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2 **Oceanic redox conditions through the late Pliensbachian to early Toarcian on the**  
3 **northwestern Panthalassa margin: Insights from pyrite and geochemical data**

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5 Kentaro Izumi<sup>a\*</sup>, Kasumi Endo<sup>b</sup>, David B. Kemp<sup>c</sup>, Mutsuko Inui<sup>b</sup>

6 *<sup>a</sup> Faculty & Graduate School of Education, Chiba University, 1-33 Yayoi-cho, Inage-*  
7 *ku, Chiba-shi, Chiba 263-8522, Japan*

8 *<sup>b</sup> School of Science and Engineering, Kokushikan University, 4-28-1 Setagaya,*  
9 *Setagaya-ku, Tokyo 154-8515, Japan*

10 *<sup>c</sup> School of Geosciences, University of Aberdeen, Old Aberdeen, Aberdeen, AB24*  
11 *3UE, UK*

12

13 \*E-mail: [izumi@chiba-u.jp](mailto:izumi@chiba-u.jp) (corresponding author)

14

15 **Abstract**

16

17 The early Toarcian oceanic anoxic event (T-OAE; ~183 Ma) was a significant  
18 palaeoenvironmental perturbation associated with marked changes in oceanic redox  
19 conditions. However, the precise redox conditions and redox history of various water  
20 masses during the T-OAE, especially those from outside the Boreal and Tethyan  
21 realms, are unclear. To address this issue, we present pyrite framboid data from an  
22 upper Pliensbachian to lower Toarcian succession deposited on the NW Panthalassic  
23 margin in a shallow-water setting (Sakuraguchi-dani section, Toyora area, SW Japan).

24 Available data on redox-sensitive trace elements from the same succession suggest  
25 that dysoxic bottom-water conditions generally prevailed, with intermittent short-term  
26 oxygenation events. Size-distribution analysis of pyrite framboids reveals that  
27 framboid size populations from the silty mudstones during the OAE were  
28 characterized by small mean diameters and standard deviations. This suggests that  
29 euxinic conditions at least intermittently occurred during the T-OAE interval. Most  
30 likely, this water-column euxinia was associated with the expansion of an oxygen  
31 minimum zone linked to increased primary productivity. This interpretation is  
32 consistent with a previously reported increase in fluvial discharge and thus nutrient  
33 flux caused by a strengthening of the hydrological cycle.

34

35 Keywords: euxinia; pyrite framboid; trace element; vanadium; Toyora Group; Japan

36

### 37 **1. Introduction**

38

39 The early Toarcian oceanic anoxic event (T-OAE; ~183 Ma) represents one of  
40 the most significant paleoenvironmental perturbations of the Mesozoic, resulting in  
41 marked disruption to both the climate system and biosphere. The T-OAE was  
42 associated in particular with the widespread, ostensibly global, deposition of organic-  
43 rich facies under generally reducing conditions (Jenkyns, 1988; Fig. 1A). These strata  
44 are characterized by a marked negative excursion of ~3-7 ‰ in carbon isotopes ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ )  
45 of marine organic matter, marine carbonate and terrestrial plant material from open- to  
46 marginal-marine settings (e.g. Hesselbo et al., 2000; Jenkyns et al., 2001; Al-Suwaidi  
47 et al., 2010; Caruthers et al., 2011; Gröcke et al., 2011; Kafousia et al., 2011; Izumi et  
48 al., 2012). Studies of compound specific carbon isotopes suggest that the absolute

49 magnitude of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  negative excursion was ~3-4 ‰ (Schouten et al., 2000; French  
50 et al., 2014; see also Suan et al., 2015). This feature has been attributed to a large-  
51 scale transfer of carbon-12 through the exogenic carbon cycle, possibly from methane  
52 hydrate dissociation or from carbon released thermogenically from organic matter  
53 sources. The ultimate trigger for both these carbon sources may have been the Karoo-  
54 Ferrar Large Igneous Province (Hesselbo et al., 2000; Kemp et al., 2005; McElwain et  
55 al., 2005; Svensen et al., 2007).

56 Coeval with the negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion in a number of locations is associated  
57 evidence for abrupt seawater warming, ocean acidification, enhanced hydrological  
58 cycling, an increase in continental weathering rates, and ocean deoxygenation (Bailey  
59 et al., 2003; Pearce et al., 2008; Dera et al., 2009; Trecalli et al., 2012; Kemp and  
60 Izumi, 2014; Brazier et al., 2015; Krencker et al., 2015; Fujisaki et al., 2016; Percival  
61 et al., 2016). In addition, marine organisms were negatively affected by oxygen-  
62 depleted conditions during the T-OAE, resulting in mass extinction, elevated rates of  
63 biotic turnover, and organism size reduction (e.g. Morten and Twitchett, 2009;  
64 Caswell and Coe, 2013; Danise et al., 2013). Previous studies have suggested that  
65 euxinic conditions existed during the T-OAE in Boreal/Tethyan shallow-marine and  
66 Panthalassic pelagic settings, based on the geochemistry of redox-sensitive elements,  
67 biomarker evidence, and framboidal pyrite data (e.g. Schouten et al., 2000; Bowden et  
68 al., 2006; van Breugel et al., 2006; Wignall et al., 2010; Fujisaki et al., 2016).  
69 However, in shallow-water settings of Panthalassa the precise redox conditions (e.g.  
70 euxinic/anoxic, suboxic, dysoxic, oxic; Tyson and Pearson, 1991) and deoxygenation  
71 history through the T-OAE are unclear.

72 To address this issue, a new petrographic investigation of pyrite framboid size,  
73 coupled with new carbon-isotope analyses, has been carried out on strata deposited on

74 the northwestern margin of the Panthalassa Ocean, and which is now exposed in  
75 southwestern Japan. This section, deposited on a shallow-marine setting, has recently  
76 been shown to preserve a record of the early Toarcian negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion  
77 spanning ~35 m (Izumi et al., 2012; Kemp and Izumi, 2014). As such, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
78 excursion of the T-OAE is one of the most expanded yet described, and thus ideally  
79 suited to assess the relationship between the T-OAE carbon-cycle perturbation and  
80 redox changes.

81 Quantification of the size distribution of pyrite framboids is an established  
82 redox proxy, and this method has been used for reconstructing the palaeo-redox  
83 history of a number of geological intervals such as the Latest Permian to Triassic (e.g.  
84 Huang et al., 2017; Liao et al., 2017). Therefore, framboid data of the present study  
85 hold potential for better understanding the nature of redox changes through the T-  
86 OAE in the shallow Panthalassa margin setting. Pyrite framboids are an established  
87 indicator of redox conditions in both modern and ancient basins, and in a variety of  
88 settings such as lagoon, shelf, and offshore deep-water environments (e.g.  
89 Schallreuter, 1984; Lallier-Verges et al., 1993; Wilkin et al., 1996; Wilkin and Arthur,  
90 2001; Neumann et al., 2005; Brunner et al., 2006; Wignall et al., 2010; Li et al.,  
91 2016). Importantly, the framboid redox indicator is also considered to be generally  
92 robust to diagenetic effects, and likely less affected by diagenesis compared with  
93 geochemical redox proxies (Wilkin et al., 1997).

94 In marine environments, the formation of pyrite framboids occurs in sediments  
95 or the water column immediately subjacent to the redox interface separating  $\text{O}_2$ -  
96 bearing and sulphide-bearing waters. When euxinia occurs in marine environments,  
97 pyrite framboids are formed in the water column, and quickly sink to the seafloor  
98 inhibiting growth to large size (e.g. Li et al., 2016). On the other hand, in normal

99 marine sediments in oxygenated waters, the redox interface is located just below the  
100 sediment-water interface. Here, a relatively longer growth time allows larger pyrite  
101 framboids to develop (Wilkin et al., 1996). Based on numerous previous studies, a  
102 relationship between the size distribution of pyrite framboids (mean and standard  
103 deviation) and marine redox conditions has been established (Table 1). Euxinic  
104 conditions are characterized by small-sized framboids (mean diameter  $< \sim 5 \mu\text{m}$ ) and  
105 relatively narrow size ranges, with rare pyrite crystals and amorphous lumps (Wilkin  
106 et al., 1996; Wignall et al., 2010; Table 1). Oxic to dysoxic conditions are  
107 characterized by larger sizes (mean diameter = 6 to 13  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and a wider size range  
108 (Wilkin et al., 1996; Wignall and Newton, 1998; Brunner et al., 2006; Wignall et al.,  
109 2010; Table 1). Although it is difficult to clearly distinguish between euxinic and  
110 suboxic-anoxic conditions (cf. Wignall et al., 2010), suboxic to anoxic conditions may  
111 be characterized by relatively small-sizes (mean diameter =  $\sim 5$  to 6  $\mu\text{m}$ ) with more  
112 common presence of pyrite crystals and amorphous lumps (Wilkin et al., 1996;  
113 Wignall and Newton, 1998; Wignall et al., 2010; Table 1).

