Geochemical compositional mapping of Lower Jurassic trace fossils: palaeoenvironmental significance and methodological implications

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Highlights

XRF compositional maps show geochemical differences between burrows and host sediment

BSE images show relatively high content of pyrite and organic matter within burrows Environmental conditions for preserving OM were better within burrow galleries Burrow-water reducing conditions acted as traps for organic matter preservation Compositional maps are useful for testing geochemical heterogeneity in bioturbated rocks

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2	palaeoenvironmental significance and methodological implications
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12	ABSTRACT
13	Analyses of X-ray microfluorescence (XRF) elemental maps of the ichnofossil
14	assemblages from the upper Pliensbachian-lower Toarcian marl-limestone rhythmite of
15	the South Iberian Palaeomargin (Betic Cordillera, SE Spain) show that the compositions
16	of burrow infills are geochemically and mineralogically different with respect to the
17	surrounding sediment. XRF elemental maps and back-scattered electron images show
18	pyrite framboids within the burrows and enrichment in Fe and S relative to the host
19	sediment. This is congruent with the position of burrows beneath the redox boundary at
20	the time of their active or passive sedimentary infilling. Organic matter that accumulated
21	at the seafloor was not preserved due to oxidation and consumption by benthic organisms.
22	However, burrows located beneath the redox boundary served as traps for organic matter
23	preservation. The composition of burrow fills reflects the original signal of the redox
24	conditions of pore-waters below the sediment-water interface, which was not preserved
25	in the surrounding sediment. The XRF elemental maps also show that some trace fossils

from limestone and marly-limestone intervals contain high concentrations of Si, Al, K, Zn, Cr, and Ti with respect to the surrounding sediment. This may reflect enrichment of clay minerals in the burrow fills derived from overlying marly layers. This work proposes the use of elemental imaging of trace fossils prior bulk-rock geochemical analyses in order to evaluate the potential for biogenic heterogeneity and elemental partitioning before sampling. Geochemical analysis of trace fossils represents an additional tool that may be of use in hydrocarbon exploration.

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34 KEYWORDS: Organic matter; redox conditions; X-ray fluorescence;
35 Pliensbachian;Toarcian; ichnofossil

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37 1. Introduction

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It is widely known that burrows may be characterised by redox-related 39 microenvironmental conditions that differ from those at the seafloor (Kristensen, 2000; 40 Wetzel, 2010; Wetzel and Uchman, 2012; Gilbert et al., 2016), which can affect bacterial 41 communities and metabolism (Waslenchuk et al., 1983; Gibert et al., 2016). Sediments 42 43 infilling burrows may be deposited under different environmental conditions than those at the sediment-water interface. In addition, most tracemakers live in oxic bottom-water 44 and sediments with oxic pore-waters, but some tracemakers are tolerant of low pore-water 45 oxygen levels. These include the tracemakers of *Chondrites*, interpreted to live at the 46 aerobic-anoxic interface as a chemosymbiotic organism (Ekdale and Bromley, 1984; 47 48 Seilacher, 1990; Fu, 1991), and Trichichnus (McBride and Picard, 1991). Moreover, the burrowers can modify redox conditions within the sediment and control the mobility of 49 redox-sensitive elements (Kristensen, 2000; Harazim et al., 2015). 50

