

1 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**

2 **Shelf hypoxia in response to global warming after the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary**

3 **impact**

4 Johan Vellekoop^{1,2*}, Lineke Woelders¹, Niels A.G.M. van Helmond³, Simone Galeotti⁴, Jan
5 Smit⁵, Caroline P. Slomp³, Henk Brinkhuis⁶, Philippe Claeys², Robert P. Speijer¹

6 **AFFILIATIONS**

7 ¹Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, KU Leuven University, Celestijnenlaan
8 200E, 3001 Heverlee, Belgium.

9 ²AMGC, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Pleinlaan 2, B-1050, Brussels, Belgium.

10 ³Department of Earth Sciences, Faculty of Geosciences, Utrecht University, PO Box 80021,
11 3508 TA Utrecht, The Netherlands.

12 ⁴Department of Earth, Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Urbino 'Carlo Bo',
13 Loc Crocicchia s.n., 61029 Urbino, Italy.

14 ⁵Department of Sedimentology and Marine Geology, VU University Amsterdam, de
15 Boelelaan 1085, 1018HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

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17 *e-mail: johan.vellekoop@kuleuven.be

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51 **SI Materials and Methods**

52 **1 Materials**

53 **1.1 Brazos–1**

54 **1.1.1 Geological setting**

55 During the Late Cretaceous and early Paleogene, the Brazos area was situated on the northern
56 shelf of the Gulf of Mexico (Kennedy et al., 1998), with estimated water depths of 75–100 m
57 (Smit et al., 1996; Woelders and Speijer, 2015) and a paleolatitude of approximately 35N
58 (Scotese and Dreher, 2012). The sedimentary successions in this region comprise the
59 Maastrichtian Corsicana Formation and the Paleocene basal and upper Littig members of the
60 Kincaid Formation. The K-Pg boundary deposits outcropping along the Brazos River between
61 Waco and Hearne, Texas, comprise an exceptionally well-preserved and frequently studied
62 sedimentary succession (Smit et al., 1996; Woelders and Speijer, 2015; Hansen et al., 1987;
63 Bourgeois et al., 1988; Yancey, 1996; Heymann et al., 1998; Vellekoop et al., 2014;

64 Ganapathy et al., 1981). In most previous studies, the K-Pg boundary interval has been
65 subdivided in a series of lithological units (Units A to J) first described by Hansen et al.
66 (1987). The uppermost Maastrichtian Corsicana Formation consists of dark grey–brown
67 mudstones, which include occasional shell hashes and small molluscs. The superimposed
68 Lower Littig Member consists of a distinct sequence of graded shell-hashes, cross-bedded
69 sands and silts that is sometimes referred to as the K-Pg boundary “sandstone complex”
70 (Units B-G) (Smit et al., 1996). The “sandstone complex” is further subdivided into a lower
71 (B-D) and an upper complex (E-G). The lower complex has been interpreted as tsunami
72 deposits triggered by the Chicxulub impact on the Yucatan peninsula, present day Mexico
73 (Smit et al., 1996; Hansen et al., 1987; Bourgeois et al., 1988; Yancey, 1996; Hildebrand et
74 al., 1991). Abundant altered impact spherules have been found in the lower B/C units (Smit et
75 al., 1996), mixed in with backwashed local seafloor debris such as shell hash, fish-teeth,
76 glauconite pellets and shallow-water foraminifera. Unit D consists of cross-bedded medium to
77 fine-grained sands, displaying mainly climbing-ripple tracts from the tsunami backwash. The
78 sequence C-E may repeat locally up to four times, reflecting backwash from several
79 individual tsunami surges. The upper complex of the K-Pg boundary “sandstone complex”
80 comprises Units E, F and G, grading from very fine sand, to silt to mudstone. The base of this
81 complex consists of a 1-2 cm thick siltstone (Unit E), overlain by a silty limestone (Unit F, 8
82 cm thick), and a subsequent grey claystone (Unit G, 10 cm). This complex shows a normal
83 gradation and has been interpreted to be deposited within a time span of 24 hours to a couple
84 of weeks, as part of the settling phase of the tsunami complex deposited directly after the K-
85 Pg boundary bolide impact in the Gulf (Smit et al., 1996). However, the iridium records
86 already show elevated levels at the base of Unit E (Ganapathy et al., 1981; Hansen et al.,
87 1987; Asaro et al., 1982; Rocchia et al., 1996). Since it may take days to years to deposit the
88 very fine-grained impact-derived Platinum Group Elements (PGEs) on the sea floor (Robin et

89 al., 1991; Kring and Durda, 2002), longer than the dissipation of the impact-triggered tsunami
90 waves, the complex of Units E-G probably represents a rapid depositional event that occurred
91 at least weeks *after* the K-Pg boundary tsunamis, possibly as the deposition of suspended
92 material after the waning of large storms and hurricanes that occurred in the decades
93 following the K-Pg boundary impact (Vellekoop et al., 2014; Hart et al., 2012). Moreover,
94 according to the study of (Hart et al., 2012), the *entire* K-Pg boundary sandstone complex at
95 Brazos River represents storm lag deposits, deposited on top of the tsunami-scoured surface.
96 At least the PGE-bearing, immediate post-impact sediments have probably been rapidly
97 redeposited in the upper complex of Units E-G by these storms (Vellekoop et al., 2014). For a
98 more detailed discussion on the origin of the complex of lithological units E-G, see (Hart et
99 al., 2012) and (Vellekoop et al., 2014). This complex of units E-G is overlain by a <5 cm
100 thick, laminated sandy bed with small shells and thin clay flakes (Unit H), which may
101 represent the last lag deposit resulting from a large storm passing this site. Following this is
102 Unit I, a ~2.5 m thick silty claystone that is herein interpreted as representing the resumption
103 of normal marine shelf sedimentation at this site. This unit is unconformably overlain by the
104 lag deposit of the Kincaid Formation, the upper Littig Member (Unit J). This member is
105 composed of a 0.3-0.6 meter thick glauconitic sandy clay with grains, granules and pebbles.