114

## 115 **2. Geological setting and international correlation**

116

117 Lower Jurassic siliciclastic sedimentary rocks of the Toyora Group crop out in  
118 the Toyora area of Yamaguchi prefecture, southwestern Japan (Fig. 1). The  
119 Nishinakayama Formation (middle part of the Toyora Group) consists mainly of  
120 Pliensbachian-Toarcian shallow-marine (below at least fair weather wave base) silty  
121 mudstones and sandstones (Tanabe, 1982; Kawamura, 2010; Nakada and Matsuoka,  
122 2011). Lithofacies of mudstones from the Nishinakayama Formation are generally  
123 laminated, although bioturbated/burrowed mudstones are also frequently recognized

124 (Izumi et al., 2012; Fig. 2). In the Sakuraguchi-dani succession of the Toyora area  
125 (34° 08'N 131° 03'E; Fig. 1), the Nishinakayama Formation is exposed in  
126 mountainside ephemeral streambeds. This succession is bio- and chemo-  
127 stratigraphically well constrained by previous studies (Hirano, 1973; Tanabe, 1991;  
128 Nakada and Matsuoka, 2011; Izumi et al., 2012; Kemp and Izumi, 2014).

129 High-resolution  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  analysis of organic matter ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ) through the  
130 succession has revealed a  $\sim 3.5$  ‰ negative excursion spanning  $\sim 35$  m (Kemp and  
131 Izumi, 2014; Izumi et al., 2018). This record is unambiguously interpreted as the T-  
132 OAE based on the structure of the excursion and age constraints provided by a  
133 detailed ammonite biostratigraphy correlable to northern Europe (Izumi et al., 2012;  
134 Kemp and Izumi, 2014; Izumi et al., 2018). The biostratigraphic framework for the  
135 Sakuraguchi-dani succession is well established (e.g. Hirano, 1973). The latest  
136 refinements of Nakada and Matsuoka (2011) have delineated three key ammonite  
137 zones within the Nishinakayama Formation of the Sakuraguchi-dani succession: the  
138 *Palparites paltus* Zone, the *Dactylioceras helianthoides* Zone, and the *Harpoceras*  
139 *inouyei* Zone (Nakada and Matsuoka, 2011; Fig. 2). Nakada and Matsuoka (2011) and  
140 Izumi et al. (2012) established a correlation between this Japanese zonation and the  
141 northern European zonation (e.g. Page, 2003). This put the base of the *P. paltus* Zone  
142 at the Pliensbachian-Toarcian boundary (i.e. base *Dactylioceras tenuicostatum* Zone  
143 in northern Europe). *D. helianthoides* has been recovered from the upper part of the  
144 *tenuicostatum* Zone of northern Europe, as well as the *tenuicostatum* Subzone of a  
145 southwestern Panthalassa section exposed in Chile (Schmidt-Effing, 1972; Von  
146 Hillebrandt and Schmidt-Effing, 1981). These observations are consistent with  
147 knowledge of the position of the onset of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  excursion in Japan and Europe,  
148 which is close to the first occurrence of *D. helianthoides* in the Sakuraguchi-dani

149 section, and occurs in the upper part of the *tenuicostatum* Zone of Yorkshire, UK (see  
150 Fig. 2 of Kemp and Izumi, 2014).

151

### 152 **3. Materials and methods**

153

#### 154 *3.1. Carbon isotopes and TOC analysis*

155

156 A total of 11 silty mudstone samples were collected from a newly recognised  
157 outcrop stratigraphically below the strata previously studied by both Izumi et al.  
158 (2012) and Kemp and Izumi (2014). The age is likely to be late Pliensbachian based  
159 on the work of Nakada and Matsuoka (2011) (Fig. 3). According to Nakada and  
160 Matsuoka (2011), the stratigraphic position of the Pliensbachian-Toarcian stage  
161 boundary is defined by the base of the *P. paltus* Zone, which is located ~15 m below  
162 the base of the sandstone-dominated interval in the Sakuraguchi-dani section (Fig. 3,  
163 see also Fig. 8 in Nakada and Matsuoka, 2011). The samples were analysed for bulk  
164  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and total organic carbon (TOC) values. Small pieces of rock sample were  
165 powdered using a stainless steel mortar. Powdered samples were decalcified in 6N  
166 HCl, and then washed in purified water until neutrality was reached. Dried samples  
167 were weighed into Sn foil cups and analysed on a FLASH2000 (Thermo Finnigan)  
168 elemental analyzer linked to a DELTAplus Advantage (Thermo Finnigan) isotope  
169 ratio mass spectrometer, housed at Geo-Science Laboratory (Chikyu Kagaku  
170 Kenkyusho), Nagoya, Japan. Glycine (SI Science Reference Material, Lot No.:  
171 M2M9103,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} = -31.9\text{‰}$ ), L-Alanine (SI Science Reference Material, Lot No.:  
172 SS16,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} = -19.7\text{‰}$ ), and L-Histidine (SI Science Reference Material, Lot No.:

173 M5P8062,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}} = -10.6 \text{ ‰}$ ) were used as working standards. Analytical precision  
174 was  $\pm 0.1 \text{ ‰}$  determined by repeat measurements of the working standards.

175

### 176 *3.2. Analysis of pyrite framboids: background and analytical procedure*

177

178 To reconstruct palaeo-ocean redox conditions (Tyson and Pearson, 1991;  
179 Table 1), 5 silty mudstone samples were analysed for the size distribution of pyrite  
180 framboids. For framboid size-distribution measurements, silty mudstone samples were  
181 cut perpendicular to the bedding planes and polished into thin sections. These thin  
182 sections were observed using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) (JSM-6010LA,  
183 JEOL, Japan) housed at Kokushikan University, Tokyo, Japan. The SEM was set in  
184 backscatter mode, which allows the mineralogy and the fabric to be readily evaluated.  
185 The pyrite framboid size population for each silty mudstone thin section was  
186 evaluated by measuring up to 100 separate framboids. Size-frequency distributions are  
187 described here via calculation of the mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum,  
188 first quartile, and third quartile (Fig. 3). The obtained framboid size data were  
189 statistically evaluated to test for statistically significant changes in size populations  
190 between samples. As the pyrite framboid size populations were not normally  
191 distributed (see Section 4.2 and Fig. 3), we used a Steel-Dwass test, a nonparametric  
192 multiple comparison procedure, to statistically compare size populations.

193

### 194 *3.3. Analysis of available redox-sensitive trace element data*

195

196 In addition to pyrite framboid analysis, additional geochemical proxies were  
197 evaluated to further constrain redox conditions that prevailed during the deposition of



198 mudstones in the Nishinakayama Formation. Specifically, redox-sensitive trace  
199 element (RSTE) data, previously reported in a separate study (Kemp and Izumi, 2014),  
200 were utilised. The V and Mo data from Kemp and Izumi (2014) were analysed  
201 because these are RSTEs that have “strong euxinic affinity” (as defined in Algeo and  
202 Maynard, 2004).

