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1 **Revision 2**

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3 **Mudrock micro-fabric explored through charge contrast imaging**

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19

20 **Abstract:** Visual inspection (optical microscope point counting) and silica abundance
21 show that laminated shale from the Late Cretaceous of Colombia contains high levels of
22 detrital quartz silt and sand particles. Closer examination using the charge contrast
23 imaging (CCI) technique, however, illustrates that much of the quartz is authigenic
24 micro-quartz, and thus not exclusively of detrital origin. In addition, many ‘sand’ grains
25 that otherwise appear to represent simple detrital quartz particles are actually of biogenic
26 origin, representing the tests of agglutinated foraminifera, formed from cemented silt-
27 sized quartz particles. Finally, CCI shows that original detrital grains have undergone
28 authigenic modification, with both syntaxial overgrowths and micro-quartz. Without
29 recognition of these features, the relative proportion of detrital quartz (sand) would
30 otherwise be greatly overestimated, with important implications for environmental
31 interpretation. Furthermore, the recognition of biogenic structures, including agglutinated
32 foraminifera, provides additional environmental information that otherwise could be
33 easily overlooked.

34 **Keywords:** Shale, silt, quartz cementation

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Introduction

Mudrocks represent approximately 65% of the stratigraphic record on continents (Ibbeken & Schleyer, 1991) and are a significant proportion of marine sediments (Blatt, 1970; Ibbeken & Schleyer, 1991). They are economically significant, representing sources and seals for hydrocarbon resources (Al-Bazali et al., 2005; Olabode et al., 2012) as well as potential seals for carbon dioxide storage / carbon sequestration (Olabode et al., 2012) and can contain metal enrichments up to low grade ore levels (Anjum et al., 2012). Although superficially simple and supposedly homogenous, mudrocks are highly variable at the micro-scale in terms of composition and texture (see examples in Camp et al., 2013; Milliken 2014; Milliken et al., 2016) documenting the complex overlying / integrated effects of dynamic primary depositional conditions and post-depositional diagenetic alteration. Comprising a wide range of dominantly clay-size clay minerals (smectite, illite, kaolinite), they also feature varying contents of silt and sand particles (quartz, feldspars and micas), organic matter (charcoal, kerogen, bitumen, phytoclasts), and siliceous and calcareous micro-skeletal materials (diatoms, radiolaria, foraminifera, etc). Fabric can range from massive to fissile (mudstone versus shale), and at the microscopic level, porosity / permeability, clay mineral composition and orientation can be drastically altered through diagenesis during burial, including the formation of authigenic phases such as calcite, quartz, pyrite, marcasite and iron-oxides. Mudrocks therefore provide a significant repository of information regarding the depositional environment and subsequent diagenetic changes through time, with their study becoming an increasing focus of research (Bennett et al., 1991; Camp et al., 2013; Lazar et al., 2015).

59 The present study illustrates detailed results from charge contrast imaging (CCI)
60 performed on a Cretaceous marine shale that has undergone substantial modification
61 through massive authigenic quartz induration. The content of quartz ‘sand’, defined as
62 quartz grains of 63 micrometer to 2 millimeter in diameter, in the shale had previously
63 been estimated based on Si content from XRF, XRD of the >2 μ m fraction and optical
64 microscope point counting of sand-sized grains in thin-section. Examination by scanning
65 electron microscopy (SEM) illustrates that much of the original depositional information
66 has been masked by pervasive silicification of the shale, a feature that is not obvious from
67 examination of hand specimens, thin-sections or element abundance patterns, therefore
68 leading to gross over-estimation of the original sand fraction.

69 We tested a low-vacuum SEM technique of charge contrast imaging (CCI) to elucidate
70 valuable information concerning the original depositional conditions of this shale. CCI
71 has previously been shown to have applications on a range of other geological materials,
72 where it has been utilized to illustrate crystal zoning, authigenic overgrowths, cement
73 fabrics and healed fractures (Watt et al., 2000; Doehne and Carson, 2001; Cuthbert and
74 Buckman, 2005; Buckman et al., 2016). The technique is comparable to
75 Cathodoluminescence within the SEM (Griffin 1997; Griffin 2000; Buckman et al.,
76 2016), with contrast being controlled by differences in surface conductivity through
77 subtle variations in composition and structural defects, affecting electron emission
78 (Buckman et al., 2016). As shown in this study, CCI provides highly valuable
79 information that improves the interpretation of silt bearing mudrocks which have
80 undergone heavy quartz cement precipitation (see Milliken, 2013; Milliken et al., 2016),
81 akin to applications on carbonate rocks (Buckman et al., 2016).

82 In addition, selected XRF and XRD data were collected to help interpretation of possible
83 mechanisms for the observed occurrence of silicification.

84

85 **Materials and Methods**

86 The main sample examined (Z39) is a Late Cretaceous shale from the Coniacian of the
87 Chipaque Formation from the Valle Medio del Magdalena (MMV) province, Colombia.
88 The shale was collected from a surface outcrop at a road cutting in the Serranía de las
89 Quinchas region (Fig. 1). An additional eight samples of ‘shale’ from the MMV and
90 Eastern Cordillera (EC), from a range of stratigraphic horizons, related to Z39, and
91 known burial depths, within the Cretaceous sequence (Fig. 2) were also examined and
92 compared to the main sample. All samples were trimmed and impregnated with resin,
93 then prepared as polished thin-sections, for examination by scanning electron microscopy
94 (SEM). A Quanta 650 field-emission SEM was used, operated in low-vacuum mode,
95 utilizing a large-field gaseous secondary electron detector (LF-GSED). Essentially, the
96 charge contrast imaging (CCI) technique was used, following the method outlined in
97 Buckman et al. (2016), which provides information similar to those achieved through
98 cathodoluminescence (such as details of quartz overgrowths), by utilizing differences in
99 surface charge build up, which effects image contrast and brightness. Thin-sections were
100 examined uncoated, and images were collected at 20kV, with a spot size of 4.5, a detector
101 bias of around 50% and a scan rate of between 5 and 20 μ s. The standard quad
102 backscattered electron (BSE) detector, and a Gatan mini-cathodoluminescence (CL)
103 detector were utilized with similar imaging parameters to that of the LF-GSED, with the
104 addition that for CL a scan rate of between 800 μ s and 2.5 ms were used. In addition, an

105 Oxford Instruments X-Max^N 150 energy dispersive x-ray (EDX) detector was used for
106 elemental mapping, under the same operating conditions as for BSE imaging, with
107 between 20 and 30 full frame scans per map.

108 A Seimens model D500 XRD was used to analyse powdered samples, for both the greater
109 than 2 µm and the less than 2 µm fraction (35 samples). The less than 2 µm fraction were
110 analysed without treatment, with ethylene glycol (to differentiate expandable clays), and
111 thermally to differentiate kaolinite and chlorite. Samples were analysed from all
112 locations where thin-sections have been examined, with the exception of La Cristalina
113 and La Marina. Where possible, this included a sample from the same bed as the thin-
114 sections. Additionally, a single crushed whole rock sample of Z39 was analysed using a
115 Bruker D8 Advance powder diffractometer.

116 Samples from each location (184 samples) were also frozen, freeze-dried and ground in
117 an agate ball mill for subsequent chemical analysis by XRF (Philips PW 2400). Around
118 600 mg of each sample were mixed with 3600 mg of a 1 + 1 di-lithium tetraborate +
119 lithium metaborate ($\text{Li}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7 + \text{LiBO}_2$) mixture, pre-oxidized at 500°C with NH_4NO_3 , and
120 fused to homogeneous glass beads. Glass beads were analyzed for major and minor
121 elements. Analytical precision and accuracy were better than 5%, as checked by in-house
122 and international standard materials. Data were then used to calculate values for Zn/Al,
123 Cu/Al and Ni/Al, and an element enrichment factor (EEF) for Mo, V, U and Zn relative
124 to average shale (see Wedepohl, 1971).

125

126

Results

127 Analyses of backscattered (BSE) images of the thin-section (Z39) indicate that much of
128 the shale is composed of quartz, with minor fine-sand particles, silt-size particles
129 (typically up to 10 μm), a background of micro-quartz (sub-micrometer to micrometer-
130 size), and illite clay (Fig. 3). In addition, high porosity is suggested, which is typically
131 spherical to lenticular in morphology and excessively large (Fig. 3), indicating that much
132 of this porosity is likely an artifact of grain plucking during sample preparation rather
133 than a primary property of the shale.

134 Charge contrast images (CCI) taken using the LF-GSED confirm that the detrital grains
135 are generally smaller than apparent from BSE imaging, having relatively thick syntaxial
136 quartz overgrowths, and in many cases also incorporating authigenic micro-quartz (Fig.
137 4b-f). Some of the silt-size quartz particles display signs of healed cracks and fragmented
138 grains that have been re-cemented (Fig. 4c). The micro-quartz that forms the bulk of the
139 matrix has a distinctive mottled appearance when viewed by CCI, clearly differing from
140 that of detrital quartz cores or associated syntaxial overgrowths (Figs. 4b-f, 5e). This
141 authigenic micro-quartz is granular in appearance and typically around 1 μm or less in
142 size (Fig. 5e). Subtle differentiation within the micro-quartz suggests multi-phased
143 crystal growth with euhedral shaped overgrowths (Fig. 5e). In addition, some of the
144 apparent larger ‘silt’ particles are in fact the compressed remains of agglutinated
145 foraminifera (Fig. 5a-d). These remains are up to 100 μm in length, and typically around
146 40 μm in thickness, and vary in shape from lenticular to spherical or sub-spherical.

