

1 **Sedimentology and carbon isotope stratigraphy of the Rhaetian**

2 **Hochalm section (Late Triassic, Austria)**

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16
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18 **Abstract**

19

20 The Rhaetian (201-209 Ma, the latest stage of the Triassic) is an important time-interval for
21 the study of environmental changes preceding the End-Triassic Mass extinction. A detailed
22 sedimentological and chemostratigraphic study was conducted in the lower Kössen Formation
23 at Hochalm (Austria), the type-section of the Hochalm Member (Mb). This section exposes
24 mid-Rhaetian sediments deposited in an intraplateform shallow marine basin on the north-
25 western margin of the Tethys. The study highlights eight apparent shallowing-upward
26 sequences from the middle of Unit 2 to Unit 4 of the Hochalm Mb stacked within the long-
27 term transgression that characterizes the Kössen Formation. Both the bulk carbonate and the
28 bulk organic matter $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records indicate the presence of a distinct increase in carbon isotope
29 values in the lower part of the lower Hochalm Mb. This excursion might represent a new
30 chemostratigraphic marker that could be used for refining the Rhaetian stratigraphy and
31 represents another important Late Triassic carbon-cycle perturbation prior to the major
32 disturbance associated with the End Triassic biotic crisis.

33 1. Introduction

34

35 One of the major Phanerozoic biotic crises, the End-Triassic Mass extinction (ETME), took
36 place at the end of the Rhaetian Stage. Attention has so far focused for a large part on the
37 ETME itself (e.g. Hallam & Wignall 1997; Pálffy *et al.*, 2000; Kiessling *et al.*, 2007; Ruhl *et*
38 *al.*, 2011). Some studies focused on climatic and environmental conditions at that time (e.g.
39 Ahlberg *et al.*, 2002) and ETME's precursors (e.g., Benton, 1986; Tanner *et al.*, 2004) have
40 also been conducted. The Rhaetian may, however, yield important clues to uncover the
41 cause(s) triggering this extraordinary extinction event, including potential environmental
42 perturbations prior to the ETME. For an improved understanding of such processes and
43 environmental changes preceding the mass extinction, more robust chronostratigraphic
44 frameworks across the Rhaetian Stage are needed. In Europe, Rhaetian deposits are well
45 known from the Kössen Formation in Austria (e.g. von Buch, 1828; Suess, 1852; Urlichs,
46 1972; Mostler *et al.*, 1978; Golebiowski, 1991), the Zu Limestone Formation in Italy (e.g.
47 Gnaccolini, 1965; Jadoul *et al.*, 1992, 2012; Lakew, 1990) and from the Csővár Formation in
48 Hungary (e.g. Balogh, 1981; Kozur & Mock, 1991; Haas *et al.*, 2010a). Comprehensive
49 biostratigraphy and biozonation schemes based on ammonites and conodonts, have been
50 constructed for these formations (e.g. Mostler *et al.*, 1978; Krystyn, 1980, 1987; Detre *et al.*,
51 1986; Kozur & Mock, 1991; Pálffy *et al.*, 2007). The temporal resolution of these
52 biostratigraphic schemes is however relatively low due to the longevity of index species.
53 When coupled to biostratigraphy, carbon isotope stratigraphy has been proven to allow for
54 high-fidelity and high-resolution global correlations throughout the Phanerozoic (e.g. Jenkyns
55 *et al.*, 2002; Jarvis *et al.*, 2006; Korte & Kozur, 2010). Comprehensive high-resolution carbon
56 isotope datasets are available for the Triassic–Jurassic transition of the Alps (e.g. Hillebrandt

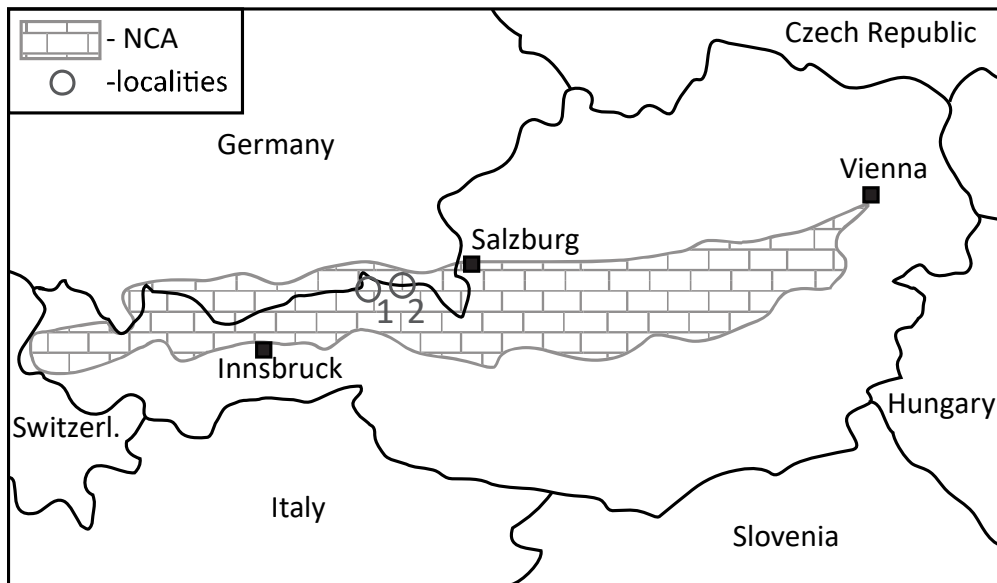
57 *et al.*, 2013; Morante & Hallam, 1996; McRoberts *et al.*, 1997; Galli *et al.*, 2005, 2007;
58 Kürschner *et al.*, 2007; Ruhl *et al.*, 2009), the Transdanubian Range (e.g. Pálffy *et al.*, 2001,
59 2007; Korte & Kozur, 2011) and other European and North American successions
60 (e.g., Hesselbo *et al.*, 2002; Guex *et al.*, 2004; Lindström *et al.*, 2017; Ward *et al.*, 2007;
61 Williford *et al.*, 2007; Korte *et al.*, 2009; Korte *et al.*, 2019 and references therein). However,
62 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ datasets covering the Rhaetian are still sparse, are of low resolution, discontinuous
63 and/or focus only on the upper Rhaetian (Gawlick & Böhm, 2000; Korte *et al.*, 2005; Maron
64 *et al.*, 2015; Muttoni *et al.*, 2014; Preto *et al.*, 2013; Richoz *et al.*, 2008; Deenen *et al.*, 2010;
65 Whiteside & Ward, 2011; Mette *et al.*, 2012; Ullmann *et al.*, 2014; Zaffani *et al.*, 2017, 2018).
66 Recently, new high-resolution bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data have been documented for the upper
67 Rhaetian of Austria (Mette *et al.*, 2012; Korte *et al.*, 2017; Mette *et al.*, 2019). The purpose of
68 this paper is to build an integrated chemostratigraphic framework for the Rhaetian Stage in
69 the Eiberg Basin, Austria, by documenting high-resolution bulk carbonate and bulk organic
70 carbon isotope variations of the mid-Rhaetian. In addition, we present detailed
71 sedimentological data from field observations, logging and micro facies analyses for this
72 important type section of the Hochalm Mb in the lower Kössen Formation.

73

74 **2. Geological setting**

75

76 The Hochalm section (47° 40' 26" N; 12° 41' 56" E) is located in the Northern Calcareous
77 Alps (NCA), ca. 40 km southwest from Salzburg (Austria) and 3.5 km northwest of Unken
78 village (Fig. 1). The succession is exposed along a gravel path that branches towards the east
79 just before the final south ascent of the main trail to the top of Sonntagshorn (Fig. 2a).



80

81 **Fig. 1:** Map showing the positions of the (1) Hochalm ($47^{\circ} 40' 26''$ N; $12^{\circ} 41' 56''$ E) and (2)
82 Eiberg ($47^{\circ} 33' 00''$ N, $12^{\circ} 10' 07''$ E) sections. NCA: Northern Calcareous Alps.

83

84 In the Late Triassic, the northwestern margin of the Neotethys Ocean – now exposed in the
85 Northern Calcareous Alps (NCA) – was situated in a subtropical climate belt at around 30° N
86 palaeolatitude (Fig. 3) (Haas *et al.*, 1995; Reinhold & Kaufmann, 2010). The shallow-water,
87 intraplateform deposits of the studied section belong to the lower Kössen Formation (Hochalm
88 Mb) and consist of meter-scale sequences with distinct siliciclastic-rich and carbonate-
89 dominated interval. The sediments were deposited in a north-east, south-west oriented shallow
90 marine intraplateform basin (Eiberg Basin) (Krystyn *et al.*, 2005) that was bordered by land in
91 the north-west (Fig. 3a, b), and by the Dachstein reef in the south-east (Fig. 3b, c). Patch reefs
92 (Schäfer, 1979) and fringing reefs (Bernecker, 2005) occurred locally within the basin during
93 the deposition of the Eiberg Member. The restricted nature of the basin during Rhaetian times
94 is not fully constrained, and it has been proposed that deep-water connections to the open
95 ocean in the south have existed via gateways through the Dachstein reef complex (Fig. 3b)
96 (Golebiowski, 1990; Krystyn *et al.*, 2005; Haas *et al.*, 2010b; Mette *et al.*, 2011).

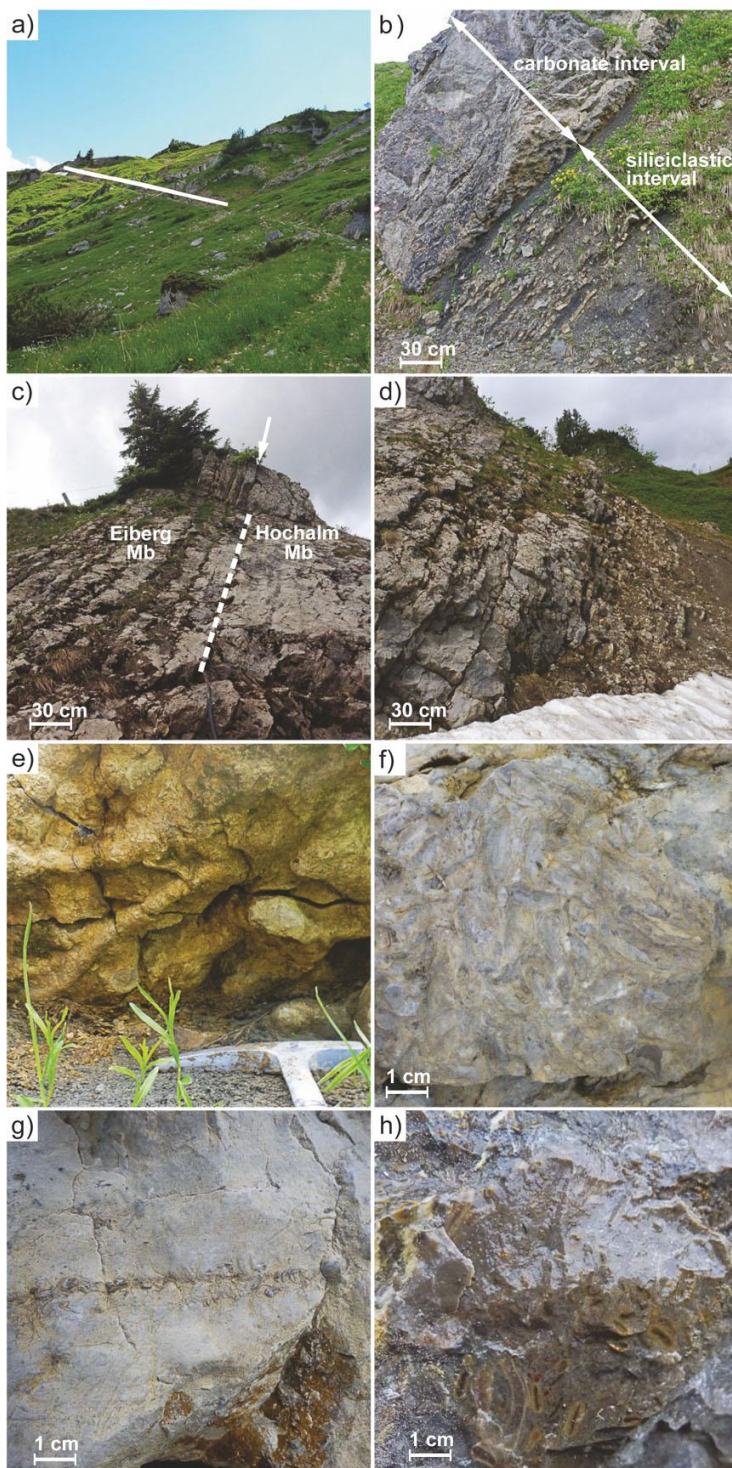
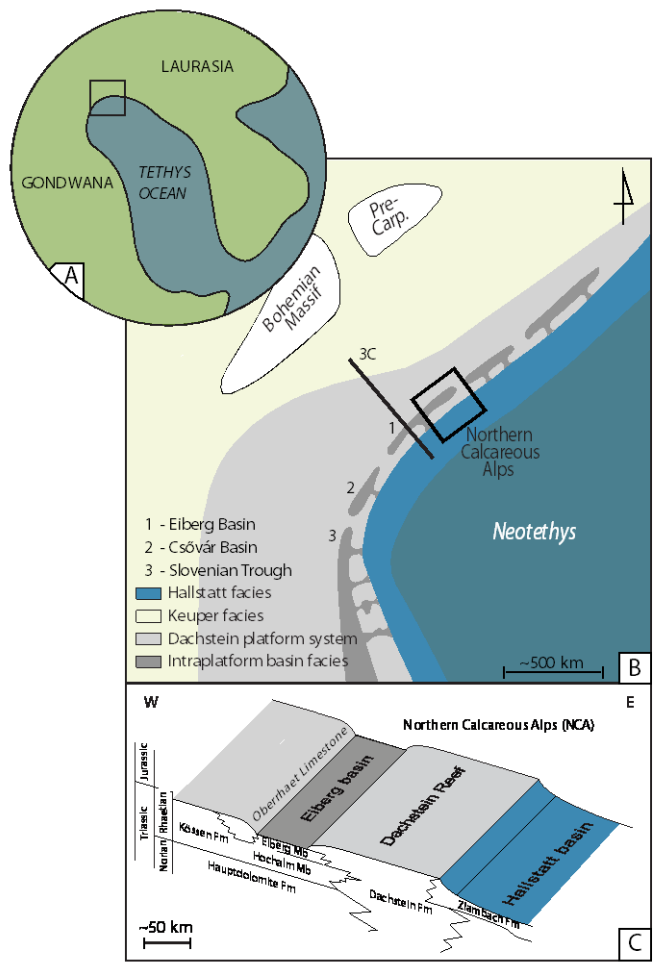


Fig. 2: Field photos of: (a) Hochalm section. The white line marks the measured profile; (b) section close up, where the distinct change from a siliciclastic-rich interval to a carbonate-dominated interval is visible in sequence P4; (c) the uppermost part of the Unit 3 and lower part of the Unit 4 (Korallenkalk) of the Hochalm Mb. Arrow points to the boundary between Hochalm and Eiberg Mb; (d) transition from siliclastic to carbonate interval preceding Unit 4 of the Hochalm Mb, sequence P1; (e) *Thalassinoides* burrows occurring at the base of carbonate interval; (f) Bioclastic rudstone mainly comprising

119 densely packed intact and/or fragmented brachiopod and bivalve shells; **(g)** mudstone bed
120 with a layer of accumulated brachiopod shells (tempestite); **(h)** Abundant coral fragments
121 from a carbonate-rich interval. Location of the photos is marked on Fig. 5.