203 RSTEs of strong euxinic affinity are elements that are taken up in solid  
204 solution by Fe-sulfide or involved in other reactions catalysed by free H<sub>2</sub>S, and that  
205 are resident mainly in authigenic phases (Algeo and Maynard, 2004). Based on such  
206 characteristics, the concentration pattern of RSTEs of strong euxinic affinity in marine  
207 mudstones is considered to represent different responses to bottom-water redox  
208 conditions (Algeo and Maynard, 2004). In particular, it is possible that benthic redox  
209 conditions can be distinguished by using a simple cross-plot diagram showing the  
210 relationship between Al-normalized RSTEs of strong euxinic affinity and TOC  
211 (Algeo and Maynard, 2004; Tribovillard et al., 2006). In this study, V/Al and Mo/Al  
212 values of mudstones from the Nishinakayama Formation were calculated by using the  
213 dataset of the previous study (appendix A in Kemp and Izumi, 2014). RSTE data in  
214 the Nishinakayama Formation mudstones was obtained from -17.02 m  
215 (~Pliensbachian/Toarcian boundary) to 53 m (lower Toarcian) from the Sakuraguchi-  
216 dani section. The RSTE and Al data used were measured on a Thermo ICAP 6300  
217 ICP-AES (see Kemp and Izumi, 2014 for full analytical procedure). Using these data,  
218 we calculated the element enrichment factors ( $X_{EF}$ ; Tribovillard et al., 2006), in which  
219 sample concentrations are normalised to the average value of upper continental crust  
220 (AUCC, McLennan, 2001), as calculated following the formula below:

221

$$222 \quad X_{EF} = (X_{\text{sample}}/Al_{\text{sample}})/(X_{\text{AUCC}}/Al_{\text{AUCC}}), \quad (1)$$

223

224 where  $X$  is the weight concentrations of the RSTE under consideration. Based on this  
225 normalised enrichment factor, we can assess how many times larger (or smaller) the  
226 detected elemental concentration is compared to average crustal material before  
227 erosion and sedimentation. For this study, AUCC values for Al (8.04 wt.%), V (107  
228 ppm), and Mo (1.5 ppm) are from McLennan (2001).

229

## 230 4. Results

231

### 232 4.1 New carbon-isotope and TOC data from the upper Pliensbachian

233

234 Results of our new  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and TOC analyses are shown in Table 2 and Figure  
235 3. TOC values from the new upper Pliensbachian outcrop (from  $\sim$ 27 to  $\sim$ 22 m)  
236 range from 0.96 to 1.69 wt.% with a mean value of 1.27 wt.% (Fig. 3). Combined  
237 with previously reported TOC data from Kemp and Izumi (2014), TOC contents  
238 slightly increase from the upper Pliensbachian in to the early Toarcian (Fig. 3).  
239 During the T-OAE interval (characterized by the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  negative excursion), TOC  
240 contents show generally higher values (Fig. 3).

241 The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values from the new outcrop range from  $-23.6$  to  $-24.6$  ‰ (Fig.  
242 3). Although the upper Pliensbachian  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values show little variation, it is notable  
243 that prior to the T-OAE interval a gradual fall in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  can be recognized from the  
244 upper Pliensbachian to early Toarcian (from  $\sim$ 27 to  $\sim$ 5 m; Fig. 3). In a number of  
245 European successions, the stage boundary between the Pliensbachian and Toarcian is  
246 characterized by a short-term  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  negative excursion of up to  $\sim 2$  ‰ (e.g. Littler et  
247 al., 2009; Suan et al., 2008). A recent study has suggested that this Pliensbachian-

248 Toarcian boundary excursion may not have a global expression (Bodin et al., 2016).  
249 Similarly, an excursion is not recognized in our Sakuraguchi-dani data, although it is  
250 possible that one exists within the interval from  $\sim$ 22 to  $\sim$ 17 m with no outcrop (Fig.  
251 3). A negative shift in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  is present at  $\sim$ 15 m (Kemp and Izumi, 2014; Fig. 3), but  
252 this feature is defined by a single datapoint (Fig. 3).

253

#### 254 *4.2 Pyrite petrology and size distribution of pyrite framboids*

255

256 Our SEM observations reveal distinct changes in petrology and framboid size  
257 distribution throughout the studied succession (Figs. 3 and 4). Framboids were present  
258 in all analysed mudstone samples (Fig. 4), and amorphous pyrite lumps were also  
259 present in all samples but were less common in the samples 2015-5-3.30 (−0.7 m  
260 height) and 2010-8-2.5 (10.4 m height) relative to the other samples. Key results from  
261 our pyrite framboid size analysis are summarized in Table 3. Small-sized framboids  
262 are especially rich in the samples 2015-5-3.30 (−0.7 m height) and 2010-8-2.5 (10.4 m  
263 height). Our statistical analysis shows that the mean framboid diameter of each of  
264 these samples is 4.4  $\mu\text{m}$ , with a standard deviation (SD) of 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 3). In  
265 contrast, large-sized ( $>10 \mu\text{m}$ ) framboids are more common in samples 2016-3B-0.50  
266 (−23.3 m height), 2010-12-2 (21.9 m height), and 2010-16-5 (48 m height), and these  
267 samples have larger mean and standard deviation values (Fig. 3). Statistical analysis  
268 (Steel-Dwass test) of the size data indicates that the pyrite framboid sizes are  
269 significantly ( $p < 0.01$ ) different between samples 2016-3B-0.50 (−23.3 m height) and  
270 2015-5-3.30 (−0.7 m height), 2010-8.25 (10.4 m height) and 2010-12-2 (21.9 m  
271 height), 2010-12-2 (21.9 m height) and 2010-16-5 (48 m height), whereas there is no

272 significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) difference between the samples 2015-5-3.30 (−0.7 m height) and  
273 2010-8-2.5 (10.4 m height) (see Fig. 3).

274 Framboid size populations that have been used to interpret palaeo-ocean redox  
275 conditions in previous studies show mostly unimodal distributions (e.g. Wignall et al.,  
276 2010; Li et al., 2016). Histograms of pyrite framboid sizes in this study also show  
277 unimodal distributions (Fig. 3). Figure 5 shows the relationship between mean  
278 framboid diameter and SD. According to this diagram, mudstones of −0.7 m height  
279 (main phase of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  excursion; Fig. 3) and of 10.4 m height (main  
280 phase/recovery phase transition; Fig. 3) were deposited under euxinic conditions  
281 (Wilkin et al., 1996; Wignall and Newton, 1998; Bond et al., 2004). In contrast,  
282 framboid data from the other three mudstone samples plot in the area indicative of  
283 “oxic-dysoxic” conditions (Fig. 5).

284

#### 285 *4.3 Redox-sensitive trace element data*

286

287 Figure 6 summarizes the results of our geochemical data analysis. Following  
288 Algeo and Maynard (2004), Al-normalized V and Mo data are plotted against TOC as  
289 cross-plot diagrams (Fig. 6; see also Fig. 7 for a schematic illustration). Based on  
290 these cross-plots, most of the data plot in the area of the graph suggestive of oxic-  
291 suboxic depositional conditions, characterized by the absence of correlation between  
292 Al-normalized RSTE and TOC (Tribovillard et al., 2006; Fig. 6). In addition, because  
293 RSTEs in mudstones deposited under oxic-suboxic condition are considered to have  
294 been mainly supplied via detrital input (Tribovillard et al., 2006), there should be a  
295 strong positive correlation between terrigenous element proxies (e.g. Al, Ti) and  
296 RSTE concentrations. In the case of the Nishinakayama Formation mudstones, V

297 abundances are strongly correlated with Al contents (Fig. 6; see also Fig. 7 in Kemp  
298 and Izumi, 2014), further supporting the idea that oxic-suboxic benthic conditions  
299 prevailed during mudstone deposition. Mo concentrations, on the other hand, do not  
300 show any correlation with Al (Fig. 6).

301 In terms of the enrichment factors,  $V_{EF}$  and  $Mo_{EF}$  range from 0.92 to 1.62 and  
302 0.09 to 3.50 through the succession, respectively. These values are much lower  
303 compared with those interpreted to be from anoxic to euxinic environments. For  
304 instance,  $Mo_{EF}$  from typical strongly anoxic to euxinic oceans such as the Black Sea  
305 and Cariaco Basin exceeds 100 or even 1000 due to high  $H_2S$  (as reviewed by Algeo  
306 and Tribovillard, 2009). Similarly,  $Mo_{EF}$  values reaching such high values in Toarcian  
307 sediments and within other geological periods have also been interpreted as evidence  
308 for euxinic conditions (Algeo and Maynard, 2004; Takahashi et al., 2014; Fujisaki et  
309 al., 2016).

