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3 1 **State of the Science: Mesozoic climates and oceans – a tribute to Hugh**
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6 **Jenkyns and Helmut Weissert**
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10 4 Stuart A. Robinson^{1*}, Ulrich Heimhofer², Stephen P. Hesselbo³, Maria Rose
11
12 5 Petrizzo⁴
13
14 6

15
16 7 1: Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road,
17
18 8 Oxford, OX1 3AN, UK

19
20
21 9 2: Institute for Geology, Leibniz University Hannover, Callinstraße 30, 30167
22
23 10 Hannover, Germany

24
25 11 3: Camborne School of Mines, and Environment and Sustainability Institute,
26
27 12 University of Exeter, Penryn Campus, Treliever Road, Penryn, Cornwall,
28
29 13 TR10 9FE, UK

30
31
32 14 4: Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra "A. Desio", Università degli Studi di
33
34 15 Milano, via Mangiagalli 34, 20133 Milano, Italy
35
36 16

37
38
39
40
41 18 [*stuart.robinson@earth.ox.ac.uk](mailto:stuart.robinson@earth.ox.ac.uk)
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44
45 20 **Abstract**

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47 21 The study of past greenhouse climate intervals in Earth history, such as the
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49 22 Mesozoic, is an important, relevant, and dynamic area of research for many
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51 23 sedimentary geologists, geochemists, palaeontologists and climate modellers.
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53 24 The Mesozoic sedimentary record provides key insights into the mechanics of
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55 25 how the Earth system works under warmer conditions, providing examples of
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3 26 natural climate change and perturbations to ocean chemistry, including
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5 27 anoxia, that are of societal relevance for understanding and contextualizing
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7 28 ongoing and future environmental problems. Furthermore, the deposition of
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9 29 widespread organic-carbon-rich sediments (“black shales”) during the
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11 30 Mesozoic means that this is an era of considerable economic interest. In July
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13 31 2015, an international group of geoscientists attended a workshop in Ascona,
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15 32 Switzerland to discuss all aspects of the Mesozoic world and to celebrate the
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17 33 four-decade-long contributions to our understanding of this fascinating era in
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19 34 Earth history made by Hugh Jenkyns (University of Oxford) and Helmut
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21 35 Weissert (ETH Zurich). This volume of *Sedimentology* arose from that
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23 36 meeting and contains papers inspired by (and co-authored by!) Hugh and
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25 37 Helmi. Here a brief introduction to the volume is provided that reviews aspects
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27 38 of Hugh and Helmi's major achievements; contextualizes the papers of the
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29 39 Thematic Issue; and discusses some of the outstanding questions and areas
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31 40 for future research.
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42 **The research legacy of Hugh Jenkyns & Helmut Weissert**