147 Unlike BSE or GSE images, CL-imaging proved of limited use with interpretation of the
148 current material, producing low contrast images providing no additional information (Fig.
149 6). However, EDX mapping confirmed the pervasive nature of silicification (Fig. 6d).

150 Other thin-sections examined, from similar mudrocks within the Middle Magdalena
151 Valley (MMV) and adjacent Eastern Cordillera (EC), may also display a moderate to
152 high degree of silicification (sample LC224 and PE119), with the occurrence of both
153 large quartz overgrowths and common granular authigenic micro-quartz that are in the
154 order of a micrometer or less in size (Fig. 7a, b). Other samples, such as C29, have only
155 a low degree of silicification, with minor granular micro-quartz within the shale matrix
156 (Fig. 7c) and no obvious quartz overgrowths. The majority of other samples examined
157 exhibit limited silicification, with only isolated detrital quartz silt particles present (Fig.
158 7d-g). An exception to this is, however, sample A240, with localized areas of micro-
159 quartz that have a more wavy morphology rather than the previously noted granular
160 texture (Fig. 7h).

161 XRD results for the greater than 2 μm coarser fraction, shows highest values recorded for
162 clay and sand, with minimal values for other phases (Table 1). Particularly high levels of
163 'sand' are found from the Pescana and Zipa localities, including sample Z39. The high
164 occurrence of quartz 'sand' is also indicated by the additional whole rock analysis of Z39,
165 which is dominated by peaks for quartz, with minor illite (Fig. 8).

166 In general, XRD analysis of the less than 2 μm fraction, shows that illite-smectite is
167 almost solely limited to Crucero, illite is found throughout, with the highest values from
168 Quemado and Algodones, and some high records from Zipa (Table 1). Kaolinite is
169 common within Pescana, Crucero and Pedregal, but low within the other analysed areas,
170 while chlorite only occurs in very small levels within the Quemado and Algodones
171 material (Table 1). For micro-quartz, most areas are low with under 10%, with higher
172 values occurring from Pescana and Zipa (Table 1).

173 XRF results for the ratio of Zn/Al, Cu/Al and Ni/Al are presented for all sample locations
174 (Table 2). These show relatively high enrichment in all three for sample Z39 and LC224,
175 with some enrichment for Zn/Al in PE119 (including average values across each
176 locality). The enrichment in Zn/Al is particularly notable for sample Z39 and even more
177 so in LC224 (markedly so for the average value from La Cristalina). Results for the
178 element enrichment factor (EEF) display marked enrichment in Mo, V, U and Zn for the
179 Zipa and La Cristalina sections, and Mo is also relatively enriched in La Marina,
180 Quemado and the Algodones localities (Table 3).

181

182

Discussion

183 The use of CCI to identify features within quartz, including silt-sized particles, has
184 previously been documented (Milliken et al., 2007; Lehmann et al., 2009; Schieber,
185 2009). These CC images closely relate to images obtained through cathodoluminescence
186 (Milliken et al., 2007; Lehmann et al., 2009; Milliken, 2013; Milliken et al., 2016), as is
187 also the case for other geological materials (Watt et al., 2000; Buckman et al., 2016).
188 CCI in comparison to SEM based CL, has the advantages of being faster and offering
189 greater resolution (Buckman et al., 2016). Despite the use of high kV and long scan
190 times, SEM-CL images (herein) of the silt particles, micro-quartz and siliceous biogenic
191 structures do not shed much light on the internal structure of the grains, with the CL
192 response being particularly weak (Fig. 6).

193 Both CL and CC imaging have been used for quartz to show evidence of *in situ* fracturing
194 and re-cementation / healing (Watt et al., 2000), which also appears to be the case for
195 some of the silt particles observed in the Colombian shale. The sparsity of such features

196 in our samples may be a consequence of the low number of genuine silt particles (<5%),
197 presenting limited opportunity for quartz grain-to-grain contact, as would be the case in
198 sandstone.

199 CC images of micro-quartz illustrate a mottled fabric for this sub-micrometer sized
200 material. To our knowledge, this is the first time that such a feature has been presented,
201 and confirms the variability of such material recently noted using CL in fine grained
202 shale (see Milliken et al., 2016, fig. 13b). The micro-quartz has a morphology that is
203 clearly distinct from both detrital quartz and associated syntaxial-quartz overgrowths.
204 Micro-quartz is differentiated by CCI, being typically granular in appearance (Fig. 3e, 4b,
205 5e), generally 1 μm or less in size, having a mottled appearance (Fig. 5e), and
206 occasionally with euhedral quartz overgrowths (Fig. 5e). Different from that, authigenic
207 syntaxial overgrowths on detrital quartz grains form simple euhedral forms (Fig 4b, e),
208 are often thick and occasionally exhibiting growth zonation. The latter can pass into rims
209 of amalgamated micro-quartz (Fig. 4b, e, f), which can greatly thicken the apparent size
210 of detrital grains. This distinction based on CCI is important as it provides a means of
211 differentiating detrital from authigenic quartz. Incorrect recognition of the micro-quartz
212 component could lead to overestimation of the detrital quartz (sand) input (see Table 1),
213 with important connotations for the interpretation of energy-levels during sedimentation
214 and consequently of the depositional environment (e.g., pelagic versus turbiditic and / or
215 contouritic deposition).

216

217 **Origins of silicification**

218 Quartz cements are a common feature of sedimentary basins with a range of sources,
219 including 1) metastable biogenic quartz, 2) dissolution of quartz grains by pressure
220 solution and 3) the release of silica through mineral reactions (Bjørlykke and Egeberg,
221 1993), such as through the smectite-illite transformation (Elliott and Matisoff, 1996;
222 Thyberg et al., 2010) and the alteration of volcanic glass and ash (Ghiara and Petti, 1995;
223 Rani et al., 2012). For the Colombian samples (Z39, LC224, which are most heavily
224 silicified), dissolution of quartz grains through pressure solution is unlikely to supply a
225 major component, as the low levels of silt or sand sized quartz particles provide very
226 limited opportunity for grain-to-grain contacts. However, presence of authigenic silica
227 from mineral interactions or from the remobilization of biogenic silica are both possible.
228 The degree of overburden and maximum recorded temperatures of the studied materials
229 (Table 4), combined with vitrinite reflectance values and a palaeothermal gradient of 20 –
230 25°C (Parra et al., 2009), would be consistent with the transition of smectite to mixed
231 layer illite-smectite. Examination of an XRD trace for Z39, however, shows that there is
232 no evidence of smectite or mixed layer smectite-illite (Fig. 8), or from the Zipa section
233 (Table 1), although the very presence of illite indicates that the transformation cannot be
234 totally excluded. If clay transformation was responsible for the release of silica, it would
235 have occurred after relatively high levels of compaction (see Table 4 for degree of
236 overburden), which is inconsistent with the presence of abundant ‘granular’ micrometer
237 sized micro-quartz. Furthermore, if clay transformation were to explain the occurrence of
238 micro-quartz within the Chipaque Formation, then the degree of silicification might be
239 expected to increase with depth (with higher temperature), which is not the case for the
240 current associations (Table 4, Fig. 7). We recognize, however, that some minor

241 silicification deeper within the sequence from the Eastern Cordillera may have an origin
242 from clay mineral transition, leading to a more irregular and often compressed
243 morphology (Fig. 7h), although the degree of silicification is here lower (Table 4). The
244 latter would certainly have passed through the temperature window necessary for the
245 transformation of smectite to illite, with associated release of silica, as indicated by the
246 occurrence of chlorite (Table 1), which within shales can form at temperatures of over
247 122°C (Hurst, 1985). Volcanic activity, producing thin ash deposits, has been noted from
248 the La Luna Formation, Magdalena Valley (Galvis-Portilla et al., 2014). The latter is
249 stratigraphically equivalent to the Chipaque Formation (Guerrero, 2002), with in excess
250 of 78 ash beds recorded in a 3 to 4 metre section at the Cenomanian-Turonian boundary
251 (Erlich et al., 2003). Also, bentonite beds are present at the Cenomanian-Turonian
252 boundary within the Chipaque Formation within the Eastern Cordillera (Villamil and
253 Arango, 1994). However, Vergara (1997) has indicated that volcanic activity where
254 present in Colombia, although likely to increase marine productivity, was unlikely to be a
255 direct source of silicification. Dissolution of volcanic ash deposits and glass are unlikely
256 to contribute significantly to the observed micro-quartz production, as no direct evidence
257 of volcanic deposits have been recorded interbedded within the current heavily silicified
258 locations (Zipa and La Cristalina).