106

107 **1.1.2 Sampling**

108 At Brazos River, the Paleocene stratigraphy varies considerably between individual
109 outcrops and cores (e.g. (Hart et al., 2012)), so first and last appearances and amount of
110 reworking are difficult to compare between the various sequences. The Brazos-1 outcrop (BR1),
111 the first well-studied outcrop, has been partially destroyed due to sampling excavations and is
112 currently inaccessible because of recent fluvial activity, which renders additional sampling
113 impossible. To allow for a precise correlation with the biostratigraphic and organic geochemical

114 analyses of (Vellekoop et al., 2014), our analyses on organic-walled dinoflagellate cysts,
115 benthic foraminifera and trace elemental compositions were all performed on the same sample
116 set (acquired in 1995 by JS from the Brazos-1 outcrop; GPS 31° 7'53.59"N, 96°49'26.08"W),
117 when the outcrop was still relatively well exposed and accessible. In the extensive 1995
118 sampling performed at BR1, care was taken to acquire non-weathered rock samples, to obtain
119 well-preserved microfossils and limit possible contamination. A closely spaced sample set was
120 obtained, to attain a high temporal resolution. The stratigraphic position was measured from the
121 base of the graded silty limestone, Unit F, since this level is sharp, well visible and constant
122 throughout the outcrops in the Brazos area. In total, about 100 samples were collected between
123 500 cm below the base of Unit F and 420 cm above the base of Unit F. The beds directly above
124 the top of the sandstone (interval E-H) were sampled in large continuous blocks, which were
125 slabbed into slices of 0.5 cm thickness. Unit I was sampled at 5 cm spacing in the first 2.5 m
126 above the sandstone beds, the remainder up to the Littig bed at 10 cm and the top of the section
127 at 25 cm intervals. The samples were split in aliquots for analyses of planktic and benthic
128 foraminifers, organic-walled dinoflagellate cysts, TEX₈₆ and trace-elements. All samples were
129 oven-dried at 60°C and stored at the VU University Amsterdam Faculty of Earth and Life
130 Sciences sample storage, the Netherlands. A selection of these samples was used in the present
131 study.

132 **1.1.3 Age Model**

133 The high-resolution age model used in this study is based on the Ir-anomaly and calcareous
134 nannoplankton, planktic foraminifer and organic-walled dinoflagellate cyst (dinocyst)
135 biostratigraphy presented in (Vellekoop et al., 2014). Various studies have been published on
136 iridium anomalies in the Brazos River area (Ganapathy et al., 1981; Asaro et al., 1982; Rocchia
137 et al., 1996; Hansen et al., 1993), showing a series of irregular peaks in lithological Units E, F
138 and G. It is likely that the PGE bearing impact dust settled within months to years after the

139 impact and was subsequently reworked in the lag deposits of post-impact storms (Vellekoop et
140 al., 2014; Hart et al., 2012), explaining the scattered and smeared out nature of the iridium
141 profile. Since the enhanced contrast between warm oceans and cold atmosphere, triggering the
142 storms after the impact, likely lasted for less than a century (Vellekoop et al., 2014; Galeotti et
143 al., 2004), we assume that this is the maximum amount of time represented by units E, F and
144 G. Normal sedimentation resumed in Unit I, which therefore represents the first millennia
145 following the K-Pg boundary impact winter event. The impact winter event is suggested to have
146 had a duration of 1-30 years (Galeotti et al., 2004; Vellekoop et al., 2014; Brugger et al., 2016)

147 (Jiang and Gartner, 1986) published detailed, semi-quantitative nannofossil data from a
148 closely spaced sample set from the Brazos-1 locality. (Vellekoop et al., 2014) argued that their
149 results could be tied in with the earlier published biostratigraphic data from (Jiang and Gartner,
150 1986), because their samples were derived from the same outcrop. In the nannofossil record of
151 (Jiang and Gartner, 1986) the earliest Paleocene Kincaid Formation contains a rapid succession
152 of basal Paleocene assemblages. The basal meter of the Kincaid Fm. above the “sandstone
153 complex” is dominated by inferred disaster taxa, such as species of the calcareous dinoflagellate
154 cyst *Thoracosphaera* and the calcareous nannoplankton species *Braarudosphaera bigelowii*.
155 Blooms of *Thoracosphaera* have been recorded in the earliest Paleocene at many different sites
156 (Lottaroli and Catrullo, 2000; Gardin, 2002) and are considered a characteristic feature for the
157 lowermost Danian.

158 The foraminiferal biozonation applied in this paper follows that of (Olsson et al., 1999)
159 and is based on the biostratigraphic datum events of Vellekoop et al. (2014). The Maastrichtian
160 samples contain well-preserved, moderately abundant Maastrichtian planktic foraminiferal
161 assemblages. The first Paleocene taxon, *Parvulorugoglobigerina minutula*, appears in Br95-
162 23, followed by the lowest occurrence of *Parvulorugoglobigerina alabamensis* [in sample
163 Br95-24]. *Chiloguembelina* sp. and *Woodringina* sp. appear in sample Br95-30. These taxa are

164 initially very rare and do not show up in the counts of 300 random selected specimens.
165 *Parvulorugoglobigerina eugubina* appears in sample Br95-26 (~150 cm above the K-Pg
166 boundary). This sequence of lowest occurrences of *P. minutula*, *P. alabamensis* and *P.*
167 *eugubina* is very similar to the expanded lowermost Paleocene section of the K-Pg boundary
168 global stratotype and section at El Kef in Tunisia (Smit, 1982).

169 When the tsunami- and storm-induced graded beds (Units A-H), with a combined
170 thickness of 50 cm, are disregarded, biozone P0 attains a thickness of around 100 cm in Brazos-
171 1, based on the lowest occurrence of *P. eugubina*. This interval is entirely characterized by
172 background middle-to-outer shelf mudstones (Unit I), with no sandstones. It is therefore
173 reasonable to assume that sedimentation rates are fairly constant throughout Zone P0.
174 According to the Paleogene time scale of (Vandenberghe et al., 2012), based on the study of
175 (Wade et al., 2011), planktic foraminiferal Zone P0 represents approximately 30-40 kyrs,
176 resulting in an average sedimentation rate of ~2.5-3 cm/kyr for the lowermost Danian of Brazos-
177 1. The onset of the warming in the TEX₈₆ SST record of (Vellekoop et al., 2014), which covers
178 an interval of approximately 15 cm, therefore represents the first 4-6 kyrs of the Paleocene,
179 assuming constant background sedimentation. The total warming event covers an interval of
180 more than 75 cm at Brazos-1, representing at least ~30 kyrs.