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44 Hugh Jenkyns was awarded a PhD from the University of Leicester (UK) in
45 1970 with a thesis on the origin of the Jurassic carbonate platform and pelagic
46 basinal deposits of Western Sicily (Jenkyns, 1970a); a study that laid the
47 foundations for much of his work in the early 1970s exploring the origin of
48 condensed sequences and platform drowning, as well as broader issues of
49 Tethyan evolution (e.g. Jenkyns, 1970b, 1971; Bernoulli & Jenkyns, 1974). In
50 1974, with Ken Hsü, he edited the first volume of the IAS Special Publication
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3 51 series, on the topic of “Pelagic Sediments: on Land and under the Sea” (Hsü
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5 52 & Jenkyns, 1974) and participated in Deep Sea Drilling Project (DSDP) Leg
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7 53 33 in the central Pacific. During this leg, Lower Cretaceous organic-carbon-
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10 54 rich sediments were recovered at Site 317 on the Manihiki Plateau. These
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12 55 were described by Jenkyns (1976) as indicating “...an episode of stagnant
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14 56 deoxygenated bottom-water conditions...” and were suggested to be
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16 57 “...correlative with carbonaceous sediments drilled on DSDP Leg 11 in the
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18 58 western Atlantic...”. These observations, coupled with others drawn from
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21 59 Tethyan sections on land (Figure 1) and other DSDP legs in the Pacific and
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23 60 Atlantic, provided the evidence for Schlanger and Jenkyns (1976) to propose
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25 61 that “...certain stratigraphically restricted carbon-rich horizons are...the result
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27 62 of...widespread and thick O₂ minimum zones in the world ocean [rather] than
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29 63 the result of the structural-topographic isolation of relatively local basins”.
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32 64 Schlanger and Jenkyns (1976), referred to these stratigraphic horizons as
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34 65 representing “oceanic anoxic events” (OAEs), a concept that was to rapidly
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36 66 gain ground and set the agenda for much of Mesozoic palaeoceanographic
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38 67 research for the following decades. Since the seminal paper in 1976, Hugh
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40 68 Jenkyns has continued to be at the forefront of OAE research and, more
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42 69 broadly, Mesozoic palaeoclimatology and palaeoceanography. His major
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44 70 contributions include demonstrating the existence of an OAE in the Toarcian
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46 71 (Early Jurassic) (Jenkyns, 1985, 1988); constraining the Early Jurassic
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48 72 timescale through cyclostratigraphy (Weedon & Jenkyns, 1999); provision of
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50 73 an original interpretation for the origin of Pacific guyots (Jenkyns & Wilson,
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52 74 1999) and leading on the application of novel geochemical proxies to
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56 75 Mesozoic sediments (e.g. Jones *et al.*, 1994; Jenkyns *et al.* 2001, 2004, 2007;
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3 76 Lu *et al.*, 2010; Pogge von Strandmann *et al.*, 2013). Throughout his work, he
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5 77 has been able to draw on a wide variety of datasets and make links that
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7 78 provide deep insights into the workings of the Earth system during the
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10 79 Mesozoic, exemplified in this volume by his contribution on the variety of
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12 80 geochemical and sedimentological signatures associated with the Plenus cold
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14 81 event during OAE2 (Jenkyns *et al.*, this volume).
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18 83 Helmi Weissert completed his PhD at the ETH Zürich, Switzerland in 1979
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20 84 under supervision of Ken Hsü, with a study on the, superficially, monotonous
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22 85 Cretaceous deep-water deposits of the Maiolica limestones. By analyzing the
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24 86 stable isotopic signatures of these pelagic carbonates, he was amongst the
25
26 87 first to apply carbon-isotope variations as a new stratigraphic tool for
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28 88 correlating sedimentary strata and to investigate their biogeochemical and
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30 89 palaeoenvironmental significance (Weissert, 1979, 1989, 1990; Weissert *et*
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32 90 *al.*, 1985). During the 1970s and early 1980s, the field of Mesozoic
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34 91 palaeoceanography was just emerging, fostered by the integration of
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36 92 geological observations with the novel discoveries from ocean drilling. During
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38 93 his early career, he took part in DSDP Leg 73 to the South Atlantic Ocean
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40 94 encountering new palaeoceanographic concepts and ideas, and developing
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42 95 research on Pliocene climates and oceanography (Weissert *et al.*, 1984;
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44 96 Weissert & Oberhänsli, 1985). Although the Mesozoic remained his primary
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46 97 stratigraphic focus, his work on Neogene palaeoceanography certainly
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48 98 influenced his later work on deep-time sedimentary systems. His high-
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50 99 resolution (for the time) approach to Mesozoic carbon-isotope stratigraphy
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52 100 was applied to Late Jurassic–Early Cretaceous sequences, and successfully
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3 101 integrated with biostratigraphic and palaeomagnetic data, to produce a
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5 102 detailed stratigraphic framework for this time interval (e.g. Weissert &
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7 103 Channell, 1989; Weissert & Lini, 1991; Lini *et al.*, 1992; Weissert & Mohr,
8
9 104 1996). In doing so, Helmi and his students identified a prominent carbon-
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11 105 isotope anomaly in the Valanginian (e.g. Weissert & Lini, 1991; Lini *et al.*,
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13 106 1992; Hennig *et al.*, 1999), occurring prior to the major OAEs of the
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15 107 Cretaceous and known today as the “Weissert” event (Figure 1; Erba *et al.*,
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17 108 2004). His next step was the establishment of pelagic basin-to-carbonate
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19 109 platform transects in order to trace the impact of oceanographic events
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21 110 (including OAEs) in the shallow-water domain. An important finding was the
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23 111 stratigraphic correspondence of pelagic black shale episodes with shallow-
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25 112 water carbonate platform drowning events (Weissert *et al.*, 1998; Wissler *et*
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27 113 *al.*, 2003; Burla *et al.*, 2008), effectively illustrating the complex interplay
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29 114 between greenhouse climates, oceanography, and the global carbon cycle.
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32 115 More recently, Helmi Weissert’s work focused on the role of ocean
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34 116 acidification in deep time (Mehay *et al.*, 2009; Erba *et al.*, 2010), the timing
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36 117 and consequences of Cretaceous OAEs (e.g. Giogoni *et al.*, 2012),
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38 118 perturbations of the Early Mesozoic carbon cycle (e.g. Galli *et al.*, 2005), and
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40 119 on the overall evolution of CO₂ and climate during the Mesozoic (Weissert &
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42 120 Erba, 2004; Millán *et al.* 2009). In his research, Helmi Weissert combined
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44 121 work on deep-sea drill cores with materials from on-land sections, with a
45
46 122 strong preference for the exceptional outcrops of the Swiss and Italian Alps
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48 123 that have provided ideal analogues for the study of deep-ocean sediments
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50 124 and their geochemical signatures. Besides his significant contributions to the
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52 125 field of Mesozoic chemostratigraphy and palaeoceanography, his studies
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3 126 have provided new views on global climate change and carbon-cycle
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5 127 dynamics in deep time.
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10 129 During their careers, Hugh Jenkyns and Helmi Weissert have only been co-
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12 130 authors on one paper (Erba *et al.*, 2015), yet their individual contributions and
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14 131 direct interactions have complemented and inspired each other. Carbon-
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16 132 isotope stratigraphy, in addition to providing a powerful tool for stratigraphic
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18 133 correlation, has been used to argue for the causes and consequences of
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21 134 OAEs. Each of the three most widespread OAEs (occurring in the Early
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23 135 Toarcian, Early Aptian and Late Cenomanian) has been shown to have
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25 136 occurred synchronously with fluctuations in carbon-isotope ratios of
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27 137 carbonates and organic matter, interpreted as representing perturbations to
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29 138 the ocean-atmosphere carbon reservoir (Figure 2; e.g. Scholle & Arthur, 1980;
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31 139 Jenkyns & Clayton, 1986, 1997; Weissert *et al.*, 1985, 1998; Weissert, 1989;
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33 140 Weissert, & Bréhéret, 1991; Jenkyns *et al.*, 1994; Gröcke *et al.*, 1999;
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35 141 Hesselbo *et al.*, 2000; Weissert & Erba, 2004; Jenkyns, 2010). The current
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37 142 general model for the genesis of oceanic anoxic events (Figure 3; Weissert,
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39 143 2000; reviewed in Jenkyns, 2003, 2010) invokes a source of carbon, which,
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41 144 as CO₂ in the atmosphere, caused greenhouse warming. The release of
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43 145 carbon triggering an OAE may be detectable by carbon-isotope stratigraphy
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45 146 as negative excursions, as postulated sources (including volcanism, methane
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47 147 hydrates, and thermogenic methane; Figure 3) are isotopically lighter than the
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49 148 ocean-atmosphere carbon reservoir (but note that not all OAEs, or OAE-like
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51 149 events, are associated with detectable negative excursions). Greenhouse
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53 150 warming at the onset of an OAE is hypothesized to have caused a number of
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3 151 effects that were conducive to increased rates of organic-carbon deposition,
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5 152 including elevated freshwater run-off (delivering nutrients), stratification of
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7 153 restricted basins, and enhanced wind-driven upwelling. Nutrients may also
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10 154 have been sourced from alteration of basalt (e.g. Erba & Larson, 1999),
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12 155 produced by eruption of large igneous provinces (LIPs). Increased primary
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14 156 productivity and expansion of oxygen-minimum zones led to the deposition of
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16 157 the characteristic black shales, associated with OAEs in many parts of the
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18 158 ocean (Figures 1, 2 and 3). The burial of organic carbon is recognized by
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20 159 positive excursions in carbon-isotope stratigraphy (Figure 2), which may also
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22 160 suppress the signal of isotopically light inputs (e.g. Jenkyns, 2010), which
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24 161 leads to difficulties in estimating the true fluxes of carbon into, and out of, the
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26 162 surficial carbon reservoirs. The sequestration of carbon into the sedimentary
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28 163 record ultimately is thought to have caused a reversal of greenhouse
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30 164 conditions (Figure 3), eventually terminating the OAE. Although this simple
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32 165 model (albeit with added nuances) has been applied to many events, the fit to
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34 166 each event is variable. For example, OAE2 in the Late Cenomanian conforms
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36 167 to the conceptual model well (Jenkyns, *et al.*, this volume), except for the
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38 168 absence of a definitive negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion; in contrast the Late
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40 169 Valanginian “Weissert” Event, a prominent positive carbon-isotope excursion
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42 170 (Figure 2), is not associated with a discrete period of time characterized by
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44 171 widespread black-shale deposition, leading some to speculate that organic
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46 172 carbon was deposited on land instead (e.g. Westermann *et al.*, 2010).
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50 173 Similarly OAE1a does not quite fit the model – although it is represented by
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52 174 globally distributed black shale, carbon-isotope values, after an initial negative
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54 175 excursion, become positive in the latter stages of anoxic conditions and
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3 176 continue to increase long-after black shale deposition ceased (e.g. Menegatti
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5 177 *et al.*, 1998). These, and other events, demonstrate the complexity of
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7 178 reconstructing interactions between the carbon cycle and palaeoclimate
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9 179 based on the sedimentary record and continue to provide new questions for
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11 180 science.