310

## 311 **5. Discussion**

312

### 313 *5.1 Redox history from the latest Pliensbachian to early Toarcian*

314

315 The mudstone geochemical cross-plots from the Nishinakayama Formation are  
316 suggestive of oxic-suboxic conditions (Fig. 6). This redox interpretation is also  
317 supported by enrichment factors of V ( $V_{EF} = 0.92$  to  $1.62$ ) and Mo ( $Mo_{EF} = 0.09$  to  
318  $3.50$ ), which are lower than would be expected in typical anoxic to euxinic  
319 environments. Additionally, mudstone lithofacies analysis indicates that  
320 bioturbated/burrowed mudstones are also recognized intermittently throughout the  
321 studied succession (Izumi et al., 2012; Izumi et al., 2018; Fig. 2). This evidence

322 suggests that dysoxic and/or suboxic bottom-water conditions were disrupted by at  
323 least intermittent short-term oxic conditions, supporting the observations and  
324 inferences of previous studies (Tanabe et al., 1991; Izumi et al., 2012; Kemp and  
325 Izumi, 2014).

326 To investigate things in more detail, RSTE data from the early Toarcian  
327 Nishinakayama Formation were compared to data from the early Toarcian Posidonia  
328 Shale of the Rietheim succession, Swiss Jura Mountains, northern Switzerland  
329 (Montero-Serrano et al., 2015; Fig. 7). This comparison was made because the litho-  
330 and biofacies of the Nishinakayama Formation have marked similarities with the  
331 Posidonia Shale succession (Tanabe et al., 1991). In addition, because redox  
332 conditions during deposition of the Posidonia Shale of the Rietheim succession have  
333 been reconstructed by Montero-Serrano et al. (2015) based on multi-proxy analysis  
334 (i.e. pyrite content, sulphide and organic balances, V/(V + Ni) ratios, RSTE  
335 enrichment factors, relationships between Al-normalized RSTE and TOC, and  
336 TOC/P<sub>total</sub> molar ratios), data comparison should provide useful insights in to redox  
337 interpretations of the Nishinakayama Formation. According to the cross-plot diagrams  
338 between Al-normalized V and TOC, and between V and Al (Fig. 7), data from the  
339 Nishinakayama Formation are very similar to that from the *semicelatum* Subzone of  
340 the Swiss Rietheim section – immediately prior to the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  excursion (Etter, 1994;  
341 Montero-Serrano et al., 2015). These similarities are: 1) absence of correlation  
342 between V/Al and TOC (Fig. 7) and 2) a strong positive correlation ( $r^2 > 0.8$ ) between  
343 V and Al abundances (Fig. 7). Based on the multi-proxy redox analysis by Montero-  
344 Serrano et al. (2015), they concluded that sedimentary deposition of the Rietheim  
345 Posidonia Shale succession during the *semicelatum* Subzone took place under oxic to  
346 dysoxic bottom-water conditions (Montero-Serrano et al., 2015). These lines of

347 evidence are consistent with the idea that redox conditions during deposition of the  
348 Sakuraguchi-dani mudstones were dysoxic, with intermittent oxygenation.

349 In contrast to these RSTE data, however, framboid data from the mudstones at  
350  $-0.7$  m (main phase of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  excursion; Fig. 3) and  $10.4$  m (main phase/recovery  
351 phase of the excursion; Fig. 3) suggest that euxinic conditions occurred within the T-  
352 OAE interval in the Sakuraguchi-dani succession (Fig. 5). Framboid data have been  
353 suggested to represent a more robust redox proxy due to the suggested invariance of  
354 this proxy to diagenesis (Wilkin et al., 1997). Indeed, in the case of the  
355 Nishinakayama Formation, early diagenesis may have altered sediment geochemistry,  
356 as suggested by Tanabe et al. (1984). The precise temporal and spatial distributions of  
357 water-column euxinia, however, cannot be constrained by this study due to the lack of  
358 resolution. Nevertheless, the key point is that our framboid data provides, for the first  
359 time, evidence for at least intermittent water-column euxinia in a NW Panthalassic  
360 shallow-marine setting (Fig. 3; Table 3). Previous studies suggested that euxinia also  
361 occurred during the T-OAE in Tethyan shallow-marine settings and Panthalassic  
362 pelagic settings (e.g. Schouten et al., 2000; Bowden et al., 2006; van Breugel et al.,  
363 2006; Wignall et al., 2010; Fujisaki et al., 2016).

364 The mismatch between the RTSE data and the framboid data may be due to  
365 diagenetic influence on the sediment geochemistry (Tanabe et al., 1984; Wilkin et al.,  
366 1997). Equally, the mismatch could arise if oxygenation was variable throughout  
367 deposition of the Nishinakayama Formation. Indeed, the presence of bioturbated  
368 lithofacies in mudstone samples of 2015-5-3.30 ( $-0.7$  m height; Table 3; Fig. 2D, E,  
369 see also Izumi et al., 2012) suggests dynamic, fluctuating redox conditions. This  
370 complexity and lack of constancy in redox conditions may not be surprising in a  
371 relatively shallow-water succession, and indeed similar findings have been made for

372 Toarcian OAE strata from Germany (Röhl et al., 2001). Alternatively, however, a  
373 more likely mechanism to explain the mismatch between the RSTE and framboid data  
374 is the development of an oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) in the water column during  
375 the main phase of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  excursion. Small pyrite framboids could form within this  
376 OMZ, which overlies otherwise oxygenated or perhaps suboxic bottom water. This  
377 mechanism has been used to explain low RSTE concentrations associated with small  
378 pyrite framboid sizes from Permo-Triassic sediments (Algeo et al., 2011; Takahashi et  
379 al., 2015).

380

381

## 382 *5.2 Potential cause of redox change during the T-OAE*

383

384 Our suggestion above that small framboids found within the T-OAE interval  
385 (−0.7 m and 10.4 m, Fig. 3) formed within a euxinic OMZ demands an explanation for  
386 why such an OMZ would form. Previous work has suggested that the T-OAE was  
387 characterised by enhanced hydrological cycling in Boreal, Tethyan, and Panthalassic  
388 locations (Cohen et al., 2004; Krencker et al., 2015; Brazier et al., 2016; Izumi et al.,  
389 2018). In the Sakuraguchi-dani section, recent geochemical and sedimentological  
390 analysis indicates a close association between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion and evidence for  
391 high-energy advective sediment transport, enhanced fluvial discharge, and detrital  
392 input (Kemp and Izumi, 2014; Izumi et al., 2018; see also Fig. 3). We suggest that  
393 enhanced fluvial discharge and detrital input associated with a strengthening of the  
394 hydrological cycling during the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  excursion elevated nutrient input to the sea,  
395 enhancing surface productivity. This enhanced primary productivity could have led to  
396 an expansion of an OMZ in the water column (Fig. 3; Table 3). Although the actual



397 change in nutrient concentrations and palaeo-productivity at the NW Panthalassic  
398 shallow margin is unknown due to the absence of proxy data, this interpretation is in-  
399 line with that of Erba (2004) and Bodin et al. (2010), who drew similar conclusions  
400 based on work on Tethyan sections.

401 The occasional presence of advective sediment transport may explain the  
402 intermittent short-term benthic oxygenation events. In particular, sedimentary features  
403 indicative of high-energy advective sediment transport (i.e. sediment gravity flow  
404 deposits, ripples, fluid-mud deposits) are commonly recognized from the  
405 Nishinakayama Formation (Kawamura, 2010; Izumi et al., 2018; Fig. 3). Advective  
406 sediment transport could have helped oxygenate bottom waters via mixing, allowing  
407 intermittent faunal colonisation and hence bioturbation (Izumi et al., 2012, 2018; Fig.  
408 2D, E).

409

## 410 **6. Conclusions**

411

412 To reconstruct the redox history of a NW Panthalassic shallow basin from the  
413 late Pliensbachian to early Toarcian, we employed geochemical and pyrite framboid  
414 analysis of the mudstone-dominated succession of the Nishinakayama Formation  
415 (Sakuraguchi-dani section, Toyora area, Japan). Results of our analysis suggest that  
416 oxic to suboxic (generally dysoxic) benthic conditions largely prevailed in our studied  
417 NW Panthalassic shallow-water environment. Framboid size-distribution analysis  
418 demonstrates that euxinic conditions occurred at least briefly during the main phase of  
419 the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  negative excursion that characterizes the T-OAE. We suggest that this water-  
420 column euxinia was related to the expansion of an oxygen minimum zone caused by  
421 enhanced productivity. This interpretation is consistent with an inferred elevation of

422 fluvial discharge and detrital input caused by a strengthening of the hydrological  
423 cycling concomitant with the OAE, as suggested by sedimentological analyses.