The different conditions between sediment infilling the burrow and the 51 52 surrounding sediment favour the recognition of burrows in sediments when they clearly contrast with the host sediment. Different conditions within burrows are evidenced in the 53 fossil record by different textures, grain sizes, organic matter (OM) contents, and colours 54 of burrow fills compared to that of host sediment. Taphonomy must be considered 55 56 because erosion, compaction, and diverse diagenetic factors may have significant impacts 57 on the material preserved in the trace fossils (Hallam, 1975). Additionally, the role of the bioturbation and early diagenesis in the origin of nodularity from condensed sections has 58 been widely studied (e.g. Fürsich, 1973, 1979; Eller, 1981; Reolid et al., 2015). 59 60 Ichnofabrics provide information on palaeoecological and depositional conditions during sedimentation such as oxygenation, sedimentation rate, type of ground, and availability 61 of trophic resources. The sediment pore-water oxygenation is one of the parameters that 62 63 strongly controls the infaunal assemblages and the ichnofabrics in mud substrates (e.g. Savrda, 2007). Ichnology has proven to be a useful tool for palaeoenvironmental 64 65 interpretations, basin analysis, and even reservoir characterization (Knaust, 1998; Buatois and Mángano, 2011; Ekdale et al., 2012; Giraldo-Villegas et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Tovar 66 67 et al., 2017, Reolid and Betzler, 2019). Some studies have attempted to connect 68 ichnological attributes to geophysical and geochemical proxies such as the natural gamma radiation (Reolid and Betzler, 2018; Reolid et al., 2019a). However, systematic analyses 69 of the geochemical composition of trace fossils and host rocks from marls and marly 70 71 limestones are scarce (Izumi, 2013; Izumi et al., 2014; Harazim et al., 2015).

The aim of this work is to use X-ray microfluorescence elemental maps in order to recognise geochemical differences between trace fossils and their host sediments and to assess their significance in palaeoenvironmental reconstructions and applied geology. This work shows differences in the geochemical compositions between trace fossils and

their host sediment in an upper Pliensbachian-lower Toarcian marl-limestone rhythmitesequence in the Betic Cordillera of southern Spain.

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79 2. Geological setting

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This study was focused on the La Cerradura section, located on a slope along 81 highway A-44 (37°41'47.8''N; 3°37'57.6''W), 15 km south of Jaén city (province of 82 Jaén) at km 57. The studied section belongs to the External Subbetic (Fig. 1; Betic 83 External Zones; Reolid et al., 2018). The Betic External Zones comprise the Prebetic and 84 85 Subbetic, both made up of thick successions of Triassic to Miocene strata (Vera, 2004). The Prebetic sediments were deposited in more proximal settings (shallow marine shelf, 86 coastal plain, and continental environments) during the Jurassic and Cretaceous. The 87 88 Subbetic represents distal settings, i.e. pelagic swells and subsiding central troughs during the Jurassic. The studied interval ranges from the Algovianum Zone (upper 89 Pliensbachian) to the Polymorphum Zone (lower Toarcian) and comprises hemipelagic 90 marls and marly limestones of the Zegrí Formation. The fragmentation of the south 91 Iberian palaeomargin during the late Pliensbachian and the variable subsidence of 92 93 different tilted blocks controlled the differences in thickness and facies during the Toarcian (Reolid et al., 2018). In La Cerradura section, the main changes in lithofacies 94 are registered around the Polymorphum/Serpentinum zone boundary (Figs. 1 and 2) 95 related to decreasing carbonate content and the development of dark marls associated 96 with the Toarcian Oceanic Anoxic Event (T-OAE) and a negative carbon isotopic 97 excursion (CIE) (Reolid et al., 2014). The T-OAE has been recognised in the Zegrí 98 99 Formation (e.g., Jiménez et al., 1996; Rodríguez-Tovar and Reolid, 2013; Reolid, 2014; Reolid et al., 2014) in the Serpentinum Zone. In La Cerradura section, the lower part of 100

the Serpentinum Zone is also characterised by an increase in total organic carbon (TOC), 101 102 a negative CIE, and an increase in redox sensitive elements (Reolid et al., 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2019). This succession has low TOC contents (around 0.3 wt.%) with the highest 103 104 values (0.46 wt.%) around the Polymorphum-Serpentinum zone boundary (Rodrigues et al., 2019). The main contribution to the organic matter content in La Cerradura section is 105 106 from terrestrial input with a minor marine contribution (see Rodrigues et al., 2019). Trace-107 fossil assemblage diversity is low in the Serpentinum Zone and, locally, trace fossils are 108 absent in the interval of maximum values of TOC and the negative CIE.

