1	Limited long-term cooling effects of flood basalt
2	emplacements
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18 Abstract

19 The emplacement of large igneous provinces (LIPs) is known to have been a driver of climate change 20 in Earth's past, particularly during the breakup of Pangaea. However, the balance between climate 21 warming through CO₂ emission and climate cooling through increased weathering is poorly understood. 22 To better understand the role of LIP emplacement on long-term climate change, we utilize a coupled 23 climate-biogeochemical model which considers the holistic impact of LIPs through both degassing of 24 CO₂ and enhancement of local continental weathering rates. Of the 7 LIPs during the breakup phase of 25 Pangea (approximately between 300 and 150 Ma), only the Central Atlantic Magmatic Province 26 (CAMP) drives long-term cooling in our model, and this is a minor effect despite emplacement of a 27 very large surface area in the humid tropics. Similarly, only the CAMP imparts a clear stepwise change 28 in the long-term strontium isotope record whereas the other LIPs of this period do not. Due to relatively 29 small areal extents, and emplacement often outside the tropical weathering zone, we conclude that most 30 LIPs have no significant global cooling effect on multimillion year timescales.

31 Significance Statement

32 Large igneous provinces (LIPs), episodes of sustained and voluminous volcanic activity, are thought to drive global climatic change. However, the balance between the warming (via CO₂ emission) and 33 34 cooling (via enhanced weathering) impacts of LIPs is poorly understood. Here we use a modelling 35 approach which considers both warming and cooling as a result of LIP emplacement for the period 300 -150 million years ago (during the breakup of the supercontinent Pangea). We show that only the 36 37 Central Atlantic Magmatic Province leads to cooling in our model, with no significant temperature 38 reduction for any other LIPs. This implies that LIPs and basaltic material do not driver of global cooling 39 on multimillion year timescales via enhanced weathering.

40 Main Text

41 The emplacement of large igneous provinces (LIPs), systems of voluminous mafic magmatism (more 42 than 10^6 km³ volcanic material), related to processes other than seafloor spreading has occurred 43 regularly through Earth's history (1-3). The release of enormous quantities of greenhouse gases, and 44 the emplacement of considerable volcanic terranes associated with LIPs are known to impact many global biogeochemical cycles (2, 4, 5). As a result, linkages between LIP emplacement and large-scale 45 46 changes in the Earth system, and especially environmental and climatic shifts, are often made (2, 6, 7), 47 convincingly linking LIP emplacement to a number of mass extinctions (1, 2, 8–10). In addition to their 48 potential importance in geologically rapid perturbations of the Earth system such as those observed 49 during mass extinctions, LIPs may be important for setting the climate state of Earth over longer time 50 periods (11), potentially as drivers of long-term cooling (11, 12).

51 The period between 300 and 150 million years ago (Ma), when the supercontinent Pangaea began to 52 rift and break apart, initiated many of the Earth system and evolutionary upheavals that led to the planet's current configuration. During this time some of the largest LIPs in Earth history were emplaced, 53 54 sometimes coinciding with mass extinctions. These include the Siberian Traps (252 Ma), which is the 55 largest continental LIP by volume, and widely thought to be the driver of the End-Permian Mass Extinction(13–16). Later in the Mesozoic, the Central Atlantic Magmatic Province (CAMP; 201 Ma), 56 57 the largest continental LIP by area, has been linked to the end-Triassic extinction(17–19). Further, the 58 Karoo and Ferrar LIPs (183 Ma) have been implicated in the end-Pliensbachian extinction, and Toarcian 59 anoxic event(20-22) respectively.

60 It is generally assumed that the primary kill mechanism of LIPs is carbon-rich volatile release (especially CO, CO₂ and CH₄) enhancing the greenhouse effect and resulting in catastrophic global 61 warming(2, 8, 9, 23). This is especially true for rare examples of LIPs that were emplaced into organic 62 carbon-rich sediment, such as the Siberian Traps (16, 24). However, research has also shown how large 63 64 volcanic episodes can lead to long-term global cooling (12, 17, 25). This cooling can occur via the supply of mantle- or crustal-derived nutrients to the oceans leading to enhanced carbon sequestration 65 66 via the biological pump (25, 26), and through an enhanced silicate weathering cycle fueled by highly 67 weatherable volcanic rocks (4, 17, 27). Consequently, the holistic impact of LIP emplacement on 68 climate is uncertain, and very few modelling studies consider concurrently the likely cooling and warming impact of LIPs together (11, 27), with no studies we know of prior to the Deccan Traps (66
Ma). As such, the exact balance between cooling and warming is unclear (28).