181 **1.2 Stevns Klint**

182 **1.2.1 Geological setting**

183 The Stevns Klint succession is one of the first localities where the base of the Danian was
184 defined (Desor, 1847). Since then, numerous paleontological, geochemical and mineralogical
185 studies have been performed on this succession (e.g. (Hansen, 1977; Bauluz et al., 2000; Hart
186 et al., 2004; Rasmussen et al., 2005; Premovic, 2009; Hansen and Surlyk, 2014). The 14.5 km
187 long coastal cliff is situated about 45 km south of Copenhagen, on the east coast of the Danish

188 Island of Zealand. The upper Maastrichtian-lower Danian succession exposed at Stevns Klint
189 was deposited on the eastern edge of the Ringkøbing-Fyn structural high, which forms the
190 southern border of the Danish Basin. The chalk and bryozoan limestones of Stevns Klint were
191 thus deposited in shallower-water than the correlative deposits of the Danish Basin and the
192 North Sea (references in (Surlyk et al., 2006)). The Stevns Klint K-Pg boundary succession is
193 estimated to be deposited at depths of about 100–150 m (Bromley and Ekdale, 1987), at a
194 paleolatitude of approximately 46N (Scotese and Dreher, 2012).

195 The succession studied here consists of the Maastrichtian Tor Formation and Danian
196 Rodvig Formation. The lower part of the Maastrichtian Tor Formation consists of the mound-
197 bedded chalk of the Sigerslev Member. This member is topped by two closely spaced incipient
198 hardgrounds, characterized by nodular hardening and an irregular, small-scale erosional relief
199 of a few centimeters. The distance between the two incipient hardgrounds is generally 10-25
200 cm. Occasionally, these incipient hardgrounds may merge into a single hardground. A
201 prominent layer of nodular flint occurs 30-50 cm below the upper hardground and forms a
202 marker bed, which can be traced along most of the cliff.

203 The overlying Hojerup Member of the Tor Formation consists of mounded bryozoan chalk
204 wackestone. This unit, previously labelled as “Grey Chalk”, is up to 5 m thick but gradually
205 wedges out towards the north of the cliff, possibly due to reduced sedimentation. The top few
206 centimeters of the Hojerup Member are developed as grey marl.

207 The Hojerup Member is overlain by the basal Danian Fiskeler Member of the Rodvig
208 Formation. The boundary between the Hojerup Member and the Fiskeler Member is sharp and
209 represents the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary. The Fiskeler Member embodies a classical
210 ‘boundary clay layer’. The Fiskeler clay is restricted to the depressions between the crests of
211 the Hojerup Member mounds and thins towards the margins of these depressions. At the crests

212 of the Hojerup Member mounds, the hardened Maastrichtian chalk wackestone is directly
213 overlain by the lower Danian *Cerithium* Limestone Member. Although the Fiskeler Member is
214 up to about 10 cm thick in most of the cliff, it shows thicknesses up to 30 cm to the north at
215 Kulstirenden. In this study, the samples were taken at Kulstirenden. At this site, the base of the
216 Fiskeler Member is characterized by a 0.1-0.5 cm thick, reddish (iron-oxide stained) layer that
217 represents the global ejecta layer, comprising the classical markers for the K-Pg boundary, e.g.
218 microkrystites, the iridium anomaly and other geochemical markers (Alvarez et al., 1980;
219 Bauluz et al., 2000). A 4-5 cm thick black (weathering brown) clay bed with pyrite concretions
220 overlies this reddish layer. This clay bed (“bed a” by Surlyk et al. (Surlyk et al., 2006)) is
221 characterized by pale/dark alternations near the top. In turn, it is overlain by a 14-15 cm thick
222 black to light grey streaky marl (“bed b” in (Surlyk et al., 2006)). This bed is restricted to the
223 deepest parts of the depressions between the bryozoan mounds. There is no sign of bioturbation
224 within beds a and b, which suggests that the sea floor environment would have been (almost)
225 anoxic (Hart et al., 2005). This bed is again overlain by a light-grey streaked marl, up to 7 cm
226 thick – “bed c” of Surlyk et al. (Surlyk et al., 2006). Bed c can be followed to the margins of
227 the depressions. The Fiskeler Member becomes more carbonate-rich upwards and passes
228 gradually into the *Cerithium* Limestone Member.

229 The *Cerithium* Limestone Member consists of micrite and is strongly burrowed by
230 *Thalassinoides*. These burrows are filled with sediment derived from the overlying lower
231 Danian bryozoan limestone. The base of the *Cerithium* Limestone Member contains abundant
232 clasts of chalk, probably derived from erosion of the crests of the Maastrichtian bryozoan
233 mounds (Surlyk et al., 2006).

234 An erosional surface truncates the top of the *Cerithium* Limestone Member and the crests of
235 the bryozoan mounds of the uppermost Maastrichtian Hojerup Member. At Kulstirenden it is

236 developed as a double hardground, similar to the one at the base of the Hojerup Member. The
237 upper 35 cm of sediment beneath the upper hardground surface is strongly cemented.

238

239 **1.2.2 Sampling**

240 For this study, a fieldwork to the cliffs of Stevns Klint, Denmark was organized in the summer
241 of 2016. Given that the Fiskeler Member reaches its maximum thickness at Kulstirenden (25-
242 30 cm), this site provides the highest possible stratigraphic resolution. Therefore, in our study,
243 samples were taken at this site (GPS 55°20'45.84"N, 12°26'43.21"E).

244 Since the uppermost Cretaceous Hojerup Member gradually wedges out towards the
245 north, it is rather thin at Kulstirenden. At the base of the basins between the bryozoan mounds,
246 the Hojerup Member is condensed to single, nodular, silicified layer, merged with the
247 hardgrounds that form the top of the Sigerslev Member. To allow for relative high temporal
248 resolution in both the Cretaceous and Paleogene, the Fiskeler Member was sampled in one of
249 the basins between the Hojerup Member bryozoan mound crests, where the Fiskeler K-Pg
250 boundary clay reaches a thickness of 27-28 cm (Kulstirenden A), while the Sigerslev and
251 Hojerup Members were sampled about 15 meters lateral from this point (Kulstirenden B), where
252 the Hojerup Member reaches a thickness of approximately 1 meter see SI Figure S1). Our record
253 from Kulstirenden, Stevns Klint, is a composite of these 2 sample sets.

254 The Sigerslev Member was sampled at 50 cm resolution, the Hojerup Member was
255 sampled at 5 cm resolution, the Fiskeler Member was sampled with a 1 cm resolution.

256

257 **1.2.3 Age Model**

258 At Stevns Klint, the K-Pg boundary is characterized by the classical markers for the K-Pg
259 boundary impact, such as the Ir-anomaly (Alvarez et al., 1980), micrometeorites (Korchagin
260 and Tsel'movich, 2011) and impact glass (Bauluz et al., 2000). The high-resolution age model
261 used in this study is based on these markers, in combination with planktic foraminiferal and
262 organic-walled dinoflagellate cyst (dinocyst) biostratigraphy, e.g. (Hansen, 1977; Brinkhuis et
263 al., 1998; Rasmussen et al., 2005). The foraminiferal biozonation applied in this paper follows
264 that of Olsson *et al.* (Olsson et al., 1999) and is based on (Rasmussen et al., 2005; Schmitz et
265 al., 1992).