259 Another potential source of silica for the formation of micro-quartz could have been
260 metastable biogenic opal, from sponge spicules, diatom frustules or radiolaria. While no
261 direct physical evidence of biogenic opal was observed in our study samples, pyritized
262 sponge spicules have been noted from other horizons within the basin (from Pescana
263 within P145 and La Cristalina in LC224, Fig. 9), supporting a release mechanism from

264 biogenic silica. Geochemical support for the original deposition of biogenic opal comes
265 from a significant enrichment of trace elements (Cu, Ni, and Zn, see Table 2), all of
266 which are typical for upwelling settings, such as modern Namibia and Peru (Brumsack,
267 2006). In such upwelling settings, high primary productivity mainly by diatoms leads to
268 elevated export of large amounts of biogenic opal and organic matter enriched in trace
269 metals to the seafloor, where they get partly buried under typically reducing conditions.
270 Enrichment in Zn, Cu and Ni from the Chipaque Formation (at Zipa, including Z39), and
271 underlying Fomeque Formation (at La Cristalina, including LC224) from the MMV
272 (Table 2), and of Zn within the Chipaque Formation (at Pescana, including PE119) from
273 the EC (Table 2), strongly suggests that silicification within these horizons (with high to
274 moderate silicification) was primarily due to dissolution and migration of biogenic silica,
275 originally produced through high marine productivity. This conclusion is further
276 supported by the occurrence of a thick fractured chert horizon (from the Lidita
277 Formation) that directly overlies the Chipaque Formation (Garcia-Gonzalez, 2010). This
278 has been interpreted as representing regional high productivity linked to vigorous
279 upwelling (Villamil et al., 1999). Chert formation has been frequently documented from
280 the Cenomanian to Santonian across the northern part of South America, including the
281 EC and MMV (Tribovillard et al., 1991 ; Perez-Infante, 1996; Arango and Hay, 1999),
282 often linked with upwelling processes (Macellari and DeVries, 1987). Palaeogeographic
283 reconstructions for the wider area (Fig. 10) support regional upwelling, driven by
284 prevailing trade winds from the north-east (Erlich et al., 2003), further supporting an
285 origin for silicification from remobilization of biogenic silica.
286

287 **Significance of benthic foraminifera**

288 Agglutinated foraminifera tests, composed of detrital quartz and feldspar particles, have
289 recently been illustrated for ‘cherty stringers’ in Carboniferous and Devonian black
290 shales (Milliken et al., 2007; Schieber, 2009). Such foraminifera have also been
291 previously recorded from Cretaceous deep-sea black shales (e.g. Mello, 1971), including
292 benthic agglutinated and pelagic foraminifera from the Chipaque Formation (Vergara et
293 al., 1997). The recognition, through CCI, of agglutinated foraminifera, shallow infaunal
294 foragers and suspension feeders that strictly require oxygen (Kaminski & Schroder,
295 1987), implies that bottom waters or near-surface sediments were at least episodically
296 dysaerobic during deposition, if not fully aerobic. Repetitive alternations between fully
297 aerobic and slightly oxygen-depleted conditions are indeed suggested from the general
298 lack of pyrite and other sulphide phases (Table 1). This SEM-based redox interpretation
299 clearly contrasts with the overall enrichment of redox-sensitive / sulphide-forming trace
300 elements (Mo, V, U, Zn) measured in the same sample, a pattern which is commonly
301 related to anoxic or even sulfidic bottom and pore water conditions (Brumsack, 2006).
302 Such discrepancies between geochemistry- and micropaleontology-based redox
303 interpretations are not unusual and may actually be expected. It has been shown that some
304 benthic agglutinated foraminifera are anoxia-tolerant through the process of intracellular
305 denitrification (Schieber, 2011). Milliken et al., (2007) also note that modern
306 agglutinated foraminifera are highly tolerant to conditions of low oxygenation.
307 Furthermore, benthic foraminifera can colonize previously anoxic seafloor during short-
308 termed re-oxygenation events rather quickly whereas element geochemistry will still
309 record dominantly anoxic conditions, leading to the well known “anoxic benthic

310 foraminifera” paradox (Friedrich, 2010). We therefore propose that aerobic near-surface
311 sediment and bottom water conditions prevailed, but were temporally and spatially
312 restricted.

313 Assuming that the agglutinated foraminifera are *in situ*, rather than resuspended via
314 bottom currents, their occurrence suggests that the surface sediments were soft and that
315 strong surface water flow or scouring was absent (Kaminski & Schroder, 1987). This
316 would argue for a pelagic rather than turbidite or contourite depositional setting. To
317 emphasize, such an interpretation may well have been inferred from the apparent copious
318 occurrence of silt and sand particles. Given that it has been shown that different
319 agglutinated foraminifera morphotypes are found associated with a particular water
320 depth, infaunal niche, and oxygen levels (Kaminski et al., 1995), further studies may well
321 prove interesting, but are beyond the scope of this manuscript.

322 The spherical to lenticular porosity, which is a common feature of the Colombian shale
323 (Z39), has a number of possible interpretations. In the case of the lenticular shaped
324 pores, these likely represent the locations of agglutinated benthic foraminifera that have
325 been plucked from the shale during sample preparation. More spherical pores may
326 instead represent sections through other agglutinated foraminifera, such as illustrated
327 herein (Fig. 5c, d), that have suffered a similar fate. They may alternatively represent
328 calcareous pelagic foraminifera (see Vergara et al, 1997), where the test has suffered
329 dissolution during diagenesis, or silicified algal cells (*Tazmanites*), such as those
330 illustrated from Devonian black shales by Schieber (1996), which have also been lost
331 during sample preparation. A number of these pores show an association between carbon
332 and sulphur, so may represent the remnants of *Tazmanites* (silicified or otherwise) or

333 possibly ‘organic’ filled remnants of dissolved pelagic foraminifera. *Tazmanites* has
334 been clearly observed in other Colombian black shales (*pers. obs.*). If, as seems likely, a
335 proportion of the pores represent plucked-out benthic agglutinated foraminifera, this
336 would be of particular interest, as it supports the widespread distribution of such
337 foraminifera, and thus rapid fluctuations in seafloor oxygenation levels through time.

338

339

Implications

340 Charge contrast imaging (CCI) enables differentiation of detrital and authigenic quartz
341 components within the silt-size fraction of mudrocks, comparable to applications on
342 carbonates and arenites. In particular, the characteristic mottled appearance of authigenic
343 micro-quartz clearly separates it from detrital silt-sized particles of quartz. Without
344 complementary data from CCI, the quartz sand component of a shale can easily be
345 overestimated if only apparent detrital grain size and elevated relative Si contents are
346 considered. This has profound implications for the interpretation of hydrodynamics of
347 the environment of deposition; possibly representing lower-energy conditions than would
348 otherwise have been interpreted from apparent high-levels of quartz silt. We show that
349 CCI unambiguously identifies the presence of agglutinated foraminifera, which provide
350 additional information on the depositional environment that might otherwise be
351 overlooked, such as degree of sediment / water interface oxygenation levels, sediment
352 consistency, and hydrodynamics. In addition, CCI provides information of a similar
353 character to that usually supplied by CL, although with an improvement in resolution and
354 speed of acquisition. The high levels of silicification recorded from the Zipa and La
355 Cristalina sections represent relatively early micro-quartz formation, with silica sourced

356 from siliceous micro-organisms, forming pervasive micrometer sized granular masses.
357 This contrasts with wavy micro-quartz noted from the Algodones area, formed from the
358 smectite-illite transformation at greater depth within the basin.

359

360

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367

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520

521

522 **Figure Captions**

523

524 **Figure 1. a)** Locality map, showing geological units, and locality of sample Z39 from
525 the Chipaque Formation. Locations of other samples illustrated in the current work also
526 given. Both location names and sample identifiers are given. **b)** General location map,
527 with context of area in **(a)** shown in white box. MMV = Middle Magdalena Valley, EC =
528 Eastern Cordillera. After Gómez Tapias and Almanza Meléndez (2015).

529

530 **Figure 2.** Stratigraphic distribution of formations and major facies within the Middle
531 Magdalena Valley (MMV) Basin and Eastern Cordillera (EC). Approximate
532 geographical and stratigraphic position of all samples marked: (1) Z39, (2) LC224, (3)
533 PE119, (4) C29, (5) P145, (6) M320, (7) P1+100, (8) Q1+70, (9) A240. Generalised
534 stratigraphy based on Parra et al., (2009). C= Conaician, T= Turonian.

535

536 **Figure 3. a)** Backscattered (BSE) stitched image of the whole polished thin-section for
537 sample Z39, showing lamination. **b)** BSE image of area marked in **(a)**, displaying detail
538 of lamination, lenticular (*L*) and spherical (*S*) porosity, and pore lining Fe oxides (*Fe*).
539 Large porosity may be an artifact of plucking during sample preparation. **c)** BSE image
540 of detrital quartz silt particles (*Dq*) and authigenic micro-quartz (*Mq*). **d)** and **e)** BSE
541 and charge contrast matched pair of micrographs, illustrating micro-quartz (*Mq*) in
542 association with clay (*Cy*). All images are of sample Z39.

543

544 **Figure 4.** SEM micrographs illustrating fabric of silicified shale (Z39). **a)** Backscattered
545 electron image (BSE), **b) – f)** gaseous secondary electron images (GSE), exhibiting
546 charge contrast (CC), illustrating a number of features. In **(a)**, a large silt particle (*St*) is
547 surrounded by authigenic micro-quartz (*Mq*). Silt particle appears to be 15 µm long. In
548 **(b)**, charge contrast imaging (CCI) demonstrates that the detrital quartz (*Dq*) silt grain
549 also comprises an authigenic ‘syntaxial’ quartz overgrowth (*Qo*), as well as authigenic
550 micro-quartz (*Mq*). Similar relationships are also shown in **(c)** to **(f)**. In addition in **(c)**,
551 healed fractures (*f*) are observed, testifying to periods of compaction and grain shattering
552 prior to cementation. Note polishing scratches (*s*) on slides may be highlighted by the
553 CCI technique.

554

555 **Figure 5.** Charge contrast SEM micrographs illustrating occurrence of siliceous biogenic
556 structures and nature of micro-quartz cement within sample Z39. **a) – b)** Agglutinated
557 foraminifera, longitudinal section, overview and expanded view. Key as in figure 4, with
558 addition of agglutinated foraminifera (*Af*). Note lenticular shape in **a)** and the individual
559 quartz silt particles in **(b)**. **c) – d)** Agglutinated foraminifera, transverse section,
560 overview and expanded view. Note the occurrence of clay (*Cy*), and individual silt
561 particles with syntaxial overgrowths (*I-6*). **e)** Detail of mottled micro-quartz, each
562 around 1 µm or less in size. Note euhedral shape to some of the micro-quartz (*Eo*).