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16 182 **State of the science**

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18 183 Although it is now clear that during the Jurassic and Cretaceous there were
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20 184 intervals of widespread low-oxygen conditions in the ocean associated with
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22 185 major carbon-cycle perturbations, many questions remain regarding the
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24 186 context, origins, and wider significance of the OAEs, and the background
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26 187 carbon cycling and climates of the Mesozoic. A brief description and
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28 188 discussion of these issues is presented here.

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34 190 Many records of OAEs have been identified, yet there is still a need to
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36 191 identify, document and interpret new localities at outcrop and in the ocean,
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38 192 particularly in the Southern and Arctic Oceans. As can be seen in Figure 4,
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40 193 there is a considerable geographic sampling bias towards records of OAEs
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42 194 from the circum-North Atlantic and Tethyan region. New localities, both
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44 195 outside and within this region, can provide important constraints on the extent,
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46 196 and variability, of low-oxygen conditions and can help provide a more
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48 197 complete picture of palaeoceanographic and palaeoclimatic change during
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50 198 OAEs. For example, it has long been recognized that although anoxic (and
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52 199 even euxinic) conditions were widespread during the Cretaceous OAEs, such
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54 200 conditions were not ubiquitous (e.g. Jenkyns, 1980, 2010; Pancost *et al.*,