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110 **3. Materials and methods**

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112 La Cerradura section is 81.6 m thick including upper Pliensbachian and lower 113 Toarcian. Strata with the Algovianum Zone (upper Pliensbachian) through the Polymorphum Zone (lower Toarcian) are composed of alternating marls and marly 114 115 limestones (65.1 m), whereas the Serpentinum Zone is represented by dark marls (16.5 116 m). Marly layers of the rhythmite are composed mainly of calcite (average 71%), phyllosilicates (19%), quartz (6%), and minor amount of K feldspar, gypsum, and 117 118 celestine. Phyllosilicates correspond to illite and illite/smectite mixed layers (average 86%), kaolinite, and chlorite. The amount of calcite in the dark marls of the Serpentinum 119 Zone is lower (53%) than in the rhythmite, whereas phyllosilicates content is higher 120 (35%). This mineralogical composition was also reported by Palomo (1987) from other 121 Pliensbachian and Toarcian sections of the Subbetic. 122

For this study, a total of 21 samples were collected from the marly limestone beds of the Algovianum (14) and Polymorphum (7) zones. Polished slabs with 1 cm thick were prepared and scanned at the Universidad de Jaén using a Bruker XR-microfluorescence

126 M4 Tornado equipped with a rhodium target X-ray tube with a high voltage of 50 kV, a 127 current of 600 μ A and pressure of 20 mbar. The spotsize of the X-ray optics is 25 μ m. 128 The maximum penetration depth from which fluorescence X-rays can still reach the 129 detector is less than 20 μ m, which allows for the comparison of the different polished 130 slabs independently of their thickness. This low penetration does not allow deep analysis 131 inside the rock, it does permit analyses of vertical and lateral compositional changes, 132 especially the contrast between the host sediment and the infills of trace fossils.

The geochemical compositional maps obtained for each element are represented 133 by a range of colour intensity that indicates the relative concentration of each element. 134 135 The microfacies and the burrow infillings were characterised in thin section using a stereographic petrographic microscope Leica M205 C. In addition, carbon-coated 136 137 polished thin sections were examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using 138 back-scattered electron (BSE) images and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) with a Merlin Carl Zeiss instrument housed in the Centro de Instrumentación Científico-139 140 Técnica of the Universidad de Jaén (Spain). This technique was employed to obtain 141 textural data from BSE imaging based on the atomic-number contrast mode and semiquantitative chemical data by EDX analysis. Sieved samples were prepared for the 142 143 Polymorphum Zone for determining the presence of phytodetritus in the $< 500 \mu m$ fraction. The retrieved small wood fragments were photographed in the SEM with 144 145 secondary electrons images.

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147 4. Results
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149 Reolid et al. (2014) previously analysed the trace fossil assemblages from the 150 Emaciatum Zone (upper Pliensbachian) to Serpentinum Zone (lower Toarcian) and

identified six ichnogenera. These include common Planolites, Thalassinoides, 151 152 Teichichnus, and Chondrites, and rarer Palaeophycus and Trichichnus. In addition to these ichnogenera, Taenidium and Lamellaeichnus were also documented in the 153 154 Algovianum Zone in the current study (Fig. 3). Most of the ichnogenera corresponds to dwelling structures with passive infilling (Thalassinoides, Teichichnus, 155 and 156 Palaeophycus) and burrows of deposit-feeders with active infilling (Planolites, 157 Lamellaeichnus, and Taenidium) (see Gerard and Bromley, 2008). Chondrites has been 158 interpreted as a unknown deposit-feeder tracemaker adapted to oxygen depleted conditions (Savrda and Bottjer, 1986; Fu, 1991) as a chemosymbiotic organism involving 159 160 sulphide microorganisms (e.g. Ekdale and Bromley, 1984)

