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Seep deposits from northern Istria, Croatia: a first glimpse into the Eocene seep fauna of the Tethys region

 This is a pre print version of the following article:

 Original Citation:

 Availability:

 This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/150774

 since 2015-09-16T08:48:51Z

 Published version:

 DOI:10.1017/S0016756814000466

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3	1	Seep deposits from northern Istria, Croatia: a first glimpse into the Eocene seep
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6	2	fauna of the Tethys region
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10	4	M. NATALICCHIO*, J. PECKMANN‡§, D. BIRGEL‡ & S. KIEL¶
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32	14	Keywords: seep fauna, methane-derived carbonates, stable isotopes, biomarkers, Eocene,
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34	15	Istria
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39	17	Abstract – Three isolated limestone deposits and their fauna are described from a middle
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41	18	Eocene Flysch succession in northwestern Istria, Croatia. The limestones are identified as
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43	19	ancient methane-seep deposits based on fabrics and characteristic mineral phases, $\delta^{13}C_{carbonate}$
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46	20	values as low as -42.2‰, and ¹³ C-depleted lipid biomarkers indicative for methane-oxidising
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48	21	archaea. The faint bedding of the largest seep deposit, the great dominance of authigenic
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50	22	micrite over early diagenetic fibrous cement, as well as biomarker patterns indicate that
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52	23	seepage was diffusive rather than advective. Apart from methanotrophic archaea, aerobic
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55	24	methanotrophic bacteria were present at the Eocene seeps as revealed by ¹³ C-depleted
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57	25	lanostanes and hopanoids. The observed corrosion surfaces in the limestones probably reflect
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carbonate dissolution caused by aerobic methanotrophy. The macrofauna consists mainly of chemosymbiotic bivalves such as solemyids (Acharax), thyasirids (Thyasira), and lucinids (Amanocina). The middle Eocene marks the rise of the modern seep fauna, but so far the fossil record of seeps of this age is restricted to the North Pacific region. The taxa found at Buje originated during the Cretaceous, whereas taxa typical of the modern seep fauna such as bathymodiolin mussels and vesicomyid clams are absent. Although this is only a first palaeontological glimpse into the biogeography during the rise of the modern seep fauna, it agrees with biogeographic investigations based on the modern vent fauna indicating that the dominant taxa of the modern seep fauna first appeared in the Pacific Ocean.

1. Introduction

Authigenic carbonate rocks forming where methane or oil effuse from the sediments into the bottom waters act as an archive of life in chemosynthesis-based ecosystems at marine seeps (Peckmann & Thiel, 2004; Campbell 2006). The key biogeochemical process at seeps is the anaerobic oxidation of methane (Boetius et al. 2000). It results in carbonate precipitation forming seep limestones even way below the carbonate compensation depth (e.g. Ritger et al. 1997; Greinert, Bohrmann & Elvert, 2002) and the production of hydrogen sulphide that sustains benthic sulphide-oxidizing bacteria and thiotrophic bacteria in the tissues of chemosymbiotic metazoans (Sibuet & Olu, 1998). A growing number of Phanerozoic seep deposits has been described to date (Campbell, 2006; Teichert & van de Schootbrugge, 2013, and references therein). Their fossil inventory revealed a successive colonisation of seep environments by different groups of metazoans in the course of Earth history, commonly followed by the sooner or later disappearance of these groups of highly specialized taxa. Methane-seep faunas were first discovered in the early 1980s in the Gulf of Mexico and are now recognized at most continental margins (Paull et al. 1984; Baker et al. 2010). Their highly specialized taxa are closely related to those at deep-sea hydrothermal vents and many

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52	rely on chemotrophic symbionts for nutrition (Paull et al. 1985). Although the rise of the
53	modern, mollusc-dominated vent and seep fauna began during the Cretaceous age, the main
54	players at present-day vents and seeps appeared in the early Cenozoic (Campbell & Bottjer,
55	1995; Kiel, 2010; Kiel & Little, 2006; Vrijenhoek, 2013). Biogeographically, however, the
56	Cenozoic fossil record of methane seeps is highly skewed toward the active continental
57	margins of the Pacific Ocean where uplift of deep-water sediments is frequent (Goedert &
58	Squires, 1990; Majima, Nobuhara & Kitazaki 2005; Campbell et al. 2008). In contrast, fossil
59	occurrences in the Atlantic realm are restricted to the Caribbean region (Gill et al. 2005; Kiel
60	& Peckmann, 2007) and the Mediterranean basin (Taviani, 1994).
61	Here we evaluate the fauna of middle Eocene seep deposits from the northern
62	Mediterranean basin (Istria, Croatia; Venturini et al. 1998) in the light of the early evolution
63	of the modern vent and seep fauna, establish the biogeochemical processes that lead to the
64	formation of the seep deposits, describe processes that imprinted their lithology, and
65	reconstruct the composition of fluids and the mode of seepage.
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67	2. Geological setting and material
68	The Istria peninsula, shared by Croatia, Slovenia, and Italy, is bordered to the northeastern
69	Adriatic Sea. During the Eocene, Istria was a part of the Dinaric foreland zone that
70	experienced a strong subsidence in response to the formation of an orogenic wedge (e.g.
71	Živkovic & Babić, 2003). The study area (Fig. 1a, b), located in the Croatian part of
72	northwestern Istria, is characterised by a regional WNW-ESE-oriented anticlinal structure,
73	commonly referred to as the Buje anticline or Buje Karst, whose origin is related to the
73 74	commonly referred to as the Buje anticline or Buje Karst, whose origin is related to the formation of the Dinarides (Matičec, 1994). At the southern margin of the Buje anticline the
73 74 75	commonly referred to as the Buje anticline or Buje Karst, whose origin is related to the formation of the Dinarides (Matičec, 1994). At the southern margin of the Buje anticline the foreland sequence is composed by more than 150 m of Lutetian lacustrine to shallow-marine

for for a miniferal limestones (Drobne & Pavlovec, 1991) and by at least 350 m of Lutetian to