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3 201 2004; Robinson *et al.*, 2004, 2008; Takashima *et al.* 2011; Eldrett *et al.*, 2014;
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5 202 Westermann *et al.*, 2014; Zhou *et al.*, 2015) and the deposition of black
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7 203 shales was, in some cases, diachronous (e.g. Tsikos *et al.*, 2004; Petrizzo *et*
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9 204 *al.*, 2008). Consequently, the sedimentological and geochemical expression of
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11 205 individual OAEs can be quite different depending on local conditions (e.g.
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13 206 Bornemann *et al.*, this volume; Müller *et al.*, this volume).
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18 208 The OAE concept grew from cores recovered by deep-sea drilling (Schlanger
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20 209 & Jenkyns, 1976; Jenkyns, 1980), yet with much of the Mesozoic ocean floor
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22 210 now lost to subduction, there is also a need to explore orogenic regions
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24 211 associated with accretion of oceanic crust and sediments in order to provide
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26 212 evidence of palaeoceanographic conditions in these “lost” regions of the
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28 213 Mesozoic oceans. Although sediments in these terranes are often
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30 214 diagenetically altered and, in some cases, weakly metamorphosed, they can
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32 215 still provide valuable evidence for variations in the record of
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34 216 palaeoceanographic events including carbon-isotope stratigraphy that
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36 217 provides correlations to other regions (e.g. Robinson *et al.*, 2008; Ikeda and
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38 218 Hori 2014; Wohlwend *et al.*, this volume). In addition to searching for new
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40 219 records of OAEs, it is also informative to consider periods of more localized
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42 220 organic-carbon accumulation that did not occur during OAEs in order to
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44 221 assess the controls on this process under “normal” conditions during the
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46 222 Mesozoic and the role of orbital forcing (e.g. Giorgioni *et al.*, this volume; Xu
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48 223 *et al.* this volume). Furthermore, high organic-carbon burial rates and
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50 224 associated low-oxygen conditions have a significant effect on preservation
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3 225 and diagenetic processes, which can result in exceptional palaeontological
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5 226 archives (e.g. Heimhofer *et al.*, this volume).
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10 228 OAEs were first identified by their sedimentological characteristics and, later,
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12 229 their carbon-isotopic records, but can now be shown to be complex
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14 230 geochemical events that led to perturbations in the concentrations and
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16 231 isotopic ratios of many elements, reflecting changing local and global
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18 232 environmental conditions. The ongoing expansion of analytical techniques
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20 233 available to determine the concentration and isotopic ratio of metals (e.g. ICP-
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22 234 MS, MC-ICP-MS), and the increased interest in applying these methods to
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24 235 modern seawater and to sedimentary archives, has led to a revolution in
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26 236 palaeoceanography and in the study of OAEs. Key radiogenic and
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28 237 unconventional stable isotopic systems used in sedimentary archives include
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30 238 strontium ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) osmium ($^{187}\text{Os}/^{188}\text{Os}$), calcium ($\delta^{44}\text{Ca}$), lithium ($\delta^7\text{Li}$) and
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32 239 neodymium isotopes (ϵ_{Nd}). To date, many studies using these systems have
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34 240 demonstrated tight temporal coincidence between OAEs and basaltic
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36 241 volcanism, increased weathering and changes in ocean circulation patterns
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38 242 (e.g. Jones & Jenkyns, 2001; Cohen *et al.*, 2004; MacLeod *et al.*, 2008;
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40 243 Turgen & Creaser, 2008; Tajeda *et al.*, 2009; Blättler *et al.*, 2011; Pogge von
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42 244 Strandmann *et al.*, 2013; Zheng *et al.* 2013, 2016; Lechler *et al.*, 2015;
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44 245 Percival *et al.*, 2016), providing support for the conceptual models of
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46 246 feedbacks and relationships posited to be important during OAEs (Figure 3).
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48 247 However, of all the environmental changes associated with OAEs, it is the
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50 248 paucity of oxygen that had the most striking effect on the sedimentological
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52 249 record in the form of laminated black shales, often commonly interbedded with
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3 250 pelagic carbonates deposited in well-oxygenated conditions. In this aspect of
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5 251 OAE research, concentrations and isotopes of redox-sensitive elements, such
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7 252 as Cr, Fe, I, Mn, Mo, N, S, Tl, U and V, have proven particularly valuable in
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9 253 reconstructing changing redox conditions both locally and globally (e.g.
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11 254 Kuypers *et al.*, 2002; Pearce *et al.*, 2005; Jenkyns *et al.*, 2001, 2007, this
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13 255 volume; Jenkyns, 2010; Lu *et al.*, 2010; Montoya-Pino *et al.*, 2010; Gill *et al.*,
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15 256 2011; Nielsen *et al.*, 2011; Owens *et al.*, 2013, this volume; Westermann *et*
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17 257 *al.*, 2014; Zhou *et al.*, 2015; Dickson *et al.*, 2016, this volume; Gomes *et al.*,
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19 258 2016; Holmden *et al.*, 2016). Through the integration of the different
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21 259 geochemical systems discussed here, it has been possible to develop a
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23 260 detailed understanding of the temporal (and, arguably, mechanistic) links
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25 261 between changes in the physical environment, seawater chemistry and
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27 262 biogeochemical cycles during OAEs (e.g. Owens *et al.*, 2013; Pogge von
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29 263 Strandmann *et al.*, 2013; Dickson *et al.*, 2016, this volume; Jenkyns *et al.*, this
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31 264 volume).
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38 266 The Mesozoic world has long been an attractive target for climate and ocean
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40 267 modelling, due to the challenges presented by warm polar regions and
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42 268 continental interiors and oceans that were periodically dysoxic and anoxic
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44 269 (e.g. Parrish & Curtis, 1982; Parrish *et al.*, 1982, Sloan & Barron, 1990,
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46 270 Chandler *et al.*, 1992, Valdes & Sellwood, 1992; Barron *et al.*, 1995).
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48 271 Increased computational power has allowed global climate models (GCMs) to
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50 272 be used to test hypotheses regarding the long-term controls on climate and
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52 273 ocean circulation and the importance of atmospheric composition (e.g.
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54 274 Poulsen *et al.*, 2001, 2003, 2015; Zhou *et al.*, 2008; Lunt *et al.*, 2016).
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3 275 Additionally, less computationally demanding models of climate and (bio-)
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5 276 geochemical cycles are available that can be used to understand the
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7 277 underlying physical and biogeochemical processes controlling the
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9 278 sedimentological and geochemical variability observed in the Mesozoic
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11 279 geological record (e.g. Kump & Arthur, 1999; Donnadieu *et al.*, 2006, 2016;
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13 280 Montienaro *et al.*, 2012; Zhou *et al.*, 2015; Bauer *et al.*, this volume). Climate
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15 281 models are providing increasingly detailed spatial and temporal simulations of
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17 282 the Mesozoic world, but in order to be of maximum value they need to be
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19 283 compared with robust palaeoclimatic and palaeoenvironmental data taken
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21 284 from the geological record. Such data includes estimates of
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23 285 palaeotemperatures from oxygen-isotopes of carbonate fossils or from
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25 286 organic geochemical palaeothermometers, such as TEX₈₆ (e.g. Robinson *et*
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27 287 *al.*, this volume), reconstructions of seasonality through detailed elemental
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29 288 analysis of seasonal growth bands in macrofossils, such as bivalves (e.g. de
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31 289 Winter & Claeys, this volume) and reconstructions of local
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33 290 palaeoceanographic conditions from sedimentological, geochemical and
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35 291 palaeontological datasets (e.g. Petrizzo *et al.*, this volume).
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293 **Impact beyond the Mesozoic**