266 (Rasmussen et al., 2005) argued that the Fiskeler Member corresponds to the lowermost
267 Paleocene planktic foraminiferal Zone P0. The dinoflagellate studies of (Brinkhuis et al., 1998)
268 and (FitzPatrick et al., 2017) demonstrated that the Fiskeler Member is characterized by the
269 first occurrences of the marker taxa *Senoniasphaera inornata* and *Carpatella cf. cornuta*,
270 similar to the boundary clay layer of the K-Pg boundary GSSP at El Kef (Tunisia), confirming
271 the assignment of Zone P0 to the Fiskeler Member

272 When the Fiskeler Member is considered as representing planktic foraminiferal Zone P0 of
273 (Olsson et al., 1999), this biozone attains a thickness of around 27-28 cm at the Kulstirenden A
274 outcrop of Stevns Klint. As planktic foraminiferal Zone P0 represents approximately 30-40 kyrs
275 (Vandenberghé et al., 2012), the Fiskeler Member at Kulstirenden has an average sedimentation
276 rate of ~0.7-1.0 cm/kyr. While it is possible that sedimentation rates might have varied through
277 the boundary clay layer, this will likely not have been in orders of magnitude, as the resumption
278 of carbonate production occurs above the boundary clay layer. It is therefore reasonable to
279 assume that the first few centimeters of the boundary clay layer represent the first millennia
280 after the K-Pg boundary impact.

281

282 **1.3 Caravaca**

283 **1.3.1 Geological setting**

284 The Caravaca section is located about 4 km southwest of the town of Caravaca (Murcia, Spain),
285 in the Betic Cordillera. The sequence of the Jorquera Formation, which encompasses the K-Pg
286 boundary, is exposed on the east bank of the Barranco del Gredero.

287 The lithology of this succession consists of uppermost Maastrichtian light marls, followed by a
288 7–10 cm lower Danian (lowermost Paleocene) dark grey clay layer, the K-Pg boundary clay
289 layer. The 2–3 mm thick reddish brown (ejecta) layer) at the base of the boundary clay contains
290 microspherules and platinum group element (PGE) anomalies (e.g. (Smit, 1990, 2004;
291 Martinez-Ruiz et al., 2006)). Between 5 and 10 cm, the boundary clay gradually grades into a
292 grey argillaceous marl, similar to that of the upper Maastrichtian (Figure 1). The Caravaca
293 section, like the nearby Agost section (at 115 km distance in southeastern Spain) and the El Kef
294 section (Tunisia), is one of the best-preserved distal K-Pg boundary sections in the world
295 (Molina et al., 2006). The Caravaca succession is estimated to have been deposited at a
296 paleodepth of 500-1000 m (Smit, 2004; Culver, 2003), and its paleolatitude was approximately
297 at 27N (Scotese and Dreher, 2012).

298 For a detailed description of the Caravaca section, see the study of (Smit, 2004).

299

300 **1.3.2 Sampling**

301 For this study, the extensive sample set of (Smit, 1977) was used. This set, taken in 1975, has
302 a 1-cm resolution through the boundary clay, approaching the sample resolution of the benthic
303 foraminiferal study of (Coccioni and Galeotti, 1994), with which we compare our results.

304

305 **1.3.3 Age Model**

306 At Caravaca, the K-Pg boundary is characterized by the classical impact markers
307 (microspherules and PGE anomalies (e.g. (Smit, 1990, 2004; Martinez-Ruiz et al., 2006))). The
308 high-resolution age model used in this study is based on these markers, in combination with
309 calcareous nannofossil, planktic foraminiferal and organic-walled dinoflagellate cyst (dinocyst)
310 biostratigraphy, e.g. (Coccioni and Galeotti, 1994; Brinkhuis et al., 1998; Smit, 2004). The
311 foraminiferal biozonation applied in this paper follows that of (Olsson et al., 1999) and is based
312 on the data of (Smit, 1982). The dinoflagellate study of (Brinkhuis et al., 1998) demonstrated
313 that the boundary clay at Caravaca is characterized by the first occurrences of the marker taxa
314 *Senoniasphaera inornata* and *Damassidinium californicum*, similar to the boundary clay at the
315 Danian GSSP of El Kef (Tunisia).

316 At Caravaca, planktic foraminiferal Zone P0 attains a thickness of 7-10 cm, approximately
317 corresponding with 30-40 kyrs (24, 25), resulting in an average sedimentation rate of ~0.2-0.3
318 cm/kyr.

319

320 **2 Methods**

321 **2.1 Reconstruction of oceanic anoxia in the geological past**

322 A wide range of proxies can be employed for the reconstruction of redox conditions. A
323 simple proxy is the total organic carbon content (TOC) of sediments. However, along with
324 bottom-water oxygen conditions, TOC content is also a function of the organic matter flux to
325 the seafloor. Given that the K-Pg boundary is characterized by strong changes in the transport
326 of organic matter to the sea floor (e.g. (Vellekoop et al., 2017), this proxy is not well-suited to
327 reconstruct changes in bottom-water oxygenation across this time interval. Concentrations of
328 trace metals in sediments, e.g., V, Cr, Cu, Zn, Ni and in particular Mo, have been shown to be

329 excellent proxies for paleo-redox conditions in bottom waters (Brumsack, 1980; Emerson and
330 Husted, 1991; Scott and Lyons, 2012), as was also illustrated for the K-Pg boundary (Sosa-
331 Montes De Oca et al., 2013; Kaiho et al., 1999). These elements are actively scavenged from
332 oxygen-depleted marine environments, and therefore enriched in the sediments. Under
333 euxinic conditions, molybdate anions are converted to particle-reactive thiomolybdates, hence
334 allowing for burial of Mo in the sediments (Helz et al., 1996). Therefore, enrichments of
335 elementary Mo can be used as an indicator for sea floor deoxygenation (Thomson et al., 1995;
336 Scott and Lyons, 2012).

337 For the analyses of major and minor element compositions, approximately 125 mg of
338 freeze-dried and powdered sample was dissolved in 2.5 ml mixed acid (HClO₄:HNO₃; 3:2)
339 and 2.5 ml 40% HF, heated to 90°C and left overnight. The acids were evaporated at 140°C
340 after which the residue was dissolved in 25 ml 4.5% HNO₃. Sediment elemental compositions
341 were measured using Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES;
342 Perkin Elmer Optima 3000); the error calculated from duplos and standards generally was
343 <1ppm for Mo. Concentrations of measured elements Al and Mo can be found in
344 Supplementary Table S1.