Field observations show that the infill of the trace fossils are darker in colour than 161 162 the host rock both in marls and marly limestone beds (Fig. 3). Such ichnofabrics are 163 referred to as dark-on-light zones by Savrda (2007). In the analysis under the stereographic microscope, the fills of trace fossils also contain higher concentrations of 164 165 small (< 5 mm) wood fragments (preserved as coal) and pyrite framboids than the host 166 mudstones do (Figs. 4 and 5). Coal fragments are particularly more evident in the samples coming from the Polymorphum Zone (Figs. 3E, F). The semi-quantitative analysis by 167 168 EDX confirmed that black grains observed in BSE images are organic matter. Moreover, wood remains are identified after the analysis of sieved samples (Fig. 6), and their 169 presence was also reported by Reolid et al. (2019b). 170

The BSE images of the thin sections (Fig. 5) comprising the burrow fills show the presence of pyrite framboids as previously reported by Gallego-Torres et al. (2015) in the Fuente Vidriera section, also located in the External Subbetic. Pyrite associated to trace fossils may appear as single framboids but commonly as lenticular-shape and dumbbell-

shape polyframboid aggregates. Only locally, pyrite concretions have been identified inareas with high pyrite framboid content.

The compositional maps obtained with the XR-microfluorescence show chemical differences in the content of some elements between the burrow fills and the host sediment (Figs. 7-10). These compositional differences are not uniform within a sample and they can change even within a single trace fossil.

181 The compositional maps of trace fossils of the Algovianum Zone display a clear enrichment in pyrite framboids as deduced by higher concentrations in Fe and S (Figs. 7 182 183 and 8). Pyrite framboids are mainly concentrated in medium- and large-diameter trace 184 fossils such as Planolites, Thalassinoides, and Lamellaeichnus (Figs. 7 and 8). The enrichment in pyrite framboids is less common in smaller trace fossils such as Chondrites 185 186 (Fig. 7). However, the enrichment in Fe and S is less evident in other samples from the 187 Algovianum Zone with the same ichnoassemblage (Fig. 9). Some trace fossil fills also contain higher concentrations of Si, Al, K, Ba, and Cr compared to the host sediment (Fig. 188 9). However, within a single sample other trace fossils show depletion in Si, Al, and K 189 190 (Fig. 9).

191 Trace fossils at the top of the Polymorphum Zone (Fig. 10) are characterised by 192 the same compositional features of those of Algovianun Zone, with an enrichment in pyrite framboids (Fe and S) and minor trace elements such as Cr. Zn, and Ti. The record 193 of large Chondrites corresponding to the ichnospecies Chondrites affinis requires special 194 195 consideration. These are characterised by a branched trace fossil with large size (burrow width ranges from 4 to 5 mm) of almost horizontal, flat, straight to slightly curved tunnels 196 197 (see more details in Uchman et al., 2012). These burrow systems are enriched in organic matter (OM, Fig. 3E) and, locally, iron oxides (Fig. 3F). In the compositional maps, Ch. 198

affinis show enrichments in Si, Fe, S, Al, K, Ba, Cr, Ti, and Zn (Fig. 10) and a depletionin Ca.

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202 5. Discussion

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The most outstanding characteristic of the studied trace fossils from the limestones 204 205 of La Cerradura section, is that they are darker than their host sediment. Savrda (2007) 206 interpreted that dark-on-light burrows were passively or actively filled with overlying darker sediment located at the sediment-water interface or mixed layer. However, the 207 208 colours of marls and limestones comprising the rhythmite of La Cerradura section are approximately the same in fresh samples. The analyses of XRF elemental maps of the 209 210 burrow fills in La Cerradura section (Figs. 7-10) show that the geochemical and 211 mineralogical compositions in the burrows fills differ from their host sediment.