563

564 **Figure 6.** Comparison of **a)** backscattered, **b)** charge contrast image, **c)**
565 cathodoluminescence image, and **d)** energy dispersive x-ray (EDX) map; all images taken
566 of the same field of view from sample Z39. **(b)** Shows the boundary between detrital

567 core and overgrowth (arrows). Cathodoluminescence image in (c) displays poor contrast
568 and lack of detail, which is atypical of CL, despite the use of high kV (20kV), large spot
569 size and long dwell times. X-ray dot map in (d) indicates quartz (1), clays (2), and pores
570 (3).

571

572 **Figure 7.** Charge contrast SEM micrographs illustrating degree of authigenic siliceous
573 micro-quartz cement, through the stratigraphic succession, in comparison to Z39: **a)**
574 LC224 (La Cristalina), **b)** PE119 (Pescana), **c)** C29 (Crucero), **d)** P145 (Pedregal), **e)**
575 M364 (La Marina), **f)** P1+100 (Pedregal), **g)** Q1+70 (Quemado), **h)** A240 (Algodones).
576 **a) – h)** Increasing in stratigraphic depth (see Table 4). **a), b)** High silicification, with
577 plentiful quartz overgrowths on detrital quartz silt grains, and micro-quartz, **c)** low degree
578 of silicification, comprising small amount of authigenic micro-quartz, **d) - g)** no to
579 limited occurrence of micro-quartz (only small quartz silt particles), **h)** low degree of
580 silicification, with localized areas displaying micro-quartz with a wavy morphology.
581 Note **a)** from Middle Magdalena Valley (MMV) and **b)-h)** from Eastern Cordillera (EC).

582 **Figure 8.** XRD trace for sample Z39, showing prevalence of quartz (all unlabeled
583 peaks), with minor illite (indicated by d-spacing values). Note the lack of peaks
584 associated with smectite that would appear on the far left-hand side of the graph. Two
585 minor peaks occur on the left-hand side (denoted by ?), but have no clear identity.
586 Sample analysed through powder XRD using Cu target, of the whole sample, with no
587 treatment other than crushing to a fine powder. Analysis of Z39 (<2µm fraction) with
588 glycolation confirms lack of illite-smectite, the presence of minor kaolinite and
589 dominance of illite (Table 1).

590

591 **Figure 9.** BSE SEM micrograph, illustrating the dissolution of biogenic silica (from a
592 sponge spicule) and replacement with pyrite, from the Fomeque Formation (sample
593 LC224, La Cristalina).

594

595 **Figure 10.** Palaeogeographical reconstruction, during the Upper Cretaceous, within the
596 study area. Based on Arango and Hay (1999). Illustrating the general distribution of
597 facies, and orientation of the depositional basin. Basin connected to open ocean to the
598 north-east. Areas illustrated that are rich in chert and or phosphatic-rich deposits indicate
599 high productivity rates. Small black arrows indicate location of “wind-driven” upwelling,
600 white arrows direction of shallow water flow, grey arrows river flow, and large black
601 arrow direction of trade winds, after Erlich et al., (2003) and Arango and Hay (1999).

602

603

604 **Table Captions**

605

606 **Table 1.** XRD data for the greater than 2 μm and less than 2 μm fractions from locations
607 within the current study. Samples from beds examined in thin-section during the study
608 are in ***bold italic***. Data gathered using a Siemens D500 XRD. Key: Carb = carbonate, I/S
609 = illite-smectite, I = illite, K = kaolinite, ND = none detected, TR = trace levels. Note no
610 data collected from La Cristalina (e.g. LC224) or La Marina (e.g. M364), which is
611 indicated by X. Locations arranged in approximate stratigraphic order.

612

613 **Table 2.** XRF data for Zn/Al, Cu/Al and Ni/Al. Sample # refers to the examined thin-
614 sections, while data within brackets is an average figure for the different recorded
615 locations. Number of samples is 18, 20, 50, 25, 17, 21, 17, 12 and 21 respectively.
616 Samples arranged in approximate stratigraphic order.

617

618 **Table 3.** Element enrichment factors (EEF) for Mo, V, U and Zn relative to average shale
619 (Wedepohl, 1971). Areas that are relatively enriched are shaded in light grey.

620

621 **Table 4.** Table of data for samples examined during the current study. With data on
622 location, formation, stage, description, degree of silicification, overburden, and
623 temperature. Overburden and temperature data from Mora et al., (2015). Note figures in
624 brackets for temperature refer to the degree of error. Samples arranged in approximate
625 stratigraphic order. MMV = Middle Magdelana Valley, EC = Eastern Cordillera, * with
626 kaolinite and detrital quartz filled burrows, ** irregular wavy authigenic micro-quartz
627 with clay.

Table 1

Location	>2 μm						<2 μm				
	Clay	Sand	Feldspar	Carb	Pyrite	TiO ₂	I/S	I	K	Micro-quartz	Chlorite
PESCANA	23	60	7	ND	<5	TR	ND	27	59	14	ND
	68	17	<5	ND	ND	<5	13	28	54	5	ND
	38	52	<5	ND	TR	TR	ND	63	32	5	ND
	10	85	TR	ND	TR	TR	ND	34	34	32	ND
	27	68	ND	ND	ND	TR	ND	23	58	19	ND
	8	77	<5	TR	<5	TR	ND	18	18	64	ND
ZIPA	14	81	TR	ND	ND	TR	ND	60	<5	35	ND
	<5	90	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	42	<5	53	ND
	39	56	ND	ND	TR	TR	ND	90	5	5	ND
	10	85	ND	ND	ND	TR	ND	82	<5	13	ND
	25	70	ND	ND	TR	TR	ND	68	12	20	ND
	11	84	ND	ND	TR	TR	ND	73	<5	22	ND
LA CRISTALINA	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
CRUCERO	62	33	TR	ND	ND	TR	15	20	45	20	ND
	63	27	TR	ND	TR	<5	22	13	59	6	ND
	77	18	TR	ND	TR	TR	18	23	50	9	ND
	35	55	ND	ND	TR	<5	25	50	20	<5	ND
	77	18	TR	ND	TR	TR	43	25	32	ND	ND
	74	21	TR	ND	TR	TR	8	47	40	<5	ND
PEDREGAL	65	20	TR	ND	<5	<5	ND	63	37	ND	ND
	38	42	<5	ND	5	<5	5	65	25	<5	ND
	46	39	TR	<5	TR	<5	ND	45	49	6	ND
	25	65	ND	ND	ND	<5	ND	50	40	10	ND
	63	22	TR	ND	<5	<5	ND	65	35	ND	ND
	38	47	TR	ND	<5	<5	ND	66	34	ND	ND
LA MARINA	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
QUEMADO	46	44	TR	ND	5	ND	ND	82	4.5	5	8
	50	40	<5	ND	TR	ND	ND	94	ND	6	ND
	60	25	<5	ND	<5	ND	ND	70	9	9	12
	52	33	<5	ND	<5	ND	ND	80	<5	10	<5
	38	52	<5	ND	ND	ND	ND	100	ND	ND	ND
ALGODONES	57	33	<5	ND	ND	ND	ND	95	ND	<5	ND
	50	40	<5	ND	TR	ND	ND	95	ND	<5	ND
	65	20	<5	ND	<5	ND	ND	90	<5	<5	ND
	86	9	TR	ND	ND	ND	ND	59	25	ND	16
	55	40	TR	ND	ND	ND	ND	76	15	ND	9
	67	23	<5	ND	ND	ND	ND	95	ND	<5	ND

Table 1. XRD data for the greater than 2 μm and less than 2 μm fractions from locations within the current study. Samples from beds examined in thin-section during the study are in **bold italic**. Data gathered using a Siemens D500 XRD. Key: Carb = carbonate, I/S = illite-smectite, I = illite, K = kaolinite, ND = none detected, TR = trace levels. Note no data collected from La Cristalina (e.g. LC224) or La Marina (e.g. M364), which is indicated by X. Locations arranged in approximate stratigraphic order.

Table 2

Sample #	Location	Zn/Al	Cu/Al	Ni/Al
PE119	Pescana	6.94 (10.85)	0.71 (0.41)	1.65 (2.18)
Z39	Zipa	27.25 (66.65)	8.81 (7.32)	9.02 (16.88)
LC224	La Cristalina	67.53 (254.92)	4.49 (11.75)	22.27 (37.86)
C29	Crucero	1.69 (4.97)	0.52 (0.44)	1.03 (1.57)
P145	Pedregal	2.75 (4.93)	1.01 (1.17)	3.21 (2.87)
M364	La Marina	4.51 (5.59)	0.36 (0.51)	0.93 (1.99)
P1+100	Pedregal	1.48 (4.93)	0.74 (1.17)	1.27 (2.87)
Q1+70	Quemado	1.42 (1.95)	2.84 (1.6)	4.15 (2.89)
A240	Algodones	4.18 (4.38)	1.58 (1.61)	3.07 (2.52)

Table 2. XRF data for Zn/Al, Cu/Al and Ni/Al. Sample # refers to the examined thin-sections, while data within brackets is an average figure for the different recorded locations. Number of samples is 18, 20, 50, 25, 17, 21, 17, 12 and 21 respectively. Samples arranged in approximate stratigraphic order.