77 Priabonian turbidite deposits (referred to as Flysch Units; Marinčić *et al.* 1996; Pavšič &

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78	Peckmann, 1996; Živkovic & Babić, 2003) that transgressively overlie an Aptian to
79	Cenomanian sequence of shallow marine carbonates (Venturini et al. 1998). The Flysch
80	deposits, in which the studied limestones are enclosed, consist of interbedded siliciclastic
81	sandstones and marlstones as well as rare carbonate megabeds with basal breccias,
82	representing calciturbidites (Venturini et al. 1998). The occurrence of turbidites indicates
83	deposition by gravity flows in a deep-sea environment. The majority of the fine-grained
84	marlstones, on the other hand, represents hemipelagic background sedimentation in a basinal
85	setting (Pavšič & Peckmann, 1996). The occurrence of ichnogenera including Paleodictyon,
86	as well as foraminifers and ostracods suggests deposition between 700 and 1200 m water
87	depth (Gohrbandt et al. 1960; Pavšič & Peckmann, 1996).
88	The exotic blocks of limestone occurring in the vicinity of the town of Buje (Fig. 1b;
89	45°24'31''N, 13°40'01''E) have first been described by Venturini et al. (1998). The deposits
90	studied here correspond to the "nearby Buje petrol station" section of Venturini et al. (1998;
91	their Figures 4 and 5). In the captions of their Figures 10, 11, 13, and 14 as well as Table 1
92	Venturini et al. (1998) refer to this locality as "Buje". The other two outcrops described by
93	Venturini et al. (1998) were no longer accessible during field work in 2011. In the "nearby
94	Buje petrol station" outcrop three limestone bodies are exposed in a road section in the eastern
95	outskirts of Buje (Fig. 2, 3). These deposits are enclosed in a sequence of fine-grained marls
96	intercalated with few decimetre-thick sandstone beds. The lowermost deposit (Buje 1) is
97	about 4 m thick and laterally extends for approximately 20 metres in outcrop, the Buje 2 and 3
98	deposits are approximately 5 m and 2 m in width and 2 m and 1 m in height, respectively.
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100	3. Methods
101	Sampling of the carbonate deposits (Buje 1, 2, and 3) has been carried out in spring 2011.

- 102 Selected samples were prepared for palaeontologic, petrographic, and geochemical
- 103 investigations. All fossil specimens are deposited in the Geowissenschaftliches Museum,

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Georg-August-University Göttingen, Germany (GZG). Thin sections (15 x 10 cm and 10 x 7.5 cm) were studied with transmitted light and cathodoluminescence microscopy using a CITL 8200MK3, operating at about 17 kV and 400 mA. Thin sections were further analysed for their UV-fluorescence on a Nikon microscope with a UV-2A filter block, using ultraviolet light (illumination source 450-490 nm). Scanning electron microscopy and qualitative element recognition were performed with a Cambridge Instruments Stereoscan 360 scanning electron microscope equipped with an energy-dispersive Link System Oxford Instruments microprobe. For stable isotope analyses mineral phases were drilled from the surface of slabs with a hand-held micro drill. Measurements of carbon and oxygen isotopes were performed with a Finnigan MAT 251 mass spectrometer using the "Kiel" carbonate device type "Bremen" against natural carbon dioxide from Burgbohl (Rheinland, Germany). A Solnhofen limestone was used as standard, which was calibrated against the international standard NBS 19. Values are reported in the δ -notation relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard. Long time standard deviation (1 σ) for this measurement was 0.05% for δ^{13} C and 0.07% for δ^{18} O values. Lipid biomarkers were extracted from two carbonate blocks (Buje 1 and 2 deposits). yielding almost identical patterns. Samples were prepared and decalcified as described in Birgel et al. (2006a). After saponification with 6% KOH in methanol, the samples were extracted with a microwave extraction system (CEM Discovery) at 80°C and up to 250 W with dichloromethane/methanol (3:1) three times. The resulting extracts were separated into four fractions by column chromatography (500 mg DSC-NH₂ cartridges, Supelco) as described in Birgel et al. (2008). Carboxylic acids were measured as their methyl ester (ME) derivatives. All fractions were measured using an Agilent 7890 A GC system coupled to an Agilent 5975 C inert MSD spectrometer. The GC-MS system was equipped with a 30 m HP-5 MS UI fused silica capillary column (0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm film thickness). The carrier gas

129 was He. The gas chromatography (GC) temperature program used for both fractions was as

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130	follows: 60 °C (1 min); from 60 to 150°C at 10°C/min then to 320°C at 4°/min; 25 min
131	isothermal. Identification of compounds was based on GC retention times and comparison
132	with published mass spectra. No separation of crocetane and phytane was achieved with the
133	used column. The relative abundance of these compounds was assessed by the different
134	fragmentation patterns, especially by the change of relative abundances of the masses 169
135	(characteristic for crocetane) and 183 (characteristic for phytane) within the mixed
136	crocetane/phytane peak. Compound-specific carbon isotope analyses were carried out with a
137	Thermo Fisher Trace GC Ultra connected via a thermo Fisher GC Isolink interface to a
138	Thermo Fisher Delta V Advantage spectrometer. GC conditions were identical to those
139	described above. Carbon isotopes are expressed as δ^{13} C values relative to the VPDB standard.
140	The carbon isotope measurements were corrected for the addition of ME-derivatives. Several
141	pulses of carbon dioxide with known δ^{13} C values at the beginning and the end of the runs
142	were used for calibration. Instrument precision was checked using a mixture of n -alkanes (C ₁₄
143	to C_{40}) with known isotopic composition. The analytical standard deviation was <0.7‰.
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145 **4. Results**

146 **4.a. Fauna**

Microfossils are abundant in the studied carbonate rocks, for the most part being represented 147 by benthic (Bolivina sp., Stilostomella spp., Uvigerina spp., and Heterolepa spp.) and planktic 148 (Turborotalia sp., Acarinina sp. and Hantkenina sp.) foraminifera. The occurrence of 149 150 Hantkenina sp. agrees with an Upper Lutetian-Bartonian age (cf. Pavšič & Peckmann, 1996). Macrofossils were found only sporadically in the Buje 1 deposit and were almost absent 151 in the Buje 2 and Buje 3 deposits. Most common is a lucinid bivalve that includes also the 152 153 largest shell, followed by a thyasirid, and a solemyid bivalve. In addition to these bivalves, a 154 few callianassid claws and other crustacean fragments were found. The bivalves include: (1) two specimens of a solemyid, the larger one 32 mm long and 10 mm high with the anterior 155