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213 5.1. OM, Fe, and S distribution: Implications for oxygenation degree

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The bulk enrichment in Fe and S of the burrow fills relative to the host sediments 215 216 may point to the fact that reducing conditions were preserved in the sediment infilling of the burrows. The presence of pyrite framboids within the burrows observed in the XRF 217 elemental maps (Figs. 7-10) as well as in the BSE images (Fig. 5) is congruent with 218 reducing conditions during the sediment infilling within the burrow. However, it is not 219 possible to infer oxygen depleted conditions at the seafloor at the time of the deposition 220 of the Algovianum and the Polymorphum zones given the abundance and diversity of 221 trace makers that indicate oxygen availability. Buatois and Mángano (2011) proposed that 222 if sediment pore-waters are dysoxic or anoxic, but bottom waters are oxygenated, feeding 223

traces (fodinichnia) are the dominant ethologic groups, essentially represented by 224 225 permanent burrow systems that maintain connections to the sediment-water interface. In the studied examples, these reducing conditions are either the result of the location of the 226 227 burrows under the redox boundary with limited water circulation at the time of their infilling. This sediment infilling may be passive or active. Passive fill results from 228 material entering the burrow gravitationally (more typical of suspension-feeder and 229 230 predator trace makers such as *Thalassinoides*). Active fill is related to the behaviour of the trace maker such as deposit and detritus feeders (e.g. Lamellaeichnus, Planolites, 231 232 Taenidium). In the case of Lamellaeichnus, the distribution of Fe and S in the sediment 233 infilling the trace (Figs. 7–9) is not homogeneous, indicating that the infilling of burrow tunnels was active and that the distribution of pyrite framboids may be related to faecal 234 origin. Microbially mediated precipitation of Fe minerals related to faecal pellets excreted 235 236 by a sediment-feeder trace-maker have been documented previously by Izumi et al. (2015) and Harding and Ekdale (2018). Pyritization of fecal pellets and coprolites have 237 238 been also reported (e.g. Odin et al., 2016; Emmings et al., 2019). According to Simo and 239 Tomasovych (2013), the trace maker of Lamellaeichnus was a deposit-feeder that was tolerant of oxygen depleted bottom waters. However, in the studied materials, reducing 240 241 conditions were only reached beneath the redox boundary within the sediment (Fig. 11).

Pyrite associated to trace fossils occurs as single framboids, lenticular-shape
polyframboid aggregates, and dumbbell-shape polyframboid aggregates. These shapes
are related to a synsedimentary or earlier hypoxic diagenesis context (Wilkin et al., 1996;
Wang et al., 2013). Only locally, pyrite mass concretions have been identified in areas
with high pyrite-framboid content interpreted as diagenetic pyrite.

Waslenchuk et al. (1983) studied modern burrow waters of *Callianassa* shrimp characterised by concentrations of nutrients, sulfide, and organic carbon that were higher

than in overlying bottom-waters. These authors proposed the existence of chemical 249 250 gradients from pore-water to burrow-water affecting remineralised nutrients and trace elements (NH4⁺, NO2⁻, NO, N2O, Fe2⁺, S2⁻, and CH4). In the case of Callianassa, 251 252 Waslenchuk et al. (1983) measured oxygen-poor, sulfide-rich burrow-water and inferred that Callianassa shrimp and associated microbial community were tolerant of oxygen-253 254 depleted conditions. Therefore, in the studied examples from the Lower Jurassic, it is 255 proposed that the reducing conditions were developed below the sediment-water 256 interface, but the chemical gradient from pore-water to burrow-water favoured the preservation of OM included in the sediment fills of the burrow passively or actively 257 258 (faecal pellets?) by the tracemaker (Fig. 12). In general, the vertical distribution of the OM within the sediment presents a gradient. Organic matter is more abundant close to 259 260 the sediment-water interface (Figs. 11 and 12), which results in a peak of available trophic 261 resources for deposit and detritus feeders that preferentially occupy shallow tiers (Walker and Bambach, 1974; Olóriz et al., 2006; Reolid et al., 2008; Buatois and Mángano, 2011). 262 263 The OM that accumulated at the seafloor was not preserved due to the oxidation, 264 consumption by benthic organisms and microorganisms, and the subsequent sulfate reduction below the redox boundary within the sediment. The especial environment of 265 266 the burrows favoured a relatively higher OM matter content due to the infilling by comparatively organic-matter richer sediment derived from the sediment-water interface 267 (also called mixed layer). Thus, the burrows worked as traps for OM preservation (Fig. 268 12). Remineralization of OM by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) within the burrow fills 269 during the early diagenesis favoured the precipitation of pyrite. 270