345 Benthic foraminiferal assemblages can be excellent indicators for the biotic responses
346 to changes in bottom water oxygenation (Jorissen et al., 2007, 1995). For benthic
347 foraminiferal analysis, 79 samples were weighed and washed over a nylon mesh of 63µm. A
348 suitable split with approximately 200-400 specimens was obtained from the fraction greater
349 than 63µm with a microsplitter. From this split all the specimens were picked, counted and
350 mounted on micropaleontological slides (Supplementary Table S2). Samples from Unit G and
351 Unit H of Brazos-1 did not provide more than 50-60 specimens, however. Taxonomy used
352 follows that cited in (Woelders and Speijer, 2015).

353 Specific taxa are considered indicative of dysoxic to anoxic conditions and the relative
354 frequency of these taxa (expressed as a percentage of the total benthic foraminiferal fauna) is
355 used as a semi-quantitative index of bottom water oxygenation (Jorissen et al., 2007). A
356 strong dominance of endobenthic taxa is typically considered indicative for bottom-water
357 dysoxia to anoxia, often under eutrophic conditions (Jorissen et al., 2007). In the Brazos-1
358 record, the initial peak of the endobenthic foraminifera is almost entirely represented by the
359 genus *Fursenkoina* (SI Figure S2). In sub-recent to recent settings, *Fursenkoina* is considered
360 tolerant to low oxygen conditions (Kaiho, 1994).

361

362

363 **2.2 Hexaperidinioids as indicator for nutrients or fresh water**

364 For palynological analyses, 84 oven-dried samples (~10-15 g dry mass) were
365 analyzed. Chemical processing comprised treatment with 10% HCl and 40% HF for carbonate
366 and silica removal, respectively. Ultrasonication was used to disintegrate palynodebris.
367 Residues were sieved over a 15- μ m mesh and mounted on microscope slides, which were
368 analyzed at x200 and x1000 magnification to a minimum of 200 dinocysts (Supplementary
369 Table S3). Taxonomy used follows that of Vellekoop *et al.* (Vellekoop et al., 2014). All slides
370 are stored in the collection of the Laboratory of Palaeobotany and Palynology, Utrecht
371 University, the Netherlands.

372 Based on correlations between palynological records and other paleoproxies, it has been
373 suggested that hexaperidinioids are indicative of high nutrient availability and/or low salinities
374 (Eshet et al., 1994; Brinkhuis et al., 1998; Sluijs and Brinkhuis, 2009). Therefore, high
375 abundances of this morphological group can be related to changes in trophic condition as well
376 as to changes in salinity. The Brazos-1 and Stevns Klint sequences are deposited in neritic
377 settings. Therefore, changes in both salinity and nutrient loading can be expected. To assess the

378 possibility that the signals in the palynological record can be attributed to changes in freshwater
379 input, we tested for a significant correlation between relative abundances of hexaperidinioids
380 and relative abundances of terrestrial palynomorphs in the Brazos-1 and Stevns Klint datasets,
381 following Vellekoop et al. (Vellekoop et al., 2017). Pollen and spores are land-derived and can
382 therefore be regarded as a proxy for the input of terrestrial-derived material. Since a
383 hypothetical decrease in salinity would most likely be associated with increased riverine input,
384 the input of terrestrial-derived material is expected to increase with decreasing salinity.

385 Our analyses show that in the Brazos-1 dataset, there is a significant relationship
386 between the relative abundances of hexaperidinioids and the relative abundances of terrestrial
387 palynomorphs, $r(84) = 0.32705$, $p < 0.05$ (SI Figure S3), but that there is a large variability in
388 hexaperidinioids, that can only partly be explained by relative abundances in terrestrial
389 palynomorphs. Therefore, at Brazos-1, high abundances of hexaperidinioids are considered in
390 part indicative of increased freshwater input, but they likely also require other factors, such as
391 high nutrient availability in the upper water column. In the Stevns Klint dataset, there is no
392 significant relationship between the relative abundances of hexaperidinioids and the relative
393 abundance of terrestrial palynomorphs, $r(15) = 0.253403$, $p > 0.05$ (SI Figure S3). Therefore, at
394 Stevns Klint, high abundances of hexaperidinioids are likely related to high nutrient availability
395 in the upper water column, not directly to increased freshwater input.

396

397 **3 Estimations**

398 **3.1 Estimations of CO₂ release by Chicxulub impact**

399 Estimations of the amount of CO₂ released from the targeted carbonate platform
400 greatly depend on the assumed thickness of the carbonate platform (O'Keefe and Ahrens,
401 1989), pressure generated by the impact (Ivanov and Deutsch, 2002) and exact chemical

402 composition of the shock-induced gases (Kawaragi et al., 2009). The estimated amount of
403 CO₂ therefore ranges between 425 and 10,000 Gt (O’Keefe and Ahrens, 1989; Kawaragi et
404 al., 2009; Ivanov et al., 1996; Pierazzo et al., 1998; Pope et al., 1997; Takata and Ahrens,
405 1994; Artemieva and Morgan, 2017).

406 In addition to the CO₂ released from the targeted carbonates, a large quantity of CO₂
407 must have been released by the combustion following the impact (Venkatesan and Dahl,
408 1989; Anders et al., 1990; Harvey et al., 2008). This combustion event possibly involved the
409 global ignition of forest fires, resulting from the intense heat pulse from the impact (Anders et
410 al., 1990). In the modern day, roughly 600 Gt C is stored in terrestrial vegetation (e.g. ref.
411 (Potter et al., 1999), representing ~2200 Gt CO₂). In the Maastrichtian, vegetation cover was
412 likely similar to, or larger than, at present (Hunter et al., 2008; Vajda and Bercovici, 2014),
413 suggesting that the amount of carbon stored in terrestrial biomass was *at least* of a similar
414 order. Although evidence for wildfires at the K-Pg boundary is widespread (e.g. USA; New
415 Zealand; Japan; e.g. ref. (Vajda et al., 2001)), it is not realistic that the global vegetation was
416 entirely combusted at the impact. The amount of CO₂ produced will nonetheless have been
417 significant (~250-1000 Gt?; (Venkatesan and Dahl, 1989)). The impact may have also
418 combusted a significant part of the surrounding organic-rich deposits (Harvey et al., 2008;
419 Kaiho and Oshima, 2017). Indeed, the signature of pyrosynthetic polycyclic hydrocarbons
420 (pPAHs) in the K-Pg boundary impact layer is consistent with the combustion of a large
421 volume of hydrocarbons (Belcher et al., 2009). The carbon released by the impact-triggered
422 combustion of subsurface hydrocarbons likely represents at least another >500 Gt of CO₂
423 (Harvey et al., 2008). Combined, the estimated amount of CO₂ released by the K-Pg impact
424 ranges between ~1500 and ~10,000 Gt of CO₂.