424

#### 425 **Acknowledgments**

426

427 Part of this work was financially supported by JSPS grants 15J08821 to KI.  
428 DBK acknowledges receipt of NERC Fellowship NE/I02089X/1, and grants from the  
429 Sasakawa Foundation of Great Britain and Daiwa Foundation. This study contributes  
430 to IGCP 655. We thank M. Ikeda, T. Ohta, K. Suzuki, S. Itamiya, and K. Kawano for  
431 assistance in the field and/or helpful discussion. Fieldwork was carried out with full  
432 permission and support from its landowners. Technical staff at Geo-Science  
433 Laboratory (Chikyu Kagaku Kenkyusho) are thanked for performance of TOC and  
434 carbon-isotope analysis.

435

#### 436 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

437

438 Supplementary data to this article can be found online at  
439 <http://dx.doi.org/xx.xxxx/j.palaeo.xxxx.xx.xxx>.

440

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729

### 730 **Figure and Table captions**

731

732 **Figure 1.** Palaeogeographic and geological settings of the study area (redrawn from  
733 Kemp and Izumi, 2014). (A) Early Jurassic Palaeogeographic map showing early  
734 Toarcian organic-rich deposits (modified from Jenkyns, 1988; Smith et al., 1994;  
735 Cohen et al., 2007). The map emphasizes the global nature of organic enrichment  
736 during the early Toarcian. (B) Inset map of Japan showing location of studied  
737 Sakuraguchi-dani succession (Yamaguchi prefecture). (C) Geological map of field  
738 area in the Tabe Basin (modified after Nakada and Matsuoka, 2011), with  
739 Sakuraguchi-dani route highlighted.

740 [1.5-column fitting image]

741

742 **Figure 2.** Selected photographs showing the studied field (Sakuraguchi-dani section)  
743 and distinct lithofacies of the mudstones. (A) Field photograph of approximately –3 to  
744 –2 m section height. Note the black-colored silty mudstones are dominant in the  
745 section. (B) Thin-section scan image and (C) photomicrograph of laminated silty  
746 mudstone. Sample ID: 2010-12-2 (height = 21.9 m). (D) Thin-section scan image and  
747 (E) photomicrograph of bioturbated dark mudstone. Note the completely  
748 homogeneous features, indicative of strong bioturbation. Sample ID: 2015-3-3.30  
749 (height = –0.7 m).

750 [2-column fitting image]

751

752 **Figure 3.** Lithological log of the Sakuraguchi-dani section with carbon-isotope  
753 stratigraphy, TOC, and framboid data. Log is modified after Izumi et al. (2018), and  
754 biostratigraphical framework is based on Nakada and Matsuoka (2011). For carbon-  
755 isotope stratigraphy and TOC data, our new results (gray plots) are combined with  
756 data by previous works (Kemp and Izumi, 2014; Izumi et al., 2018). Framboid data  
757 are shown as box and whisker plots for each sample, with detailed size distribution  
758 histogram also shown (n = number of pyrite framboids measured for one sample; SD  
759 = standard deviation for diameter measurements). Framboid size differences between  
760 adjacent samples refer to results of Steel-Dwass statistical tests (see main text for  
761 details). Shaded intervals represent the main and recovery phases of carbon-isotope  
762 negative excursion characterizing the early Toarcian oceanic anoxic event (after Izumi  
763 et al., 2018). U. PLI. = Upper Pliensbachian.

764 [1-page fitting image]

765

766 **Figure 4.** Back scattered electron (BSE) images of pyrite framboids from the  
767 Sakuraguchi-dani section. (A) Magnified image of pyrite framboid from the sample  
768 2016-3B-0.50 (−23.3 m). Scale bar = 10 μm. (B) An overview photograph showing  
769 the common presence of pyrite lumps, which sometimes occur as large clusters.  
770 Sample 2016-3B-0.50 (−23.3 m). Scale bar = 20 μm. (C) and (D) Overview  
771 photographs showing scattered distribution of small-sized pyrite framboids. Samples  
772 2015-5-3.30 (−0.7 m) for Figure 4C, and 2010-8-2.5 (10.4 m) for Figure 4D,  
773 respectively. Scale bars = 10 μm. (E) Pyrite framboids with relatively large diameters  
774 from the sample 2010-12-2 (21.9 m). Scale bar = 20 μm. (F) Large-sized pyrite  
775 framboid from the sample 2010-16-5 (48 m). Scale bar = 10 μm.

776 [2-column fitting image]

777

778 **Figure 5.** Cross-plot of the mean diameter and standard deviation for analysed pyrite  
779 framboids from the Sakuraguchi-dani section. Dashed line is the threshold between  
780 euxinic and dysoxic–oxic conditions (after Wilkin et al., 1996; Bond et al., 2004).

781 [single column fitting image]

782

783 **Figure 6.** Key geochemical analysis results of the early Toarcian mudstone samples  
784 from the Sakuraguchi-dani section (data are from Kemp and Izumi, 2014). Redox-  
785 sensitive trace-elements (RSTEs) of strong euxinic affinity (cf. Algeo and Maynard,  
786 2004) are analysed in this study to evaluate redox conditions. (Upper left) Cross-plot  
787 of TOC and Al-normalized V values of the Sakuraguchi-dani section, with anoxic and  
788 euxinic thresholds, as well as correlation lines of anoxic trends proposed by Algeo  
789 and Maynard, 2004. (Upper right) Cross-plots of Al, a representative terrigenous  
790 detrital proxy, and V. (Lower left) Cross-plot of TOC and Al-normalized Mo of the



791 Sakuraguchi-dani section. (Lower right) Cross-plots of Al and Mo. Most data plot in  
792 the “oxic-suboxic” area proposed by Tribovillard et al. (2006) (see also Fig. 7),  
793 suggesting that oxic to suboxic conditions prevailed during deposition of the  
794 Sakuraguchi-dani mudstones. In addition, under oxic-suboxic conditions, correlation  
795 of detrital proxy (Al) and RSTEs should be recognized because under these  
796 circumstances RSTEs are mainly associated with detrital flux (Tribovillard et al.,  
797 2006). This is verified by Figure 7 ( $r^2 > 0.7$ ). See main text for details.

798 [2-column fitting image]

799

800 **Figure 7.** (Top figure) Theoretical model of the relationship between TOC and Al-  
801 normalized redox-sensitive trace-element (RSTE) of strong euxinic affinity, which  
802 can be useful to distinguish redox conditions (modified after Algeo and Maynard,  
803 2004; Tribovillard et al., 2006). (Middle figure) Relationship between TOC and Al-  
804 normalized V, which is one of the key RSTEs of strong euxinic affinity (cf. Algeo and  
805 Maynard, 2004), of the lower Toarcian mudstone samples from the Nishinakayama  
806 Formation (Sakuraguchi-dani, Toyora area, Japan; Data from Kemp and Izumi, 2014)  
807 and Posidonia Shale (Rietheim, Swiss Jura Mountains, Switzerland; Data from  
808 Montero-Serrano et al., 2015). Swiss sec. = Swiss section, Sz. = Subzone. (Bottom  
809 figure) Cross-plot of Al and V values. Note that the plotted data of the Posidonia  
810 Shale from the Rietheim section were subdivided by ammonite Subzone. Solid  
811 regression lines show strong ( $r^2 > 0.7$ ) correlations, and dashed regression lines show  
812 weak to moderate ( $r^2 < 0.7$ ) correlations. Based on Figure 6, dysoxic conditions  
813 prevailed during deposition of the Sakuraguchi-dani mudstones and the Posidonia  
814 Shale *semicelatum* Subzone. See main text for details.

815 [1.5-column fitting image]

816

817 **Table 1.** Summary of criteria to distinguish redox conditions, based on lithofacies and  
818 pyrite framboid petrography.