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45 294 The OAE concept has also been proving useful in explanations of
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47 295 palaeoenvironment change for times both before and after the Mesozoic.
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49 296 There are many examples of black shale deposition associated with
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51 297 geochemical anomalies for both the Early Palaeozoic, (e.g. McLaughlin *et al.*,
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53 298 2012; Vandenbroucke *et al.* 2016) and the Late Palaeozoic (e.g. Carmichael
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55 299 *et al.* 2014, 2016; De Vleeschouwer *et al.* 2014); as more data are acquired
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3 300 from a range of depositional settings, so the global nature of these events,
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5 301 and their similarities to Mesozoic counterparts, are becoming more clearly
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7 302 established. However, it is also the case that for these deeper time events,
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9 303 coincidence in time to potential extrinsic triggers such as large igneous
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11 304 provinces are not at all well established, let alone inference of causal
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13 305 linkages. It remains to be seen whether the Palaeozoic 'exceptions to the
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15 306 rule' will eventually provide insights into additional Earth System mechanisms
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17 307 also operating in the Mesozoic but so far undiscovered.
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23 309 Similarly, comparisons and contrasts between OAEs and Cenozoic warming
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25 310 events, such as the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum or the Miocene
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27 311 Monterey Event, has elucidated common processes and highlighted the
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29 312 extreme magnitude of the Earth system perturbations that have occurred in
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31 313 the earlier history of the planet (e.g. Jenkyns 2003, 2010; Cohen *et al.* 2007;
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33 314 Brandano *et al.*, this volume). The widespread distribution of studied localities
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35 315 and overall larger datasets for Cenozoic events generally provides greater
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37 316 opportunity to comprehend the potential rapidity of environmental processes,
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39 317 and the timing of consequent environmental changes in the different
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41 318 reservoirs of the lithosphere, hydrosphere and biosphere, something that has
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43 319 not yet been achieved with any degree of confidence for the Mesozoic.
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48 49 321 **Outlook**

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51 322 Although it has now been 40 years since the publication of Schlanger and
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53 323 Jenkyns (1976), the field of Mesozoic palaeoceanography and
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55 324 palaeoclimatology still has many unanswered questions. As discussed above,
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3 325 the search, on land and under the sea, for new localities in areas that have
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5 326 been either tectonically quiescent or active over time, remains an important
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7 327 endeavour that helps to constrain the spatial pictures of Mesozoic
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10 328 palaeoenvironments. A future focus on underexplored regions (e.g. the high
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12 329 latitudes and the southern hemisphere) would be of great benefit, but there is
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14 330 still scope for new findings in areas that appear to have been well sampled.
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16 331 Unfortunately, many of the classic DSDP records of Jurassic and Cretaceous
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18 332 oceanography, cored at a time when the science objectives were rather
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20 333 different but which provide tantalizing glimpses of the past, were poorly
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22 334 recovered, and in some cases little material remains after years of sampling.
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24 335 This situation is undoubtedly a limiting factor on the extent of our knowledge
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26 336 as it can prohibit the application, at high resolution, of new, insightful proxies.
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28 337 Thankfully, both IODP (International Ocean Discovery Program) and ICDP
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30 338 (International Continental Drilling Project) are continuing to support the
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32 339 development and implementation of Mesozoic drilling projects (e.g. Bralower
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34 340 *et al.*, 2013; Hesselbo *et al.*, 2013; Wagner & Dunkley-Jones, 2015), many of
35
36 341 which will come to fruition in the coming years. Additionally, industry
37
38 342 boreholes and independently funded drilling campaigns, such as the
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40 343 Tanzanian Drilling Project (e.g. Jimenez Berrocoso *et al.*, 2015), or the KARIN
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42 344 Project in the Karoo Basin (see
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44 345 <https://www.uj.ac.za/faculties/science/Pages/Karoo-Research-Initiative-in->
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46 346 CIMERA.aspx), also have a critical role in furthering the science.
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54 348 Although the vast majority of studies have focused on marine sediments, the
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56 349 Mesozoic terrestrial record is a rich archive, yet our understanding of how
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3 350 terrestrial faunas and floras respond to climatic and environmental extremes
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5 351 is based on a rather limited number of studies (e.g. Kujau *et al.* 2013; Cors *et*
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7 352 *al.* 2015). Furthermore, the quantification of terrestrial climatic variability has
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9
10 353 generally been reliant on floral proxies (e.g. Spicer *et al.*, 2008), although new
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12 354 opportunities exist since the recognition of climate signals in early diagenetic
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14 355 soil carbonates (e.g. Ludvigson *et al.*, 1998) and the emergence of organic
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16 356 biomarker palaeothermometry (e.g. Kemp *et al.*, 2014).
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18 357
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20 358 A sampling bias also exists in geological time, with many studies focused on
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22 359 key events, such as the major OAEs, and, relatively, fewer efforts to
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24 360 understand the intervening intervals of time. As Helmi Weissert demonstrated,
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26 361 major chemical perturbations, such as the Late Valanginian carbon isotope
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28 362 excursion, occur without any, at first, striking lithological signature. As
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30 363 stratigraphic resolution has increased, so more events have begun to emerge
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32 364 from the record (e.g. Riding *et al.* 2013). Investigating the long-term climatic,
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34 365 geographic and oceanographic context is key to help understand why the
35
36 366 OAEs and similar events were so prevalent in the Mesozoic. Furthermore,
37
38 367 efforts to document the mechanisms operating in events with either global
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40 368 (e.g. T-OAE, OAEs 1a and 2) and regional (OAEs 1b, 1c, 1d and 3)
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42 369 lithological signatures is absolutely necessary to constrain the climatic,
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44 370 geochemical, and palaeoceanographic mechanisms, and determine to what
45
46 371 extent a single universal model (such as that shown in Figure 3) can
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48 372 realistically be applied. The model(s) used to explain OAEs has much in
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50 373 common with those used to explain other carbon-cycle perturbations
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52 374 occurring throughout Earth history (including some associated with mass
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3 375 extinction events and other extreme perturbations), so a better understanding
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5 376 of the mechanisms operating during OAEs will likely help to constrain the
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7 377 causes of consequences of major environmental and biotic change
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10 378 throughout the Phanerozoic.