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272 5.2. Enrichment of elements related to detrital input

Some trace fossils from limestone and marly-limestone intervals contain relatively 274 275 high concentrations of Si, Al, and K with respect to the host sediments, which likely reflects an enrichment of clay minerals in the burrow tunnel (Figs. 9 and 10). This is 276 277 probably associated with the infilling from overlying marly layers of the rhythmite. In some cases, the trace fossils show enrichment in Cr, Zn, and Ti. Chromium under normal 278 sea-water conditions is soluble as chromate anion (Tribovillard et al., 2006), but under 279 280 oxygen depleted conditions, Cr(IV) is reduced to Cr(III), forming hydroxyl cations that 281 can be incorporated to humic and fulvic acids. The Cr(III) is not incorporated to Fesulfides such as pyrite framboids (Morse and Luther, 1999), and therefore, the 282 283 remineralization of the OM by SRB does not favour the trapping of Cr within the sediment as sulfide. Thus, the Cr content is related to OM or clay minerals. In the case of Zn, it has 284 a low sensitivity to pyritization (Thomson et al., 1998; Morse and Luther, 1999; 285 286 Tribovillard et al., 2006). Titanium in sedimentary basins is usually interpreted as related to detrital input (as rutile or substituting in the clay minerals; Spears and Kanaris-Sotiriou, 287 288 1976), mainly of eolian origin (Pye, 1987; Chen et al., 2013; Rodríguez-Tovar and Reolid, 289 2013). For this reason, the enrichment of Zn, Cr, and Ti also could be related to the presence of clay minerals that incorporated these elements. According to Palomo (1987) 290 291 in coeval sections of the Subbetic, the clays are mainly illite, illite/smectite mixed layers, kaolinite, and chlorite. The enrichment in Ba within some trace fossils describes the same 292 distribution that Si, Al, and K and is interpreted as related to fine detrital plagioclase or 293 294 barite crystals.

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296 5.3. Sediment infilling of Chondrites affinis: the potential relation to the T-OAE

The composition of the burrow fills shows the original signal of the redox 298 299 conditions below the sediment-water interface, which was different to the seafloor where organic matter was consumed and decayed. This higher content of organic matter and the 300 301 reducing conditions within the burrows favoured the formation of pyrite framboids. The OM enrichment of the sediment infills of trace fossils near the top of Polymorphum Zone, 302 especially in the case of *Chondrites affinis*, may be related to the oxygen-depleted 303 304 conditions developed in the dark marls of the Serpentinum Zone. These marls have been 305 related to the T-OAE (Reolid et al., 2014; Baeza-Carratalá et al., 2017; Reolid et al., 2019b; Rodrigues et al., 2019). The relative increase of OM (Fig. 3E, F) and Cr (Fig. 306 307 10H) contents of the Ch. affinis could be related to the beginning of the T-OAE in the overlying dark marls of Serpentinum Zone where increased values of TOC and Cr have 308 309 been reported (Reolid et al., 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2019). The examples of Ch. affinis 310 described by Uchman et al. (2012) from the Eocene of the southern Apennines, are also infilled by massive dark mudstones and interpreted as derived from the overlying 311 312 sediment. A similar situation is observed with the dark mudstones associated with cyclic 313 anoxia in the Oligocene of the Maldives (Swart et al., 2019).

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315 5.4. Methodological implications for geochemical sampling of bioturbated rocks

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The study of oxygen-influenced trace fossils is commonly relevant in the exploration for hydrocarbon resources (Bockelie, 1991; Schieber, 2003; Ekdale et al., 2012). Geochemical analyses of trace fossils exemplified in the current study represent a new ichnological approach that may be of great interest in different research areas included the hydrocarbon exploration. In any case, compositional differences observed between trace fossils and host rock have relevance for sampling methods of bioturbatedsediments when analysing stratigraphic fluctuations of redox geochemical proxies.