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156	end missing. It shows an elongate S-shaped band extending from the posteroventral corner of
157	the anterior adductor muscle scar to the dorsal shell margin, had an external ligament, and is
158	therefore referred to as Acharax (Fig. 4a-c). (2) Two specimens of a Nucula; the larger one is
159	20 mm long and 15 mm high, and although the taxodont hinge is missing in these specimens,
160	they have the general shape of a Nucula and show the radial striation and crenulate ventral
161	margin common to this genus (Fig. 4d). (3) Four specimens belong to Thyasira due to their
162	general shape and strong posterior sulcus (Fig. 4e); the largest is 40 mm long. The
163	"undetermined Veneroida (?Kelliidae)" figured by Venturini et al. (1998, p. 225, Fig. 11) may
164	also belong to this Thyasira species. (4) Seven specimens and fragments of an oval lucinid
165	bivalve with an edentulous, narrow hinge without triangular excavation below the umbo, and
166	a maximum length of 52 mm (Fig. 4f-j) belong to the genus Amanocina. The lucinid is most
167	likely the same species as the "?Lucina" figured by Venturini et al. (1998, p. 225, Fig. 10).

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169 **4.b.** Petrography and stable isotopes

The lithology of the three Buje carbonate deposits (Buje 1 to 3) is quite similar. The 170 limestones consist of fossiliferous and bioturbated mudstone and wackestone (Fig. 5). The 171 matrix is made up of dark brown micrite, revealing a bright autofluorescence (Fig. 6a, b). 172 Terrigenous particles are angular, including abundant quartz and rare feldspar grains as well 173 as lithic clasts. Apart from detrital grains, the micritic matrix contains abundant biogenic 174 175 detritus, mostly tests of foraminifera (Fig. 6c). Some mm to cm wide, irregular cavities occur; 176 the cavities are interpreted to result from bioturbation, representing successively filled 177 burrows. Some cavities show geopetal infill (Fig. 6d). The cavities are filled by sediment and authigenic phases including peloids, homogenous micrite, laminated micrite, a phase referred 178 179 to as cauliflower micrite, and different generations of carbonate cements (Fig. 6d-f). Peloidal fabrics are particular abundant (Fig. 6e). They consist of ovoidal peloids, showing an intense 180 fluorescence, surrounded by a non-fluorescent calcite microspar. On the basis of shape and 181

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182 composition, peloids are interpreted to represent faecal pellets. Banding in the authigenic,

laminated micrites is sub-parallel to cavity walls (Fig. 6e). In places the laminated micrite isbroken to pieces, forming fragments surrounded by calcite cement.

The cauliflower micrite is an obviously authigenic variety of micrite found in some of the cavities. It is represented by aggregates of mottled, microcrystalline calcite (Fig. 7a, b). Its aggregates exhibit a domal, grooved shape, resembling cauliflower. Micron-sized irregular pores, filled by calcite microspar, are present within these domes, generating a sponge-like texture (Fig. 7c). The fluorescent cauliflower micrite (Fig. 7d) is commonly covered by a circumgranular calcite cement (Fig. 7b, c). Remaining porosity in the cavities was subsequently filled by two main generations of cement, (1) banded and botryoidal aggregates of fibrous aragonite cement, mostly recrystallized to calcite, and (2) a drusy mosaic of equant calcite cement (Fig. 6c-f). Carbonate cements are overall not abundant, being restricted to the cavities believed to result from bioturbation.

The micritic matrix of the Buje deposits records episodes of carbonate corrosion. The
surfaces of the affected aggregates of micrite are highly irregular, and commonly covered by a
black rim of an opaque mineral up to a few tens of µm in thickness (Fig. 8a, b). Backscatter
and EDS observations revealed that these rims consist of scattered bright grains (Fig. 8c)
characterized by high contents of iron and manganese.

The volumetrically dominant micrite of the Buje carbonates has been analysed for its stable carbon and oxygen isotope composition; the amount of banded and botryoidal cement was not sufficient to allow for isotope analysis. The δ^{13} C values of micrite range from -42.2 to -22.7‰, the corresponding δ^{18} O values range from -3.9 to 0.0‰ (Fig. 9). The Buje 1 deposit revealed the most negative δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values, as low as -42.2 and -3.9‰, respectively, with most δ^{13} C values falling between -35.2 and -30.2‰. Buje 2 and Buje 3 deposits show overall similar isotope values with less ¹³C and ¹⁸O depletion compared to the Buje 1 deposit.

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209	4.c. Biomarkers
210	Hydrocarbons, carboxylic acids, and alcohols were analysed. However, lipid biomarkers in
211	the alcohol fraction are only poorly preserved, and are thus not useful for the interpretation of
212	the depositional environment. The major group of compounds in the hydrocarbon fraction are
213	isoprenoid hydrocarbons (Fig. 10a). Among them are the head-to-tail linked isoprenoid
214	phytane (approximately 60% of the combined peak) and the tail-to-tail linked isoprenoid
215	crocetane (approximately 40%); their combined peak is the highest peak in this fraction. The
216	next abundant isoprenoids are the tail-to-tail linked isoprenoid pentamethylicosane (PMI) and
217	the head-to-head linked isoprenoid biphytane (bp-0). Other, minor constituents are
218	monocyclic biphytane (bp-1) with one cyclopentane ring and the tail-to-tail linked isoprenoid
219	squalane, as well as the head-to-tail linked isoprenoid pristane. Other than isoprenoids, few
220	straight-chain <i>n</i> -alkanes are present. Their overall distribution is patchy with the exception of
221	n-C ₂₃ , resembling the inventory of modern and ancient, non-oil stained seep carbonates and
222	sediments (e.g. Thiel et al. 2001; Peckmann et al. 2007; Chevalier et al. 2013). Apart from
223	aliphatic lipid biomarkers, few cyclic compounds, mainly steranes and one hopanoid were
224	found. Among steroids, most abundant are C28 and C29 steranes. Other detected steroids are
225	lanostanes, which have been described in some seep carbonates (Birgel & Peckmann, 2008).
226	The most abundant cyclic terpenoid found is the hopanoid hop-17(21)-ene.
227	The isoprenoids have the most negative δ^{13} C values with -111% and -109% for PMI
228	and bp-0, respectively. The head-to-tail linked isoprenoid pristane (-60%) and the <i>n</i> -alkane
229	n-C ₂₃ (-66‰) revealed intermediate values (Fig. 9), whereas other short-chain n -alkanes are
230	significantly less ¹³ C-depleted (-34‰). The δ^{13} C values of steranes fall in the same range as
231	short-chain and long-chain <i>n</i> -alkanes. Lanostanes are more 13 C-depleted with an average
232	value of -47% . Hop-17(21)-ene is more ¹³ C-depleted (-64‰) than the lanostanes.