Table 3.

Location	Mo EEF	V EEF	U EEF	Zn EEF
Pescana	0.77	0.79	1.86	0.99
Zipa	11.63	7.32	8.59	6.06
La Cristalina	139.90	29.66	9.73	23.17
Crucero	1.28	0.71	1.44	0.45
Pedregal	0.23	0.68	2.24	0.45
La Marina	16.71	1.75	1.35	0.51
Quemado	17.17	1.25	1.23	0.18
Algodones	9.24	1.11	1.12	0.39

Table 3. Element enrichment factors (EEF) for Mo, V, U and Zn relative to average shale (Wedepohl, 1971). Areas that are relatively enriched are shaded in light grey.

Table 4

Sample #	Location	Formation	Stage	Description	Silicification	Overburden (m)	Temp (°C)
Z39	MMV, Zipa	Chipaque	Coniacian	Shale, some silt	High	3500-4000	78 (±9), 115 (±17)
LC224	MMV, La Cristalina	Fomeque	Cenomanian	Shale, some silt	Moderate-High	4800	162 (±25)
PE119	EC, Pescana	Chipaque	Campanian	Silty-fine sandstone	High	3500-4000	78 (±9), 115 (±17)
C29	EC, Crucero	Chipaque	Cenomanian	Shale, some silt	Low	3500-4000	78 (±9), 115 (±17)
P145	EC, Pedregal	Fomeque	Barremian	Silty shale	None	7000	208 (±20), 237 (±20)
M364	EC, La Marina	Fomeque	Hauterivian	Shale, some silt	None	7000	208 (±20), 237 (±20)
P1+100	EC, Pedregal	Fomeque	Hauterivian	Shale, silty layers*	None	7000	208 (±20), 237 (±20)
Q1+70	EC, Quemado	Macanal	Valangian	Silty shale	None	8500	249 (±8)
A240	EC, Algodones	Macanal	Valangian	Micaeous siltstone	Low**	8500	249 (±8)

Table 4. Table of data for samples examined during the current study. With data on location, formation, stage, description, degree of silicification, overburden, and temperature. Overburden and temperature data from Mora et al., (2015). Note figures in brackets for temperature refer to the degree of error. Samples arranged in approximate stratigraphic order. MMV = Middle Magdalena Valley, EC = Eastern Cordillera, * with kaolinite and detrital quartz filled burrows, ** irregular wavy authigenic micro-quartz with clay.