819

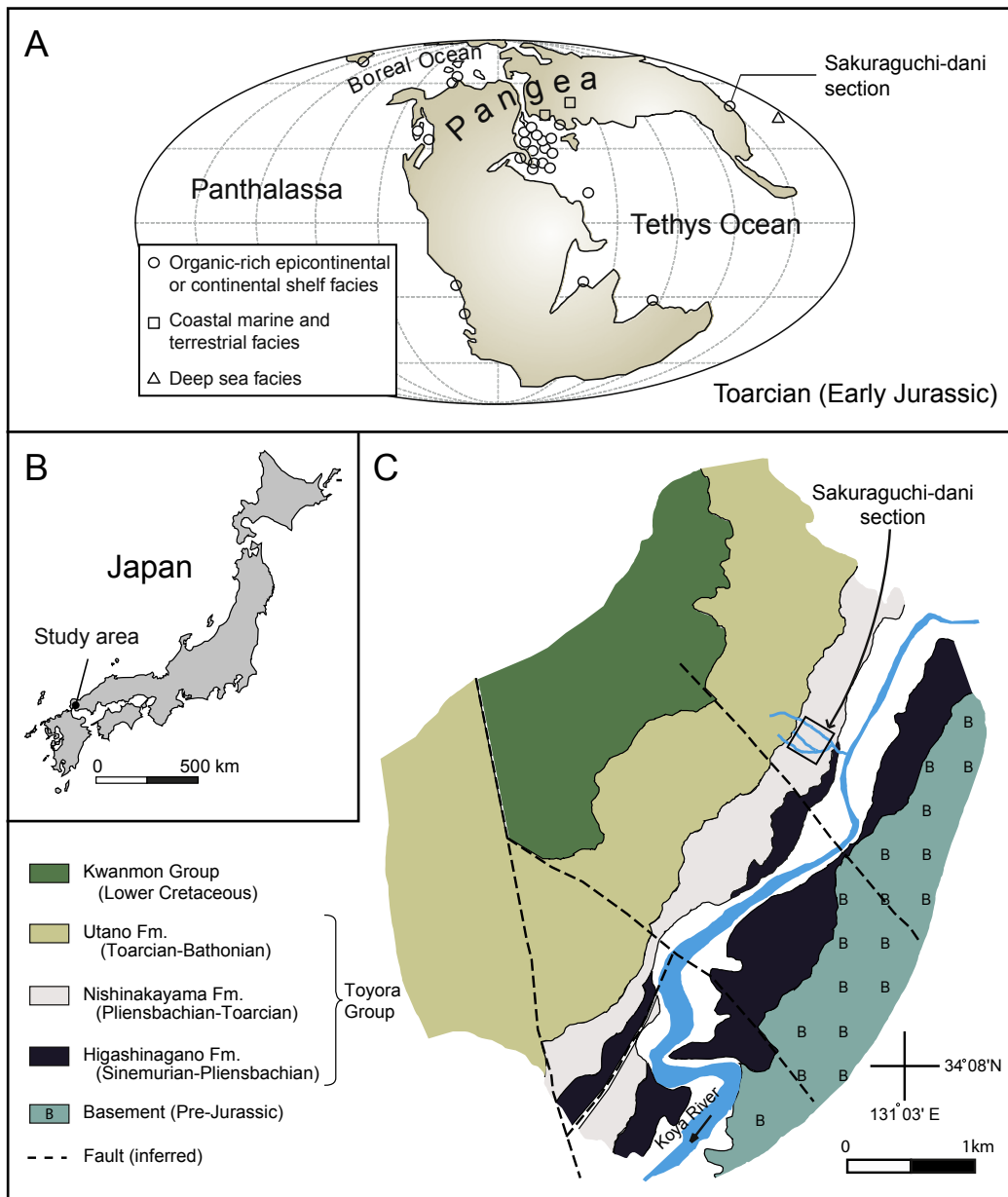
820 **Table 2.** Results of carbon-isotope and TOC analysis.

821

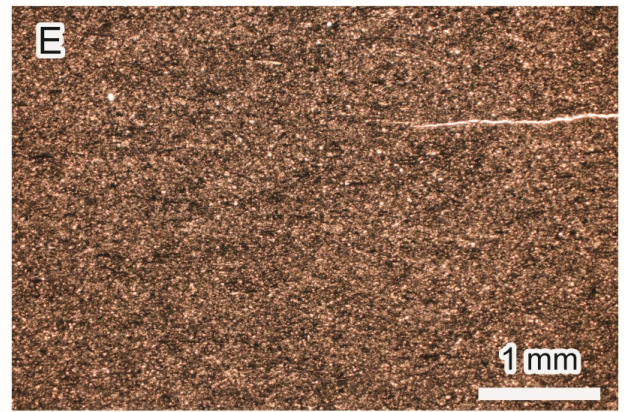
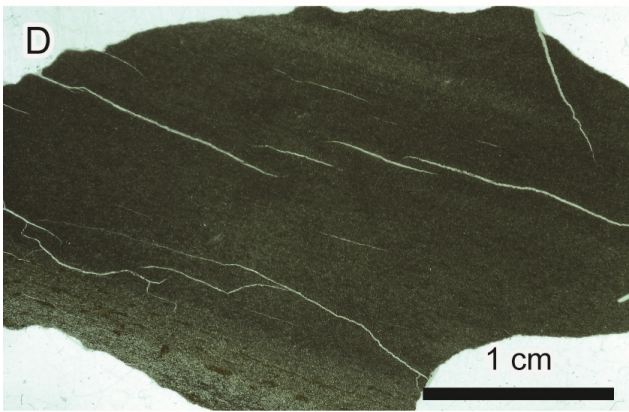
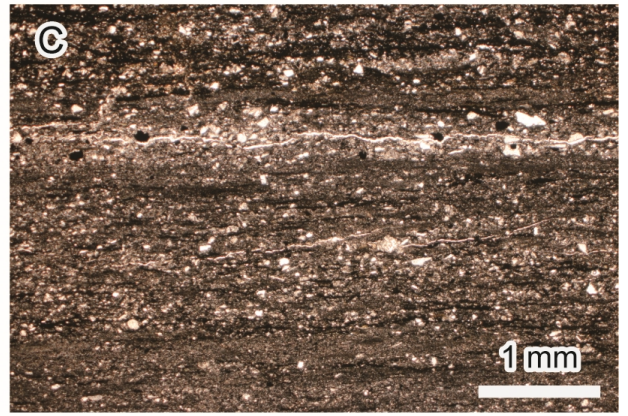
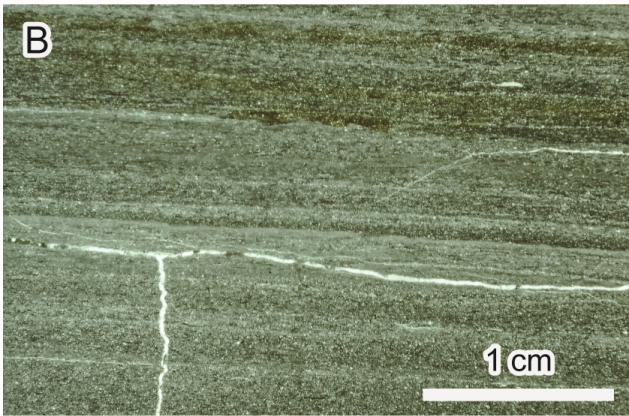
822 **Table 3.** Summary of lithofacies observation and framboid measurements, with  
823 interpretations of redox conditions.