233	The carboxylic acid fraction is predominated by <i>n</i> -fatty acids ranging from C_{14} to C_{28}
234	(Fig. 10b). The fatty acids are characterized by an overall even-over-odd predominance.
235	Highest contents were found for short-chain n -C ₁₆ fatty acid. Other abundant compounds are
236	n-C ₁₆ and C ₁₈ fatty acids with one double bond. Apart from n -fatty acids, terminally-branched
237	fatty acids are abundant, especially those comprising 15 carbons. Other compounds in the
238	carboxylic acid fraction are phytanoic acid and PMI acid. Phytanoic acid co-elutes with a
239	$C_{18:1}$ fatty acid. Only one hopanoic acid, $17\beta(H)$, $21\beta(H)$ -bishomohopanoic acid, was
240	identified.
241	The strongest ¹³ C depletions in the carboxylic acids were found for the isoprenoid PMI
242	acid (-107‰). Although combined with the isotopic signature of the co-eluting n -C _{18:1} fatty
243	acid, phytanoic acid is still considerably 13 C-depleted (-75‰). Other compounds with
244	significant depletion in ¹³ C are the terminally-branched <i>iso-</i> and <i>anteiso-</i> C ₁₅ fatty acids with
245	δ^{13} C values of -68‰ and -82‰, respectively, as well as $17\beta(H)$, $21\beta(H)$ -bishomohopanoic
246	acid (-70%). Short-chain <i>n</i> -fatty acids yielded values of around -50% , whereas the long-
247	chain fatty acids revealed higher values (average -31%).
248	
249	5. Discussion
250	5.a. Biogeographic and evolutionary aspects
251	Methane seepage and associated faunal communities in the Mediterranean realm are known
252	from the late Mesozoic when large lucinid bivalves and rhynchonellide brachiopods inhabited
253	cold seeps along the northern shore of the Tethys Ocean (Gaillard, Rio & Rolin, 1992;
254	Campbell & Bottjer, 1995; Peckmann et al. 1999; Kiel, 2013) and from the Miocene onward,
255	largely along the Apennine chain in Italy (Ricci Lucchi & Vai, 1994; Taviani, 2011). These
256	Neogene seep deposits are generally referred to as 'Calcari a Lucina' (Clari et al. 1988;
257	Taviani, 1994). Among them, the Miocene deposits contain essentially a modern seep fauna

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consisting of large bathymodiolin, vesicomyid, and lucinid bivalves, while the few Pliocene
examples appear to have a reduced character of the modern Mediterranean Sea seep fauna
(Table 1; Taviani, 2014). Many of the taxa that inhabit vents and seeps today originated in the
early Cenozoic (Kiel & Little, 2006; Amano & Kiel, 2007; Kiel & Amano, 2013; Vrijenhoek,
2013). The middle Eocene Buje deposits can thus provide insights into the early evolution of
the seep fauna and its biogeography.

The only seep deposits coeval with the Buje seeps are those of the middle Eocene Humptulips Formation in western Washington State, USA, and thus from the Pacific realm (Goedert & Squires, 1990). They share the common solemyids, the large thyasirids, and the edentulous lucinids, although the latter are represented by different genera in the two regions (cf. Goedert & Squires, 1990; Saul, Squires & Goedert, 1996; Kiel, 2013). The Humptulips seep deposits differ, however, by the presence of large, high spired gastropods (Goedert & Kaler, 1996; Kiel, 2008) and vesicomyid bivalves (Squires & Goedert, 1991; Amano & Kiel, 2007), which appear to be absent from the Buje deposits. The Humptulips limestones also include the earliest bathymodiolin mussels discovered so far (Kiel & Amano, 2013). From one of the seep deposits at Buje, Venturini et al. (1998) reported several specimens of the mytilid 'Modiolus' that could potentially represent an as-yet unidentified bathymodiolin mussel; unfortunately that particular deposit was no longer accessible during our field work and the identity of this mussel remains elusive. The fauna of the Buje seep deposits is only a first glimpse into the Eocene seep fauna of the central Tethys Ocean and is unlikely to represent the full diversity of the regional pool of seep-inhabiting taxa. However, if taken at face value, the absence of the main modern taxa (bathymodiolins and vesicomyids) from Buje at a time when these taxa were present at Pacific seeps is in agreement with molecular phylogenetic analyses (Lorion et al. 2013; Roterman et al. 2013; Stiller et al. 2013) and quantitative biogeographic analyses (Bachraty et al. 2009; Moalic et al. 2012), which indicate a Pacific origin of the modern vent and seep fauna.

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284	Compared to the 'Calcari a Lucina' seep deposits in the Italian Miocene (Fig.1a; Clari et
285	al. 1994; Taviani, 1994) and the modern Mediterranean seep fauna (Olu-Le Roy et al. 2004;
286	Ritt et al. 2010; Taviani et al. 2013), the middle Eocene seep fauna at Buje shows clear
287	differences (Table 1). Solemyids are rare in the Neogene to modern seeps in the
288	Mediterranean Sea (Taviani et al. 2011; Rodrigues, Duperron & Gaudron 2011) in contrast to
289	Buje, where they are common. Also the large <i>Thyasira</i> is a distinctive feature of the Buje
290	seeps, while thyasirids are absent from the 'Calcari a Lucina' deposits (Taviani, 2011; S. Kiel,
291	own observation), and in the modern Mediterranean seep fauna they are represented only by a
292	small (~10 mm) species (Olu-Le Roy et al. 2004). The lucinids at the Miocene to modern
293	Mediterranean seeps clearly belong to different genera than the lucinid at Buje (Olu-Le Roy et
294	al. 2004; Taviani, 2011; Kiel & Taviani, unpub. data), which belongs to the widespread Early
295	Cretaceous to Oligocene genus Amanocina.
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297	5.b. Microbial activity steering carbonate formation and destruction
298	The Buje carbonate deposits show several petrographical and geochemical lines of evidence
299	that agree with a microbial origin sustained by hydrocarbon seepage. Not only the negative
300	δ^{13} C values as low as -42 ‰ agree with methane seeping (cf. Paull <i>et al.</i> 1992; Peckmann &
301	Thiel, 2004), but also microfabrics, such as peloidal and clotted micrite, laminated micrite,
302	and banded and botryoidal cement filling cavities are typical of seep carbonates (e.g.
303	Peckmann & Thiel, 2004). Finally, lipid biomarkers characteristic for methane seepage are
304	found in the Buje deposits, confirming their microbial origin resulting from methane
305	oxidation. Among the observed compounds, the most ¹³ C-depleted acyclic isoprenoids such as
306	mixed phytane/crocetane (-98‰), PMI (-111‰), and acyclic biphytane (-109‰) are
307	molecular fossils of methanotrophic archaea (e.g. Elvert, Suess & Whiticar, 1999; Peckmann
308	& Thiel, 2004; Birgel et al. 2006a; Peckmann, Birgel & Kiel, 2009). These biomarkers are