Figure 1

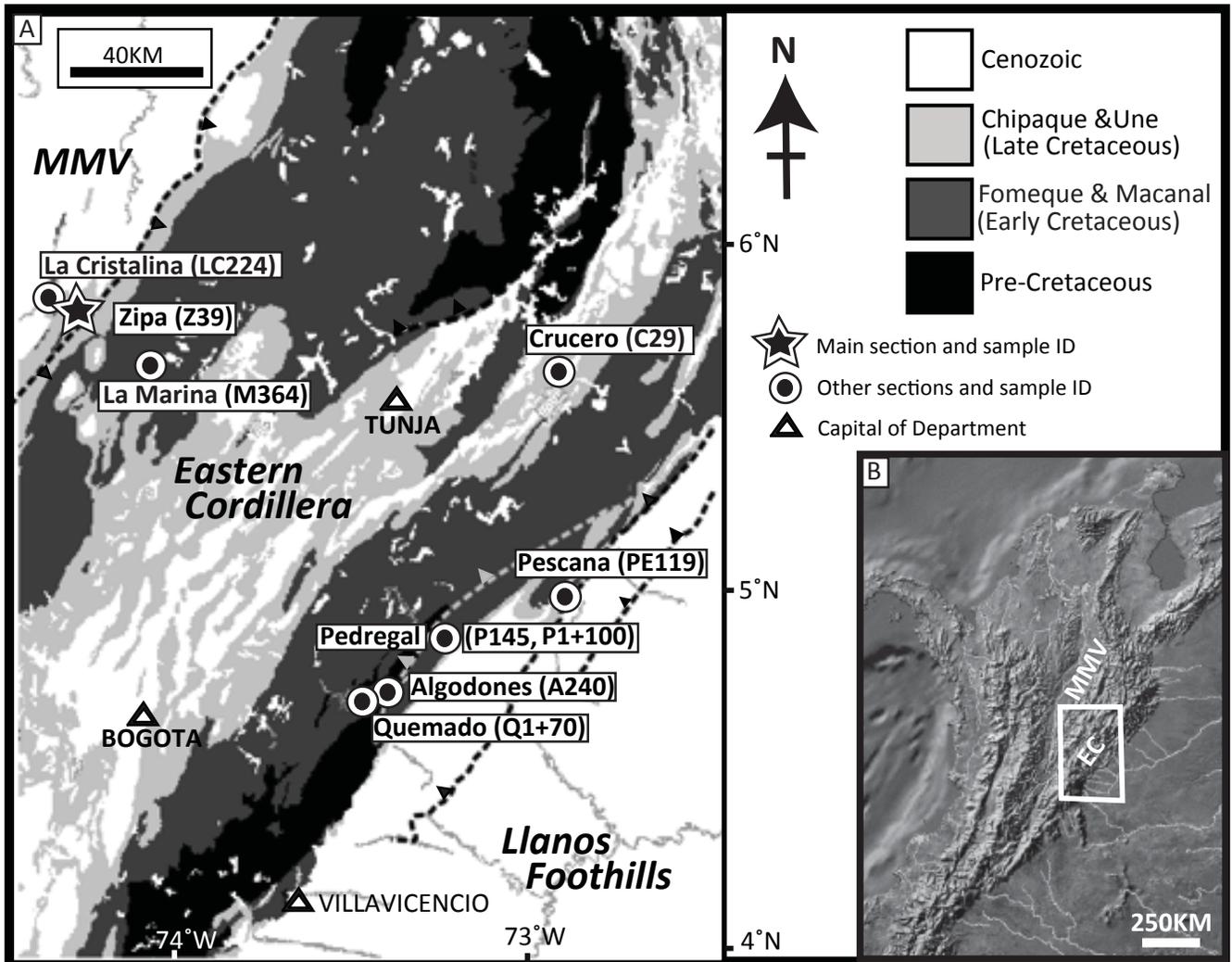


Figure 2

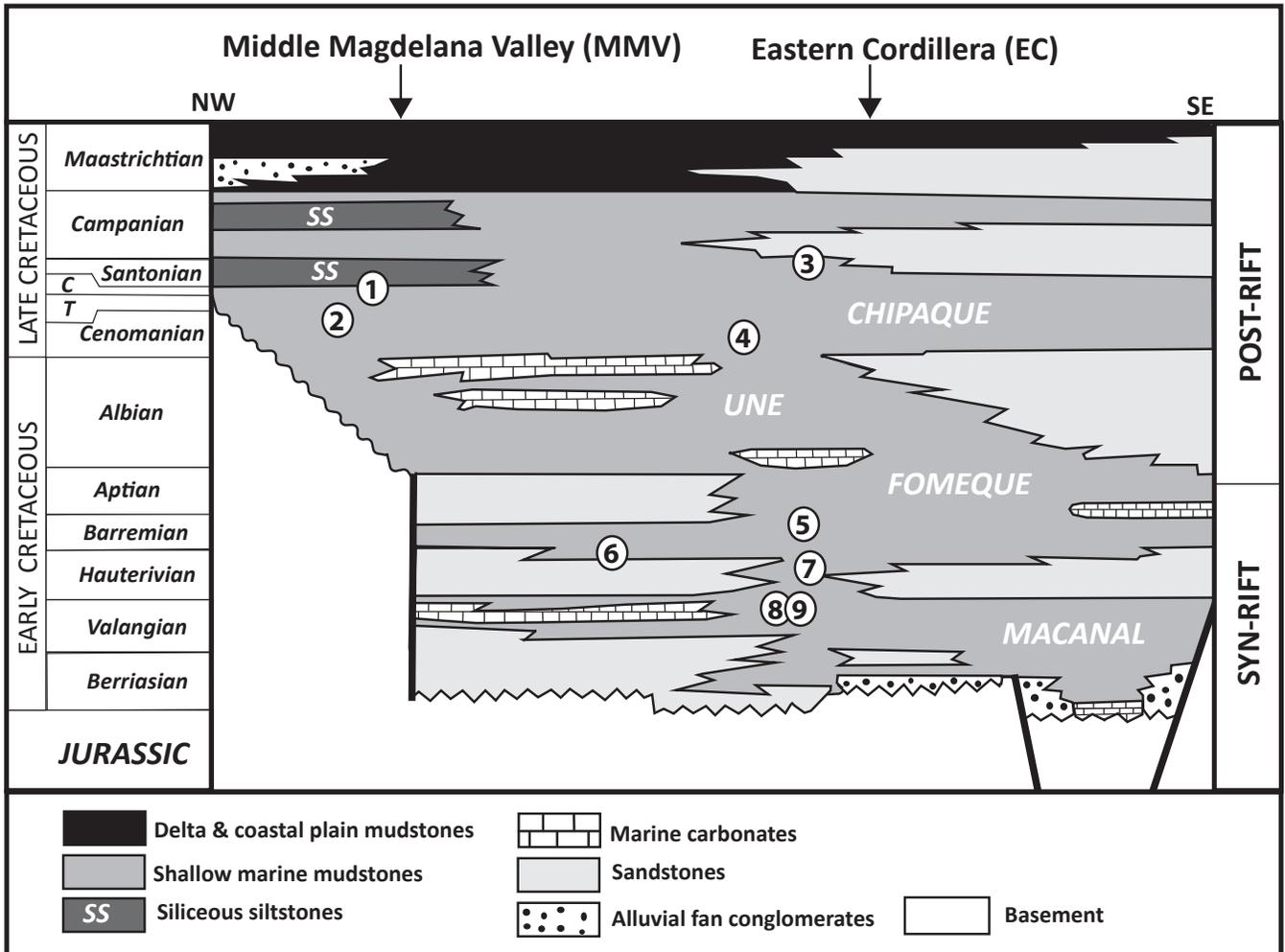


Figure 3

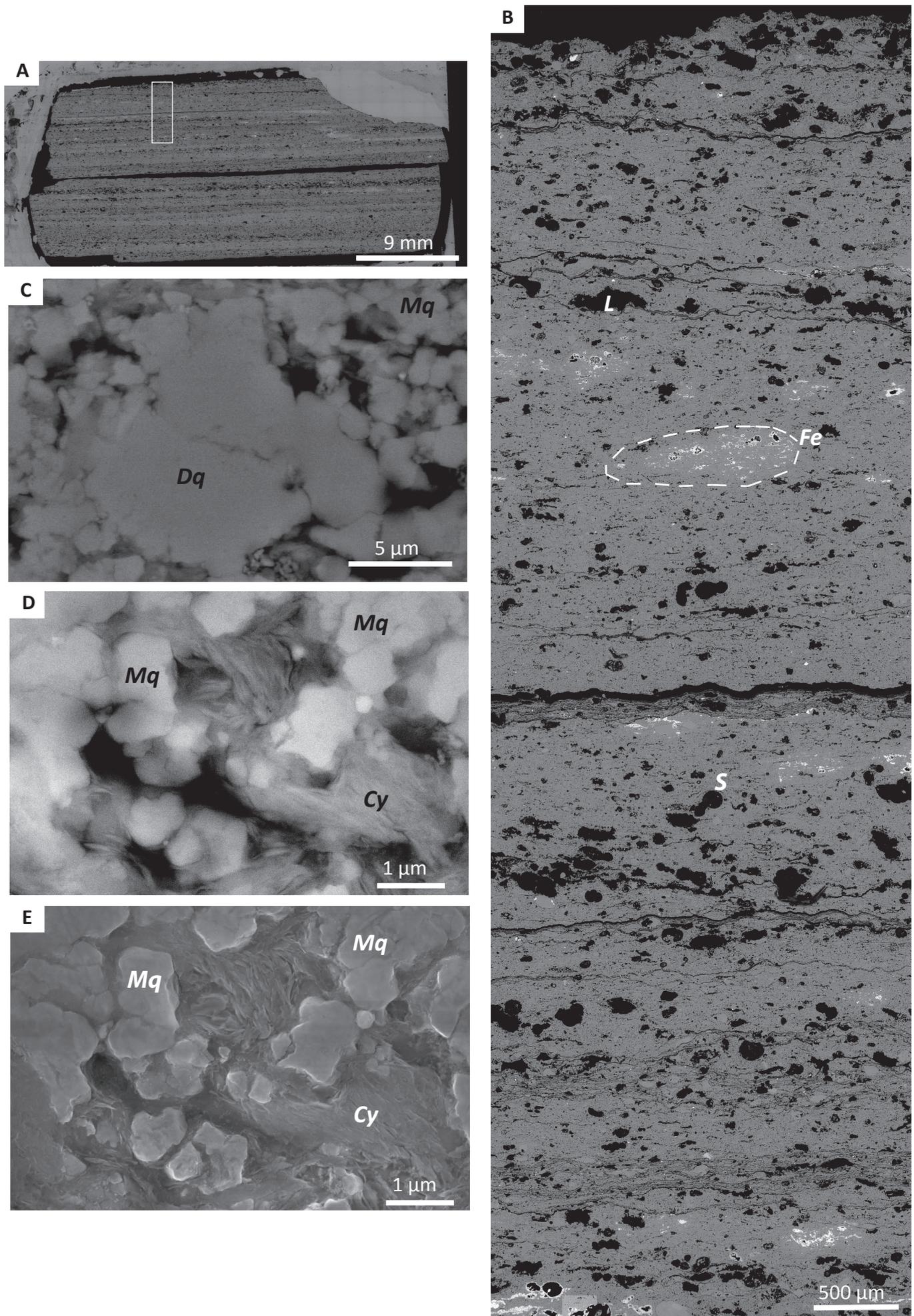


Figure 4

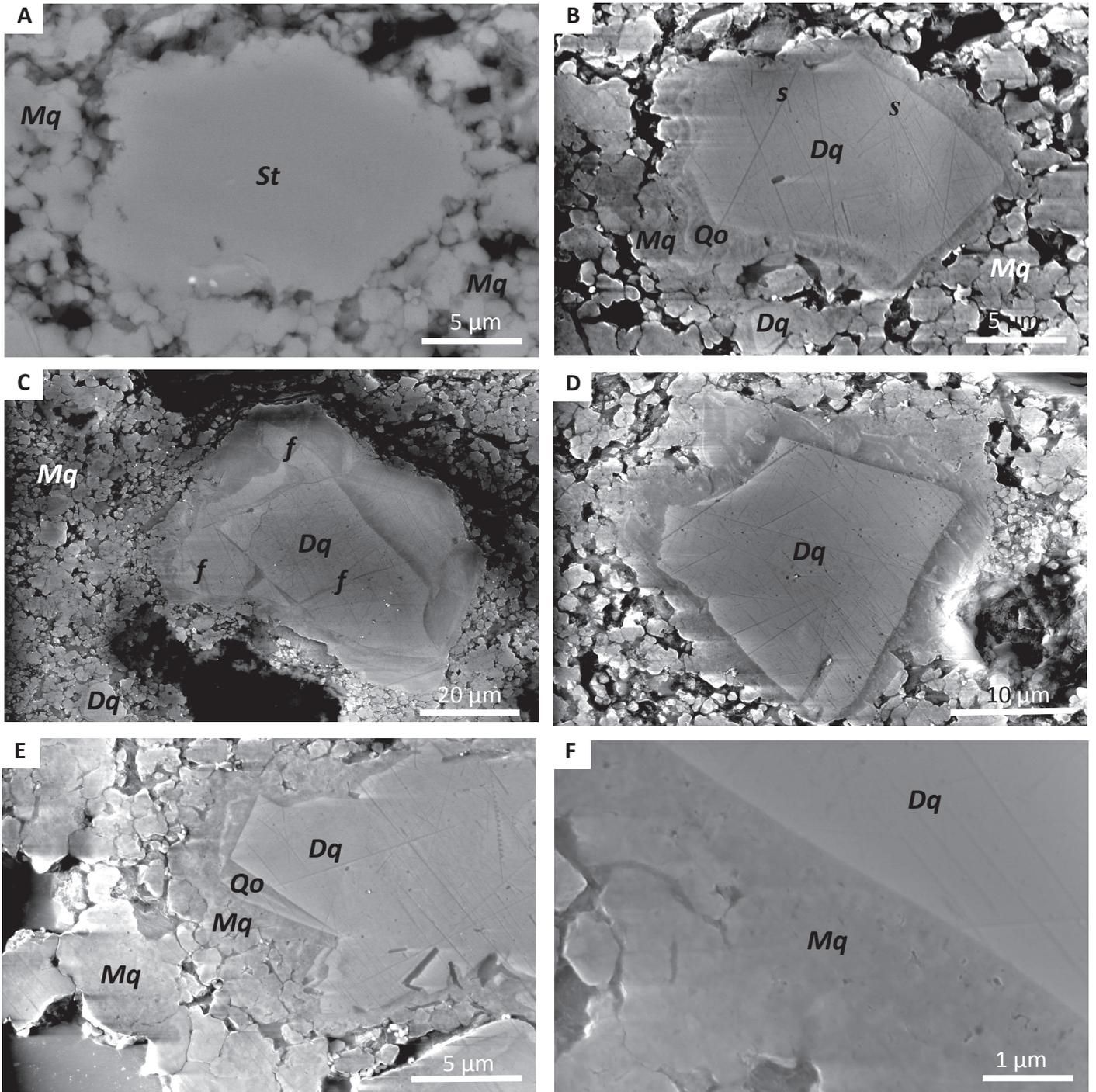


Figure 5