122 The Dachstein reef platform separated the Eiberg Basin (Austria), the Csóvár Basin
123 (Hungary) and the Slovenian Trough from the outer shelf of the Tethys, though the two latter
124 basins started to form in the Carnian in the oceanward external margin of the Dachstein
125 platform and therefore, are not fully similar to the Eiberg basin. The outer shelf, known as the
126 Hallstatt Basin, constituted the transition toward the open Tethys (Mandl, 1999) and was
127 characterised by Hallstatt Facies deposits (Fig. 3c). The exact timing of the establishment of a
128 possible connection is not known, and it is unclear whether or not this gateway was open
129 during the middle Rhaetian, when the sedimentation of the here studied succession took place.

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131

132 **Fig. 3:** Palaeogeographic maps with (a) simplified situation of the Tethys and (b) the
 133 northwest Tethyan region during the Rhaetian time. The black line indicates the position of
 134 the cross section shown in (modified after Mette *et al.*, 2019) (c) NW-SE cross-section of the
 135 Eiberg Basin (modified after Mette *et al.*, 2019; Haas *et al.*, 2010; Krystyn *et al.*, 2005).

136

137 3. Stratigraphic framework

138 3.1. Rhaetian Members and Units of the Kössen Formation

139 Both lithostratigraphic and biostratigraphic frameworks exist for the Hochalm section (Fig. 4).
 140 The dynamic history of the Eiberg Basin during the deposition of the Eiberg Member is well
 141 documented in the sedimentary succession and testifies to relative sea level changes which are
 142 similarly recorded in the Csövár Basin (Transdanubian Range Unit) (Haas *et al.*, 2010a), as

143 well as in the Lofer cycle-facies of the Dachstein platform (Fischer, 1964; Goldhammer *et al.*,
 144 1990; Haas *et al.*, 2010b) and fringing reefs (Fig. 3c) (Schäfer, 1979). Several large-scale
 145 deepening/shallowing sequences superimposed on small-scale fluctuations related to sea level
 146 changes have been recorded (Golebiowski, 1990; Holstein, 2004) in the Hochalm Member.
 147 However, the control over the cycles remains unclear. Even in the case of the Lofer cycles
 148 there is still a discussion regarding if the cyclicity was driven by eustasy, difference in local
 149 subsidence rate or auto-cyclicity (e.g. Haas *et al.*, 2010b). Therefore, it remains unclear
 150 whether the dynamic conditions of the Eiberg basin were due to eustasy, climate change or
 151 local tectonic activity.

152 The Hochalm section comprises the complete Hochalm Mb and the lower part of the
 153 stratigraphically overlying Eiberg Mb (Fig. 4). Following Golebiowski (1989, 1991), the
 154 Hochalm and Eiberg Mbs are each subdivided into 4 units (Fig. 4) defined by different
 155 lithologies (Fig. 5). At Hochalm, the Hochalm Mb consists of shale/marl alternations and of
 156 coral limestone (Fig. 5), and overlies the Plattenkalk, which is supposedly of Norian age
 157 (Czurda & Nicklas, 1970).

Rhaetian								Stage	
Lower		Middle		Upper				Substage	
Kössen Formation								Formation	
Hochalm Member				Eiberg Member				Member	
Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	U4	U1	Unit 2	Unit 3	U4	Lithostrat. units	
Paracochloceras suessi Zone		V.stuerzen- baumi Zone		Choristoceras marshi Zone [2]				Ammonoids [1,2]	Biozones
bidentata posthernsteini		posthernst. hernsteini [1]		am. [1]		Ch. marshi Subz. [2]			
				rhaetica [1]		ultima [2]		Conodonts [1,2]	
Unterer Lumachellen-Bereich		Oberer Lumachellen-Bereich		Korallenkalk- Bereich		Oberrhätkalk Detritus-Schlammkalk-Bereich		Lithofacies units	

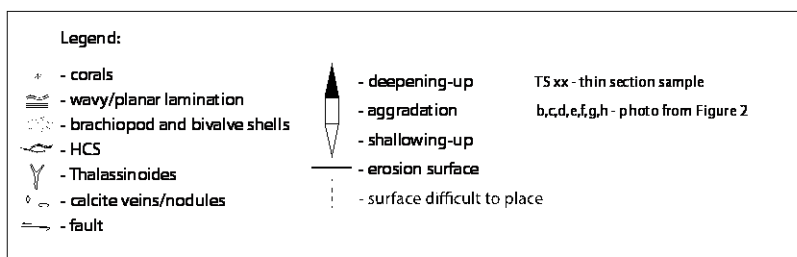
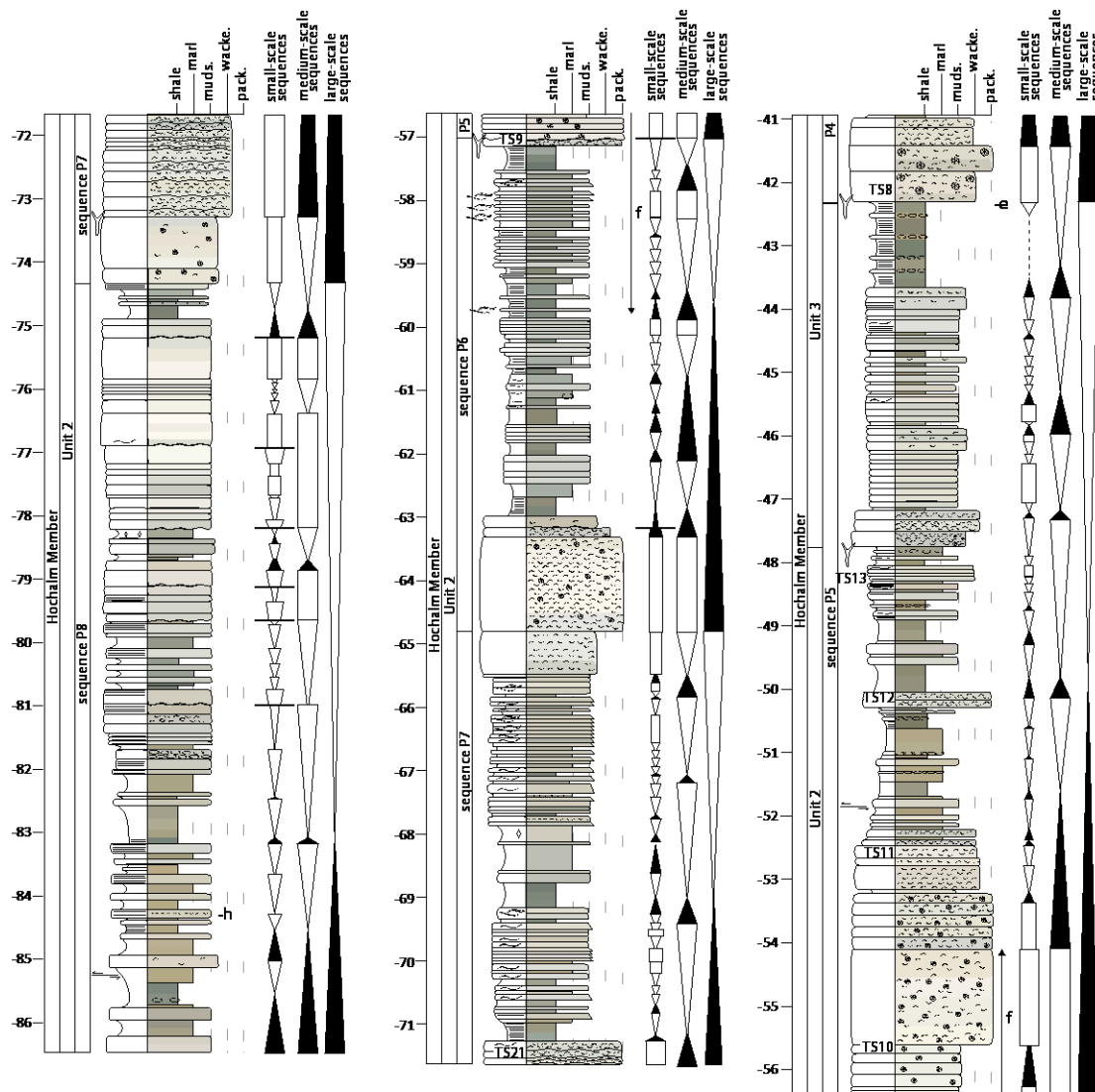
Legend:
 am.-ammonitiforme subzone
 [1] Golebiowski (1991)
 [2] Krystyn (2008)

159 **Fig. 4:** Stratigraphy and biozonation of the Rhaetian Hochalm and Eiberg sections (modified
160 after Golebiowski, 1991 and Mette *et al.*, 2012). Continuous arrows indicate stratigraphic
161 extents of the two sections, while the dashed arrows indicate their nowadays covered parts but
162 presented by Golebiowski, (1989, 1991).

163

164 The Hochalm Mb belongs biostratigraphically to the *Paracochloceras suessi* and the *Vandites*
165 *stuerzenbaumi* ammonite zones (Golebiowski, 1991; Krystyn, 2008), and to the *Misikella*
166 *posthernsteini* conodont zone (Kozur, 1997; Korte *et al.*, 2003) (Fig. 4). For further
167 biostratigraphic discussion, see Urlichs (1972), Mostler *et al.* (1978), Krystyn (1987, 2008,
168 2010), Golebiowski (1990, 1991), Kozur (1997), and references therein. The deposits of
169 lithostratigraphic Unit 1 and the lower part of Unit 2 of Hochalm Mb are nowadays very
170 poorly exposed at the Hochalm locality. Sampling was only possible from well-exposed marl-
171 limestone alternations of the middle of Unit 2 of the Hochalm Mb, up to and including the
172 lower Eiberg Mb. A 86.5-m-thick succession spanning Units 2 to 4 of the Hochalm Mb and a
173 little more than 4 m of the lower part of Unit 1 of the Eiberg Mb have been studied in detail
174 for sedimentology and geochemical analysis.

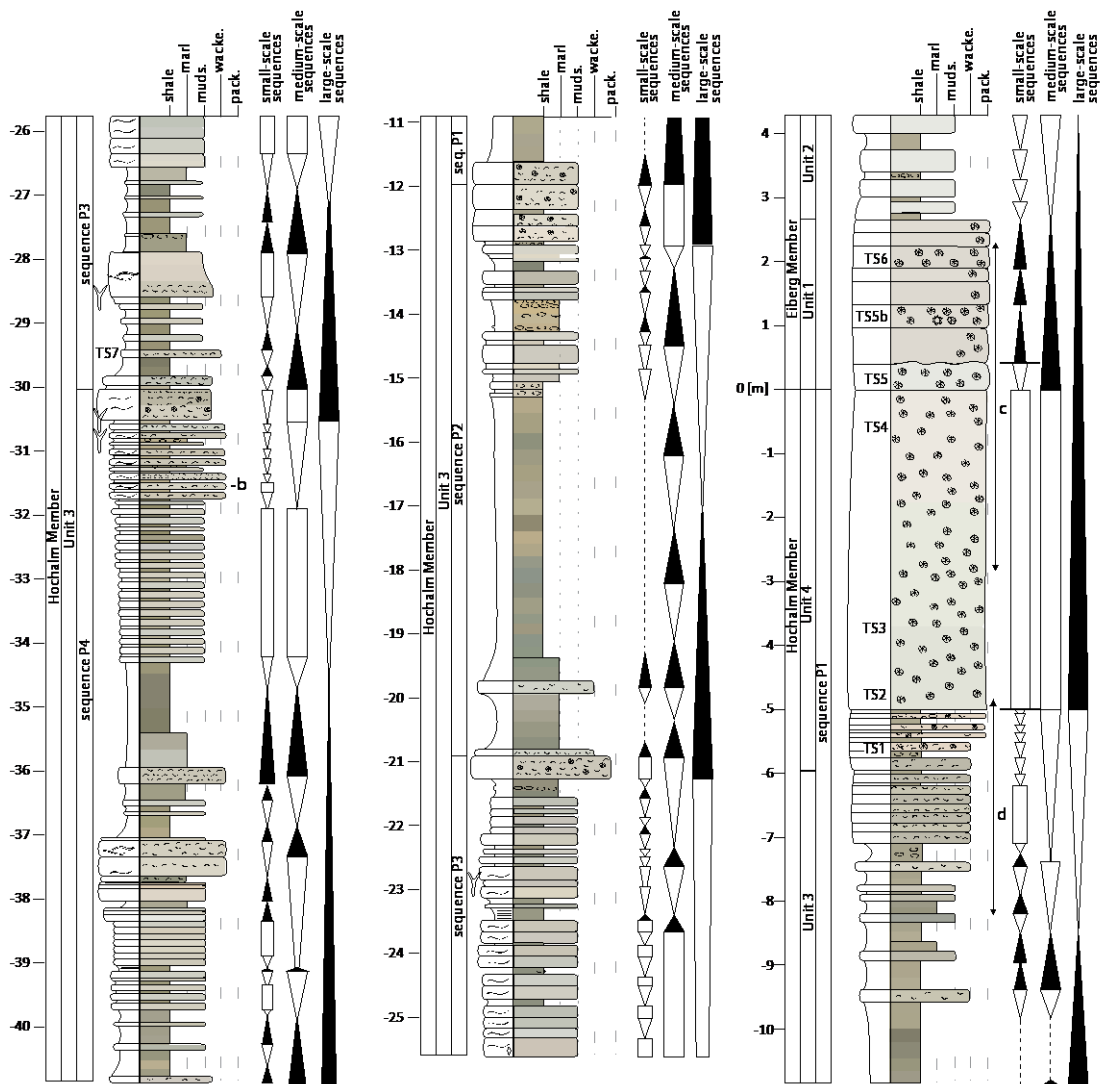
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177 **Fig. 5a:** Detailed log of the Hochalm section. Colours represent true colours of the powdered
 178 sediment. Depositional sequences are marked on the right side of the profile. Eight large-scale
 179 deepening to shallowing sequences are highlighted along with sequences of lower order.
 180 Placement of the thin sections is indicated in the lithological log. Lower part of the section
 181 (-86.6 m to -41 m). For more information see text.

182



183

184 **Fig. 5b:** Continuation of Figure 5a. Upper part of the section (-41 m to +4 m).