71 To determine if Mesozoic LIPs could have led to cooling on multimillion year timescales, and to 72 investigate the cumulative impact of numerous LIP emplacements, we use a long-term climate-73 biogeochemical model (SCION (27, 29)) integrated with the record of LIP emplacement between 300 74 and 150 Ma (30). As well as incorporating volumes of degassed CO₂ during emplacement, these LIPs 75 are added to the 2D model land surface grid as basaltic terranes and interact with local temperature, 76 relief and hydrology to amplify silicate weathering rates (Fig. 1). Our approach therefore allows us to 77 simultaneously consider the warming and cooling potential of each individual LIP on the Earth system 78 over long timescales through this period of climatic and evolutionary upheaval to present a holistic view 79 of LIP emplacement.

80 Results and Discussion

81 The role of LIPs in cooling the Mesozoic Earth system

The inclusion of LIPs in the *SCION* model clearly alters the model reconstruction of climate between 300–150 Ma (Figs. 2, 3). By calculating a total carbon balance between the input of carbon from a LIP minus the removal of carbon via LIP weathering (see Methods), we can disentangle the overall impact of individual LIPs on the Earth system on multimillion year timescales.

Our model results identify that on multimillion year timescales, LIP weathering is the dominant driver of LIP-related carbon cycling perturbations, with the majority of the studied time frame characterised by LIP-induced carbon drawdown (Fig. 2). This makes sense as LIPs become a permanent feature of the weathering environment, whereas CO₂ release is short-lived. The suggestion that LIPs may lead to global cooling has been made previously (11, 12, 31, 32), but it has been so far challenging to quantify the exact balance between LIP carbon emission and removal (28).

92 At 300 Ma LIPs are a net CO_2 sink in the model, reflecting the weathering of previously-established

93 terranes. Following the Siberian Traps (252 Ma) emplacement is slight enhancement of net LIP-related

94 CO₂ drawdown in the model (Fig. 2), reflecting the weathering of Siberian Trap material (33), but the 95 location of this LIP in the high latitudes means the silicate weathering feedback is much weaker than if 96 it were emplaced in the tropics (32). The signature of this weathering is also noticeable in the seawater 97 87 Sr/ 86 Sr, which in the weathering-only scenario, declines slightly in the period following the 98 emplacement of the Siberian Traps (Fig. 4). From 220 Ma onwards, global cooling, driven by *p*CO₂ 99 reduction in the period 220–200 Ma is reconstructed by SCION, but was a feature of the original model 90 so is not related to LIP activity.

101 The CAMP, emplaced from 200 Ma onwards in the model, leads to the highest LIP-related carbon 102 burial values in the Mesozoic (Fig. 2). The location of the CAMP across the equatorial region (Figs 1, 103 2) and adjacent to an incipient ocean basin, means it is subjected to the most intense chemical 104 weathering regime (29). The impact of this weathering is most clearly seen in the model seawater 105 87 Sr/ 86 Sr record, which diverges considerably from the baseline SCION run and is much closer to proxy 106 reconstructions (Fig. 4). Intense weathering leads to effective CO₂ drawdown through silicate 107 weathering and carbonate deposition, and also through nutrient delivery to oceans coupled with a strong 108 biological pump, resulting in high levels of organic carbon burial in the model. The action of both these 109 carbon sinks leads to slightly cooler climate between 200–180 Ma relative to baseline SCION (Fig. 4), 110 but it is noticeable that this shift is only around 1°C (Figs. 3,4), echoed by a small decrease in pCO_2 . 111 This shift may go a small way to reconciling the early Jurassic cooling, an event which has proven 112 enigmatic to explain (34, 35). However, cooling of up to 5° C, as seen in some proxy records in the early 113 Jurassic (34) is not reproduced by our model. It is possible that we underestimate the level of 114 weatherability enhancement represented by basaltic LIP emplacement, meaning we underestimate the cooling impact of LIPs. However, the good correspondence between the seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr record and 115 116 our model results suggests the amount of additional unradiogenic material being input to the oceans is 117 of the correct order of magnitude (Fig. 3). A weathering enhancement value of seven-fold, as used by 118 previous studies(11, 27), therefore appears suitable, suggesting LIPs-even the massive CAMP-are 119 unable to cause considerable cooling on multimillion year timescales. From 200–150 Ma, the ongoing 120 influence of CAMP basalt weathering is evident in the modelled outputs, keeping global temperatures