425 Besides this direct release of CO₂ by the impact, the loss of the oceanic biological
426 pump (Hondt, 2005; Vellekoop et al., 2017) reduced the ability of the world oceans to

427 efficiently deliver CO₂ to the deep ocean. When the biological pump is operating at lowered
428 efficiency, surface water CO₂ concentrations tend to increase (Sarmiento et al., 2004; Hilting
429 et al., 2008). The reduction of the biological pump likely led to increased remineralisation of
430 organic matter in the surface waters (Vellekoop et al., 2017) and ventilation of CO₂ to the
431 atmosphere and therefore to an additional rise in atmospheric pCO₂. Although the exact
432 amount of CO₂ released to the atmosphere greatly depends on factors such as the rate of ocean
433 circulation and the drawdown of CO₂ by surviving phytoplankton groups, it likely represented
434 a considerable amount. (Beerling et al., 2002) estimated the rise in pCO₂ related to this
435 process to be in the order of 400-800 ppm, although this might be an overestimation, as the
436 biological drawdown did not come to a complete halt (Alegret and Thomas, 2009).

437

438 **3.2 Estimations of increase atmospheric pCO₂ resulting from the impact**

439 Studies using fossil leaf stomatal abundances and paleosol proxies suggest that latest
440 Maastrichtian atmospheric CO₂ levels roughly ranged between 400-800 ppmv (Beerling et al.,
441 2002; Royer et al., 2012), about 1.5 to 3 times pre-industrial levels. With a total of between
442 1500 and 10,000 Gt CO₂ released by the K-Pg boundary impact directly, the increase of
443 atmospheric pCO₂ will have been in the order of ~200-1200 ppmv. With the additional input
444 of CO₂ resulting from the collapse of the biological pump, the increased in atmospheric pCO₂
445 likely was in the order of 1-2 times the pre-impact level. Although this estimated increase is
446 less than estimated based on fossil leaf stomatal indices (>2000 ppm; ref. (Beerling et al.,
447 2002); representing a 2-5 times increase), this input still represents a large and near-
448 instantaneous increase in atmospheric pCO₂ concentration, resulting in a rapid global
449 warming in the first centuries following the brief K-Pg boundary impact winter.

450

451 **Global records of shelf hypoxia**

452 **4.1. Global records of shelf hypoxia**

453 In the past decades, several other studies have argued for short-lived shelf hypoxia following
454 the Chicxulub impact as well. In most cases, this postulation is based on abrupt changes in
455 benthic foraminiferal assemblages. Records from shelf sites such as El Kef (Tunisia), Agost
456 (Spain), Caravaca (Spain) and Bidart (France) show a spike in endobenthic morphotypes in
457 the lowermost centimeter(s) of the boundary clay (Speijer and Zwaan, 1996; Kaiho et al.,
458 1999; Coccioni and Galeotti, 1994; Alegret et al., 2003), or inside post-K-Pg trace fossils
459 hosted in uppermost Cretaceous strata (Alegret et al., 2015). Often, this spike is dominated by
460 bi- and triserial endobenthic forms such as buliminids, which are considered particularly
461 indicative of high food supply and low oxygenation (Jorissen et al., 2007; Corliss and Chen,
462 1988; Bernhard, 1986). This spike is therefore generally interpreted as a biological response
463 to a short-lived period of anoxia following the K-Pg boundary impact (Speijer and Zwaan,
464 1996; Alegret et al., 2015). Likewise, at the upper bathyal Flaxbourne River section (New
465 Zealand), the lowermost Paleocene, i.e. the sample directly above the ‘fireball layer’, is
466 characterized by a benthic foraminiferal assemblage composed of small, inferred low-oxygen-
467 tolerant taxa (Strong, 2000)

468 Also various lines of geochemical evidence have been postulated for the presence of
469 short-lived hypoxia or anoxia on the shelves following the K-Pg boundary. For example, the K-
470 Pg boundary GSSP at El Kef is characterized by a spike in Total Organic Carbon (TOC)
471 concentration, which was interpreted by (Keller and Lindinger, 1989) as representing low
472 oxygen conditions at the sediment/water interface. Records from upper bathyal to neritic sites
473 such as Caravaca (Spain), Hokkaido (Japan) and Stevns Klint (Denmark) show a sulfur
474 isotopic excursion at the base of the boundary clay, which has been interpreted as bacterial

475 reduction of seawater sulfate, indicative of local anoxia (Kaiho et al., 1999; Kajiwara and
476 Kaiho, 1992; Schmitz et al., 1988).

477 Only few high-resolution K-Pg boundary redox-sensitive trace-elemental records
478 exist. The records of (Sosa-Montes De Oca et al., 2013) of the Caravaca section and
479 (Martinez-Ruiz et al., 1999) of the Agost section show an enrichment in typical redox-
480 sensitive elements like molybdenum and vanadium in the sample from the K-Pg boundary
481 ejecta layer. As this enrichment was only recorded within the boundary ejecta layer, the
482 authors argued that the oxygen depletion following the Chicxulub impact was very brief, in
483 the order of hundreds of years (Sosa-Montes De Oca et al., 2013).

484 Also ichnological analyses of the K-Pg boundary interval can provide insights in the
485 redox conditions across this interval (e.g. (Rodríguez-Tovar and Uchman, 2006, 2008), a
486 method that is particularly effective when combined with geochemical analyses of individual
487 trace fossils (Sosa-Montes de Oca et al., 2016). These methods have been extensively applied
488 on the Caravaca section (Rodríguez-Tovar and Uchman, 2006, 2008; Sosa-Montes de Oca et
489 al., 2016) and confirm that the anoxia/hypoxia following the K-Pg boundary impact was very
490 brief at this bathyal site.

491 Summarizing, various lines of evidence from widely separated shelf and bathyal sites
492 in Spain, France, Tunisia, Denmark, Japan, New Zealand, suggest short-lived hypoxia or
493 anoxia occurred directly following the Chicxulub impact. In upper bathyal sites such as
494 Caravaca and Bidart, these hypoxic/anoxic conditions appear to have been particularly short-
495 lived, i.e. limited to the first few hundred years following the impact (Sosa-Montes De Oca et
496 al., 2013). In some records, this phase was so short that it is only represented inside post-K-Pg
497 trace fossils hosted in uppermost Cretaceous strata (Alegret et al., 2015; Sosa-Montes de Oca
498 et al., 2016). Therefore, this signal is likely often missed in comparatively lower-resolution

499 studies (e.g. (Vellekoop et al., 2017). Evidence for hypoxic/anoxic conditions appears to be
500 generally lacking from deeper marine K-Pg boundary sites (e.g. (Culver, 2003)), suggesting
501 that this perturbation predominantly occurred at shallower marine sites. This observation is
502 consistent with the hypothesis put forward in our study, that the recorded oxygen depletion
503 resulted from decreased gas solubility and ocean ventilation resulting from the warming sea
504 water, in combination with an increased oxygen demand in shelf bottom waters due to the
505 increased nutrient inputs and resulting enhanced productivity.