185

186 3.2. Facies and sequence stratigraphy of the Kössen Formation

187 Using the comprehensive microfacies description of the Kössen Formation previously made
188 by Kuss (1983), Golebiowski (1989) resolved the lithostratigraphic sequence of microfacies
189 types and their spatial context in the studied interval. A total of 14 microfacies types were
190 classed into three distinct lithostratigraphic intervals representing distinct environmental

191 facies associations (Fig. 6; see Appendix A): the Dachstein–lumachellite facies (Lumachellen
192 realm, L) which essentially corresponds to a bivalve coquina facies, the Coral Limestone
193 facies (Korallenkalk realm, K) and the Bioclastic wackestone facies (Detritus mud carbonate
194 realm, D). Golebiowski (1991) mainly interpreted the stacking pattern of facies in the
195 Hochalm section as shallowing-upward sequences (Fig. 7). Burgess (2001) and Tomašových
196 (2006a) challenged this interpretation and considered that these sequences mainly reflect a
197 combination of variations in storm frequency/intensity, and in rates of siliciclastic and
198 carbonate supply. According to these authors, the sequences were possibly driven essentially
199 by climatic changes (Fig. 7; Burgess, 2001; Tomašových, 2006a). In addition, Tomašových
200 (2006a) considers that subtle facies changes within both carbonate and siliclastic dominated
201 intervals reflect onshore-offshore gradients. Combined, all the above mentioned studies agree
202 that deposition of the Hochalm Mb occurred in a moderately shallow marine environment.
203 However, some discussion exists on the occurrence of potential transgressive surfaces in the
204 overall sequence, with Golebiowski (1991) and Satterley & Brandner (1995) suggesting the
205 existence of transgressive surfaces at the top of carbonate intervals, while Tomašových
206 (2006a) suggests these to occur at their base (Fig. 7).

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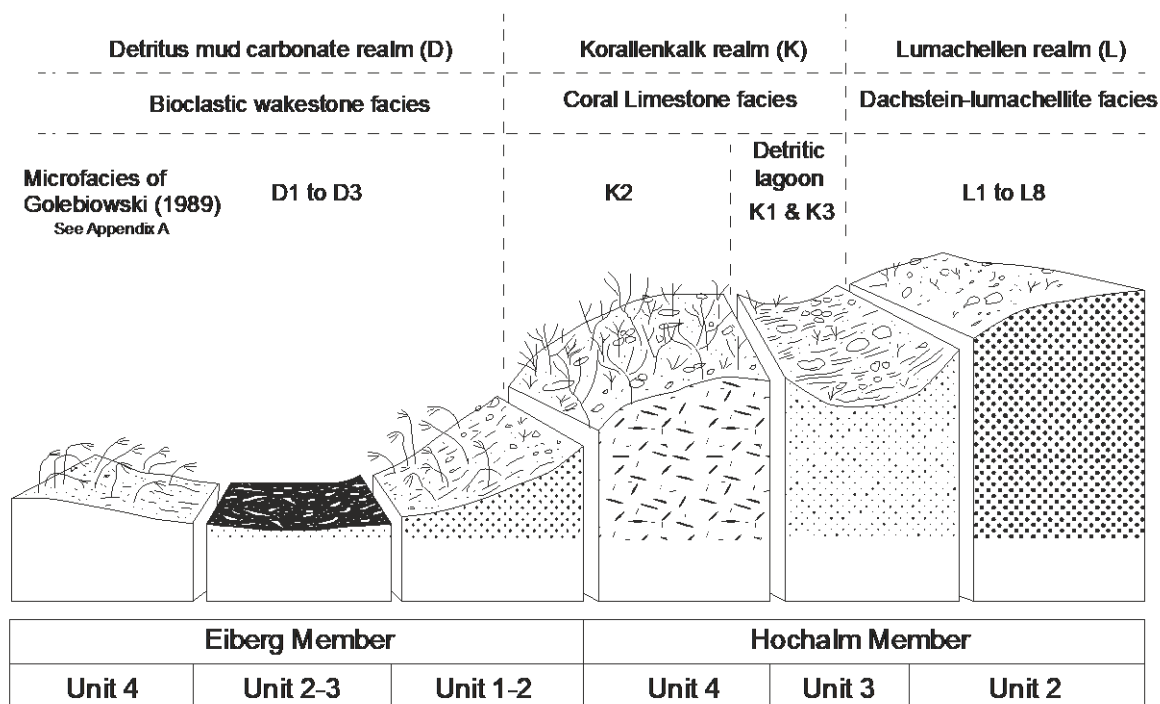
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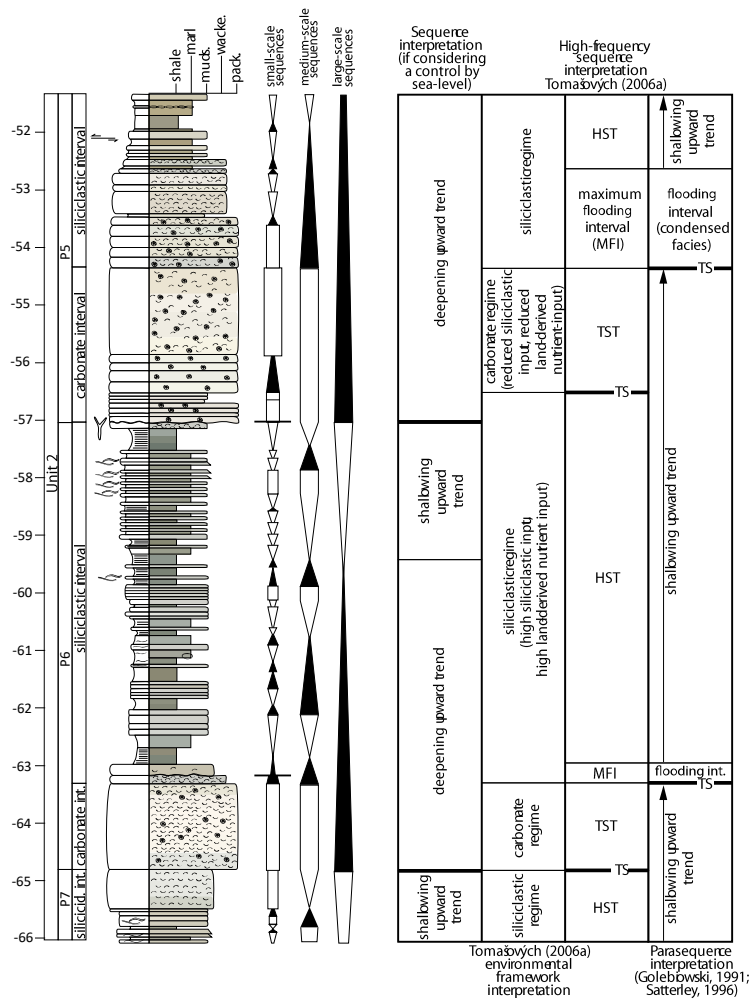


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218 **Fig. 6:** Paleoenvironmental model of the Hochalm and Eiberg Mb showing the approximate
 219 extension and paleoenvironmental interpretation of the different Units (modified after
 220 Golebiowski, 1991). For more information see Appendix A.

221

222



223

224 **Fig. 7:** Close up of large-scale sequence P8. On the right side of the log, the interpretation of
 225 small-, medium- and large-scale sequences is presented. Different interpretations according to
 226 Tomašových (2006a), Satterley (1996) and Golebowski (1991) are shown on the right side.
 227 TST: transgressive systems tract, HST: highstand systems tract, MFS: maximum flooding
 228 surface, MFI: maximal flooding interval, TS: transgressive surface. For legend see Fig. 5.
 229 Two hypotheses are considered for interpretation of the parasequences: either (1) they are
 230 controlled by sea-level oscillations, in which case we modified the original interpretation of
 231 Golebowski (1991) of shallowing-upward and deepening-upward trends to fit better our
 232 observations and standard sequence stratigraphy of carbonate sequences, either (2) they are

233 controlled by changes in climate (humidity) that cyclically favour either a siliciclastic regime,
234 either a carbonate regime, following the environmental interpretation of Tomašových (2006a).

235 **4. Methods**

236 **4.1. Sample preparation**

237 Rock samples were collected with an average spacing of 20 cm through the entire (86.5 m
238 thick) section, and in 5 cm intervals in the lower part of sequence P5 (-54 m to -47 m, Fig. 5).
239 A total of 244 carbonate and 418 shale and marl samples from the Hochalm Mb were
240 processed. We did not analyse samples from the Eiberg Mb, since it is much better exposed
241 and better preserved in the Eiberg type section (Golebiowski, 1989, 1991; Mette *et al.*, 2016;
242 Korte *et al.*, 2017). Weathered surfaces were ground away and several grams of powder were
243 generated by drilling with a tungsten carbide mill-bit from visually unaltered portions of the
244 samples. The colour of the powdered aliquots was determined using a flatbed scanner at 200
245 dpi (Fig. 5).

246

247 **4.2. Microfacies description**

248 Fifteen thin sections of representative carbonate beds (Fig. 5) have been examined with a
249 Leica DM4500P polarized-light microscope at various magnifications. The description of the
250 microfacies followed the classification established in the area by Golebiowski (1991) (see
251 Appendix A).

252

253 **4.3. Total organic carbon (TOC) and carbonate content**

254 For the measurement of the total organic carbon (TOC) and the estimation of CaCO₃ content,
255 193 powdered samples were weighed with a precision of ± 0.01 mg and subsequently
256 decarbonated using 6 M HCl. After removal of acid remains via multiple steps of rinsing,

257 centrifugation and discarding of the supernatant, the remaining non-carbonate fraction was
258 freeze-dried. The residual was then weighed again with the same precision as above and the
259 CaCO₃ content was calculated based on the difference between sample weights before and
260 after the decarbonation. Total organic carbon concentrations were determined on 100 mg
261 aliquots using the Carbon Sulphur Determinator (Eltra CS 500) at the Department of
262 Geosciences and Natural Resource Management (IGN), University of Copenhagen and
263 recalculated for the total sample. The samples were burned in ceramic boats at ~1350°C in a
264 catalytic oxidation process for 90 seconds. Reproducibility as measured from multiple
265 analyses of an in-house reference material SKK-9 (TOC = 6.88%) accounts for 0.08% (1 sd, n
266 = 31).

267

268 **4.4. Bulk carbonate, calcite vein and brachiopod $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$**

269 Carbon and oxygen isotope values were obtained from the bulk carbonate (662 samples),
270 calcite veins (3 samples) and well-preserved brachiopods (28 samples). All of the samples
271 were analysed at the IGN, University of Copenhagen using an Iso Prime Gas Source Isotope
272 Ratio Mass Spectrometer following the procedure described in Ullmann *et al.* (2013). Weight
273 dependent mass fractionation was corrected using homogenized powder of Carrara Marble as
274 an in-house standard ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = +1.96\text{‰}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -1.93\text{‰}$). The reproducibility of the analyses
275 was controlled by multiple measurements of this laboratory reference material and was 0.04‰
276 for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 0.07‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (1 sd, n = 161).

277

278 **4.5. Bulk organic carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$)**

279 Carbon isotope values of bulk organic matter were determined on the decarbonated material
280 from 198 samples. Samples were measured using the Euro EA Elemental Analyzer coupled

281 with an Iso Prime Gas Source Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer at the IGN, University of
282 Copenhagen. Weight dependent isotope fractionation was corrected using the in-house
283 reference AKSil-9 ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = -25.65 \text{ ‰}$). The reproducibility of the analyses was found to be
284 0.3‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (1 sd, n = 50).

285

286 **5. Results**

287 **5.1. Lithology and microfacies**

288 By convention, our 0 m level corresponds to the base of the Eiberg Member, which
289 corresponds to the base of Unit 1 of the Eiberg Member exposed in the Eiberg quarry (Mette
290 *et al.*, 2012; Korte *et al.*, 2017). Golebiowski (1989) identified a large number of long-term,
291 5 to 10 m thick shallowing-upward sequences in the Hochalm section composed of
292 siliciclastic and carbonate intervals (Fig. 2b). Only eight of these sequences are documented
293 here from Unit 2 to Unit 4 of the Hochalm Mb because most of Unit 1 and the upper half of
294 Unit 2 were covered by soil and vegetation. The eight sequences considered in this study are
295 defined by deepening-shallowing trends (see below) and have been numbered downward in
296 stratigraphy in order to allow for an easy reconnection to Hochalm Mb Units 1 and 2 in the
297 future. Five distinct lithofacies types were characterised in the field based on the combination
298 of Folk and Dunham classifications:

299 (1) Massive carbonate mudstone (Fig. 2c and 2d), with cream to light grey matrix and no
300 visible macrofossils. These beds are generally around 20 cm thick and their bases and tops are
301 often wavy. Some of these beds are characterized by intervals with normal grain-size grading
302 and planar to wavy laminations.

303 (2) Bioclastic wackestone (Fig. 2e), with about 10% (estimated) shells and other bioclasts
304 floating in a structureless cream/beige to light grey micrite. Very big, massive *Thalassinoides*
305 burrows are often present at the base of wackestone beds.

306 (3) Light-coloured bioclastic rudstone (Fig. 2b), mainly comprising densely packed intact
307 and/or fragmented brachiopod and bivalve shells. Detritus of crinoids and other echinoderms
308 occur in lower amounts. Massive *Thalassinoides* burrows are often present at the base of
309 individual beds.

310 (4) Grey-brown marls (Fig. 2b). Fossils are scarce or absent.

311 (5) Dark grey shales with common planar lamination (Fig. 2b). Fossils are either scarce or
312 absent. Some of these shales are silty but a majority is fine-grained.

313 Within limestone lithofacies 1 and 2, thin layers of well-sorted reworked shells occur
314 occasionally (Fig. 2g). Bioclastic wackestone (lithofacies 2) and rudstone macrofacies
315 (macrofacies 3) are sometimes characterised by a high amount of coral debris (Fig. 2h).

316 The limestone lithofacies 1–3 are characterised by a large variety of distinct microfacies as
317 discussed below (Table 1). Progressing upward in the succession, an overall increase in the
318 siliciclastic fraction occurs from the base of the section in sequence P8 to the lower part of
319 sequence P1 (top of Hochalm Mb Unit 3). This trend is interrupted by the occurrence of
320 a thick coral pack-/rudstone interval (Hochalm Mb Unit 4). From among the 14 distinct
321 microfacies defined by Golebiowski (1989) in the Kössen Fm. (Appendix A), seven were
322 recognized in our studied samples (Table 1, Figs. 8–10). No clear systematic difference could
323 be noted in the microfacies encountered within the beds of the siliciclastic versus carbonate
324 intervals. According to Golebiowski (1989), carbonate microfacies of the Hochalm Mb are
325 restricted to the Lumachellen (L) and Korallenkalk realms (K) and this is in agreement with
326 our own observations (Table 1, Figs 8–10). Two samples at the base of Unit 1 of the Eiberg

327 Mb show microfacies with a preponderant presence of echinoderms and fit the D1 microfacies
328 type characteristic of the “detritus mud” carbonate facies association (Table 1, Fig. 6).