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310	fatty acids (Elvert et al. 2003; Birgel et al. 2006b). As commonly observed in seep deposits,
311	the lipids of the sulphate-reducing bacteria involved in anaerobic oxidation of methane are
312	less ¹³ C-depleted (-82 ‰ for <i>anteiso</i> -C ₁₅ FA) than the lipids of methanotrophic archaea (e.g.
313	Peckmann & Thiel, 2004).
314	At first glance, the petrographical characteristics and stable isotope and lipid biomarker
315	patterns of the Buje deposits are not much different from other ancient Mediterranean seep
316	deposits (e.g. Peckmann et al. 2004; Clari et al. 2009; Natalicchio et al. 2013). However, the
317	Buje seep deposits show some peculiarities, as for example the occurrence of cauliflower
318	micrite. These dome-shaped precipitates are made up of fluorescent clotted micrite and
319	formed <i>in-situ</i> within cavities, properties that typify the products of organomineralisation (cf.
320	Reitner et al. 1995; Dupraz et al. 2009). Two possible modes of formation are envisaged, (1)
321	mineralised microbial mats or (2) sponges. (1) Mineralized biofilms have already been
322	documented in Eocene seep deposits from western Washington State (Peckmann et al. 2003)
323	and in Miocene seep deposits from the Italian Apennine (Peckmann et al. 1999). The
324	cauliflower shape, representing a domal, accretionary mode of growth on a mm to cm scale in
325	a cryptic environment is different from previous reports of much thinner mineralised biofilms
326	within cracks of preexisting seep carbonate. Based on the larger size of the Buje cauliflower
327	micrite and its domal growth habit along with its intense autofluorescence it seems feasible
328	that this micrite resulted from the mineralisation of microbial mats that performed anaerobic
329	oxidation of methane. The validity of this scenario is enforced by the presence of subsurface
330	microbial mats of anaerobic oxidation of methane-performing prokaryotes at active seeps in
331	the Black Sea (Treude et al. 2005). (2) Alternatively, the domal growth, clotted microfabric,
332	and reticulate porosity of the cauliflower micrite resembles the outcome of sponge taphonomy
333	(e.g. Delecat et al. 2001). Because no spicules have been observed, it is unlikely that
334	cauliflower micrite represents fossils of spicular sponges. Even in case of siliceous spicules,
335	the spicules would have been probably preserved in the authigenic seep carbonate. Where
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2 3 4	336	sponges have been reported in ancient seep deposits, their overall preservation including
5	337	spicules was good in case of Mesozoic examples (Peckmann et al. 1999) and excellent in case
7 8	338	of Cenozoic examples (Goedert & Squires, 1990; Rigby & Goedert, 1996). If the sponge
9 10	339	interpretation is correct, the sponges were probably non-spicular, belonging to a group
11 12	340	informally referred to as keratose demosponges (J. Reitner, pers. comm.). Despite of lacking
13 14 15	341	spicules, the taphonomy of keratose sponges results in micritic carbonate fabrics that can still
16 17	342	be recognized in Phanerozoic rocks (Luo & Reitner, 2014). Seep-dwelling sponges have been
18 19	343	reported from a number of modern sites (Olu-Le Roy et al. 2004, and references therein).
20 21	344	Some demosponges have even been shown to contain endosymbiotic methanotrophic bacteria
22 23	345	(Vacelet et al. 1996; Olu-Le Roy et al. 2004; Baco et al. 2010).
24 25 26	346	The abundant irregular corrosion surfaces partially covered by iron and manganese
20 27 28	347	precipitates indicate dissolution of carbonate. Such dissolution features coupled with iron and
29 30	348	manganese enrichment have commonly been interpreted as the product of microbially-driven
31 32	349	corrosion, as for example reported for reef carbonates (Reitner et al. 2000; Tribollet et al.
33 34	350	2011). Analogous features have also been observed in ancient (Campbell et al. 2002;
35 36 37	351	Peckmann et al. 2003; Birgel et al. 2006b) and modern (Matsumoto, 1990; Himmler et al.
38 39	352	2011) seep carbonates and were interpreted as biologically-induced corrosion features as well.
40 41	353	Matsumoto (1990) was the first to suggest that carbonate corrosion at seeps is driven by
42 43	354	bacterial aerobic methane oxidation and sulphide oxidation. Both processes have the potential
44 45	355	to lower the pH and may thus promote carbonate dissolution (Himmler et al. 2011; Tribollet
46 47 48	356	et al. 2011). Molecular fossils of sulphide-oxidizing bacteria cannot be easily identified in
49 50	357	ancient rocks, since these lipids are of low specificity and prone to degradation (cf. Arning et
51 52	358	al. 2008). In contrast, the former presence of aerobic methanotrophs at seeps can be
53 54	359	constrained by lipid biomarkers including lanostanes and some hopanoids (Peckmann et al.
55 56	360	1999; 2004; Birgel & Peckmann, 2008; Sandy <i>et al.</i> 2012). The low δ^{13} C values of lanostanes
57 58 59 60	361	and hopanoids in the Buje limestones agree with aerobic methanotrophs as source organisms, 14

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although other sources cannot be excluded in case of the ¹³C-depleted hopanoids (cf.
Blumenberg *et al.* 2006; Eickhoff *et al.* 2013). The potential of aerobic methanotrophs to
cause carbonate dissolution has recently been proven in laboratory experiments (Krause *et al.*2014). Based on the confirmation that this mechanism is indeed capable of inducing carbonate
dissolution and the detection of molecular fossils of aerobic methanotrophs, carbonate
corrosion archived in the Buje seep limestones is best explained by aerobic methanotrophy.