121 and *p*CO₂ low despite the emplacement and degassing of two other major LIPs. These LIPs (the Karoo-

122 Ferrar and the NW Australian) have only short-term impacts on temperatures and *p*CO2 (Fig. 4).

123 One of the clearest impacts of the addition of LIPs to the SCION model is on the Sr isotope system. 124 Prior to LIP addition, the model is unable to reproduce most of the Mesozoic trends in oceanic Sr isotope composition (Fig. 4). This offset has previously been linked to the poor availability of surface 125 lithological data(29, 36), and so the inclusion of a LIPs as sources of Sr with igneous signatures more 126 127 strongly reconciles model outputs with the geological record. In particular, the long-term drop in 128 seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr after 200 Ma, after the CAMP emplacement, is well produced by our updated SCION 129 model, and is linked to enhanced basaltic weathering from the emplacement of the LIP at this time (Fig. 130 4), where this basalt has a mantle-like Sr isotope composition and therefore acts to reduce seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr. Further, the addition of Sr input from temperature-induced continental weathering also 131 132 improves the comparability of the data to the model outputs, particularly across the P-T boundary, where ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr rises markedly, a rise driven by the global warming impact of the Siberian Traps and 133 134 weathering of generally radiogenic crustal material - as the LIP was emplaced away from major 135 weathering zones.

Outside of the Siberian Traps and the CAMP, for most of the time between 300–150 Ma, there is little 136 137 evidence of LIPs driving large scale, multimillion year cooling through enhanced weathering in our 138 model, countering suggestions that LIP weathering is a long-term driver of cool climate(37, 38). Our 139 finding here agrees with work which finds no correlation between LIP area and ice sheet size(30), and 140 suggests that any correspondence between emplacement and long-term cooling may not be LIP-141 weathering related. It is possible the deposition of volcanic ash, known to drive periods of transient 142 cooling (12), may be more important than basalt emplacement as a driver of CO_2 removal (26) on long 143 time scales.

144 LIPs and warming in the Mesozoic

145 Despite our focus on the cooling impact of LIPs, to consider their holistic impact we also model carbon 146 degassing. Our model reconstructs degassing rates using the timing of LIP emplacement unless the 147 exact period of degassing is known (see Methods). As such, if degassing occurred over extremely short
148 timescales such as centuries, as proposed for the CAMP(39), our model would not capture this short149 term warming.

150 As expected, we see transient warming events during the largest LIP emplacements in our study period 151 (Figs. 2,4). At the end of the Permian and beginning of the Jurassic periods, the impact of massive, rapid carbon release from LIPs is clear (Fig. 4). Compared to other LIPs in the Mesozoic, the speed and 152 153 scale of carbon release during the emplacement of the Siberian Traps is nearly an order of magnitude 154 higher (Fig. 3). In baseline SCION runs, transient carbon cycle perturbations from LIPs are not included 155 (Fig. 3, red line), but in the new model scenario, the P–T boundary is represented by a shift to pCO₂ as 156 high as 10,000 ppm, reflective of proxy data from the period (15). This is reflected in the modelled Global Average Temperature (GAT), which rises roughly 7°C across the P–T. However, this rise is 157 158 well below what has been reconstructed using proxy data, which shows up to 15°C rise in tropical 159 temperatures (and thus persumably more at the global scale) across the P-T(40, 41). This disconnect is potentially related to the low climate sensitivity and relatively high pre-event CO₂ within SCION. Later 160 161 in the Mesozoic, we also see the warming impact of the emplacement of the Central Atlantic Magmatic 162 Province (201 Ma), with a rise of 4°C in our model (Fig. 4). This contrasts with reconstructions of above 163 5°C change (42) or up to 16°C change in some proxy data (43). For the Karoo-Ferrar (182 Ma), we see 164 a rise of 3°C. Again, this is below proxy reconstructions of between 4 - 7°C shift across this interval 165 (44, 45).

Our results for LIP warming tend to be less extreme than previous proposals. This may be because our degassing rates are controlled by the length of LIP emplacement, and so may result in underestimation of rates if pulsed degassing during the LIP occurred. By running comparative models which reduce the degassing window to 50 ka for each event, we can reconstruct changes in climate which are much closer to proxy reconstructions (Fig. 4, dashed cyan line). In this scenario, the temperature rise across the P-T is 12°C, and for the CAMP it is 8°C, much closer to previous reconstructions (Fig. 4).