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Thin section label	Depth [m]	Macrofacies	Matrix	Grains	Amount	Golebiowski (1989) classification	Figures	Additional informations
TS 21	-71.55	bioclastic pack-/ grainstone	M, S	bivalve brachiopod gastropod echinoderm coral peloid	+++ ++ ++ + +	L7a	Fig.8a,b Fig.10d	-thin horizons with horizontal alignment of the grains -some intervals are laminated -coated grains and pellets
TS 10	-55.86	mudstone	M, S	quartz	+	L6a	Fig.8c	-numerous sparite veins and stylolites
TS 11	-52.65	mud-/ wackestone	M, S	corals microsparite	+ +	K2	Fig.8d	-numerous sparite veins
TS 12	-50.30	bioclastic pack-/ grainstone	M	bivalve gastropod involutinid foraminifera peloid microsparite	+++ ++ ++ ++ ++ +	L3	Fig.8e,f	-some bivalve shells show a dark micritic outline and geopetal sparite -some prismatic and foliated structures are preserved
TS 13	-44.70	bioclastic packstone	M	bivalve other	+++ +++	L3	Fig.8g	-some prismatic and foliated structures are preserved
TS 8	-42.05	bioclastic wackestone	M	bivalve gastropods microsparite	++ + +	K1		
TS 7	-29.45	floatstone	M	brachiopod involutinid foraminifera microsparite coral	+++ + + + ++	L7b	Fig.3g Fig.8h Fig.10c	-brachiopod shells - recrystallized in sparite or filled with micritic matrix -preferential orientation of the
TS 1a	-5.60	bioclastic wacke-/ floatstone	M, S	bivalve	++	K2	Fig.9a Fig.10a	-pyrite -organic matter
TS 2	-4.75	bioclastic wackestone	M, S	coral echinoderm bivalve	+ ++ +	K1	Fig.9b	-numerous large remains of bivalve shells with foliated structure
TS 3	-3.75	bioclastic wacke-/ packstone	M, S	coral echinoderm gastropod bivalve sparite	++ ++ ++ ++ ++	K 1	Fig.9c	-poorly sorted bioclasts -organic matter, pyrite -arenitic detritus -some foliated and prismatic structure preserved in bivalves
TS 4	-0.65	bioclastic packstone	M, S	echinoderm coral bivalve	++ ++ ++	K 1	Fig.9d	-poorly sorted -mainly sparitic ghosts of bioclasts -bivalves with prismatic and foliated
TS 5	0.15	bioclastic packstone	M	bivalve echinoderm	+ +++	D 1	Fig.9e	-mainly poorly sorted sparitic ghosts of bioclasts
TS 5b	1.00	bioclastic packstone	M, S	gastropod brachiopod bivalve echinoderm microsparite	+ + + +++ ++	D 1	Fig.9f	-mainly sparitic ghosts of bioclasts
TS 6	2.10	bioclastic micropackstone	M	bivalve echinoderm gastropod brachiopod peloids lithoclasts	++ ++ + + + +	L 7b	Fig.10b Fig.9g,h	-some intervals are laminated with clear preferential horizontal orientation of the elongated bioclasts -remains of bivalve shells

335

336 **Table 1:** Description of the various thin sections analysed from the Hochalm section.

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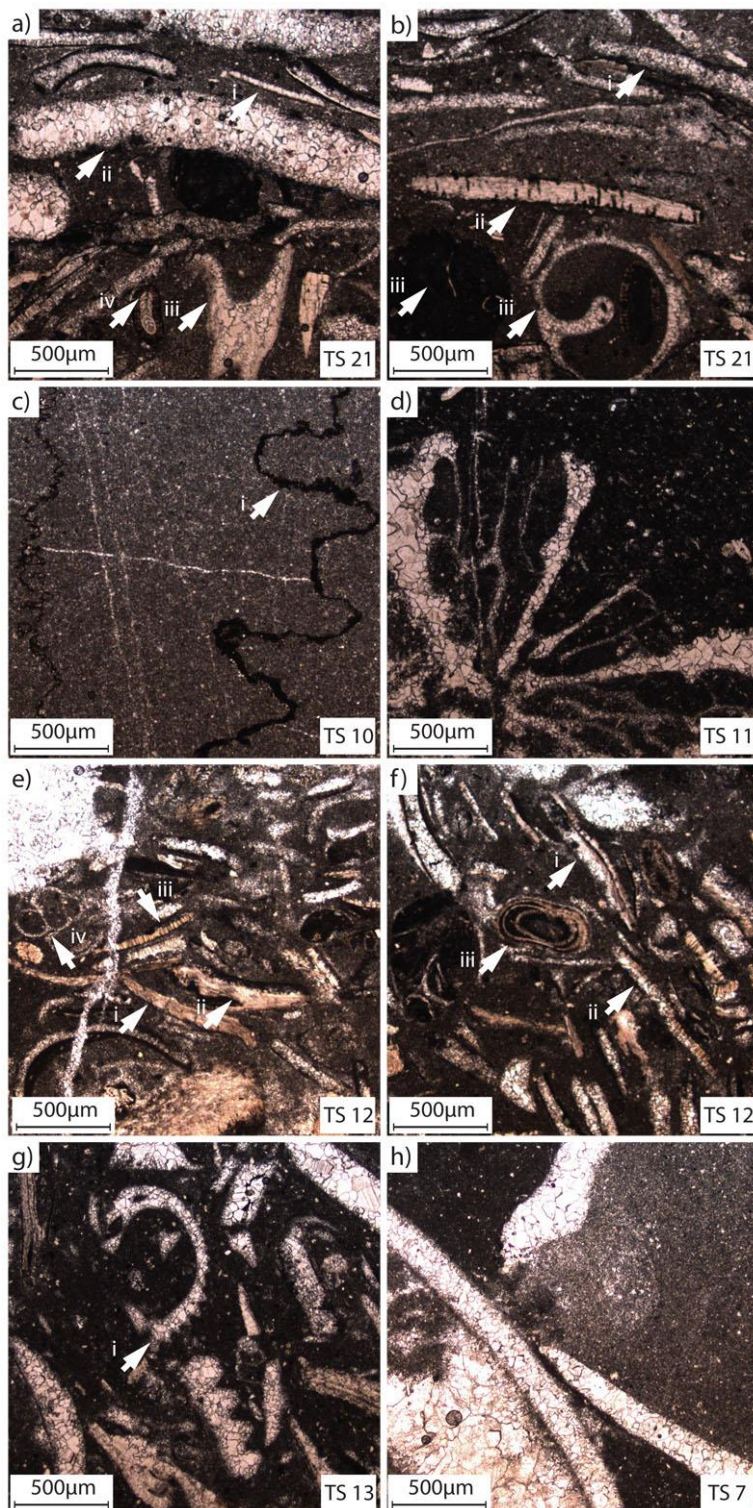


Fig. 8: Various observations of thin sections in polarized light. **a)** and **b)** sample TS21 (-71.55 m): Bioclastic packstone with a micritic matrix containing various amounts of microsparite. Some thin horizons are laminated with clasts showing a horizontal alignment (**b**). Most of the clasts are remains of bivalves (e.g. **a i**) but numerous recrystallized brachiopods (e.g. **a ii**) and gastropods are also present, along with few echinoderms and a number of cup-shaped corals (**a iii**). Facies L7a; **(c)** sample TS10 (-55.86 m): Mudstone with a matrix of micrite, very fine microsparite and terrigenous quartz grains.

364 Numerous veins of sparite occur along with stylolites filled with clay (**c i**). Facies L6a; **(d)**
365 sample TS11 (-52.65 m): Mudstone to wackestone with a matrix of micrite and sparse
366 microspar. Facies K2; **e)** and **f)** sample TS12 (-50.30 m): Bioclastic pack/rud-stone with a

367 matrix composed of micrite and sparse microspar. Most of the clasts are remains of either
368 bivalve or brachiopod shells and many of them show a dark micritic outline and geopetal
369 sparite (e.g. e i, ii). When preserved, the bivalve shells show a great variety of different
370 microstructures: foliated (e.g. e i, ii), prismatic (e.g. e iii), and foliated and punctuate (b ii).
371 Some of the shells show both, original and recrystallized structures (e.g. f i, ii). Gastropods (e
372 iv) and small involutinid foraminifers (e.g. a iv, 9c iii, iv) are common. Peloids are common
373 too. Facies L3; **(g)** sample TS13 (-47.70 m): Bioclastic packstone with a fine micritic matrix
374 containing sparse microspar. Most of the clasts are remains of bivalves but brachiopods also
375 appear (g i). A few of them have preserved foliated or prismatic microstructures. Facies L3;
376 **(h)** sample TS7 (-29.45 m): Floatstone with a very fine micritic matrix containing sparse
377 microspar. The clasts are entirely composed of brachiopod shells (completely recrystallized or
378 filled with matrix). Brachiopod shells correspond to a horizontal intercalation within a
379 mudstone bed presented in Figure 2g. Facies L7b.

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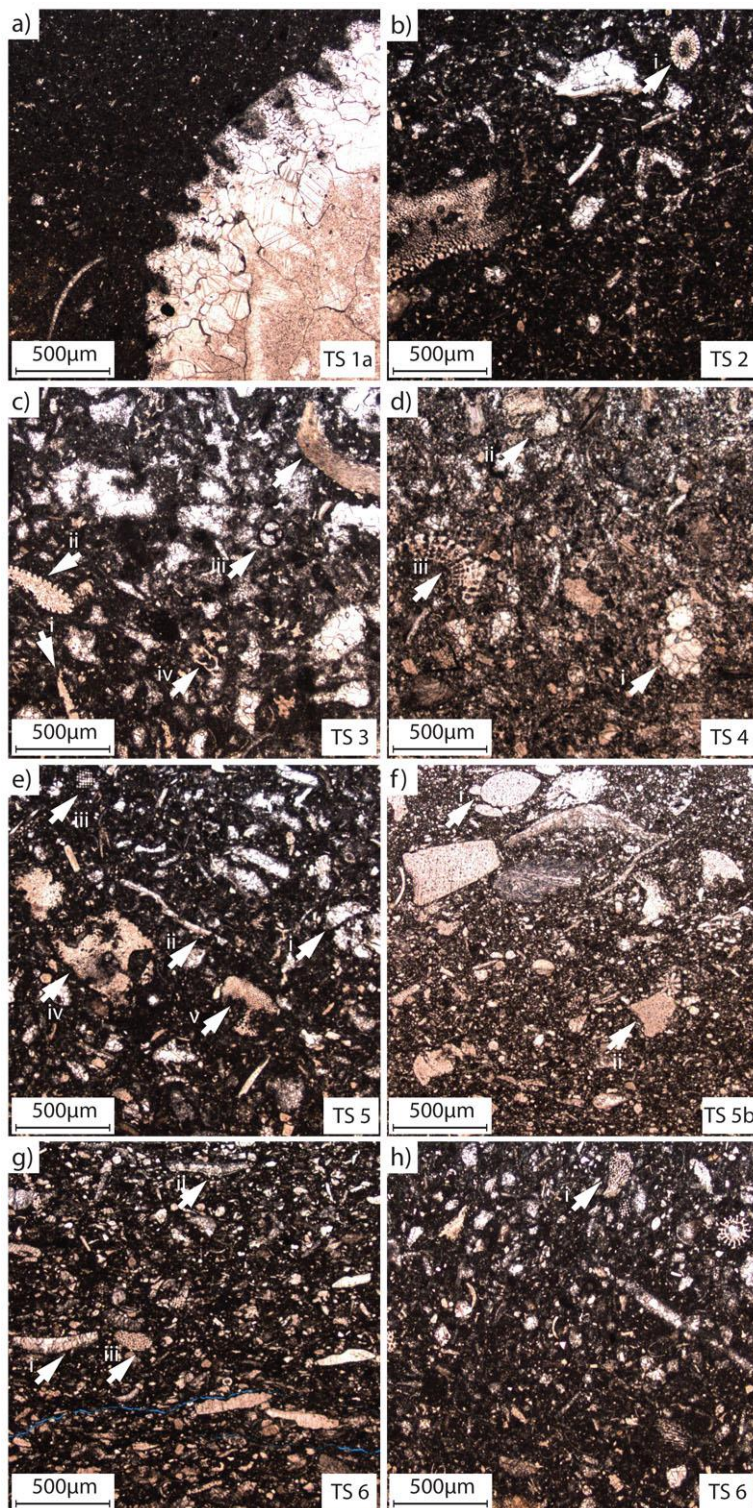
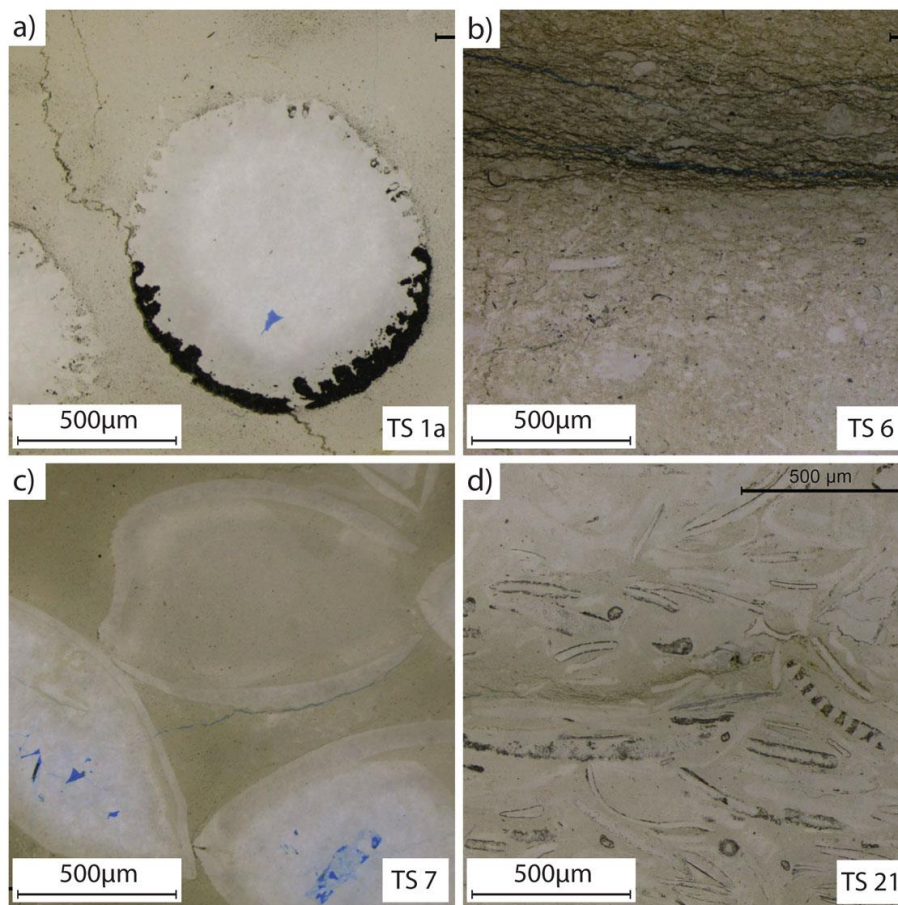