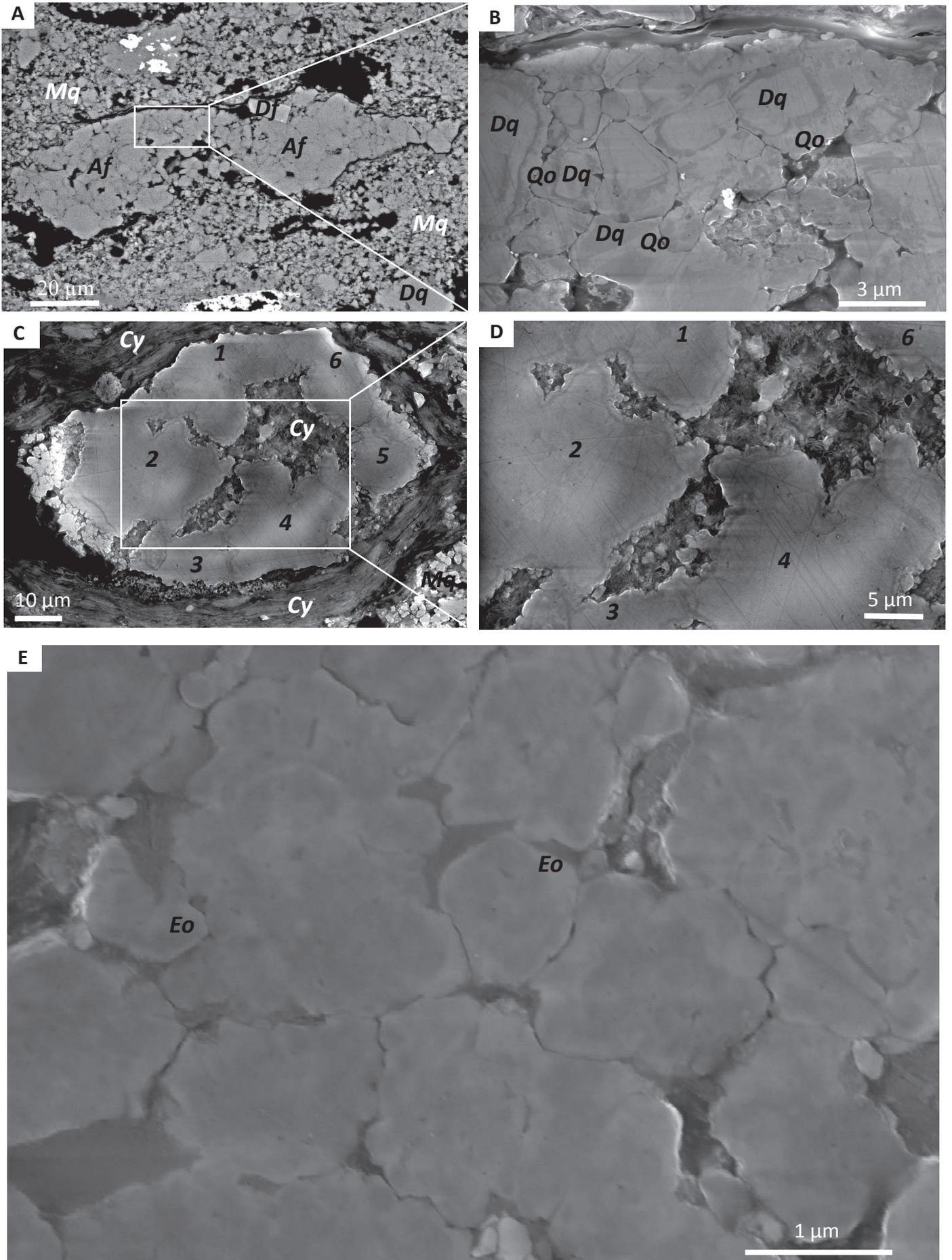


Figure 6

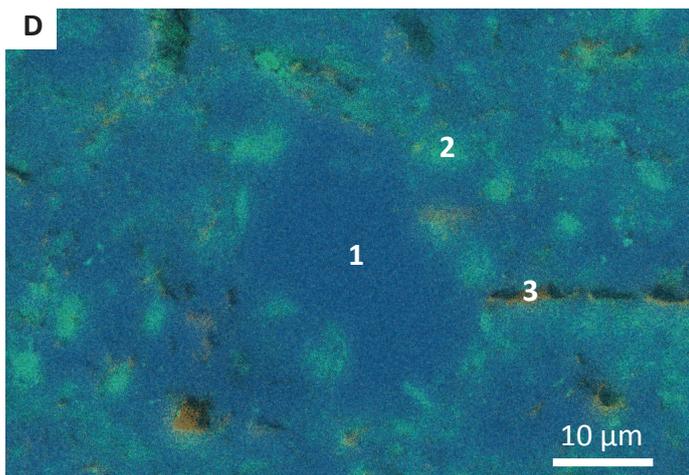
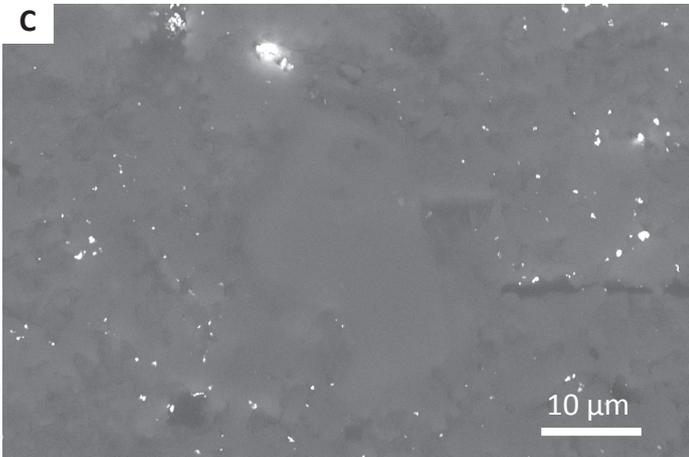
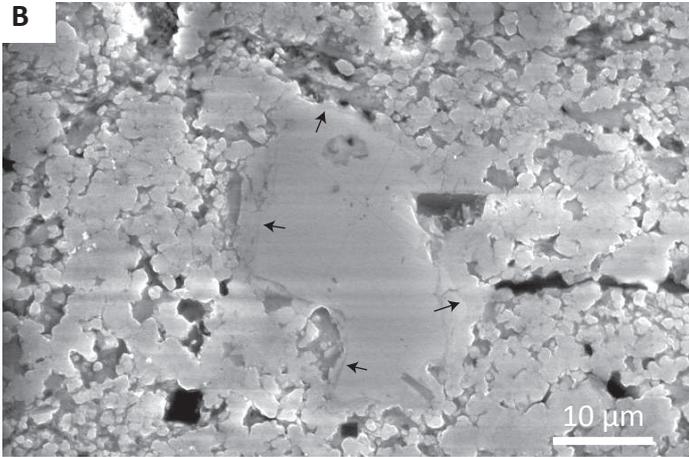
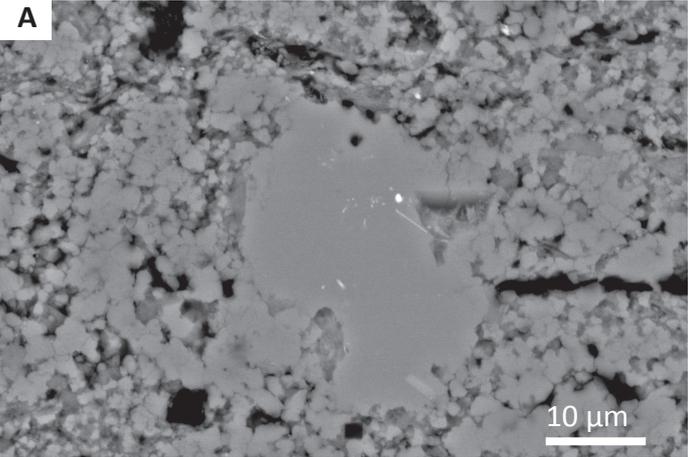