824

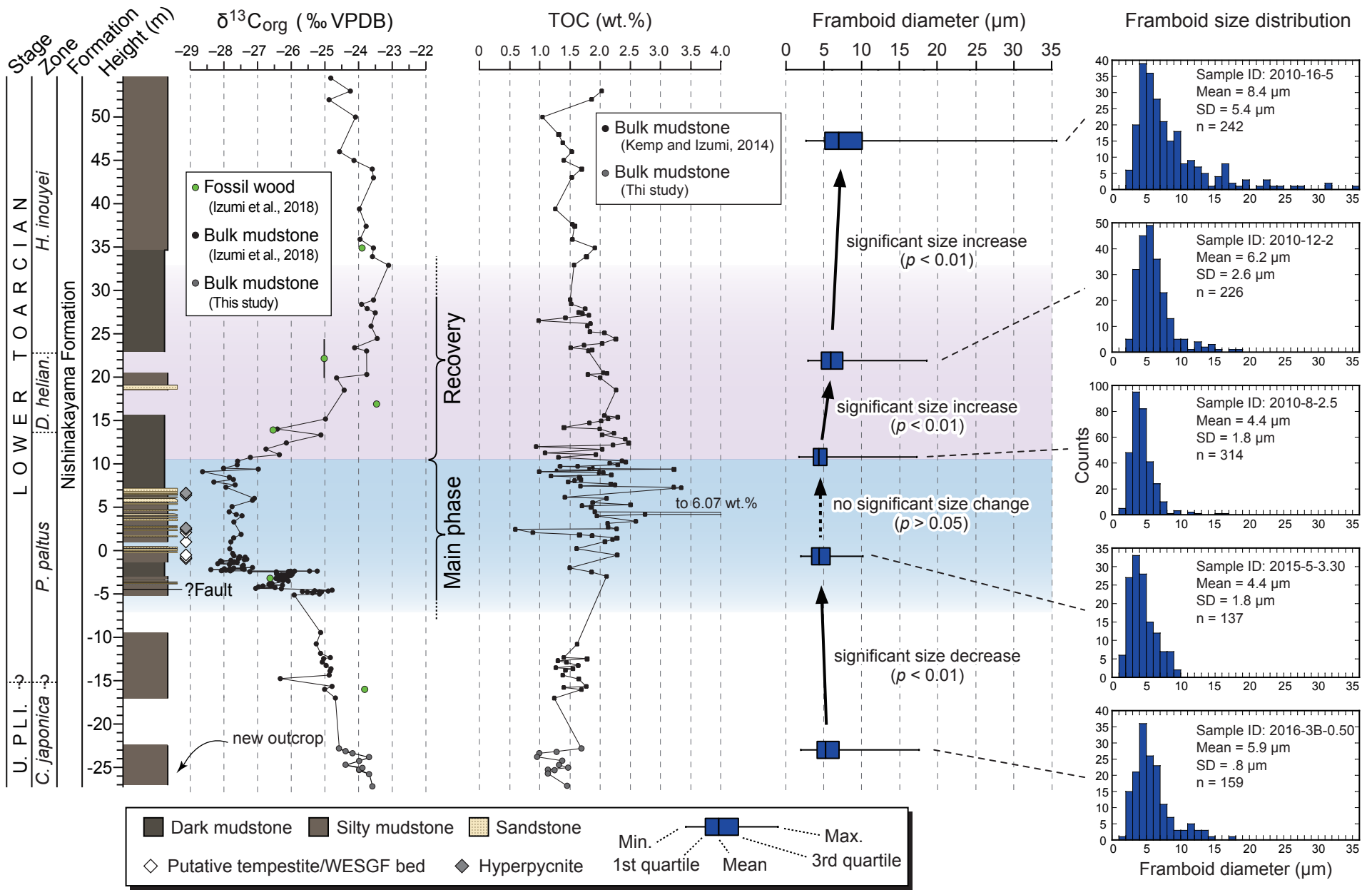
825 **Appendix A.** Spreadsheet for individual data of framboid size analysis, with statistic  
826 analysis results.



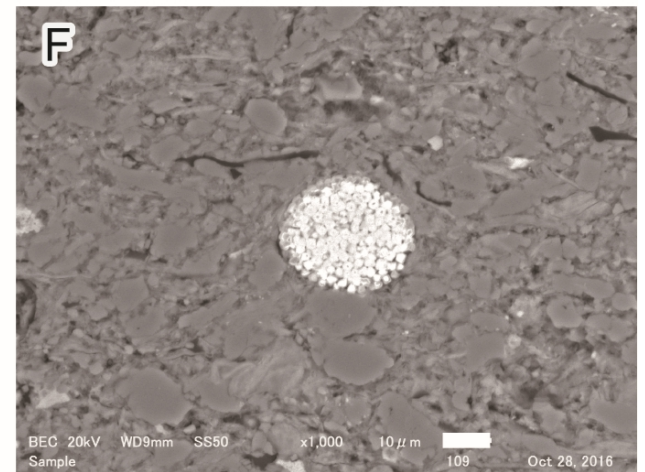
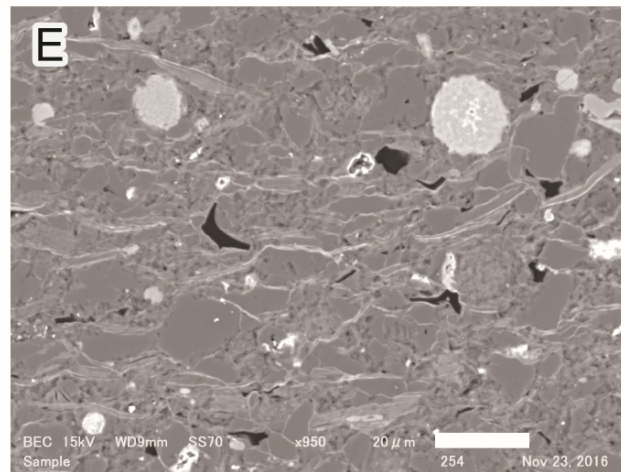
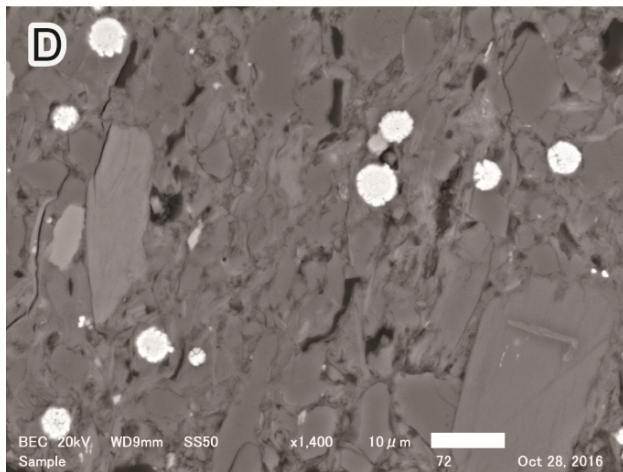
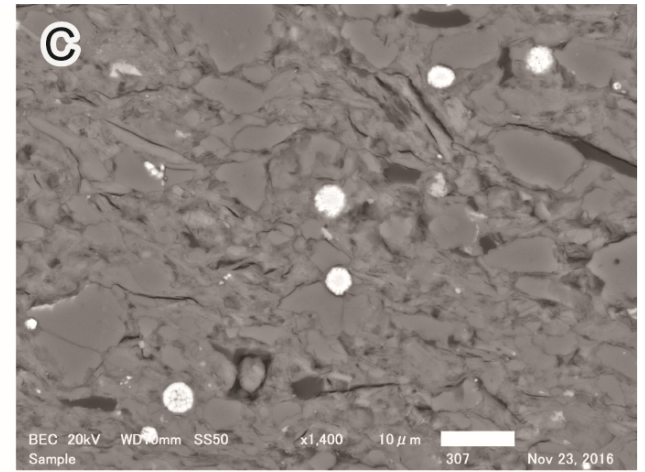
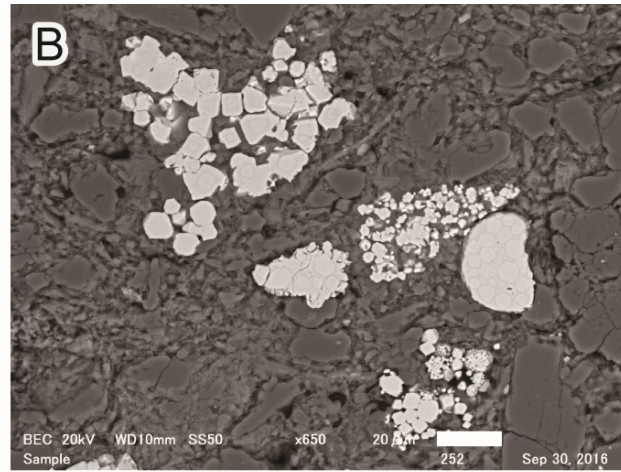
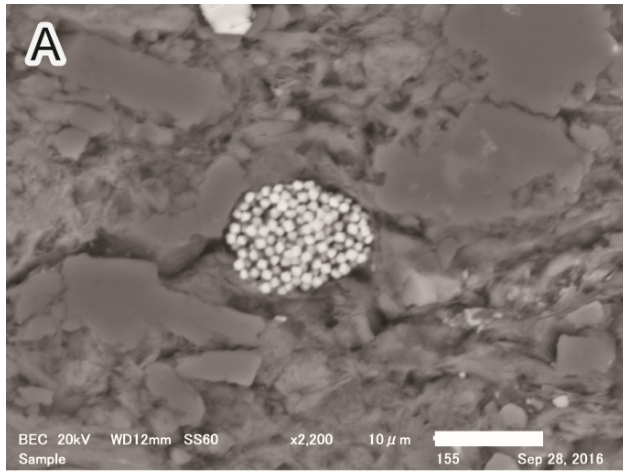
Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 1