Fig. 9: Various observations of thin sections in polarized light. (a) sample TS1a (-5.6 m): Bioclastic wackestone/floatstone with a very fine micritic matrix with few microsparite, pyrite, and some larger coral bioclasts. Few fragments of bivalve shells. Facies K2; (b) sample TS2 (-4.75 m): Bioclastic wackestone with a matrix composed dominantly of fine micrite and some microsparite. The grains are debris of corals, echinoderms (b i), and bivalve shells sometimes with foliated structure. Facies K1; (c) sample TS3 (-3.75 m): Bioclastic wacke- to packstone with a fine- to coarse micritic matrix with

404 few microsparitic grains and pyrite. Diversity of poorly sorted bioclasts is high with debris of
405 corals, bivalves (c i, with sometimes preserved foliated and prismatic structures), echinoderms
406 (e.g. c ii, d iii) and gastropods. Large number of sub-angular sparitic clasts occurs. Facies K1;

407 **(d)** sample TS4 (-0.65 m): Bioclastic packstone with a matrix composed of a mix of micrite
408 and a very large amount of microsparite. The grains are mostly poorly sorted sparitic ghosts
409 of bioclasts (d i). Debris of echinoderms (d ii, iii), corals and bivalves with prismatic and
410 foliated structures also occurs. Facies K1; **(e)** sample TS5 (15 cm): Bioclastic packstone with
411 sparse microspar in a micritic matrix. The grains comprise many poorly sorted sparitic ghosts
412 of bioclasts (e i), debris of bivalves (e ii) with prismatic structure and a very high amount of
413 echinoderms (e iii, iv, v). Facies D1; **(f)** sample TS5b (1 m): Bioclastic packstone with matrix
414 composed of an equal amount of micrite and microsparite. The clasts comprise gastropods,
415 many sparitic ghosts of bioclasts (f i), some of which can be identified as brachiopods,
416 bivalves and a very high amount of echinoderms (f ii). Facies D1; **(g and h)** sample TS6
417 (2.10 m): Bioclastic fine grained packstone with a micritic matrix and sparse microspar. Some
418 lithoclasts with a mudstone texture and rare peloids (h) are present. The bioclasts are remains
419 of bivalves (mostly; e.g. g i, ii) and numerous echinoderms (e.g. g iii, h i), few gastropods and
420 brachiopods are also present. The bioclasts are sorted in two main categories: roundish to
421 angular, 50 to 100 μm long clasts and 200 to 500 μm long elongated bioclasts which are
422 mostly remains of bivalve shells (g). Some intervals are laminated. Non-laminated intervals
423 show no favored orientation of the bioclasts (g) whereas a clear preferential horizontal
424 orientation of the elongated bioclasts is observed in the laminated interval (g). Facies L7b.
425



426

427 **Fig: 10:** Various observations of thin sections stained with blue color resin in parallel nicols.

428 **(a)** sample TS1a (-5.6 m). Bioclastic Wackestone/Floatstone with a very fine micritic matrix.

429 The large clasts are corals with a diameter of ca. 5 mm; **(b)** sample TS6 (2.1 m). Bioclastic

430 micropackstone with a micritic matrix and numerous microspar. Interval at the top of the

431 photo is laminated with a clear preferential horizontal orientation of the elongated bioclasts,

432 whereas non-laminated interval, at the bottom of the photo, show no favored orientation of the

433 bioclasts; **(c)** sample TS7 (-29.45 m). Floatstone with a very fine fossil-free micritic mudstone

434 matrix. The clasts are brachiopod shells. The floatstone is actually intercalated within a

435 micritic mudstone bed that contains nearly no bioclasts; **(d)** sample TS21 (-71.55 m).

436 Bioclastic packstone to grainstone with a micritic matrix. This thin horizon is laminated with

437 clasts showing a horizontal alignment. Most of the clasts are remains of bivalves but

438 numerous brachiopods, gastropods are also present, along with few echinoderms and a
439 number of cup-shaped corals.

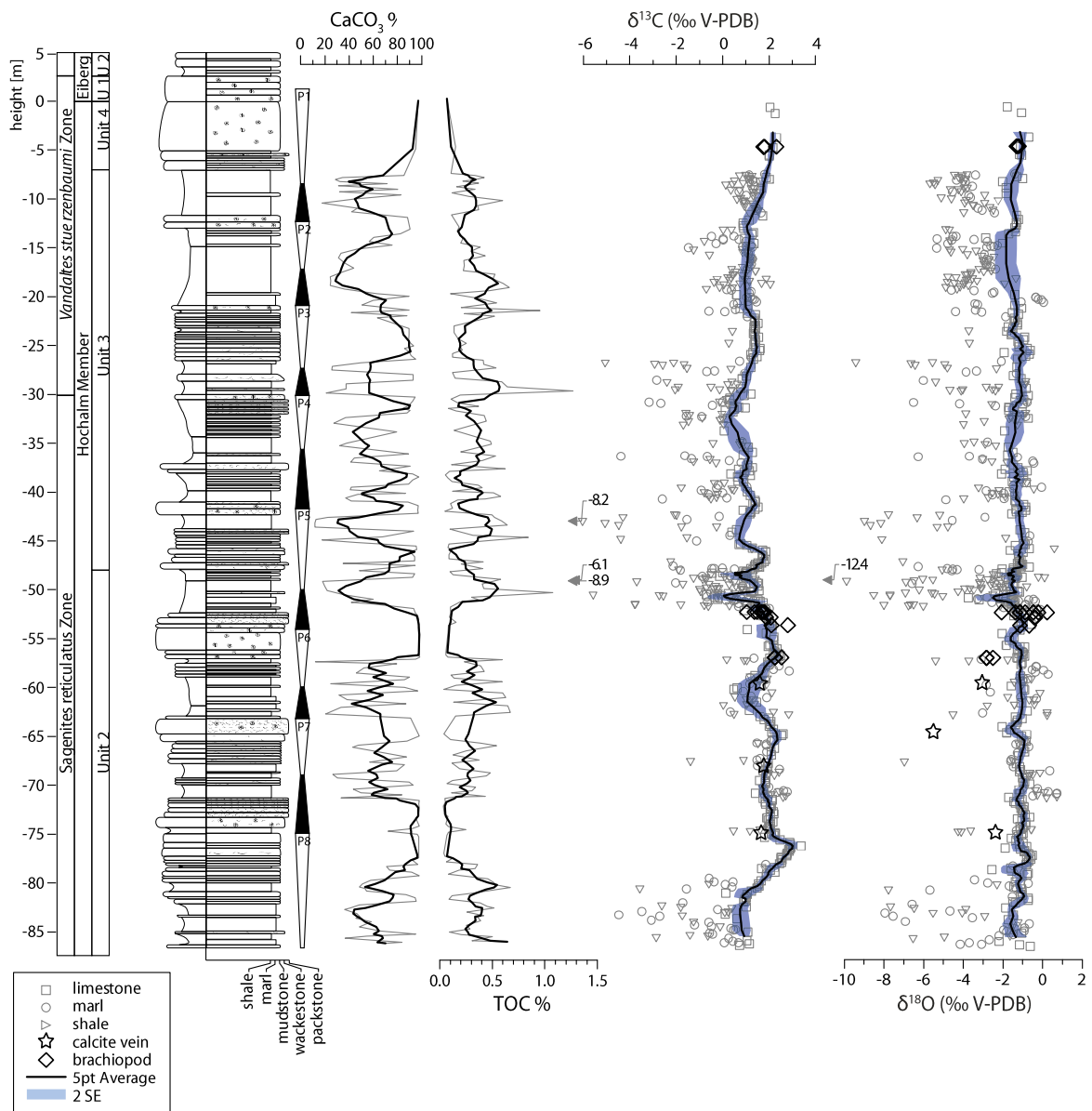
440 **5.2. Carbonate content and total organic carbon**

441 Calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) content varies from 13.5% up to 98.8%. The differences in
442 %CaCO₃ generally reflects lithological changes varying from clayey marl to limestone in both
443 small-scale and large-scale sequences (as defined below and in Figures 5 and 7). Large-scale
444 sequences, described below in chapter 5.3, are especially well-depicted by variations in
445 %CaCO₃ (Fig. 11).

446 The TOC content is relatively low and varies from 0.03 % up to 1.26% with a mean
447 concentration of 0.3% (Fig. 11). TOC trends closely resemble lithological trends with
448 generally much higher concentrations in the intervals with high content of siliciclastic
449 material than in the intervals of high carbonate (Fig. 11).

450 The TOC values do not show any distinct long-term trends, but depict large-scale sequences
451 similar to those described in chapter 5.3 (Fig. 11).

452



453

454 **Fig. 11:** Synthetic log of the Hochalm section with large-scale sequences and CaCO₃ content,
 455 TOC, δ¹³C_{carb} and δ¹⁸O_{carb}. Average values in all the plots are calculated as 5 pt running
 456 average of the remaining dataset after removal of all the values considered as diagenetically
 457 altered (see chapter 5.4.1.). Blue envelopes represent the 2 standard error (SE) of our 5 pt
 458 window. Shales (CaCO₃ < 35%) are depicted as black triangles, marls (CaCO₃ 35% < 65%)
 459 are represented by grey circles, while limestones (CaCO₃ > 65%) are shown as light-grey
 460 squares.

461

462 **5.3. Sequence analysis**

463 For the sequence analysis of the section, the identification of maximum flooding surfaces
464 (MFS) and transgressive surfaces (TS) is not restricted to an interpretation based on grain size
465 trends (Catuneanu *et al.*, 2009). A combination of factors have been taken into account for the
466 recognition of the sequences in the section: bed stacking pattern, vertical grain-size
467 distribution, the weathering profile and carbonate content, and observed sedimentological
468 features. System tracts were defined according to the steps of Catuneanu *et al.* (2009). Since,
469 in this section the precise geochronological control is lacking, we refer to the sequences in a
470 relative sense (as recommended by Catuneanu *et al.*, 2011). The depositional sequences are
471 described in the frame of a high-frequency sequence stratigraphic interpretation with the
472 transgressive surface as a lower boundary of each sequence, following Strasser (1999) and the
473 “P” parasequence concept of Schlager (2004) (Fig. 5 & 7).

474

475 **5.3.1. Small-scale sequences**

476 The small-scale sequence (small-scale sequences on Fig. 5) generally correspond to one
477 shale/marl-limestone alternation but may also be defined by a gradual increase followed by
478 a decrease in bed thickness, and/or decreasing to increasing trends in the content of the
479 siliciclastic material. Several small-scale sequences are represented by a lithological
480 alternation with its lower part characterised by an increasing trend in siliciclastic content,
481 followed by a decreasing trend in its upper part. A majority of these small-scale sequences are
482 asymmetric, with the part showing a progressive increase in siliciclastic material being
483 systematically thicker. Those trends may represent high-frequency shallowing-upward cycles
484 or variations in rates of siliciclastic and carbonate supply driven by shedding, from processes

485 that affected the rimmed platform and/or climatic change controlled siliciclastic sediment
486 shedding from the Keuper region to the North (Burgess, 2001) (Fig. 5). A decrease in
487 carbonate content is generally observed in thinning-upward mudstone beds, which are
488 overlain by marls and shales. Conversely, an increase in carbonate mud is represented by
489 thickening upward marl/wackestone/packstone beds, with a general increase in the amount of
490 calcium carbonate.

491 A few intervals of aggradation, with monotonous/uniform lithological successions and stable
492 trends in calcium carbonate were encountered (for example from -15 m to -20 m, Fig. 5).
493 Placing a MFS within such successions involves a margin of error equivalent to the thickness
494 of the condensed section (Catuneanu *et al.*, 2009). Intervals with uncertainties positions of an
495 MFS are represented by dashed lines on Figure 5.

496

497 **5.3.2. Medium-scale sequences**

498 The medium-scale sequences were determined based on the stacking of the small-scale
499 sequences, with the aim of producing smooth sequences of relatively similar thickness.
500 Medium-scale sequences normally start at the top of thick carbonate beds and are
501 characterized by first an apparent deepening trend, represented by more siliciclastic deposits,
502 followed by more carbonate-rich sediments with increasing bed thickness. Such a sequence
503 may represent a shallowing trend but could also be the result of high-stand shedding, a
504 process that is most pronounced on low-latitude, rimmed platforms and involves shedding of
505 carbonate mud from the platform into the adjacent basin due to high production, rapid
506 lithification and winnowing of the carbonate platform (Schlager *et al.*, 1994) (Fig. 5).

507

508 **5.3.3. Large-scale sequences**

509 The large-scale sequences in the studied succession are actually equivalent to the interpreted
510 shallowing-upward parasequences of Golebiowski (1991) and Satterley (1996), or
511 Transgressive-Regressive (T-R) cycles of Holstein (2004) as well as so-called “small-scale
512 sequences” in the study of Tomašových (2006a). Each sequence consists of one interval
513 dominated by a siliciclastic component and one dominated by carbonates. Siliciclastic
514 intervals consist of alternating shale, marl and mudstone beds. Planar and wavy laminations
515 occur in the lower part of these intervals and hummocky cross-stratification (HCS) is
516 occasionally present in their topmost parts. Thin (~ 10 cm) and medium thickness (~20 cm)
517 carbonate beds prevail in the upper part of the siliciclast-rich intervals. These intervals are
518 well-characterised by lower CaCO₃ content and by enrichment in TOC (Fig. 11). The
519 carbonate-rich intervals are characterized by thick (~0.3 m) to very thick (~5 m) carbonate
520 beds including mudstone, wackestone, packstone or rudstone with various amounts of
521 redeposited bioclasts (corals, sponges, brachiopod and bivalve shell debris; see also
522 Golebiowski, 1991 and Tomašových, 2006b). These intervals are represented by the higher
523 values in CaCO₃% and much lower TOC values (Fig. 11). Tomašových (2006a) argued that
524 deposits in the carbonate-rich intervals of these sequences formed in palaeo water-depths that
525 are not consistently above normal storm wave base (NSWB) while sediments of the
526 siliciclastic intervals characterised by alternations of shales and thin shell beds or mudstones,
527 sometimes bearing HCS, indicate depths above the NSWB. Therefore, he argued for
528 alternating environmentally controlled siliciclastic versus a carbonate production and/or
529 shedding regime to explain these sequences, rather than shallowing-upward trends. While
530 changes in the frequency of HCS may be used as an argument for shallowing/deepening
531 trends, the interpretation of this sedimentological feature is arguable; there are several types
532 of HCS, produced by wave-dominated processes that occur in a wide array of proximal to

533 distal environments (Jelby *et al.*, 2020). The present study also suggests that an alternating
534 siliciclastic versus carbonate regime could have been controlled by environmental changes
535 unrelated to sealevel, across the small and medium-scale stratigraphic sequences, as also
536 suggested by the distribution of habitats in bivalves and brachiopods (Tomašových, 2006a).
537 However, the asymmetric nature of the large-scale cycles, the variations in storm intensity and
538 frequency (Golebiowski, 1991; Satterley, 1996), the stratigraphic variability in organic
539 content and palynomorphs (Holstein, 2004), and the absence of any bivalve or brachiopod
540 habitats below the maximum storm wave base (MSWB) in carbonate intervals (Tomašových,
541 2006a) support the interpretation of these sequences as shallowing-upward cycles. The
542 geological context of the large, rimmed intraplatform basin does, however, also allow for
543 other controls on facies distribution, which are further discussed in section 6 of this paper. If
544 the large-scale sequences indeed represent shallowing-upward parasequences, then it is
545 possible to position relevant surfaces. Accordingly, we placed potential maximum-flooding
546 surfaces at minimal values in the stratigraphic carbonate record, and centred within the
547 thickest shale deposits in such stratigraphic interval, which generally correspond to the middle
548 part of thick siliciclastic deposits (Fig. 5 & 7). Potential transgressive surfaces were placed on
549 the bottom of the thick (0.3 to 1.5 m) coral-bearing limestone beds and define the here
550 suggested sequence boundaries (*cf.* Strasser *et al.*, 1999; Colombié & Strasser, 2003).