369 5.c. Constraints on fluid flow

The occurrence of both anaerobic oxidation of methane – as revealed by 13 C-depleted biomarkers and ¹³C-depleted authigenic carbonates – and aerobic oxidation of methane – as revealed by ¹³C-depleted biomarkers and carbonate corrosion – indicates discontinuous oxygenation conditions in the subsurface close to the seafloor at the Buje seep sites. The precipitation of the ¹³C-depleted micrite driven by anaerobic oxidation of methane occurred in anoxic environments within the pore space of the detrital background sediment, leading to the occlusion of the sedimentary matrix. After the pore space was successively filled by micrite, carbonate precipitation was largely restricted to some cavities resulting from preceding bioturbation, and allowing for the formation of fibrous, banded and botryoidal aragonite cement and clotted micrite. Based on the evidence for carbonate corrosion and the preservation of diagnostic biomarkers, at least some of the aerobic methanotrophic bacteria most probably lived in oxic sediments, rendering unlikely that these biomarkers were exclusively sourced from bacteria dwelling in the water column above the seeps. A set of observations indicates that the mode of seepage was diffusive rather than advective. The Buje seep limestones largely consist of authigenic micrite cementing background sediments. Such a pattern with the dominance of micrite over early diagenetic aragonite cements is typical for diffusive seepage (e.g. Peckmann, Birgel & Kiel, 2009; Haas

et al. 2010). Similarly, the faint stratification apparent in the Buje 1 deposit is an additional

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388	argument in favour of this interpretation. Similarly, the circumstance that biphytane occurs in
389	much higher contents than crocetane agrees with the dominance of archaea of the so-called
390	ANME-1 group (Blumenberg et al. 2004; Niemann & Elvert, 2008; Rossell et al. 2011),
391	another observation in favour of diffusive seepage (Nauhaus et al. 2005; Peckmann, Birgel &
392	Kiel, 2009). ANME-1 archaea, like ANME-2 archaea, are commonly associated with
393	sulphate-reducing bacteria of the Desulfosarcina/Desulfococcus branch of the
394	Deltaproteobacteria (Knittel & Boetius, 2009). The bacterial partners of the ANME-1 archaea
395	can be discerned from those of ANME-2 archaea by a much higher proportion of <i>ai</i> -C ₁₅ fatty
396	acid (Blumenberg et al. 2004; Niemann & Elvert, 2008), a compound that is particularly
397	abundant in the Buje limestones (see Fig. 10b). All these observations argue in favour of
398	diffusive seepage. It should, however, be kept in mind that other factors than just seepage
399	activity can influence the distribution of ANME-1 versus ANME-2 archaea and the
400	abundance of aerobic methanotrophs as well. An obvious factor for example is temperature,
401	whereby higher temperatures are known for favour ANME-1 over ANME-2 archaea
402	(Nauhaus <i>et al.</i> 2005).
403	It is interesting to note that some Cretaceous seep deposits for which diffusive seepage
404	has been envisaged contain biomarkers of aerobic methanotrophs as well (Peckmann, Birgel
405	& Kiel, 2009; Sandy et al. 2012), although the majority of seep deposits lacks these
406	compounds (e.g. Peckmann & Thiel, 2004). Because the sulphate-methane transition zone
407	(SMTZ) tends to be situated deeper within the sediments at sites of diffusive seepage than at
408	sites of advective seepage (e.g. Sahling et al. 2002; Luff & Wallmann, 2003), we suggest that
409	the preservation of lipids of aerobic methanotrophs is favoured in limestones forming at seeps
410	typified by diffusive seepage – this is not meant to say that aerobic methanotrophs are
411	necessarily more abundant at diffusive seeps. With aerobic methanotrophy being able to
412	extend to greater sediment depth at diffusive seeps, the likelihood probably increases that the
413	lipids of aerobic methanotrophs become engulfed in authigenic seep carbonates at a later stage

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upon dilatation of the zone of anaerobic oxidation of methane. If seepage continues for extended periods of time – as envisaged for the thick Buje 1 deposit – the prolonged formation of methane-derived carbonates, thus, assures the preservation of process markers of those biogeochemical processes that occurred in close proximity of the strata affected by anaerobic oxidation of methane. This effect will be intensified upon variations of seepage intensity that allow for vertical displacement of the SMTZ (cf. Feng, Chen & Peckmann, 2009). An upward movement of the SMTZ caused by an increase of seepage intensity and accompanied by a shift of carbonate formation to shallower depth will particularly favour the preservation of the lipids of aerobic methanotrophs.

424 6. Conclusions

The fossil record and molecular age estimates indicate that the dominant taxa of the modern vent and seep fauna appeared during the Eocene. The fossil record of seep communities of this age, however, is highly skewed toward the Pacific region and thus macrofauna of the Buje seep deposits provides a first glimpse into the seep fauna of the Tethyan region. The absence of the main modern taxa (bathymodiolin mussels and vesicomvid clams) from the Buje seeps agrees with other lines of evidence suggesting that the modern vent and seep fauna originated in the Pacific Ocean. The Buje seep fauna also indicates a dynamic evolution of seep faunas in the Tethyan/Mediterranean basin: it resembles Cretaceous to early Palaeogene seep faunas from other parts of the world, whereas the late Miocene 'Calcari a Lucina' fauna in Italy resembles other Miocene to modern seep faunas worldwide, and the Pliocene seep faunas from northern Italy have the somewhat restricted character of Mediterranean seep fauna today that probably resulted from the extinction of the more 'oceanic' Miocene seep faunas during the Messinian salinity crisis.