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14 380 In order to extract the maximum information from sedimentary archives, both
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16 381 old and new, marine and terrestrial, it is essential that proxies continue to be
17
18 382 developed, tested and applied. Some variables of climatic and oceanographic
19
20 383 interest can, in some settings, be relatively well constrained by multiple
21
22 384 approaches (e.g. local redox, temperature). However, other important
23
24 385 variables, such as atmospheric gas composition, are still poorly known, yet
25
26 386 essential if valid comparisons are to be made with climate and Earth system
27
28 387 models. Some progress has made been in determining the trends of CO₂, for
29
30 388 example during OAEs (e.g. Barclay *et al.*, 2010; Jarvis *et al.*, 2011; Naafs *et*
31
32 389 *al.*, 2016) but estimation of absolute values has not been without problems
33
34 390 and remains a source of considerable uncertainty in Mesozoic palaeoclimate
35
36 391 reconstructions. Hope for new proxy estimates exists in advances being made
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38 392 in the understanding of the physiology and chemistry of plants in relationship
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40 393 to *p*CO₂ (e.g. Schubert & Jahren 2013; Franks *et al.*, 2014). In addition to
41
42 394 CO₂, climate modeling suggests that *p*O₂ may also be an important
43
44 395 determinant in regulating Mesozoic climates (Poulsen *et al.*, 2015), presenting
45
46 396 an, arguably, greater challenge for proxies than *p*CO₂ reconstructions. Past
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48 397 *p*O₂ levels have proven very difficult to constrain, with estimates for the
49
50 398 Cretaceous varying from less than to greater than present-day levels, but
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52 399 recent work on gas inclusions in halite may signal the way ahead (Blamey *et*
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3 400 *al.*, 2016). Modelling studies, with key boundary conditions such as
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5 401 atmospheric composition accurately estimated, are essential to helping
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7 402 unravel the complexities of the Mesozoic world and they can provide
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9 403 hypotheses to be tested, often with estimates of rates and magnitudes of
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11 404 environmental change. Testing the outputs of models therefore requires a
12
13 405 detailed re-reading and understanding of the stratigraphic record, with an
14
15 406 appreciation for sedimentary processes, diagenesis, and timescales – an
16
17 407 approach that both Hugh Jenkyns and Helmi Weissert have championed
18
19 408 throughout their careers.
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24
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1033 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

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1035 **Figure 1** Example of black shale deposited during oceanic anoxic events. (A)
1036 Livello Bonarelli, deposited during OAE2 in the Furlo Quarry, Umbria-Marche
1037 region, Italy (B) close up view of Livello Bonarelli in Furlo Quarry, where it is
1038 ~1.2 m thick. Within the black shales are lighter coloured radiolarian sands.
1039 Above and below the black shales are pelagic limestones (white sediments)
1040 with relatively thin chert beds (dark grey to black sediments). Metre-stick for
1041 scale.

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3 1043 **Figure 2** Bulk carbonate carbon-isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$) stratigraphy of the Jurassic
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5 1044 and Cretaceous (modified from Takashima *et al.*, 2006) and age of prominent
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7 1045 ‘Oceanic Anoxic Events’ and other related phenomena. Carbon-isotope data
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10 1046 from (1) Van de Schootbrugge *et al.* (2005); (2) Hesselbo *et al.* (2000); (3)
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12 1047 Morettini *et al.* (2002); (4) Dromart *et al.* (2003); (5) Weissert *et al.* (1998); (6)
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14 1048 Erbacher *et al.* (1996); (7) Jenkyns *et al.* (1994); (8) Jarvis *et al.* (2002); and
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16 1049 (9) Abramovich *et al.* (2003).
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21 1051 **Figure 3** Cartoon illustrating major aspects of the positive and negative
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23 1052 feedbacks that led to the onset and termination of oceanic anoxic events, as
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25 1053 described in the text. The figure has been modified from Jenkyns (2010),
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27 1054 based on an original figure in Weissert (2000).
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32 1056 **Figure 4** Maps showing the distribution of localities presenting black shales
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34 1057 and sediments containing more than 1% total organic carbon associated with
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36 1058 oceanic anoxic events in the (a) Early Toarcian (T-OAE), (b) Early Aptian
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38 1059 (OAE1a) and (c) Cenomanian–Turonian (OAE2). The Toarcian map is
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40 1060 adapted from the data and plate reconstruction presented in Jenkyns (1988),
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42 1061 Jenkyns *et al.*, (2002) and Gröcke *et al.*, (2011). The plate tectonic
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44 1062 reconstruction is similar to those presented in Smith *et al.*, (1981). Early
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46 1063 Aptian sites are based upon the compilation of Erba *et al.*, (2015), but
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48 1064 excludes localities with <1% TOC or no TOC data. Cenomanian–Turonian
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50 1065 OAE2 sites are based upon Schlanger *et al.*, (1987) and Takashima *et al.*,
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52 1066 (2006) with new data from Dickson *et al.* (this volume). Early Aptian and Late
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- 3 1067 Cenomanian plate reconstructions are from the Ocean Drilling Stratigraphic
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- 5 1068 Network (<http://www.odsn.de>).
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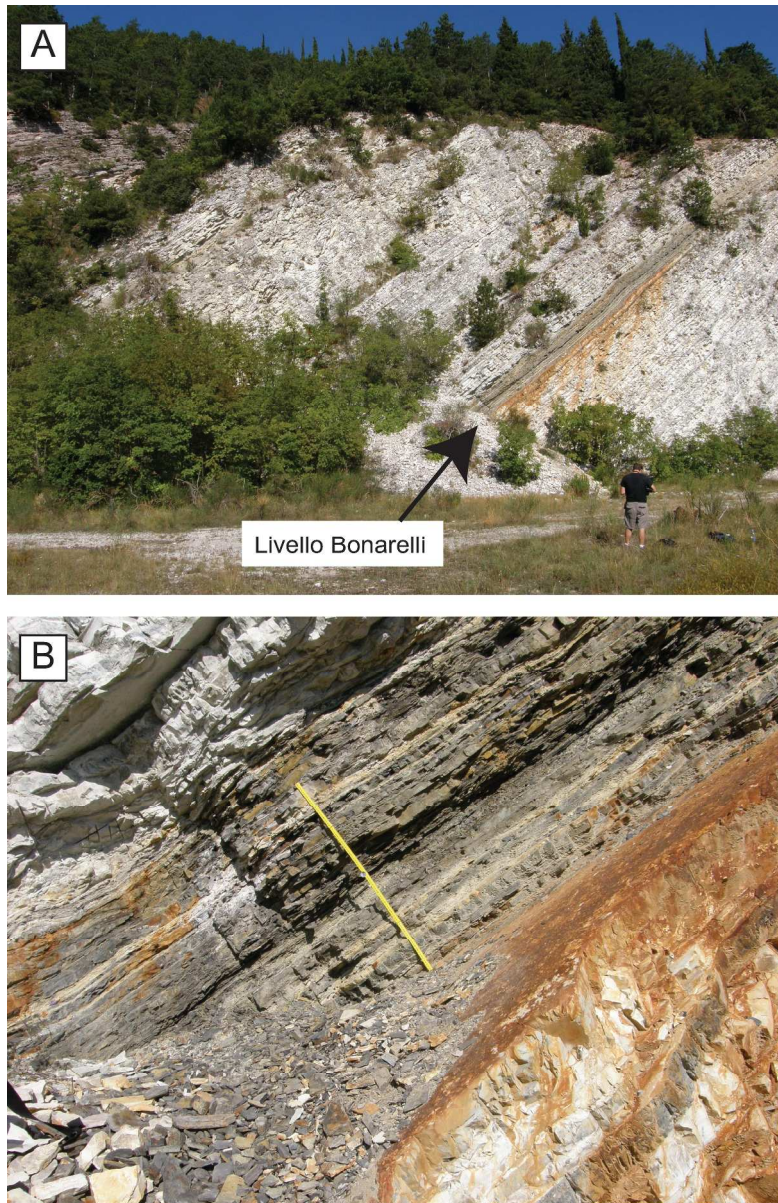