172 Implications

173 Most studies linking LIPs to global climatic change have focussed on the warming impact of LIPs. 174 Conversely, other studies purport that weathering of highly reactive basaltic terranes associated with 175 LIP emplacement is a driver of global cooling (17, 37, 38, 46). However, while we reconstruct the short-176 term warming in our model, we see little evidence of most Mesozoic LIPs having a cooling impact. The 177 one exception here is the emplacement of the CAMP, which drives global cooling (>1°C) associated 178 with enhanced organic carbon and carbonate burial and pCO_2 reduction. The correspondence of our modelled seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and proxy records suggests the model weatherability parameters are 179 180 suitable and that the input of weathered material as simulated in our model is on the correct order of 181 magnitude. We conclude, therefore, that LIPs do not have a major cooling impact on the Earth's climate, 182 except when a spatially extensive LIP is emplaced in the tropics such as the CAMP. However, even 183 with extensive tropical LIP emplacement, our model suggests it is unlikely that LIPs can drive global 184 glaciations (Fig. 4), as has been suggested (46).

185 As discussed, the link between LIPs and glaciation and/or climate cooling has been made in numerous 186 previous studies, but these studies are correlative, and so testing of the feasibility of a causative link has 187 not been completed (46). Our work suggests it is unlikely the Tarim, Panjal, Emeishan or Choiyoi LIPs had any driving roles in the successive glacial periods of the early Permian (the so-called P1-P4 events 188 189 (47)), as has been suggested (25, 48). We also consider it unlikely that the Karoo-Ferrar LIP drove the 190 late Pleinsbachian cooling and the Jurassic icehouse episodes (46, 49). Indeed, it is telling that the 191 emplacement of the one LIP able to drive global cooling in our model, the CAMP, is not implicated in 192 any global cooling events (30, 46, 50).

Our findings may also have implications for other periods of Earth's history such as the Cenozoic, where weathering of basaltic material has been implicated in the cooling trend after the Eocene (51). Recent work has suggested the Afro-Arabian LIP may be a source of weatherable material in the early Oligocene (46), but our modelling suggests that the size and location of the LIP (a relatively small LIP emplaced in an arid area) mean the impact on global climate is likely to be negligible. Looking further back in time, the emplacement of the Franklin LIP has been suggested as a driver of runaway cooling and eventual Snowball Earth development around 720 Ma (52, 53). However, again our work appears
to suggest a causative link is unlikely, even if the Franklin LIP was emplaced as a high-relief terrane in
the humid, tropical Neoproterozoic (52).

As demonstrated by this study, the location of the LIP material is key to determining the importance of its weathering in global biogeochemistry. As a result, accurate plate reconstructions are vital, as the LIP placement is reliant upon them. In particular, paleolatitude is central to the determination of a LIP's location within or outside of a tropical or mid-latitude rain belt (30). Therefore, to determine exactly how LIPs drive cooling, work must be completed to improve plate reconstructions in deeper time and coupled to improved reconstruction of exact extent and location of LIPs.

208

209 Methods

210 We use the SCION (Spatial Continuous Integration) Earth Evolution model version 1.1 in this work but with a number of additions as outlined below. SCION combines a long-term biogeochemical box model 211 212 with a 3D interpolated steady state climate and a 2D continental lithology and weathering module. We 213 run the simulation forwards for the whole Phanerozoic, but only display the output of the period 300-150 Ma as we intend to focus on the impact of the largest LIPs in Earth history in detail, rather than a 214 general investigation of the entire Phanerozoic. For ease of comprehension, we focus on the outputs of 215 216 atmospheric CO₂, global average temperature, whole ocean δ^{13} C and 87 Sr. Model code is included 217 in the submission, and will be made available on Github if the manuscript is accepted.