Figure 7

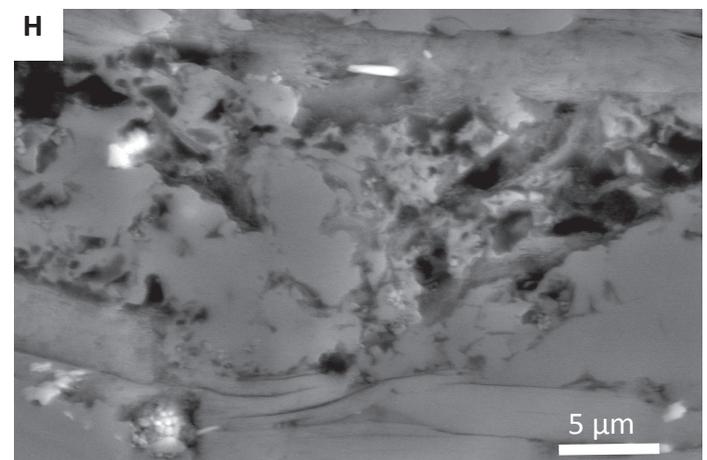
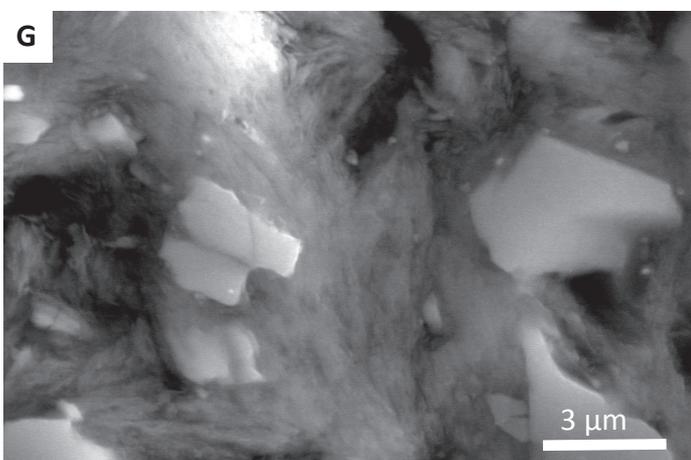
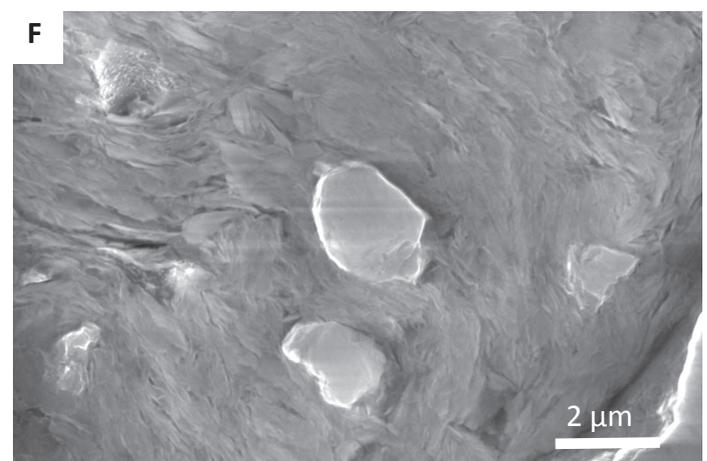
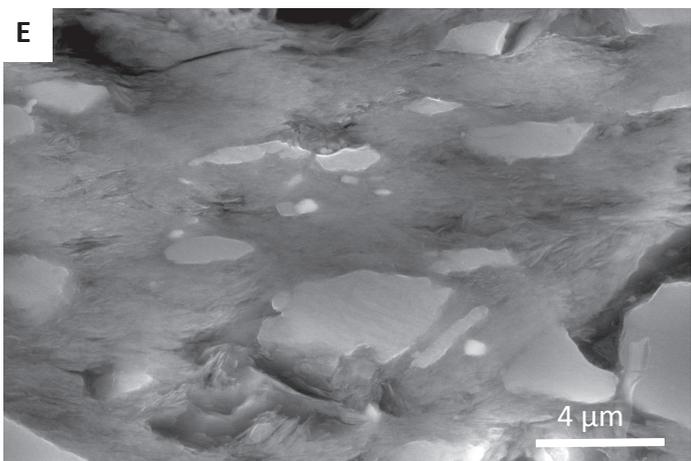
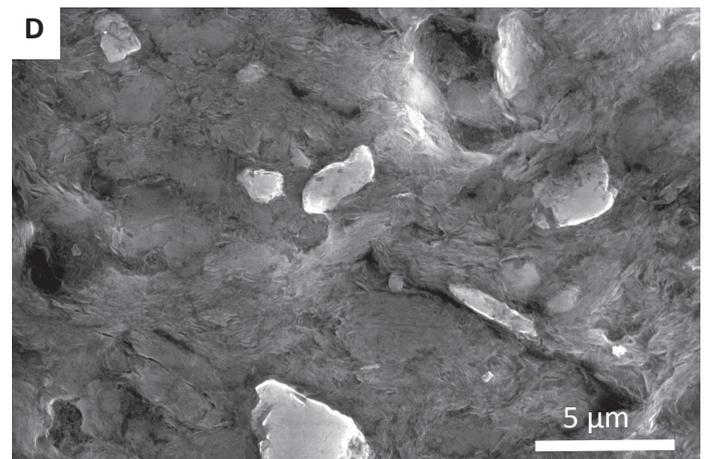
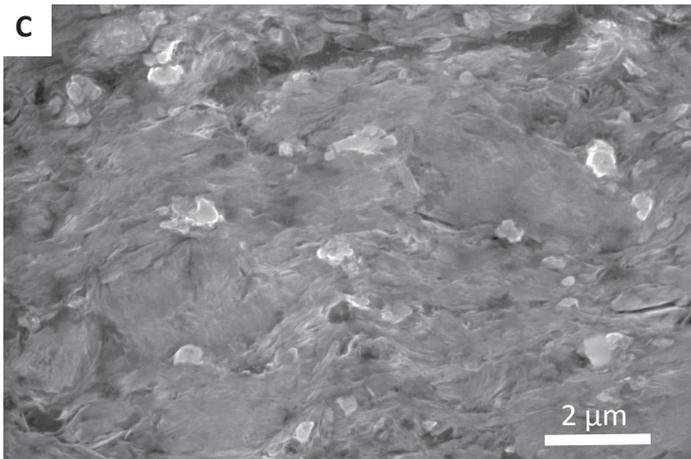
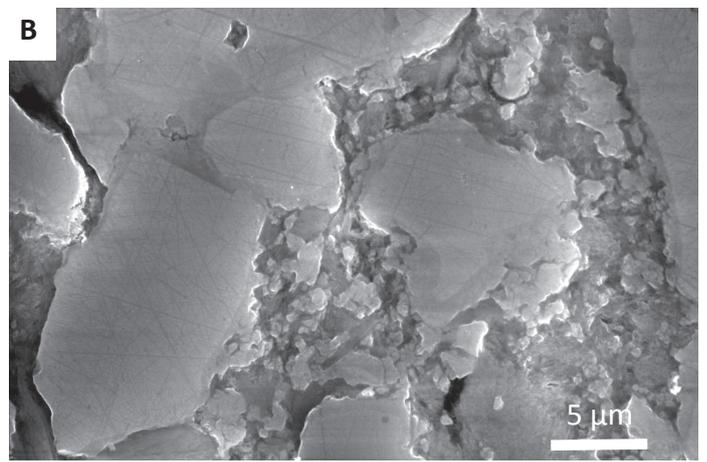
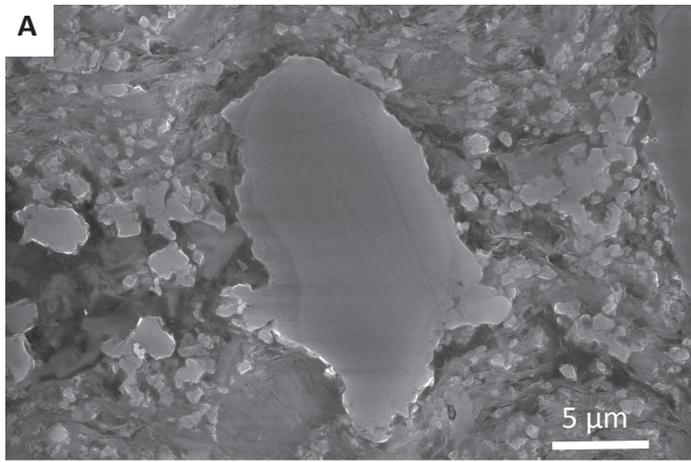


Figure 8

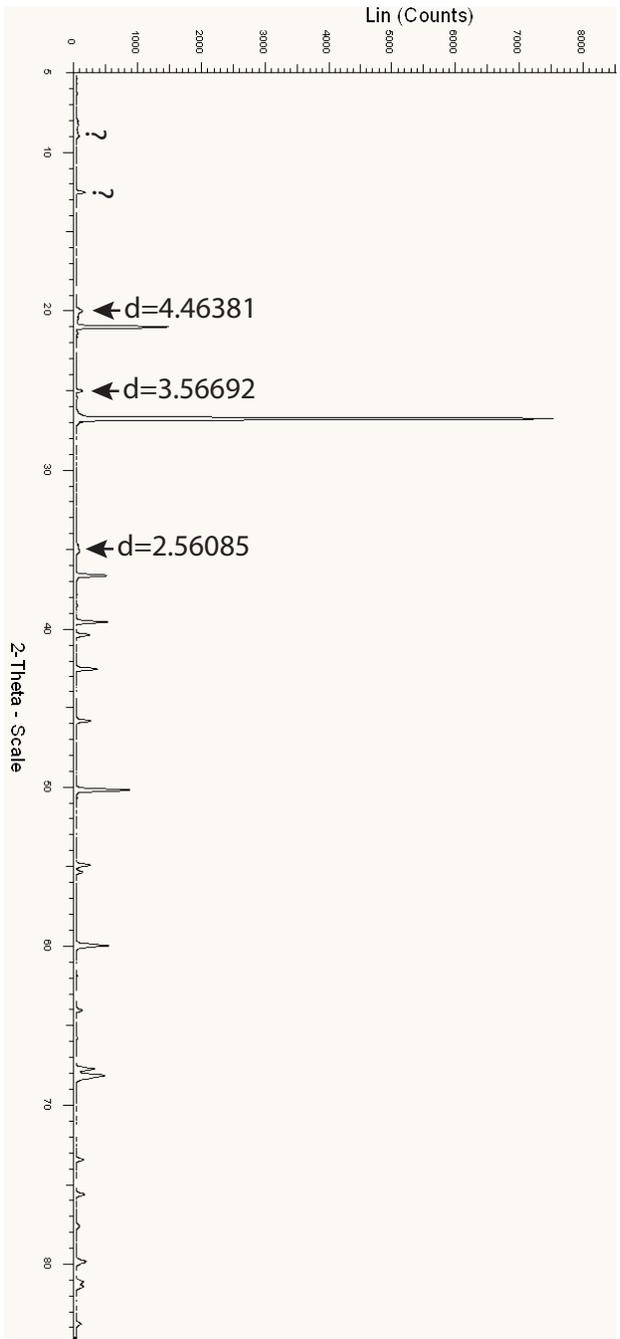


Figure 9

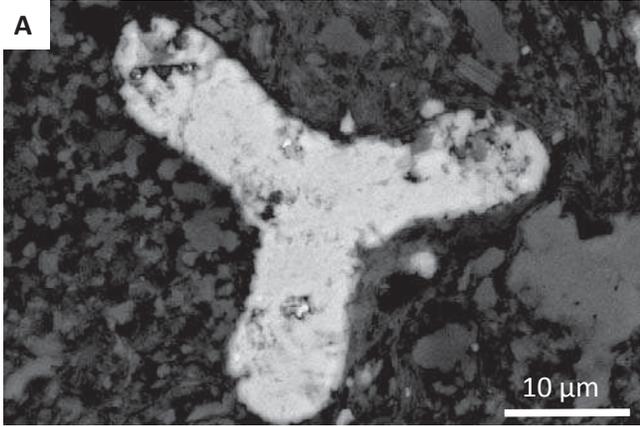


Figure 10