506

507

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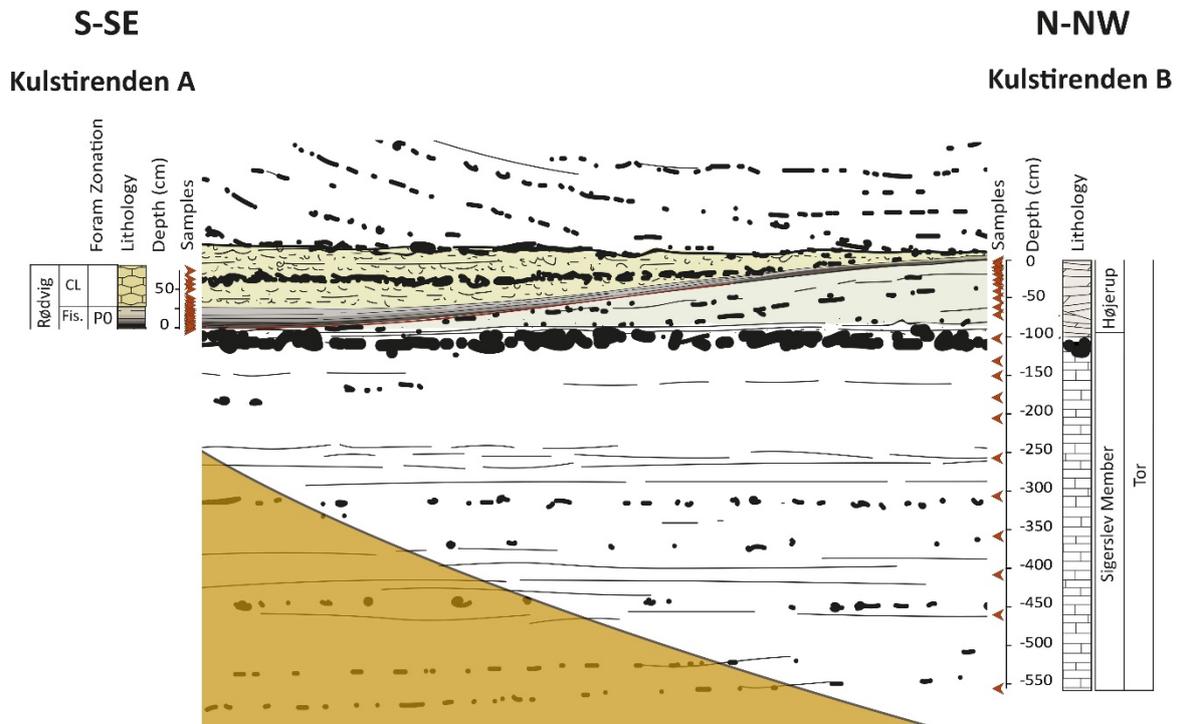
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791 **SI FIGURES**

792 SI Figure S1



793

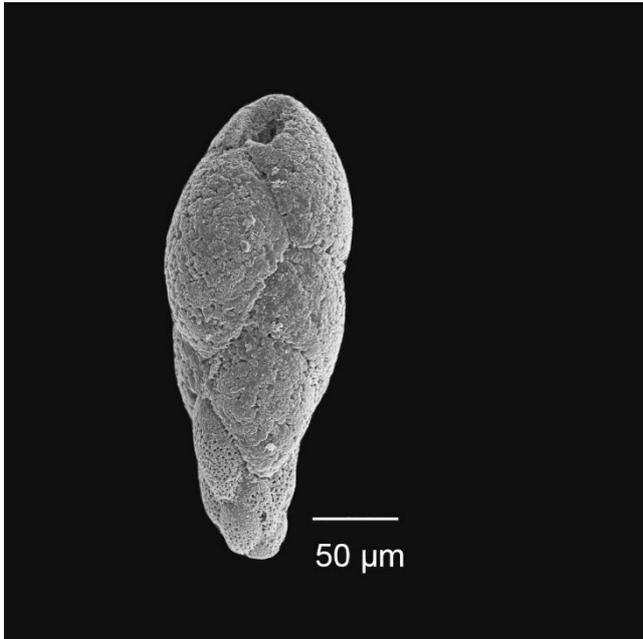
794 **SI Figure S1 caption**

795 The two sample localities at Kulstirenden, Stevns Klint, Denmark. To allow for relative high temporal
796 resolution in both the topmost Cretaceous and basal Paleogene, the Fiskeler Member was sampled in
797 one of the basins between the Hojerup Member bryozoan mound crests, where the Fiskeler K-Pg
798 boundary clay reaches a thickness of 27-28 cm (Kulstirenden A), while the Sigerslev and Hojerup
799 members were sampled about 15 meters laterally from this point, where the Hojerup Member reaches
800 a thickness of approximately 1 meter (Kulstirenden B). Consequently, the Kulstirenden record used in
801 this study is a composite (splice) record. The lower part of the sequence at Kulstirenden A is covered
802 by overburden. This schematic drawing has a vertical exaggeration of 2x.