218 Addition of Large Igneous Provinces as highly weatherable terranes

As in previous work (27), we include LIPs as weatherable terranes in the SCION GCM interpolation stacks (see Supplementary Table 1). For this work, we mapped the locations of each LIP onto the palaeogeographic land-sea masks of the SCION model (Fig. 1). We used the compilation of ref.(30), which is based on two prior compilations (2, 6). In the study of ref.(30), the authors reconstruct the original, full extent of LIPs when and where they were emplaced as a series of digital polygons. They then determine a statistical relationship using the present-day arial extent of LIPs and age (i.e. time since emplacement) and found an exponential relationship between the data. Ref.(30) calculated a LIP half-life of 29 Ma (increasing to 36 Ma if one accounts for burial of LIPs—which we do not use in our analysis) (Equations 1 and 2), allowing us to calculate a fractional area of each LIP at a time after it's emplacement (A_{decay}):

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230
$$A_{decay} = A e^{-\lambda \cdot t}$$
 (Equation 1)

231
$$\lambda = \frac{\log(2)}{T_{1/2}}$$
 (Equation 2)

232

With A being original areal content (=1); λ , the decay constant; t, time since emplacement, and; $T_{1/2}$, 233 the calculated half-life (=29 Ma). Therefore, at each GCM data-stack timeslice we rasterize the LIP 234 235 polygons from ref.(30) onto a 40•48 grid (which is the resolution of the underlying FOAM GCM in 236 SCION) at their correct location. This gives us a grid of '0s' and '1s' representing cells of either non-237 LIP or LIP respectively. We then calculate the fractional content of each LIP cell that has eroded according to Equation 1 after ref.(30) and update the relevant cell to reflect this (so after emplacement 238 239 LIP cells will be between 0 and 1). Finally, because the palaeogeographic model used in the SCION 240 model is slightly different to that used by ref.(30), some manual manipulation of the gridcells was required to ensure they were placed correctly with respect to the palaeogeography. We complete this 241 exercise for each individual LIP, so for the Mesozoic, we have 7 individual LIP maps which vary 242 through time. SCION uses a 'double keyframing' approach to calculate continental processes in 243 244 between the GCM climate simulation times. For example, at 20 Ma the model is looking at both the 30Ma and 15Ma GCM simulations and averaging between then. As most LIPs are emplaced between 245 the keyframe times, we include a 'switch-on' in the code. This checks the time of emplacement for each 246 247 LIP, and when the model has reached that point, the LIP appears as a weatherable terrane in both the

previous and next GCM paleogeography. See Supplementary Text for further information on the LIP
digitization approach.

The model considers all land other than LIPs to be a homogenous mixture (29), which is calculated to be 7 times less weatherable for silicates than LIP basalts. This estimate is based on previous research indicating the weatherability of mafic rocks to be around seven times greater than that of silicates (54), and is the same factor as used in previous work (27, 32). As we are adding large areas of weatherable material to the model, we remove the original global basalt weathering curve outlined in ref (29). As such, we assume that LIPs represent most of the total basalt emplaced through the period.

256 Addition of LIP degassing

257 As with previous work, we also consider the potential for LIP emplacement to release significant 258 quantities of CO₂ and CH₄ into the atmosphere (27). To estimate the amount of carbon emitted from 259 each LIP, we use two primary approaches. For those LIPs which are well studied and for which 260 degassing rates or total carbon emission estimates have been made (e.g. Siberian Traps; ref.(14)), we 261 take published flux values or calculate them using the timeframe of LIP emplacement and total carbon 262 release. For those LIPs which are not as well understood, we use published estimates of the volume (in 263 km³) of magma emplaced and the duration of the LIP (in kyrs) to produce an estimate of magma emplacement in km³/kyr. We then convert this value to an estimate of carbon degassing using a 264 265 conversion factor. For silicic LIPs, we use the same approach as ref.(25), which calculates an emission rate of 10^{11} g C per km³ of magma emplacement, based upon an estimate of 500 ppm CO₂ in the pre-266 eruptive magma (55). For basaltic LIPs, we assume pre-eruptive CO₂ content of 0.5 wt%, and so an 267 emission rate of 10¹² g C per km³. For modelling purposes, these values are converted to molar carbon 268 269 flux. For each LIP, the rate estimate is used to emit CO_2 into the model atmosphere. We use Gaussian 270 curves to complete this, with the midpoint of the LIP activity and the peak of carbon emissions used to construct the function (see Supplementary Table 1). We set the width of the Gaussian function to be 271 related to the period of activity known for the LIP. For example, the Siberian Traps is taken to have 272 273 degassed in 1 Myr (56), and the Karoo in 0.47 Myrs (57), see Supplementary Table 1 for all LIP details. 274 To test the impact of shorter function length on degassing rates and global climate, we also run the

model with a set of fixed Gaussian widths for all LIPs. For this exercise, we set all LIP degassing functions to 0.05 Ma (Fig. 1). For carbon isotopic mass balance, we include a new 'LIP $CO_2 \delta^{13}C$ ' estimate in the model, which we take to be -5 ‰, and is the isotopic composition of the degassed CO_2 .