The results of this work have implications for the interpretation of geochemical 324 proxies through stratigraphic successions, particularly when elemental analyses are 325 employed to characterise palaeoenvironmental conditions and to predict reservoir quality. 326 Bioturbated rocks may be heterogeneous from geochemical point of view. Hence, careful 327 328 sampling procedure is needed, except in cases with very low bioturbation and the original 329 sediment fabric is preserved, or where very high bioturbation exists and the fabric is homogeneous. The use of elemental maps is recommended for testing geochemical 330 331 differences between trace fossils and host rock.

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333 6. Conclusions

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Analyses of XRF elemental maps of ichnofossil assemblages from the marl-335 336 limestone rhythmite of La Cerradura section (Lower Jurassic, SE Spain) shows that the 337 compositions of the burrow fills are geochemically and mineralogically different with respect to the surrounding sediment. Burrow infills show enrichment in Fe and S relative 338 339 to the host sediment. This, together with the presence of pyrite framboids within the burrow fills, observed in the XRF elemental maps and in the BSE images, is congruent 340 with reducing conditions. This demonstrates the location of the burrows beneath the redox 341 342 boundary with low water circulation at the time of their active or passive infilling. This study also shows that reducing conditions acted as traps for organic matter preservation 343 344 within the burrows, while the organic matter that was accumulated in the seafloor, was not preserved due to oxidation, and consumption by benthic organisms and 345 microorganisms. Thus, the composition of the trace fossil infills reflects different redox 346

347 conditions than those at the sediment-water interface. Chemical gradients from pore-348 water to burrow-water favoured the preservation of OM trapped within the burrow.

The XRF elemental maps also show that some trace fossils from limestone and marly-limestone intervals contain higher concentrations of Si, Al, and K, and other minor components as Zn, Cr, and Ti, with respect to the surrounding host sediment. This is related to the enrichment of clay minerals inside the burrows resulting from infilling from overlying (clastic-richer) marly layer of the rhythmite. Enrichment in Ba within some trace fossils describes the same distribution and may be related to fine detrital plagioclase or barite crystals.

356 Bulk-rock geochemical analysis should be complemented with elemental imaging of trace fossils in order to evaluate the potential for biogenic heterogeneity and elemental 357 358 partitioning. Geochemical analysis on trace fossils presented in this work is an implement 359 with respect to classical ichnological work. The compositional differences observed between trace fossils and host rock have relevance for sampling methods employed on 360 361 bioturbated sediments, particularly for studies directed towards predicting reservoir 362 quality and analysing stratigraphic fluctuations of redox geochemical proxies in palaeoenvironmental studies 363

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538

539 Figure caption

540

Fig. 1. Location of the studied section. A. Geological setting of the La Cerradura section
(star) in the External Subbetic (External Zones of the Betic Cordillera). B. Field view of
the outcrop including marl and marly limestone rhythms of the Pliensbachian
(Algovianum and Emaciatum zones) and lower Toarcian (Polymorphum Zone), and dark
marls of the lower Toarcian (Serpentinum Zone).

Fig. 2. Stratigraphic log of La Cerradura section with location of the studied samples and
the interval representing the Toarcian Oceanic Anoxic Event and the negative carbon
isotopic excursion (Reolid et al., 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2019).

549 Fig. 3. Field and polished slab photos of trace fossils. A-D. Ichnoassemblage from

550 Algovianum Zone (upper Pliensbachian). Note: Ch., Chondrites; Th., Thalassinoides, Pl.,

551 Planolites, Ta., Taenidium. E and F. Detail of Chondrites affinis from the top of

552 Polymorphum Zone (lower Toarcian) with red circles indicating the presence of organic

553 matter (OM) rich areas. Note the presence of a tunnel composed of iron oxides, probably

after pyrite (Py.) in F. Scale bars = 1 cm.