Figure 1 Example of black shale deposited during oceanic anoxic events. (A) Livello Bonarelli, deposited during OAE2 in the Furlo Quarry, Umbria-Marche region, Italy (B) close up view of Livello Bonarelli in Furlo Quarry, where it is ~ 1.2 m thick. Within the black shales are lighter coloured radiolarian sands. Above and below the black shales are pelagic limestones (white sediments) with relatively thin chert beds (dark grey to black sediments). Meter-stick for scale.

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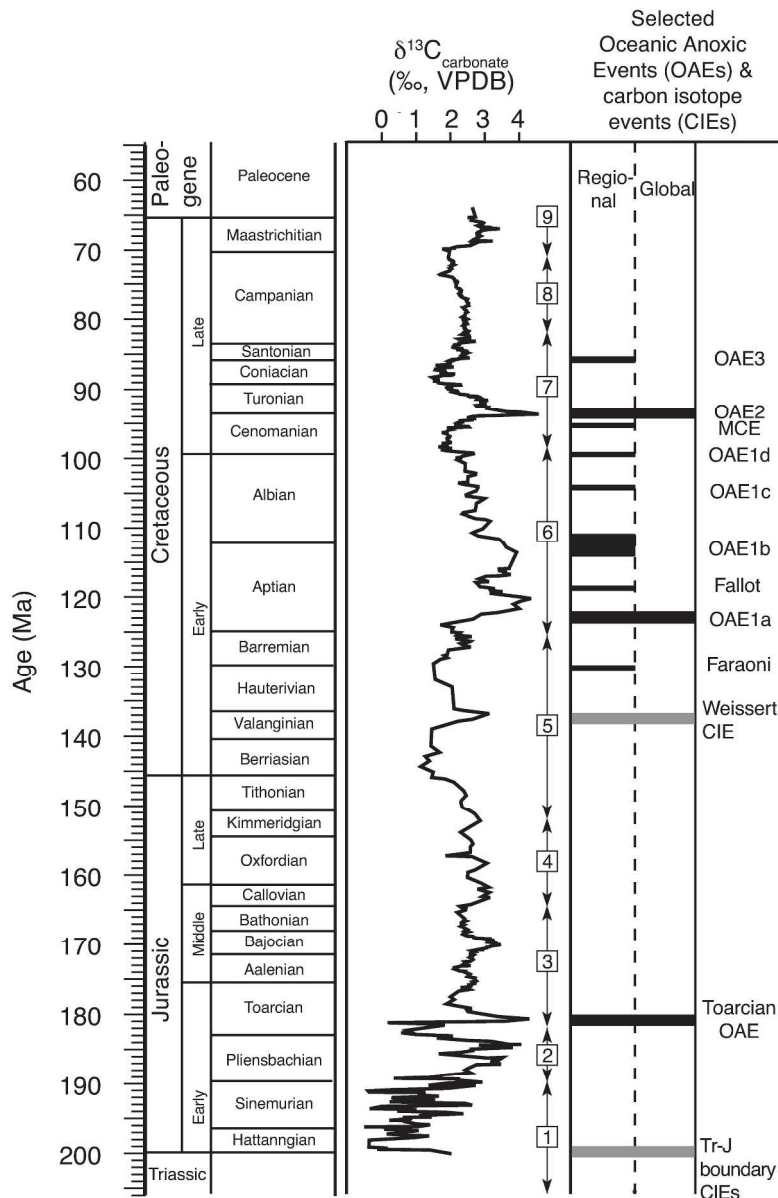


Figure 2. Bulk carbonate carbon-isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$) stratigraphy of the Jurassic and Cretaceous (modified from Takashima et al., 2006) and age of prominent 'Oceanic Anoxic Events'. Carbon-isotope data from (1) Van de Schootbrugge et al. (2005); (2) Hesselbo et al. (2000); (3) Morettini et al. (2002); (4) Dromart et al. (2003); (5) Weissert et al. (1998); (6) Erbacher et al. (1996); (7) Jenkyns et al. (1994); (8) Jarvis et al. (2002); and (9) Abramovich et al. (2003).