551

552 **5.3.4. Sedimentary succession**

553 The eight large-scale sequences consist of three to five medium-scale sequences represented
554 by meter-scale thickening upward trends, whose length varies between 1 and 4 meters
555 (Fig. 5). The oldest large-scale sequence – P8 starts at the base of the section (-86.6 m) up to
556 the top of the thick (0.6 m) mudstone bed at -74.3 m. The number and thickness of carbonate

557 beds in this sequence is greater than in the following sequences. In the middle part of the
558 sequence, planar lamination in the mudstone beds is observed. The P7 sequence (from -74.3
559 m to -64.9 m) is mainly represented by a large number of thin (5-10 cm) and medium (10-20
560 cm) carbonate beds intercalated with shales and marls. In the top of the sequence, some of the
561 mudstone beds contain HCS and normal gradation of the grains (Fig. 5).

562 Sequence P6 (-64.9 m to -57 m) is also mainly represented by thin and medium (5-20 cm)
563 carbonate beds intercalated with shales and marls, which in this case are prevailing. This
564 sequence starts with coral rudstone and ends with a shelly rudstone. HCS occurs in its upper
565 part.

566 Sequence P5 (-57 m to -42.3 m) starts with thin to medium (10-15 cm) beds of coral-bearing
567 limestone with a high number of coral fragments, progressively grading into thicker beds. A
568 thick coral rudstone and shelly wackestone beds, containing fewer shells follow.
569 Progressively thicker siliciclastic intervals occur at the top. The middle part of P5 is
570 characterized by an increasing amount of thin and medium (5-15 cm) mudstone and
571 wackestone beds, some containing wavy and planar lamination. This is followed by a thick
572 (1.35 m) shaly interval with planar lamination throughout. The sequence ends at the base of
573 two beds of coral-bearing limestone.

574 Sequence P4 (-42.3 m to -30.6 m) is characterized in its lower and middle part by mainly
575 siliciclastic sediments, while towards the top, the amount of carbonate beds increases.
576 Mudstone beds, occurring in the upper half of the siliciclastic interval, have constant thickness
577 of about 10 cm, and are overlain by a thick (50 cm) wackestone bed. In the topmost part of
578 sequence P4 calcareous sediments are represented by shelly packstone beds, with wavy
579 laminations.

580 Sequence P3 (-30.6 m to -21.2 m) starts with a coral-bearing wackestone with wavy
581 laminations and shells. This sequence is characterized in its lower half by shales intercalated
582 with few, thin (10 cm) mudstone beds. One exception in this interval is a thick (70 cm)
583 wackestone to mudstone bed with dispersed shells in the basal part and HCS in the middle.
584 The upper half of the sequence shows medium to thick (20-40 cm) mudstone beds with wavy
585 laminations intercalated with few medium (10-20 cm) shale beds. The sequence ends at the
586 bottom of a 30 cm thick coral-bearing and shelly rudstone.

587 Sequence P2 (-21.2 m to -12.9 m) consists mainly of siliciclastic deposits. In this sequence,
588 the sedimentological record alone does not allow a clear recognition of potential genetic and
589 medium-scale sequences because of the presence of a very long (4.8 m), uniform, shaly
590 interval. Regular changes in the color of the shales, however suggest changing conditions,
591 which can also be seen by a detailed analysis of medium-scale sequences in the isotope
592 record, CaCO₃ content and TOC (Fig. 11). Two medium-scale sequences are identified in the
593 uppermost part of the sedimentary sequence and the identification of three additional
594 medium-scale sequences have been justified in the lower part using the chemical data. Sparse
595 mudstone beds characterize the uppermost part of the sequence, which ends at the bottom of
596 the first wackestone bed with coral fragments.

597 Sequence P1 (-12.9 m to -5 m) starts with four progressively thicker (up to 40 cm)
598 wackestone beds with loosely distributed shells and coral fragments. This sequence is again
599 dominated by siliciclastic sediments in its bottom half. In this sequence the number of thin to
600 medium bedded limestone beds, and bioclasts (shells, corals) increases towards the top so that
601 a progressive change from mudstone to packstone is observed. This sequence ends with few
602 thin rudstone beds containing corals and shells under a very thick (5 m) coral-bearing

603 rudstone that corresponds to the Korallenkalk, which defines the Hochalm Mb Unit 4 of
604 Golebiowski (1991).

605 Generally, even though the relative proportion of the observed lithofacies types varies, all five
606 kinds of lithofacies can be found in each of the sequences. Shales, marls and mudstones
607 prevail in the siliciclastic sequences, but thin carbonate beds with bioclasts may also occur in
608 those intervals. In the carbonate intervals, bioclastic wackestone, packstones, rudstones and
609 mudstones prevail.

610

611 **5.4. Stable isotopes**

612 **5.4.1. Preservation of the stable isotope data**

613 The carbonate carbon isotope record shows variations ranging from -8.9‰ to +3.4‰ (Fig.
614 11). The lightest values are observed in shale and marl samples, whereas in limestones,
615 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are much heavier and less scattered (Fig. 12).

616 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values vary considerably between -12.4‰ and +0.7‰. Oxygen isotope ratios, like
617 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, show strongly reduced variability in the limestone samples, ranging from -3.8‰ to -
618 0.5‰, and fluctuating around a relatively stable average of -1.3‰.

619 Preservation assessment of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values is presented in the cross plots in
620 Figure 12. We first adopted a similar approach to that of Farouk *et al.* (2018) looking at
621 patterns of the overall distribution of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values. The distribution histogram of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$
622 data shows a strong deviation from a normal distribution with skewness on the left part of the
623 graph toward lighter values as well as multiple modes (Fig. 12a). This statistical distribution
624 suggests a large cluster of data $> -1\text{‰}$ and a long tail of altered values $< -1\text{‰}$. A cross-plot of
625 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values (Fig. 12b) also highlights a typical positive covariance between the
626 two parameters expected in mixing lines produced by the addition of variable amounts of

627 isotopically heterogeneous diagenetic cements with lighter values to the isotopically
628 homogeneous primary values of the calcite (Jenkyns, 1995; Mitchell *et al.*, 1997). Reducing
629 the total dataset to $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values $> -1\text{‰}$ reduces the correlation coefficient between the two
630 parameters although it remains significant at $p < 0.01$, which suggests that there may be a
631 diagenetic impact on some of the remaining data (Fig. 12b). A cross-plot of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ and
632 $\% \text{CaCO}_3$ values (Fig. 12c) shows a clear cluster of many values around a mean of -1.3‰ in
633 oxygen with very high carbonate content ($> 80\%$). Oxygen isotope values between 60% and
634 80% in CaCO_3 do not look profoundly different but once the threshold of 60% is passed,
635 values in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ show a much wider spread toward either much lighter or heavier values
636 (Fig. 12c). A similar threshold of 60% in CaCO_3 also allows to filter out all $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ data $< -$
637 1‰ (Fig. 12d). Finally, cross-plots of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ data versus TOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ data versus TOC
638 do not delineate any clear link between influences from a potential decay of organic matter on
639 the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$. However, the samples with a high CaCO_3 concentrations and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values
640 around -1.3‰ (grey cluster in Fig. 12c) group similarly in the plot TOC vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ (grey
641 cluster in Fig. 12e) – the data in the clusters of both figures originate from the same samples.
642 Taken all together, these results indicate a significant impact of diagenesis in the isotopic
643 dataset for marly and shaly lithologies with a threshold at 60% in CaCO_3 . Consequently,
644 culling potentially altered data has reduced the original dataset. Only isotope data derived
645 from the limestones (i.e. lithologies $> 60\%$ in CaCO_3) have been kept and will be discussed
646 subsequently. To further reduce the noise, a 5-point average and 2 standard-deviation (sd)
647 envelope were calculated (Fig. 13).
648 Most of the bulk organic carbon isotope record shows variations ranging from -29‰ to
649 -24.7‰ (Fig. 13). High-frequency variations are generally rather small, and only in few
650 instances reach up to 2.9‰ . This spread of the values could be explained by the possible

651 influence of early sedimentary diagenesis that can alter the isotopic signal for up to 1.5‰
652 (McArthur *et al.*, 1992). Moreover, carbon isotope signals are generally quite resistant to
653 diagenesis and constitute an excellent correlation tool throughout Earth history (Meyers,
654 1993; Saltzman and Thomas, 2012). Preservation of the Brachiopod shells was assessed by
655 microscopy.

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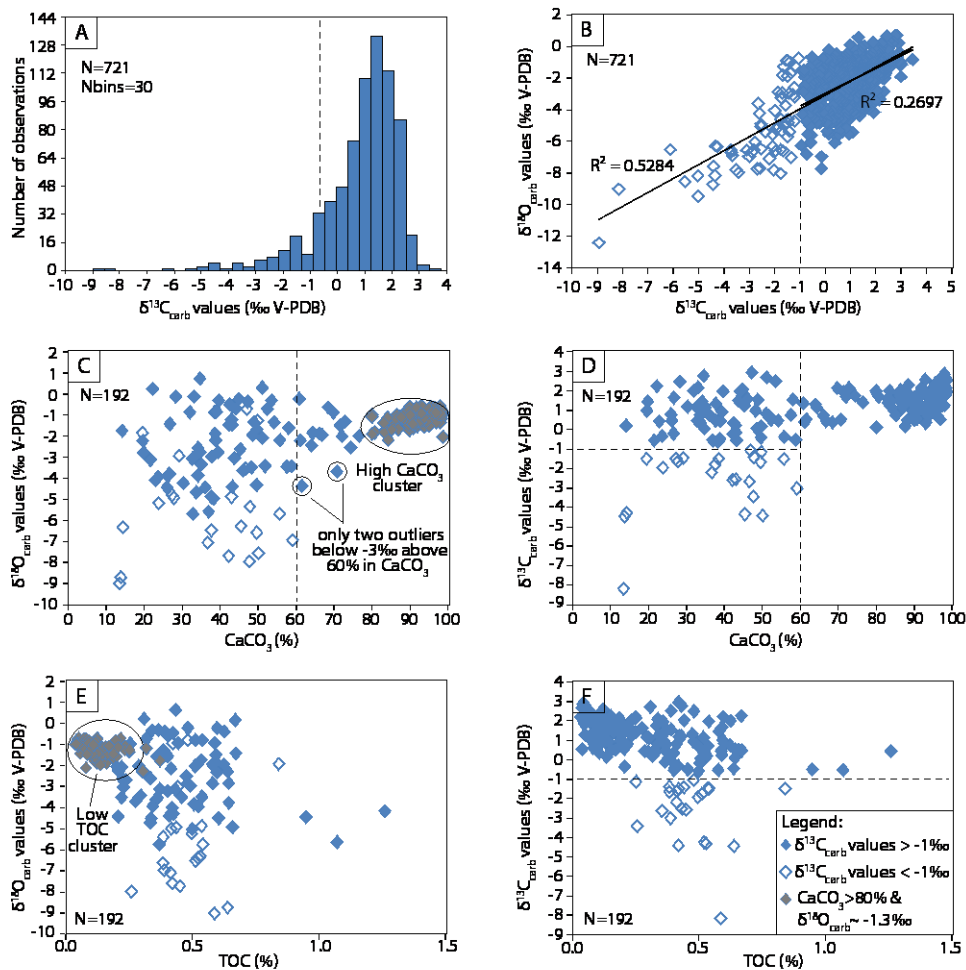
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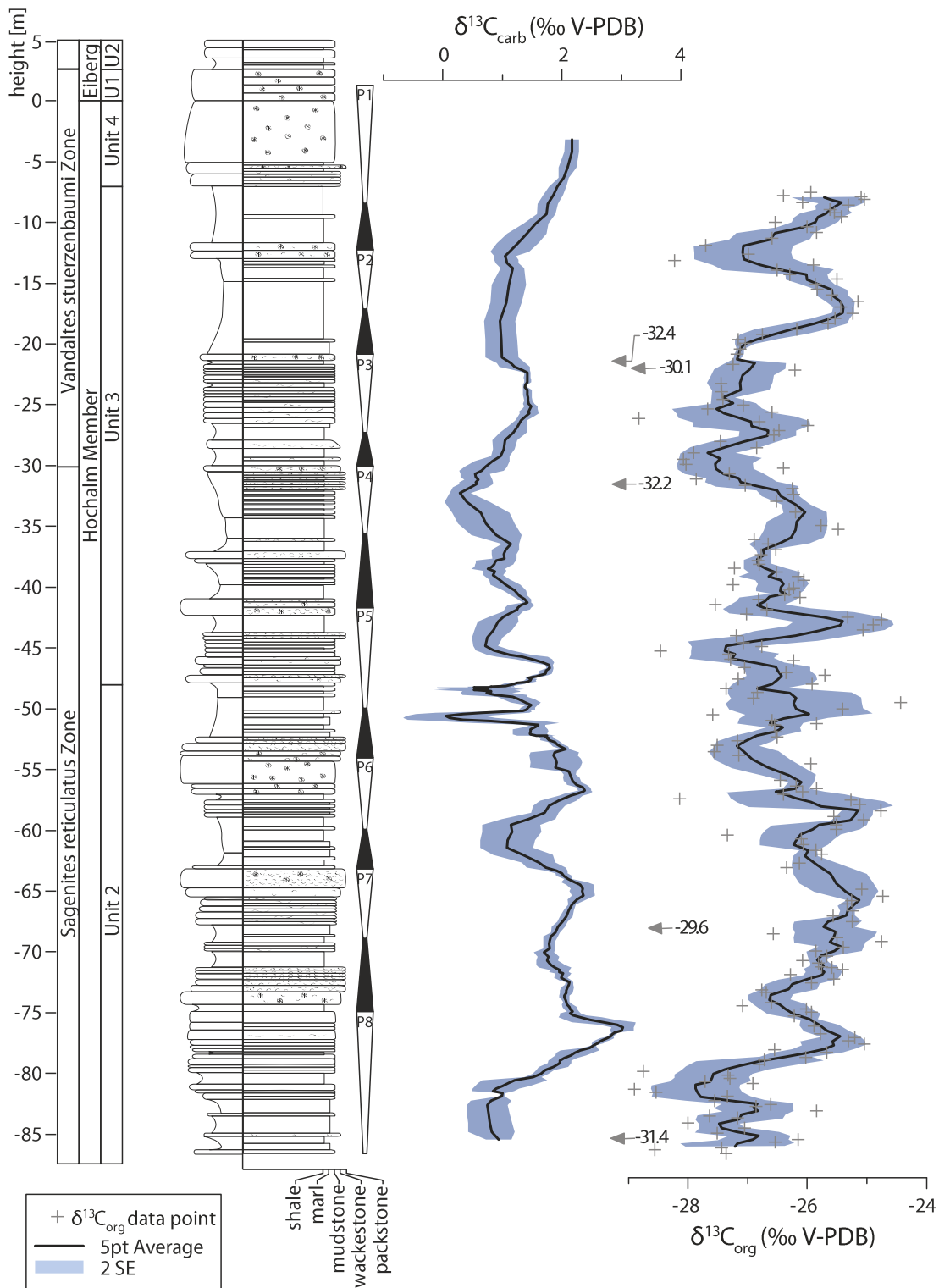
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663 **Fig. 12:** Various plots showing preservation and the potential impact of diagenesis on the
 664 stable isotope data. (a) distribution histogram of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ values; (b) cross-plot of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ and
 665 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ values; (c) cross-plot of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ and % CaCO_3 values; (d) cross-plot of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ and
 666 % CaCO_3 values; (e) cross-plot of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ data versus TOC; (f) cross-plots of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$ data
 667 versus TOC. The dashed lines mark threshold of 60% in CaCO_3 and -1‰ in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ data.

