 fractionation factors for Mo adsorption onto different Mn and Fe minerals^{18–21}. Unless the precise
214 mineralogy of the measured crust can be established, correcting their Mo-isotope compositions to
215 the coeval seawater value is inherently uncertain. Fe-Mn crusts also typically accumulate very
216 slowly, limiting their ability to record rapid environmental change events.

217 Another key limitation with using the Mo-isotope proxy to track rates of change of marine
218 de-oxygenation is the insensitivity of Mo to subtle (but biologically important) changes in
219 oxygenation that may occur prior to sulphate reduction, or in oxygen minimum zones located within
220 the water column with limited geochemical interaction with the seafloor. At the other extreme, in
221 situations where the rapid removal of Mo from seawater is facilitated by the spread of marine
222 euxinia, the seawater Mo inventory can be depleted until its isotope composition effectively equals
223 that of the flux-weighted inputs^{12, 16}. Since the removal rate of Mo into sulphidic deposits can be
224 very fast, this behaviour places an upper limit on the ability of Mo-isotopes to record expansions of
225 marine euxinia greater than a few percent of the total seafloor⁴⁶. One approach for circumventing
226 these problems is to use the isotopic composition of redox-sensitive elements such as zinc,
227 vanadium, thallium and chromium. These elements have shorter oceanic residence times than Mo,
228 and may respond faster to abrupt perturbations to their elemental cycles. Furthermore, their
229 isotopic behaviour is governed by reactions that take place at differing redox potentials, thereby
230 allowing a richer insight into the progression of marine de-oxygenation at a global scale during past
231 climatic events^{9, 28}.

232

233 *Data-model comparisons and outlook*

234 Earth-system modelling might further advance our understanding of molybdenum cycling in two
235 key respects. Firstly, the complexity of the Mo-isotope cycle, with multiple input and output fluxes
236 to the oceans, can yield non-unique interpretations of palaeo-data. In this situation,
237 biogeochemical models that are able to simulate realistic changes in the Mo cycle will be extremely
238 helpful in generating more accurate reconstructions of past ocean chemistry. Secondly, Earth
239 System models constrained by isotopic data could allow an improved process-based
240 understanding of how multiple drivers (temperature, ventilation rates, etc) might have interacted to
241 produce significant de-oxygenation in the past. Such exercises require realistic model
242 parameterization, not least of the biogeochemically important redox transformations that take place
243 on shallow continental shelves and in marine embayments, which may not be well represented in
244 simplified model palaeogeographies. The coupling of isotope geochemistry and Earth System
245 modelling, while non-trivial to achieve, may improve our understanding of the palaeo Mo cycle; the
246 rate, magnitude and spatial extent of past ocean redox changes; and our understanding of how
247 temperature, organic-matter productivity, and ocean circulation interacted to control oxygen
248 distributions in the past.

249 For all its complexities, the Mo-isotope composition of organic-rich marine sediments is one
250 of only a few proxies available to reconstruct the extent of marine euxinia in ancient oceans. It thus
251 holds a critical role in testing hypotheses linking biotic change, climate and ocean chemistry. The
252 multi-site compilations presented here demonstrate how precise reconstructions of the Mo cycle
253 can be obtained for past intervals of Phanerozoic environmental change. These reconstructions of
254 expanded euxinia show that ocean de-oxygenation is linked with warmer climate conditions, and
255 also with extinction events in the marine realm. These events signpost the likely trajectory of ocean
256 de-oxygenation under a rapidly warming climate system.

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438

439 **Figure captions**

440 **Figure 1:** Molybdenum-isotope fluxes in the modern marine environment. Mo-isotope
441 compositions of sediments and waters are from refs 4,12–18, 22, 23, 26, 27, and 30. Mo_{aq} and
442 H₂S_{aq} concentrations are schematic. All Mo-isotope values are relative to NIST 3134 + 0.25 ‰¹¹.

443

444 **Figure 2:** Compilation of sediment Mo-isotope data. Modern data are from refs 4, 12, 18, 22, 23
445 and 26. Early Eocene data are from refs 6, 31 and 41. OAE-2 data are from refs 7, 8, 40 and 43. T-
446 OAE data are from refs 5 and 42. The present-day riverine input is from ref. 16. Data for each
447 interval were selected only from stratigraphically coeval intervals, as detailed in the supplementary
448 information. A lower Mo-isotope composition of global seawater reflects more extensive removal of
449 Mo into sulphidic sediments. All Mo-isotope values are relative to NIST 3134 + 0.25 ‰¹¹.

450

451 **Figure 3:** Simplified mass-balance model of the fractional removal of molybdenum into sulphidic
452 and oxic marine sediments as a function of the isotopic composition of seawater and riverine
453 inputs. The model assumes that the amount and composition of input and output fluxes of Mo are
454 balanced ('steady state'). The modern flux-weighted average riverine composition of 0.7 ‰¹⁶ is
455 highlighted in bold. The estimated Mo-isotope compositions of seawater for the modern ocean,
456 PETM, OAE-2 and T-OAE are highlighted by dashed lines, with coloured shaded denoting a ±0.1
457 ‰ uncertainty.

458

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