The Buje seep deposits formed as a consequence of anaerobic oxidation of methane as
revealed by the presence of ¹³C-depleted biomarkers of methanotrophic archaea and

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440	associated sulphate-reducing bacteria. Apart from these anaerobic prokaryotes, aerobic
441	methanotrophic bacteria lived at the middle Eocene seeps. Their metabolism apparently led to
442	a local decrease of pore water pH values, which resulted in the dissolution of carbonate
443	minerals. The large size of the Buje 1 deposit suggests that seepage activity was long-lasting.
444	(1) Its faint stratification, (2) the dominance of authigenic micrite over early diagenetic
445	fibrous cement, (3) biomarker patterns of the prokaryotes performing anaerobic oxidation of
446	methane, and (4) possibly the preservation of the lipids of aerobic methanotrophs indicate that
447	seepage activity was mostly diffusive rather than advective.
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449	Acknowledgements. We thank Leopold Slawek (Vienna, Austria) for thin section
450	preparation, Gerhard Hundertmark (Göttingen, Germany) for photography, Monika Segl
451	(Bremen, Germany) for carbon and oxygen isotope analysis of carbonate samples, Birgit Wild
452	and Andreas Richter (both Vienna, Austria) for help with compound-specific carbon isotope
453	measurements, Joachim Reitner (Göttingen, Germany) for comments on keratose sponges,
454	and two anonymous referees for comments that helped improving the manuscript. Financial
455	support was provided by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft through grant Ki802/6-1 to
456	SK.
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Figure and table captions:

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762	Figure 1. Working area. (a) Distribution of the main domains of Cenozoic seep deposits in the
763	Mediterranean area. (b) Geological sketch of the Istria region and location of the Buje seep
764	deposits (45°24'31''N, 13°40'01''E).
765	
766	Figure 2. Composite image of studied Buje 1 to 3 seep deposits assembled from three
767	photographs.
768	
769	Figure 3. Outcrop photographs of the studied seep carbonates. (a) Buje 1 and 2 seep deposits;
770	person for scale. Note that the Buje 1 seep deposit is faintly stratified. (b) The lenticular Buje
771	3 seep deposit; hammer for scale.
772	
773	Figure 4. Bivalves from the Buje 1 seep deposit. (a-c) The solemyid Acharax; (a) large
774	specimen (GZG.INV.82757), (b) detail showing the S-shaped band on the anterodorsal shell
775	margin (arrow), and (c) small fragment showing radial ribs on the anterior part of the shell
776	(GZG.INV.82758). (d) The protobranch Nucula (GZG.INV.82759). (e) Large specimen of
777	Thyasira showing the posterior sulcus (GZG.INV.82760). (f-j) The lucinid Amanocina; (f)
778	specimen with naticid drill hole (arrow; GZG.INV.82761); (g,h) specimen showing the
779	narrow escutcheon (GZG.INV.82762); (i,j) large specimen (GZG.INV.82763) in dorsal view
780	(i) and view on the edentulous hinge (j).
781	
782	Figure 5. Scanned thin sections of the three Buje seep deposits: (a) Buje 1, (b) Buje 2 (c) Buje
783	3. The limestones represent bioturbated mudstone and wackestone; arrows indicate geopetal
784	cavities (a) and black corrosion rims (c).

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786	Figure 6. Petrography of Buje seep deposits. m – matrix micrite; pm – peloidal micrite; ccc –				
787	circumgranular calcite cement; bbc – banded and botryoidal cement; s – sediment; ec – equant				
788	calcite cement. (a) Angular clasts cemented by matrix micrite, plane-polarized light. (b) Same				
789	detail as (a) showing the brightly fluorescent micrite; fluorescence image. (c) Fossiliferous				
790	wackestone containing planktic (white arrows) and benthic (black arrows) foraminifera;				
791	plane-polarized light. (d-f) Irregular cavities filled with peloidal micrite, sediment, and				
792	different generations of carbonate cements; plane-polarized light.				
793					
794	Figure 7. Petrography of cauliflower micrite. m – matrix micrite; pm – peloidal micrite; ccc –				
795	circumgranular calcite cement; cm – cauliflower micrite; ec – equant calcite cement. (a)				
796	Domal and grooved cauliflower micrite that grew on peloidal micrite and was postdated by				
797	circumgranular calcite and equant calcite cement, plane-polarized light. (b) Detail of (a). (c)				
798	Close up view of the cauliflower micrite with internal reticulate porosity filled by microspar				
799	(arrows); crossed-polarized light. (d) The cauliflower micrite exhibits an intense				
800	autofluorescence; fluorescence image.				
801					
802	Figure 8. Corrosion patterns. m – matrix micrite; bbc – banded and botryoidal cement; s –				
803	sediment. (a) Highly irregular cavity surface covered by a black rim (arrows); plane-polarized				
804	light. (b) Close up view of the dark irregular rim (arrow); plane-polarized light. (c) Bright				
805	spots on corrosion surfaces reveal an enrichment in iron (Fe) and manganese (Mn); see				
806	inserted EDS spectrum; SEM micrograph of thin section, backscatter view.				
807					
808	Figure 9. Cross plot of the carbon and oxygen stable isotope compositions in per mil versus				
809	VPDB standard of micrite forming the Buje seep deposits.				
810					

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Proof For Review

Figure 10. Lipid biomarker patterns of the Buje 1 seep deposit; numbers in italics indicate
compound-specific δ^{13} C values in per mil versus VPDB standard. Gas chromatograms (total
ion current) of hydrocarbon (a) and carboxylic acid (b) fractions. (a) Circles $-n$ -alkanes;
white triangles – regular, head-to-tail linked isoprenoids; black triangles – irregular, tail-to-tail
linked isoprenoids; grey triangles - irregular, head-to-head linked isoprenoids (biphytanes);
Cr -crocetane; Ph - phytane; PMI - pentamethylicosane; Sq - squalane; black squares -
steranes; istd – internal standard. (b) Circles – n -fatty acids; $i - iso$ -fatty acids; $ai - anteiso$ -
fatty acids; M – monoenoic fatty acids; white triangles – regular, head-to-tail linked
isoprenoidal acids; PMI – pentamethylicosanoic acid; $\beta\beta$ -32-HA – $17\beta(H)$, $21\beta(H)$ -
bishomohopanoic acid; istd – internal standard.