555 Fig. 4. Trace fossils in thin section. A-D Photomicrographs of *Planolites* under 556 transmitted light (A and C), and reflected light (B and D). Dark particles in A and C are

557 phytodetritus (OM, yellow arrows and circles) and pyrite framboids (Py, white arrows).

558 Pyrite framboids appear as white masses in B. E-F Transmitted light and reflected light

559 images of a *Chondrites affinis*. Pyrite framboids (Py, white arrows) correspond to dark

560 areas in E and to white masses in F.

Fig. 5. BSE images of trace fossils in thin section of the Algovianum Zone (upper
Pliensbachian). A and B. Lamination within the infilling of *Lamellaeichnus* reflected by
the concentration of dark organic particles (OM). Pyrite framboids (Py) appear as intense
brightness masses. C. Pyritized section of *Chondrites*. D. Section of partially pyritized
unidentified trace fossil.

Fig. 6. SEM images of wood fragments preserved as coal retrieved from sieved samplein the Polymorphum Zone.

Fig. 7. Polished slab of a burrowed limestone bed from Algovianum Zone (upper
Pliensbachian) showing trace fossils (A; yellow areas are weathered parts) and
compositional map highlighting the distribution of Fe (B). Abbreviations: *Ch.*, *Chondrites*; *La.*, *Lamellaeichnus*; *Ta.*, *Taenidium*; *Th.*, *Thalassinoides*.

Fig. 8. Two polished slabs of bioturbated limestones (A, B) from Algovianum Zone
(upper Pliensbachian) and corresponding maps of Fe (C, D) and S (E, F). Note the pyrite
concretion in A with 1 cm in diameter. Abbreviations: *Ch. Chondrites*; *Pl., Planolites*; *Te., Teichichnus*; *Th., Thalassinoides*; Py., pyrite.

576 Fig. 9. Polished slab of bioturbated limestone (A) from Algovianum Zone (upper

577 Pliensbachian) and corresponding compositional maps for Al, Ba, Cr, Fe, K, S and Si.

578 Some trace fossils observed in A such as *Planolites (Pl.)* present enrichment in all

579 elements, others such as *Thalassinoides* (*Th.*) show relative enrichment just for Fe and S

580 but not always, and *Palaeophycus (Pa.)* are similar to host sediment.

581 Fig. 10. Bioturbated limestone sample from the top of the Polymorphum Zone (lower

582 Toarcian) and corresponding compositional maps for Si, Ca, Fe, Al, K, Ba, Cr, Ti and Zn.

583 The surface of the sample is parallel to the bedding.

584 Fig. 11 Location of food resources with respect to the sediment-water interface and the

585 idealized vertical distribution of oxic, suboxic, and the reduced zones of Kristensen

(2000) compared with the trace-fossil tiering for La Cerradura section. Note: 1) The highest concentrations of OM occur at sediment-water interface; 2) Labile OM is consumed (aerobic respiration and OM oxidation) in the oxic zone within the sediment; 3) OM content decreases with depth in the suboxic zone as a result of microbial decomposition by anaerobic bacteria; 4) The microbial activity (mainly SRB, see text) and the labile OM are low in the reduced zone (anoxic conditions) and most of the OM is refractory not a food resource.

593 Fig. 12. Model of OM and oxygen distribution in a transect without burrow (left) and a transect through a burrow (right). Note the vertical distribution of the OM within the 594 595 sediment presents a gradient with higher content close to the sediment-water interface. OM contents in the seafloor decrease with depth due to consumption by deposit and 596 597 detritus feeder and aerobic and anaerobic microbial decomposition. However, the burrow 598 contains a comparatively higher OM concentration with respect to the host sediment 599 because it is infilled by material coming from the seafloor. The oxygen-poor, sulfide-rich, 600 burrow-water led to enhanced OM preservation compared with the oxic bottom-waters. 601 In this sense, the burrows served as traps for OM preservation.

