668 For more information see text.

669

670



671

672 **Fig. 13:** Synthetic log of the Hochalm section with the cleaned $\delta^{13}C_{carb}$ curve compared to
673 data obtained on $\delta^{13}C_{org}$. In plots, average values are a 5 pt running mean, while envelopes

674 represent the 2 standard error (SE) over a 5 pt moving window (5 values $< -29.5\text{‰}$ in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$
675 were considered as outliers and excluded for the calculation of the 5 pt mean).

676 **5.4.2. Bulk carbonate carbon and oxygen isotope trends**

677 Besides several smaller-scale superimposed isotopic fluctuations in the profile (of around
678 1‰), three long-lasting trends can be recognized. Between -85 m and -77 m a prominent
679 (from $\sim 1.2\text{‰}$ to $\sim 3\text{‰}$) positive shift occurs (Fig. 13). The carbon isotope values show
680 subsequently a fluctuating negative trend in the higher part of Unit 2 (starting at -77 m) and
681 during the lower and middle Unit 3 reaching values of $\sim 0\text{‰}$ at -32 m. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
682 increase subsequently from the middle part of Unit 3 and continuing into Unit 4 from 0.6‰ to
683 1.9‰ . The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from calcite veins and fossil shells closely resemble the values of the
684 bulk rocks of the same beds (Fig.11).

685 Diagenetically-screened oxygen isotope data fluctuate around a relatively stable average
686 of -1.3‰ . In some distinct intervals $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of marl and shale samples are heavier than
687 those of close-by limestone samples, especially in the lower half of the investigated
688 succession (c. -70 m, -60 m and -50 m).

689 Brachiopod data generally show compatible or slightly heavier values than those from the
690 bulk limestones of the same beds (Fig.11).

691

692 **5.4.3 Bulk organic carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$)**

693 Long-lasting $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ trends are similar to those of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$, but small-scale fluctuations are
694 superimposed on them. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ data varies between -32.4‰ to -24.7‰ . However, only six
695 stratigraphically separated values are lighter than $< -29\text{‰}$ (Fig. 13). Due to their scattered
696 nature these light values were not taken into consideration while reconstructing
697 palaeoenvironmental conditions. At the base of the section in Unit 2, the mean values show

698 minimum of -27.5‰ followed by a more than 2‰ increase and subsequently by fluctuating
699 values around -26‰ until -57 m. The values drop then, at the beginning of Unit 3 (up to -32
700 m), by more than 1‰ to about -27.7‰. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ shows a general positive trend by more
701 than 2‰ from -32 m to the top of Unit 3 reaching values of -25.7‰.

702

703 **6. Discussion**

704 **6.1. Depositional environments**

705 Sediments of the Kössen Formation show abrupt, repetitive changes from organic-rich shales
706 and marls to carbonate intervals and reflect the typical array of different environments
707 occurring in shallow intraplatform lagoons or backplatform basins. As described in detail
708 above and documented by Golebiowski (1990, 1991), Holstein (2004) and Tomašových
709 (2006a), periodic changes in lithology document a series of well-defined shallowing-upward
710 sequences or parasequences. The absence of any indication for subaerial exposure suggests
711 that (1) relatively continuous sedimentation occurred in the basin and (2) the general trend
712 observed toward a higher siliciclastic input reflects either a long-term transgression that
713 eventually led up to a much wider basin and the emergence of deeper facies in the Eiberg
714 Member (Golebiowski, 1990, 1991), or an enhanced siliciclastic input favoured by a more
715 humid climate across the lower to middle Rhaetian. According to Golebiowski's
716 interpretation, recognized depositional sequences in the Hochalm section indicate that high
717 frequency and low-amplitude sea level change may have controlled accommodation space in
718 the basin. Whether, these depositional sequences are related to orbital forcing remains yet to
719 be constrained, since the depositional setting in a shallow intraplatform basin can easily lead
720 to lateral variations in facies. Furthermore, in such a depositional setting it is likely that the
721 sedimentological record is fragmentary. Therefore, it cannot be excluded that some of the

722 small-scale and medium-scale sequences reflect coastline-parallel, lateral change from a
723 siliciclastic-dominated to carbonate-dominated environment. In Golebiowski's original
724 depositional model, sedimentation of the Hochalm Mb. took place in a shallow intraplatform
725 basin, which was delimited to the south-east by a rim with patch reefs nowadays represented
726 by the Steinplatte Kalk (which is part of the Dachsteinkalk complex). Towards the north-west
727 there was a possible gradual transition to the Keuper Facies. Despite the absence of any facies
728 transition between the Kössen Facies and the Keuper Facies (no such outcrops have been
729 found so far), it seems probable that the relatively high amount of fine-grained siliciclastics,
730 and the occurrence of shales in the Kössen Formation, was due to fluvial/aeolian input from
731 the Germanic Basin to the north-west.

732 Accordingly, Golebiowski (1990) considered that carbonate production was probably
733 concentrated at the southeastern margin of the basin, in relative shallow water. The deposition
734 of carbonate would decrease towards the northwest with increasing distance from the rim and
735 increasing water depth. In this model, the large-scale depositional sequences are controlled by
736 relative sea-level fluctuations, with carbonate production shifting along a SE-NW trend.
737 However, this model does not take into account the consistent presence of coral debris at the
738 top of each of our 8 large-scale sequences, which supports the development of small patch-
739 reefs (low-diversity of the corals and absence of sponges, microbial crusts and isopachous
740 cements advocate against the development of a proper upper Triassic reef system). Because
741 corals require light and clear waters to grow (Pandolfi, 2011) non- or low turbid environments
742 may have promoted their development.

743 Some of the beds in the studied section are characterized by grading and sorting (such as
744 tempestite beds), indicating storm activity. However, the massive carbonate beds that occur at
745 the top of the shallowing sequences show no signs of sorting. If these beds cannot be

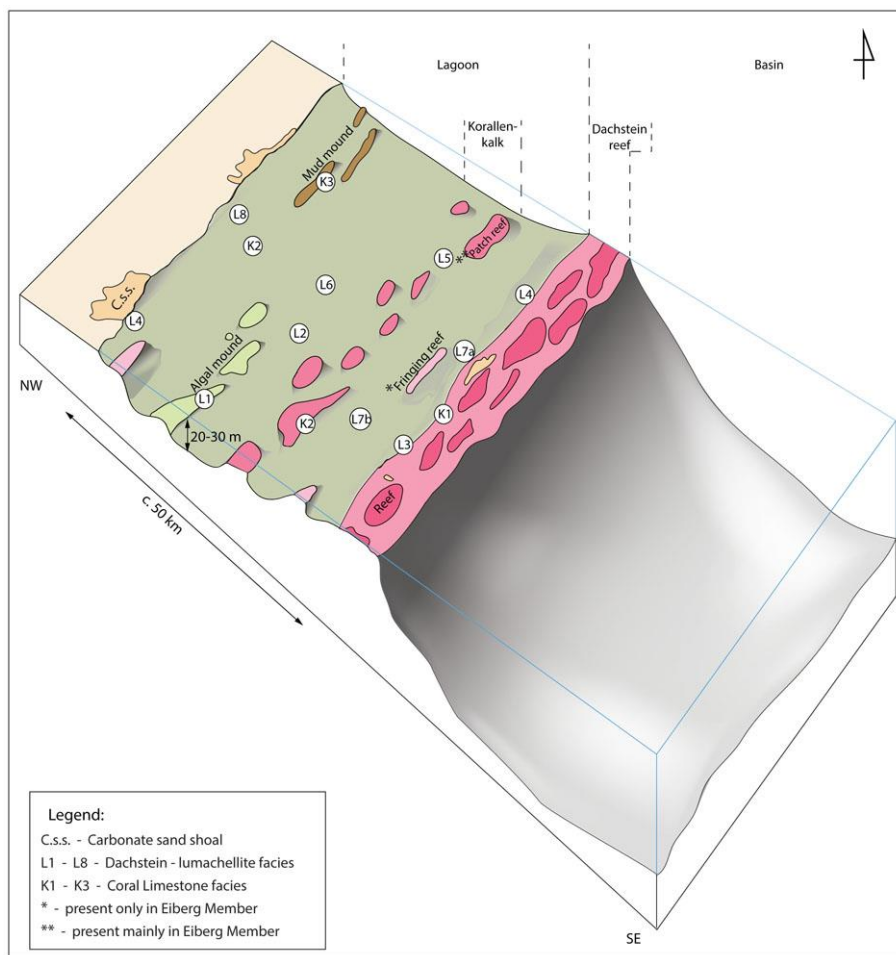
746 connected to high storm intensity, this would argue against the theory of Tomašových (2006
747 a, b) on strong changes in storm intensities mediating the changes in carbonate to siliciclastic
748 deposition. Alternatively, following Tomašových's model, carbonate debris are essentially
749 transported by storms through the basin. Hence, following this model, variations in
750 siliciclastic/carbonate deposition may have resulted from variations in the amount of
751 carbonate production on the platform, or silicate weathering or relative changes in subsidence
752 between the areas of siliciclastic and carbonate deposition.

753 Another model for the formation of large-scale sequences in the Eiberg Basin at that time
754 arises from the work of Tomašových (2006a). This author suggested that both facies and the
755 bivalves and brachiopod content point to depositional environments of the Hochalm section
756 situated always below the fair weather wave base (FWWB), with many facies situated below
757 the NSBW, which is generally below the euphotic zone where hermatypic corals are less
758 abundant. In this model, siliciclastic and carbonate-dominated intervals are independent from
759 depth trends, but strictly controlled by changes in climate, and particularly humidity, with
760 humid climates favoring the siliciclastic and nutrient inputs to the basin. In this model,
761 highstand shedding is a process that would vary in intensity (Fig. 15). Arid periods limiting
762 freshwater and siliclastic input may have favored the development of shoal and reefal
763 carbonates whose debris were exported into the Kössen Basin. Ostracods and eurytopic
764 bivalve associations of units 2 and 3 indicate adverse salinity conditions in the Hochalm
765 Member (Urlichs 1972, Golebiowski, 1989), and thus support restricted conditions with
766 significant changes in salinity.

767

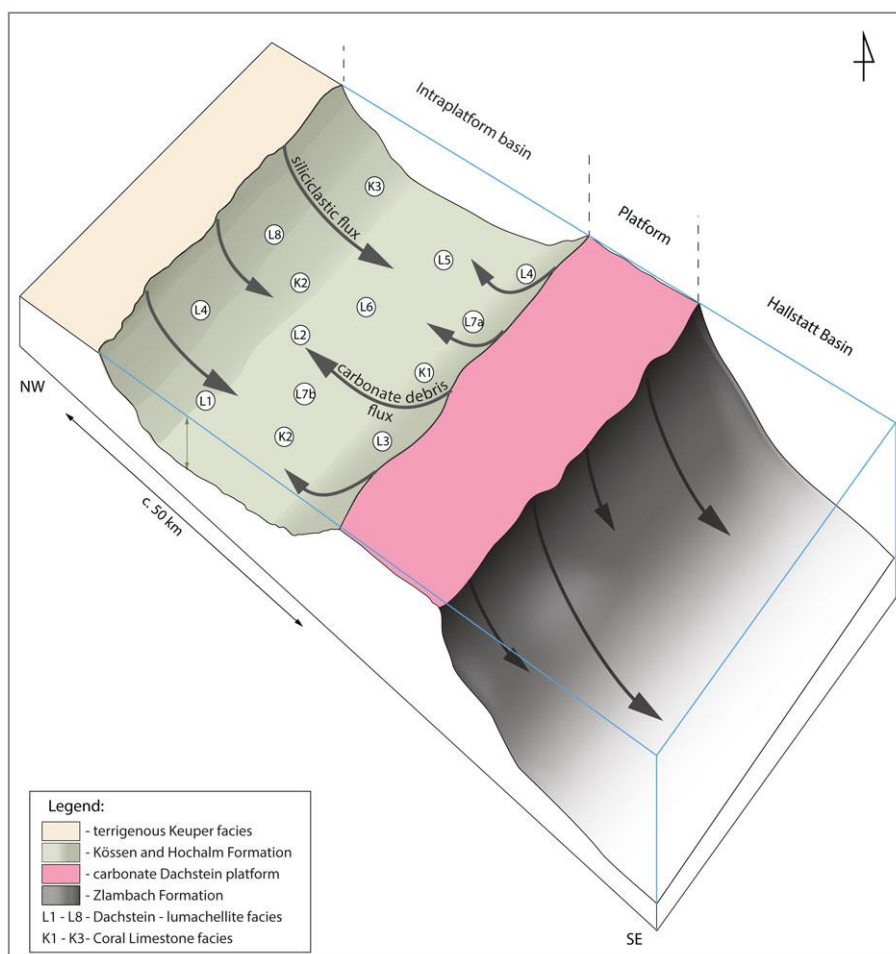
768 The bioclastic packstones (L3), recognized in thin-sections TS 13 (-44.7 m, Fig. 8g) and TS
769 12 (-50.3 m, Fig. 8e and f), reflect most probably the margin of carbonate sand bar (shoals)

770 depositional environments affected by wave action (Fig. 14). The presence of involutinid
771 foraminifers support this interpretation, as these late Triassic foraminifers mostly proliferated
772 in peri-reefal environments and have often been transported by storms towards deeper areas
773 between the fair-weather wave base and the storm weather wave base (Somma *et al.*, 2010).
774 However, transport (reworking) of benthic foraminifers by storms cannot be excluded, hence
775 this facies may simply represent a typical carbonate storm deposit situated in deeper
776 environments between the NSWB and the FWWB (Tomašových, 2006a; Fig. 15).