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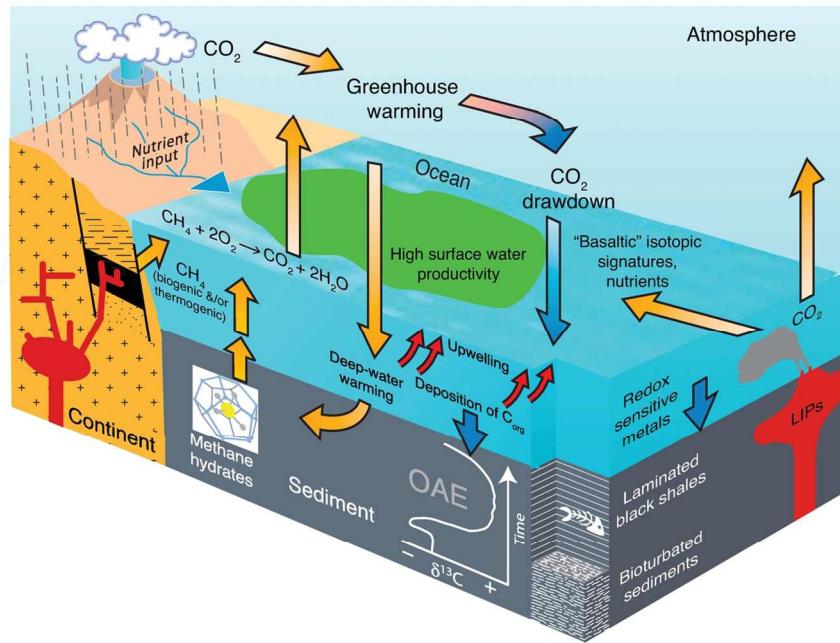


Figure 3 Cartoon illustrating major aspects of the positive and negative feedbacks that led to the onset and termination of oceanic anoxic events, as described in the text. The figure has been modified from Jenkyns (2010), based on an original figure in Weissert (2000).

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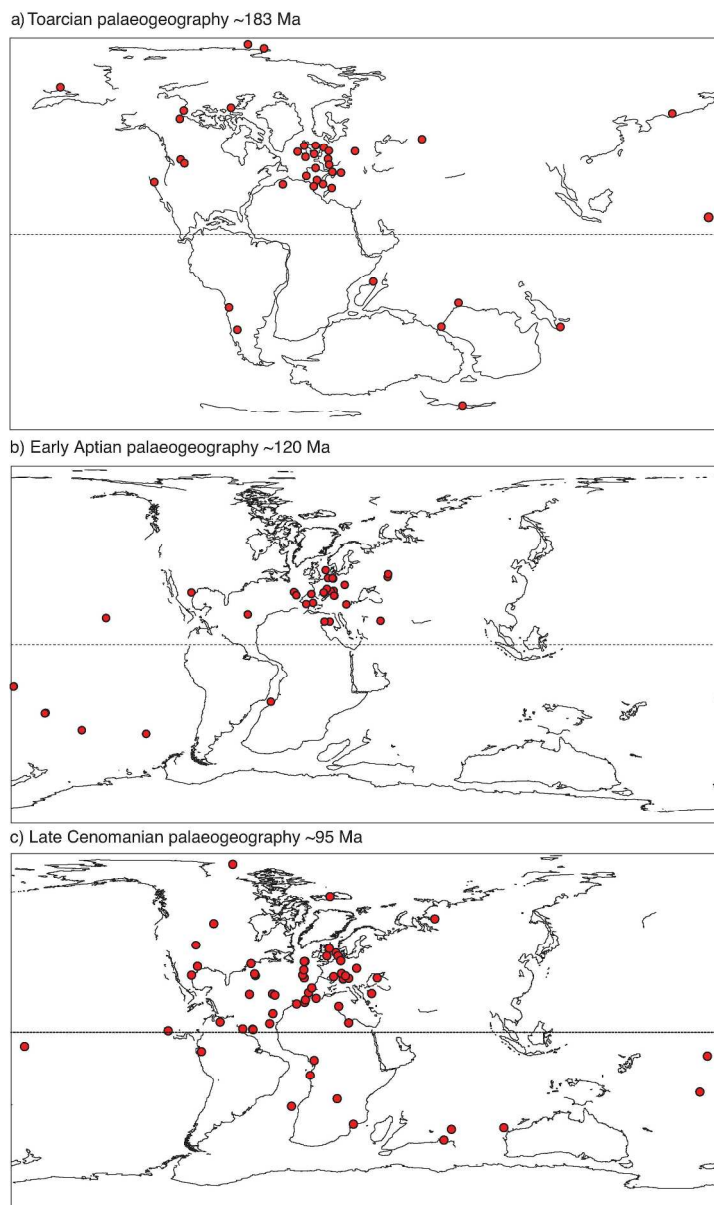


Figure 4 Maps showing the distribution of localities presenting black shales and sediments containing more than 1% total organic carbon associated with oceanic anoxic events in the (a) Early Toarcian (T-OAE), (b) Early Aptian (OAE1a) and (c) Cenomanian–Turonian (OAE2). The Toarcian map is adapted from the data and plate reconstruction presented in Jenkyns (1988), Jenkyns et al., (2002) and Gröcke et al., (2011). The plate tectonic reconstruction is similar to those presented in Smith et al., (1981). Early Aptian sites are based upon the compilation of Erba et al., (2015), but excludes localities with <1%TOC or no TOC data. Cenomanian–Turonian OAE2 sites are based upon Schlanger et al., (1987) and Takashima et al., (2006) with new data from Dickson et al. (this volume). Early Aptian and Late Cenomanian plate reconstructions are from the Ocean Drilling Stratigraphic Network (<http://www.odsn.de>).

198x332mm (300 x 300 DPI)