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805 SI Figure S2



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808 **SI Figure S2 caption**

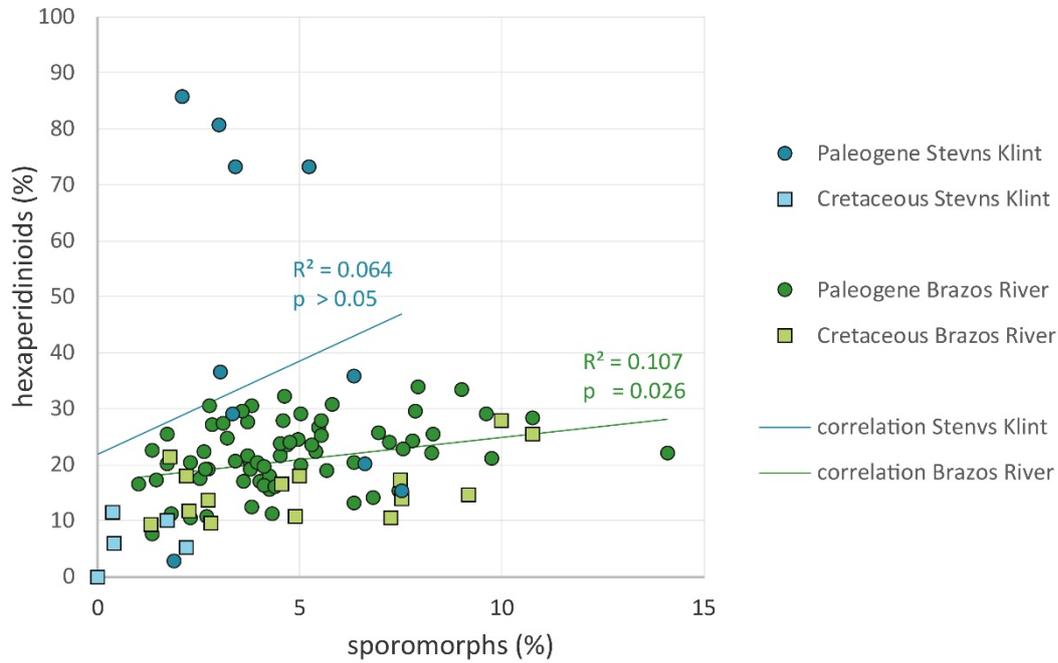
809 *Fursenkoina* sp. (Loeblich and Tappan). Brazos-1 sample BR4a (18.5 cm above base limestone).

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812 SI Figure S3

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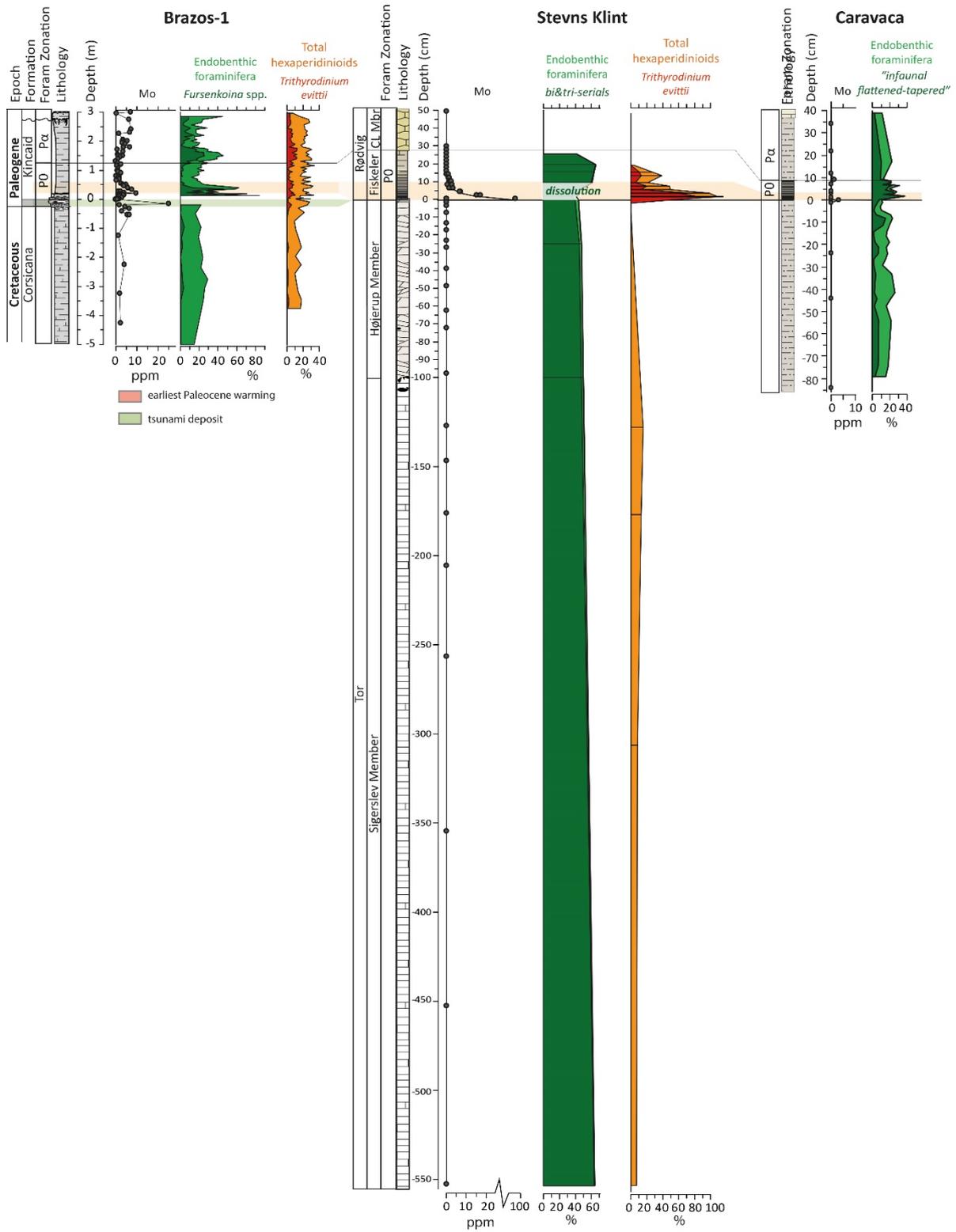


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815 **SI Figure S3 caption**

816 Relative abundances of hexaperidinioids against the relative abundances of sporomorphs for the
817 Brazos -1 and Stevns Klint composite sections, indicating that there is a weak but statistically
818 significant correlation between the relative abundances of hexaperidinioids and relative abundances of
819 sporomorphs at Brazos-1, but no statistically significant correlation between these parameters at
820 Stevns Klint.

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825 **SI Figure S4 caption**

826 Mo, benthic foraminiferal and palynological records of Brazos-1, the Stevns Klint composite
827 and Caravaca. The earliest Paleocene warming is indicated in red. The benthic foraminiferal
828 record of Caravaca is from (Coccioni and Galeotti, 1994). The lower 10 cm of the Paleocene
829 of Stevns Klint is characterized by strong dissolution.

830

831

832 **SI TABLES**

833 **SI Table S1 caption**

834 major and minor element compositions Brazos -1, Stevns Klint and Caravaca sections.

835

836 **SI Table S2 caption**

837 Benthic foraminiferal data of the Brazos -1 and Stevns Klint sections.

838

839 **SI Table S3 caption**

840 Marine palynological data of the Brazos -1 and Stevns Klint sections.

841