777
778 **Fig. 14:** 3D diagram representing a paleoenvironmental model of deposition of the Eiberg
779 Basin for the Eiberg and Hochalm Mb based on the original model of Golebiowski (1991)
780 with the supposed environmental interpretations of his various facies. Features that were
781 present only during the deposition of the Eiberg Member, but not attested in the Hochalm

782 Member are marked with a star. The various microfacies correspond to those described in
783 Appendix A: **L1** - Laminated algal bindstone; **L2** - Peloidal pack/gainstone; **L3** - Bioclastic
784 packstone; **L4** - Oolite facies; **L5** - Foraminiferal wacke/packstone; **L6** - Mudstone facies;
785 **L7a** - Proximal tempestite facies; **L7b** - Distal tempestite facies; **L8** - Oncoid-detritus facies;
786 **K1** - Coral detritus mud facies; **K2** - Biostrome facies; **K3** - Mud mount facies
787



788

789 **Fig. 15:** 3D diagram representing a model based Tomašových (2006a). This model (modified
790 from Meschede, (2015)) implies that changes from carbonate to siliciclastic deposits were
791 caused via a climatic control on storm intensity, platform erosion, and the capacity of
792 platform-derived carbonate transported to the basin interiors to dilute siliciclastic material.
793 The siliciclastic material would be delivered from the NW and the carbonate debris from the

794 Dachstein platform in the SE. In this model, Facies K1 to K3 and L1 to L8 (see Fig. 14) do
795 not necessarily represent any specific environments of the Basin and may represent variations
796 from the type of carbonate debris brought from the Dachstein platform.

797

798 Laminated mudstones (L6a) and non-laminated fossil-free fine mudstones occurring
799 throughout the succession are associated with higher values in TOC, and recognized in thin
800 section TS 10 (-55.86 m, Fig. 8c). Such facies were deposited in a strongly restricted basin
801 with anoxic deeper waters, an environment where higher concentrations of organic matter is
802 generally preserved (Fig. 14).

803 Proximal tempestite facies (L7a), represented by thin section TS 21 (-71.55 m, Fig. 8a, b and
804 10d), were deposited in subtidal environment. This is supported by the distribution of micritic
805 matrix and peloids in the sample (Table 1).

806 Distal tempestite facies (L7b) were recognized in sample TS 6 (2.1 m, Fig. 9g, h and 10b) and
807 TS 7 (-29.45 m, Fig. 8h and 10c). In sample TS 6, laminated intervals with horizontal
808 orientation of the elongated clasts are intercalating with intervals with no favored orientation.
809 These features are characteristic of a change in hydrodynamic conditions from high to low
810 and can be associated with storm deposits. Also, accumulation of the single layer of shells
811 recognized in thin section TS 7 (Fig. 10c) points towards a deposition occurring in calm water
812 areas, below the fair weather wave base (Fig. 14). The involutinid foraminifers found in the
813 infilled micritic matrix of one of the brachiopods (Fig. 8h) could have been transported during
814 higher energy events, e.g., storm currents moving from shallower towards deeper water.

815 Coral detritus mud facies (K1) occurs at the top of Unit 4 of the Hochalm Mb (TS2, TS 3 and
816 TS 4 at 4.75 m, 3.75 m, -0.65 m respectively; Fig. 9b, c and d respectively). Low diversity of
817 the bioclasts, and poor sorting of the material could point towards deposition in a shallow

818 environment, in the vicinity of the reef or to a lagoonal setting with some solitary corals (Fig.
819 14). It cannot be excluded that this facies also represents the expression of a particularly arid
820 period that limited nutrient export and turbidity of waters, and which favored the development
821 of reefal corals subjected to winnowing and transport to the basin.

822 The biostrome facies (K2) identified in thin sections TS 1a (-5.6 m, Fig. 9a and 10a) and
823 TS 11 (-52.65 m, Fig. 8d) depict slightly reworked coral fragments embedded in a fine matrix.
824 This facies was accumulated below the fair-weather wave base in the vicinity of patch reefs
825 (Fig. 14).

826 The echinoderm detritus facies (D1) is represented by samples TS5 (15 cm, Fig. 9e) and TS5b
827 (-1m, Fig. 9f). Deposition of this poorly sorted wacke-/packstone with majority of the debris
828 consisting of echinoderms fragments occurred in a deeper basinal environment and attest of a
829 profound modification in the Eiberg Basin which was interpreted by Golebiowski (1989) as a
830 major middle Rhaetian transgression (Fig. 6).

831

832 **6.2. Evolution of facies and environments through time**

833 Our study illustrates the overall evolution of facies previously described by Golebiowski
834 (1991) in the Northern Calcareous Alps where facies met in Unit 2 primarily represent the
835 “Lumachellen realm”, facies of Unit 3 correspond mostly to the detrital lagoon of the
836 Korallenkalk realm and facies of Unit 4 correspond to a large, regionally well-developed
837 Korallenkalk patch- to fringing-reef (Golebiowski, 1991). Facies characteristic of the detritus
838 mud carbonate realm were only observed in the topmost part of the section, in concordance
839 with Golebiowski’s interpretation of a much wider and deeper basin for the Eiberg Mb
840 (Fig. 6). This earlier interpretation may suggest a progressive evolution of facies from very
841 shallow environments of carbonate shoals characteristic of the “Lumachellen realm” to facies

842 of the detritic lagoon already at the top of Unit 2 (Fig. 5). Evolution from a mostly shallow
843 lagoon to a deeper and wider rimmed intraplatform basin may have been favored by
844 transgression. The deepening of this lagoon was immediately followed by the development of
845 the large Korallenkalk fringing reef (Fig. 5). In accordance with Golebiowski's (1991)
846 interpretation, the following deepening-upward trend that characterizes Unit 1 and Unit 2 of
847 the Eiberg Mb allowed for a return to the development of deeper carbonate facies as recorded
848 herein. However, as described above, many of these facies point to storm deposition involving
849 transport and export of carbonate mud. Following Tomašových's (2006a) interpretation,
850 facies variations as well as long-term trends may simply reflect changes in nutrient, turbidity
851 and siliciclastic influx controlled by variations in humidity (Fig. 15). In this model,
852 siliciclastic-dominated intervals represent more humid periods when the weathering of
853 continental hinterlands supported a high detrital flux and enhanced nutrient delivery. The
854 carbonate-dominated intervals represent more arid periods that favored the development of
855 oligotrophic reefal systems and carbonate shoals subjected to erosion and winnowing that
856 favored the process of highstand shedding. This latter interpretation opens interesting
857 perspectives regarding the nature of our eight parasequences. If the observed sequences were
858 essentially controlled by changes in humidity, then they likely represent the expression of a
859 changing insolation, and hence of a likely orbital control on sedimentation. The thickness-
860 ratio between the large-scale and medium-scale sequences varies between 1:4 and 1:6. Even
861 though this variable range of ratios may be suggestive of the expected range of ratios of short-
862 eccentricity to precession, we cannot exclude bundling of short-eccentricity into long-
863 eccentricity cycles. Moreover, we remain cautious here with an orbital interpretation of our
864 parasequences as environments with preponderant transport and redeposition, wave-

865 dominated and gravity-settling deposits can be poorly suited for a non-ambiguous recognition
866 of orbital cycles.

867

868 **6.3. Carbon isotope stratigraphy**

869 Paleoenvironments such as those characterised in the Hochalm succession imply multiple
870 sources of carbonates, i.e. a mix of micritic mud and abundant debris of various microfossil
871 shells, some of which were deposited in shallow environments whereas others were deposited
872 offshore. These different constituents potentially bear distinct carbon isotope signatures due to
873 their distinct origins across a variety of proximal to distal settings. However, it has been
874 shown that even for shallow platform carbonate environments it is possible to record well-
875 preserved, global carbon-isotope trends. Previous studies of Embry *et al.* (2010) and Huck *et*
876 *al.* (2011, 2013) have demonstrated that the carbon-isotope signature of bulk and micritic
877 shoal carbonates can reflect global long-term trends, which can be correlated to deeper parts
878 of carbonate basins. The new high-resolution carbonate carbon isotope record may thus prove
879 useful for correlation of the Rhaetian stage. However, the five short-term negative excursions
880 (minima at -60 m, -50 m, -40 m, -30 m, -18 m; Fig. 13) in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ record of the Hochalm
881 section may represent diagenetic features. These negative excursions are associated with the
882 siliciclastic intervals, with low to very low CaCO_3 content, and therefore may be related to
883 deeper water deposits. Since sea level changes were limited in the area (Satterley, 1996;
884 Tanner, 2010) input of the lighter ^{13}C from the open ocean waters is unlikely. This
885 interpretation is supported by the organic carbon isotope record that does not show any of
886 these short-term negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$ fluctuations (Fig. 13), whereas they should be expressed in
887 the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ if they were to represent global carbon-cycle change. Furthermore, a diagenetic
888 signature is particularly prevalent in samples with low carbonate content, therefore in

889 siliciclastic intervals, as inferred from isotopic covariation and strongly depleted isotopic
890 values. All these observations indicate that the short-term negative carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursions
891 do not reflect primary signals, but rather represent a diagenetic signature in the mostly
892 siliciclastic intervals; these lighter data, however, could have been missed by our standard
893 diagenetic screening (see section 5.4.1; see also Veizer, 1983; Marshall 1992; Ullmann &
894 Korte 2015; and discussion in Veizer *et al.*, 1999). In contrast, a positive trend in bulk
895 carbonate carbon isotopes of about +3‰ at the base of the section (from minimum at c. -85 m
896 to maximum at -77 m) is defined mostly by limestone values. These diagenetically screened
897 limestone data, generally correspond to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data from brachiopods which have passed the
898 diagenetic screening, do not show high frequency oscillations or strongly negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{carb}}$
899 (and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{carb}}$) values and are therefore likely to reflect the primary palaeoenvironmental
900 information. Additionally, this pronounced positive carbon isotope trend is also expressed in
901 bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (Fig. 13) and therefore most likely represent a significant primary trend. This
902 isotopic event potentially constitutes an important stratigraphic marker that may be compared
903 with the low-resolution carbon isotope dataset from Rhaetian brachiopods and bulk
904 carbonates of the NCA with values ranging between 2‰ and 3‰ (Korte *et al.*, 2005; Krystyn
905 *et al.*, 2007). The results of the latter indicate that the significant positive trend from the new
906 dataset (Fig. 13) might represent a new chemostratigraphic marker that was not identified
907 clearly in previous low-resolution datasets (Korte *et al.*, 2005) and could represent another
908 carbon cycle perturbation of the Rhaetian preceding the ETME (see Ruhl & Kürschner, 2011;
909 Mette *et al.*, 2012). It remains unclear whether this marked increase in carbon isotopes is a
910 feature that is essentially prescribed to the lower Rhaetian or whether it could represent the
911 recovery part of a Norian/Rhaetian negative excursion previously identified by several authors
912 (Preto *et al.*, 2013; Muttoni *et al.*, 2014; Maron *et al.*, 2015; Zaffani *et al.*, 2017). The longer

913 lasting slight decrease of the carbonate carbon isotopes from the upper part of Unit 2 to the
914 middle of Unit 3, as well as the > 1‰ increase in the upper part of Unit 3 and within Unit 4 is
915 paralleled by trends in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$. This suggests that these fluctuations are also primary in nature
916 (Fig. 13) and can be used in refining the stratigraphy of the Rhaetian stage. The integration of
917 data from bulk organic matter, bulk carbonates, brachiopods, and the diagenetic screening
918 applied here make our new dataset one of the most robust Rhaetian carbon isotope record thus
919 far.

920

921 **7. Conclusions**

922

923 In this study, we investigated the evolution of sedimentary facies and the carbon isotope
924 stratigraphy of the lower to middle Rhaetian Hochalm section, which constitutes a key
925 succession for the Late Triassic of the Northern Calcareous Alps. Our study led us to identify
926 eight 10 to 15 m thick apparent shallowing-deepening sequences, or ‘parasequences’ that we
927 associate either with relative sea-level change, either with changes in the hydrological cycle.
928 Each of these sequences is characterised by siliciclastic intervals, generally slightly enriched
929 in organic matter and exhibiting microfacies that are characteristic of high energy deposits
930 and/or detrital intraplatform basin deposits whereas lime intervals show systematic
931 enrichments in coral debris and other bioclasts associated to patch reefs. Our sedimentological
932 study illustrates previous interpretations of an overall evolution from (1) a highly energetic
933 shallow lagoon in the lower Rhaetian (Hochalm Mb Unit 2), so-called ‘Lumachellen realm’ to
934 (2) a slightly deeper detritic lagoon with development of patch and fringing reefs, so-called
935 ‘Korallenkalk realm’ in the lower to middle Rhaetian transition (Hochalm Mb Unit 3),
936 followed by (3) the establishment of a large regional fringing reef in the late middle Rhaetian

937 (Hochalm Mb Unit 4). This latter reef or ‘Korallenkalk’ was established immediately after a
938 profound change in the shape of the Eiberg Basin toward a wider and deeper basin, which was
939 possibly caused by a major transgression. However, more recent interpretations based on
940 brachiopod and bivalve assemblages support an origin of parasequences from changes in
941 humidity, causing variations in the siliciclastic and nutrient fluxes and associated water
942 turbidity, as well as varying intensities of highstand shedding. If climate change was the
943 primary control on storm-intensity and variations in siliciclastics and carbonate mud, then it is
944 likely that the eight identified parasequences represent an orbital control on insolation. The
945 variety of encountered facies allowed us to draw a paleoenvironmental model of deposition
946 for the Hochalm Mb. Despite the variety of facies encountered, carbon isotope stratigraphy
947 established on bulk carbonate, brachiopod calcite and bulk organics allowed us to delineate
948 common trends. Our signals show a transient ~3‰ rise in carbon isotopes in the Lower
949 Rhaetian (Hochalm Mb Unit 2), followed by a long-term 1.5‰ to 2‰ decrease up to the
950 lower part of the middle Rhaetian, further followed by a subtle ~1‰ to 1.5‰ increase at the
951 top of the Hochalm Mb. It remains unclear whether the transient positive excursion in carbon
952 isotopes identified at the base of the section represents a trend restrained to the Rhaetian or
953 the recovery of a negative Norian/Rhaetian excursion. Nevertheless, the integration of data
954 from bulk organic matter, bulk carbonates, brachiopods, and diagenetic screening applied here
955 make our new dataset one of the most robust Rhaetian carbon isotope record thus far. Such
956 trends may help refining the stratigraphy of the Rhaetian stage.

957

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965

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1279 **Supplementary material**

1280 Appendix A: Original description of microfacies of the Eiberg Basin by Golebiowski (1989)

1281 Table S1: Bulk carbonate carbon and oxygen isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)

1282 Table S2: Bulk organic carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$)

1283 Table S3: Total organic carbon values (TOC) and carbonate content (% CaCO_3)

1284 Table S4: Brachiopod carbon and oxygen isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)

1285 Table S5: Carbon and oxygen isotopes of calcite veins ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)

1286