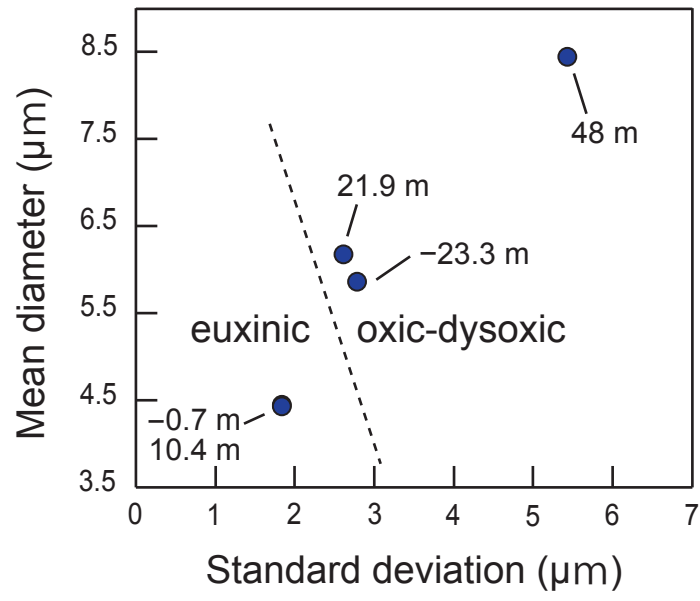
Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 2



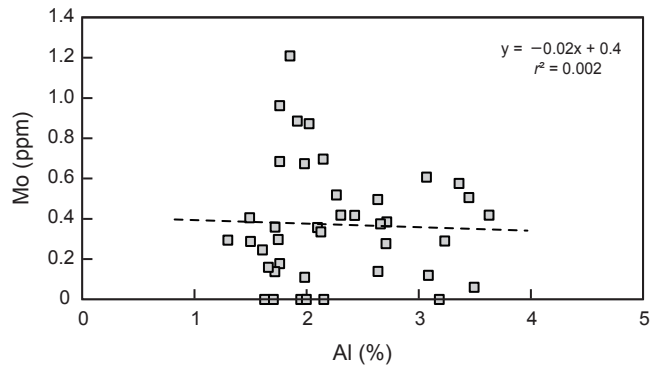
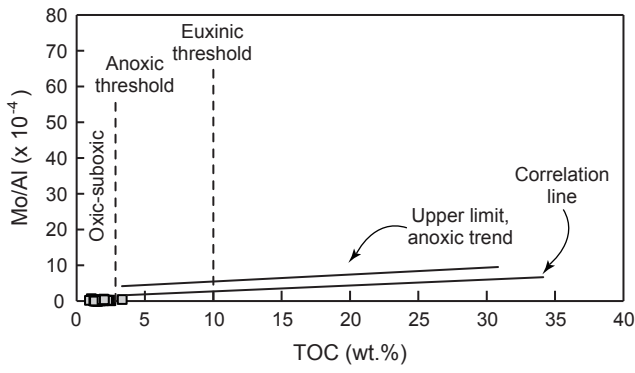
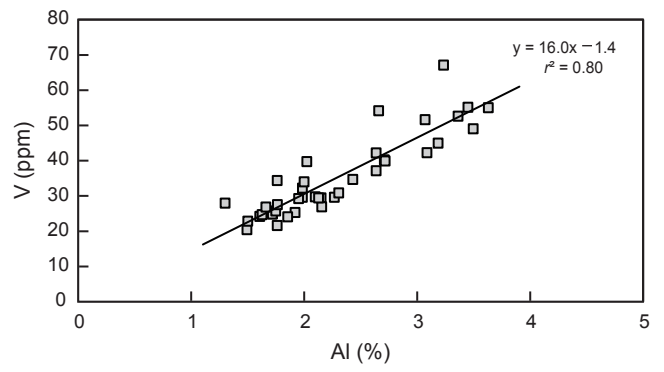
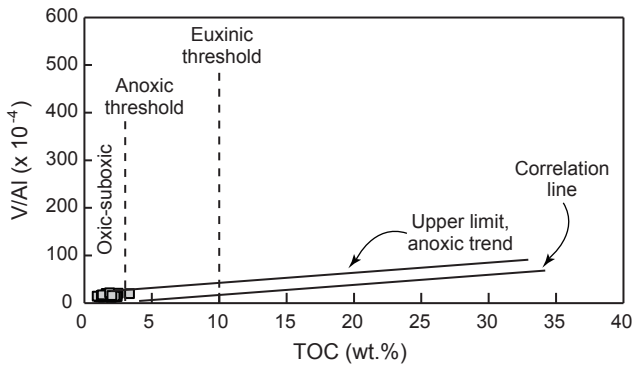
Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 3



Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 4

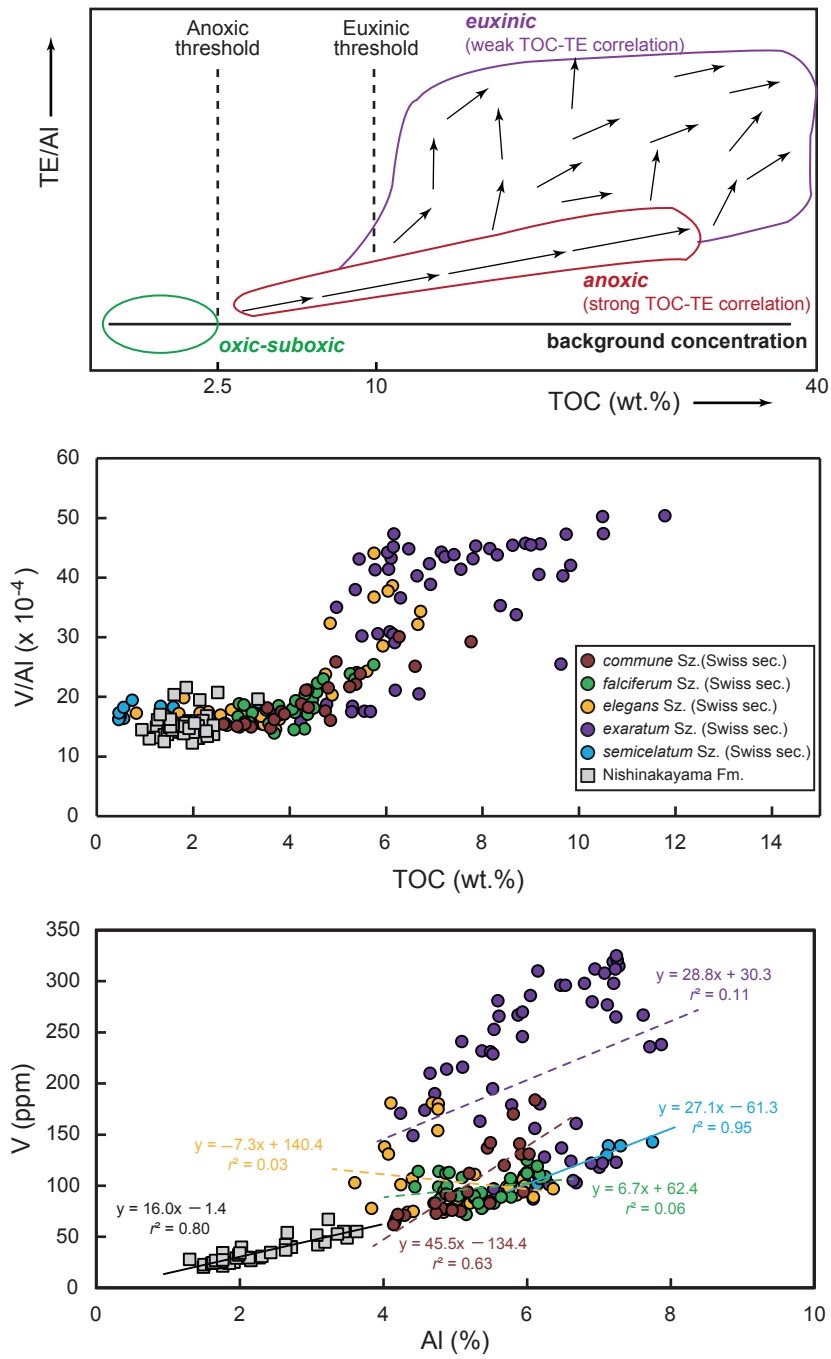


Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 5



Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 6





Izumi et al. (2017) - Figure 7