278 Model scenarios

279 The aim of this work is to investigate the holistic role of LIP emplacement on the Earth system. 280 However, we also test the dependence of the model upon each individual factor associated with LIP emplacement. For this, we construct a number of model scenarios. The first, which we term 'Baseline' 281 is SCION version 1.1 without any model additions. Second is the preferred model, which we term 282 'Weathering & Degassing', which includes both the impact of weatherable LIPs and their carbon 283 284 degassing. A further model considers the system with only degassing and no enhanced weatherability 285 (LIP weatherability set to the same as homogeneous silicates), termed 'Degassing Only'. Our final model scenario considers the system with no carbon degassing, but with the enhanced weatherability of 286 LIPs included, and is termed 'Weathering Only'. For the 'Weathering & Degassing' scenario we 287 288 perform sensitivity tests, completed via the running of 1000 simulations with random variation of a 289 number of variables following previous work (27, 29). Results of the sensitivity analysis can be found in Supplementary Figure 2. 290

291 Carbon Balance Calculations

We use the mean values of the 'Weathering & Degassing' scenario to calculate an overall carbon balance. That is the total impact of LIP emplacement on carbon cycling. For this we subtract C associated with basalt weathering (*basw* in the model) from the LIP degassing rate (*LIP_CO2* in the model outputs), resulting in a value of carbon perturbation associated with LIP emplacement at each time step (Fig. 1a).

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299 Author Contributions

- 300 J.L. and B.J.W.M. conceived the research. J.L. and A.S.M. amended the SCION code for this work.
- 301 J.L. completed the modelling and made the figures. J.L. wrote the original manuscript, with input from
- 302 B.J.W.M. and A.S.M.

303 Competing Interests

304 The authors declare no competing interests.

305 Data access

306 There is no original data associated with this publication.

307 Code access

- 308 SCION model code is available at https://github.com/bjwmills/SCION. The code version used in this
- 309 manuscript is submitted alongside this manuscript and will be uploaded to Github if the manuscript is
- accepted.

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449		

451 Figures



Figure 1 | Location of Large Igneous Provinces (LIPs) considered in this study. Each panel demonstrates the location of each LIP at each time point. Ocean is coloured white whilst mustard is used to highlight the land cover on each map. Overlain are LIP locations which are coloured by their fractional cover, from blue (very low LIP cover) to red (complete LIP cover). These fractional values are used to calculate weathering fluxes for each grid square (see Methods).



459 Figure 2 | Carbon cycle forcing as a result of Large Igneous Province (LIP) emplacement. (a) The 460 percentage of terrestrial grid squares in each GCM run to contain some LIP material (blue circles) and 461 the percentage of these squares in the tropics which contain LIP material (orange circles). Plotted 462 alongside relative LIP area versus present (green) (b) Overall carbon balance as a result of LIP input

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- and removal of carbon from the Earth system (see Methods). (c) Components of the overall LIP carbon
- 464 balance, with LIP degassing in purple and carbon burial via enhanced silicate weathering in yellow.







Figure 3 | Gridded map outputs for the 'Weathering & Degassing' scenario across the period 300
- 150 Ma. In the upper panel surface air temperature is displayed, with continental runoff in the middle
panel silicate weathering fluxes in the bottom panel. In each map, intensity of the variable from each

- 470 grid square is indicated via colour bar. The location of the two largest LIPs of the Mesozoic (the Siberian
- 471 Traps and the Central Atlantic Igneous Province) are specifically highlighted.



473 Figure 4 | Comparison of model outputs for five different scenarios. The upper panel displays the
474 model-derived estimates of changing carbon isotope composition, with proxy reconstructions in grey

475 circles. Below is reconstructed oceanic Sr isotope composition (solid lines) compared to oceanic Sr 476 isotope proxy data (grey shaded area). The third panel shows reconstructed Global Average 477 Temperature (solid lines) compared to reconstruction based on proxy data (grey shaded area). The final 478 panel shows reconstructed atmospheric CO_2 levels (solid lines) compared to proxy measurements of 479 CO2 (grey circles).

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