822 Table 1. Schematic overview of the Palaeogene and Neogene seep deposits across the Mediterranean

				δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁸ O	
Locality	Age	Type of seep	Fossil assemblage	[%VPDB]	[%VPDB]	References
Emilian Apennine (Italy)	Early Pliocene	Fossiliferous limestones, conduits	Solemyids and lucinids	-25 to -17	-3 to +3	Taviani <i>et al.</i> 1997; Barbieri and Cavalazzi, 2005
Tortona Apennine (Piedmont, Italy)	Late Miocene	<i>Lucina</i> and brecciated limestones, carbonate beds with veins, conduits	Lucinids, tubeworms, bacterial biofilms	-56 to +6	-6 to +7	Dela Pierre <i>et al.</i> 2010; Martire <i>et al.</i> 2010; Natalicchio <i>et al.</i> 2012, 2013
Maiella, central Apennine (Italy)	Late Miocene	Brecciated limestones	absent	-40 to +4	-9 to +4	Iadanza et al. 2013
Monferrato (Piedmont, Italy)	Middle and Late Miocene	<i>Lucina</i> and brecciated limestones, macroconcretions with veins, conduits	Lucinids, tubeworms, bacterial biofilms	-45 to -9	-1 to 8	Clari <i>et al.</i> 1988, 1994, 2009; Peckmann <i>et al.</i> 1999
Sicily (Italy)	Middle and Late Miocene	<i>Lucina</i> and brecciated limestones	Lucinids (?)	-49 to -29	+3 to +9	Ricci Lucchi and Vai, 1994
Tuscan- Romagna Apennine (Italy)	Early and Late Miocene	Fossiliferous and brecciated limestones	Solemyids, lucinids, bathymodiolins, and vesicomyids	-58 to -16	-5 to +5	Taviani <i>et al.</i> 1997; Conti and Fontana, 1999, 2005; Lucente and Taviani, 2005
Buje (Croatia)	Middle Eocene	Fossiliferous limestones	Solemyids (Acharax), thyasirids (Thyasira), lucinids (Amanocina), nuculids, Callianassa	-42 to -23	-4 to 0	Venturini <i>et al.</i> 1998; this study





Figure 1. Working area. (a) Distribution of the main domains of Cenozoic seep deposits in the Mediterranean area. (b) Geological sketch of the Istria region and location of the Buje seep deposits (45°24'31"N, 13°40'01"E).

129x208mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Figure 2. Composite image of studied Buje 1 to 3 seep deposits assembled from three photographs. $48 \times 14mm$ (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 3. Outcrop photographs of the studied seep carbonates. (a) Buje 1 and 2 seep deposits; person for scale. Note that the Buje 1 seep deposit is faintly stratified. (b) The lenticular Buje 3 seep deposit; hammer for scale.

121x185mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 4. Bivalves from the Buje 1 seep deposit. (a-c) The solemyid Acharax; (a) large specimen (GZG.INV.82757), (b) detail showing the S-shaped band on the anterodorsal shell margin (arrow), and (c) small fragment showing radial ribs on the anterior part of the shell (GZG.INV.82758). (d) The protobranch Nucula (GZG.INV.82759). (e) Large specimen of Thyasira showing the posterior sulcus (GZG.INV.82760). (f-j) The lucinid Amanocina; (f) specimen with naticid drill hole (arrow; GZG.INV.82761); (g,h) specimen showing the narrow escutcheon (GZG.INV.82762); (i,j) large specimen (GZG.INV.82763) in dorsal view (i) and view on the edentulous hinge (j). 168x178mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 5. Scanned thin sections of the three Buje seep deposits: (a) Buje 1, (b) Buje 2 (c) Buje 3. The limestones represent bioturbated mudstone and wackestone; arrows indicate geopetal cavities (a) and black corrosion rims (c). 165x341mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Figure 6. Petrography of Buje seep deposits. m – matrix micrite; pm – peloidal micrite; ccc – circumgranular calcite cement; bbc – banded and botryoidal cement; s – sediment; ec – equant calcite cement. (a) Angular clasts cemented by matrix micrite, plane-polarized light. (b) Same detail as (a) showing the brightly fluorescent micrite; fluorescence image. (c) Fossiliferous wackestone containing planktic (white arrows) and benthic (black arrows) foraminifera; plane-polarized light. (d-f) Irregular cavities filled with peloidal micrite, sediment, and different generations of carbonate cements; plane-polarized light. (191x215mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 7. Petrography of cauliflower micrite. m – matrix micrite; pm – peloidal micrite; ccc – circumgranular calcite cement; cm – cauliflower micrite; ec – equant calcite cement. (a) Domal and grooved cauliflower micrite that grew on peloidal micrite and was postdated by circumgranular calcite and equant calcite cement, plane-polarized light. (b) Detail of (a). (c) Close up view of the cauliflower micrite with internal reticulate porosity filled by microspar (arrows); crossed-polarized light. (d) The cauliflower micrite exhibits an intense autofluorescence; fluorescence image.

127x96mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 8. Corrosion patterns. m – matrix micrite; bbc – banded and botryoidal cement; s – sediment. (a) Highly irregular cavity surface covered by a black rim (arrows); plane-polarized light. (b) Close up view of the dark irregular rim (arrow); plane-polarized light. (c) Bright spots on corrosion surfaces reveal an enrichment in iron (Fe) and manganese (Mn); see inserted EDS spectrum; SEM micrograph of thin section, backscatter view. 182x416mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Figure 10. Lipid biomarker patterns of the Buje 1 seep deposit; numbers in italics indicate compound-specific δ13C values in per mil versus VPDB standard. Gas chromatograms (total ion current) of hydrocarbon (a) and carboxylic acid (b) fractions. (a) Circles – n-alkanes; white triangles – regular, head-to-tail linked isoprenoids; black triangles – irregular, tail-to-tail linked isoprenoids; grey triangles – irregular, head-to-head linked isoprenoids (biphytanes); Cr –crocetane; Ph – phytane; PMI – pentamethylicosane; Sq – squalane; black squares – steranes; istd – internal standard. (b) Circles – n-fatty acids; i – iso-fatty acids; ai – anteiso-fatty acids; M – monoenoic fatty acids; white triangles – regular, head-to-tail linked isoprenoidal acids; PMI – pentamethylicosanoic acid; ββ-32-HA – 17β(H),21β(H)-bishomohopanoic acid; istd – internal standard.

202x241mm (600 x 600 DPI)