

1 Unravelling Middle to Late Jurassic palaeoceanographic and  
2 palaeoclimatic signals in the Hebrides Basin using belemnite  
3 clumped isotope thermometry

4 **Madeleine L. Vickers<sup>1\*</sup>, Alvaro Fernandez<sup>2</sup>, Stephen P. Hesselbo<sup>3</sup>, Gregory D. Price<sup>4</sup>, Stefano**  
5 **M. Bernasconi<sup>5</sup>, Stefanie Lode<sup>6</sup>, Clemens V. Ullmann<sup>3</sup>, Nicolas Thibault<sup>1</sup>, Iben Winther**  
6 **Hougaard<sup>1</sup>; Christoph Korte<sup>1</sup>**

7 <sup>1</sup>*University of Copenhagen, Faculty of Science, Geology Section, Øster Voldgade 10, DK-1350 Copenhagen K, Denmark*

8 <sup>2</sup>*Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research and Department of Earth Science, University of Bergen, Allégaten 41, N-5007*  
9 *Bergen, Norway*

10 <sup>3</sup>*Camborne School of Mines, University of Exeter, Penryn Campus, Penryn, Cornwall TR10 9FE, U.K.*

11 <sup>4</sup>*School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences, Plymouth University, Drake Circus, Plymouth, PL4 8AA, U.K.*

12 <sup>5</sup>*ETH Zürich, Geologisches Institut, Sonneggstrasse 5, 8092 Zürich, Switzerland*

13 <sup>6</sup>*Geological Survey of Denmark and Greenland, Department of Petrology and Economic Geology, Øster Voldgade 10,*  
14 *DK-1350 Copenhagen K, Denmark*

15 \*corresponding author: [mlv@ign.ku.dk](mailto:mlv@ign.ku.dk)

16 **Keywords:** Jurassic palaeoclimate; belemnites; palaeoceanography; clumped isotopes

17  
18 **Abstract**

19 Clumped isotope based temperature estimates from exceptionally well-preserved belemnites from  
20 Staffin Bay (Isle of Skye, Scotland) reveal that seawater temperatures throughout the Middle-Late  
21 Jurassic were significantly warmer than previously reconstructed by conventional oxygen isotope  
22 thermometry. We demonstrate here that this underestimation by oxygen isotope thermometry was  
23 likely due to a) using the incorrect calcite thermometry equation for belemnite temperature  
24 reconstructions and b) by incorrectly estimating the seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$ ) for the Hebrides basin.

25 Our data suggests that the fractionation factor for oxygen isotopes in belemnites from seawater was  
26 closer to that of slow-growing abiogenic calcites than that of other marine calcifying organisms.  
27 Our clumped isotope temperatures are used to reconstruct  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  trends across the Callovian–  
28 Kimmeridgian in the Hebrides Basin. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  varied significantly in the Hebrides Basin  
29 throughout this interval, possibly as a result of changing currents through the Laurasian seaway.  
30 Trends in temperature and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  are compared to published palaeoceanographic studies to shed  
31 light on changing palaeoceanography in the Tethyan and Boreal realms throughout the Middle–Late  
32 Jurassic.

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34 **Keywords:** Jurassic palaeoclimate; belemnites; palaeoceanography; clumped isotopes

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36 Understanding global and local climate during the Jurassic greenhouse (201.3–145.0 Ma) is of great  
37 interest and importance, as this period, during which carbon dioxide levels are thought to have been  
38 more than five times higher than pre-industrial levels (Berner and Kothavala, 2001), may represent  
39 an alternative stable state of Earth’s climate at conditions similar to projected future atmospheric  
40  $\text{CO}_2$  levels. In order to predict future global and local climatic regimes under such high atmospheric  
41  $\text{CO}_2$  levels, it is necessary to understand how the Earth has responded previously to such conditions.  
42 Difficulties arise in reconstructing Jurassic climate and carbon cycle changes, as many conventional  
43 climate proxies (e.g. biomarker-based temperature reconstructions) do not extend back so deep in  
44 time (e.g. Brassel, 1986; deBar et al., 2019). Oxygen isotope thermometry of biogenic calcite is one  
45 of the commonly used proxies for examining such deep time palaeoclimate, although there are a  
46 number of limitations and caveats to this method. It is important that the calcite chosen for the study  
47 is (1) well preserved, (2) secreted in equilibrium with the surrounding seawater. Belemnite rostra  
48 (the calcitic hardpart of this extinct cephalopod group) have been commonly used in numerous

49 Jurassic and Cretaceous climate studies to reconstruct marine temperatures via oxygen isotope  
50 thermometry ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{belemnite}}$ , e.g. Podlaha et al., 1998; Wierzbowski, 2004; Bailey et al., 2003; Nunn  
51 et al., 2009; Korte et al., 2015; Price et al., 2015), as they are abundant throughout this period, and  
52 widespread over a broad range of latitudes. However, there are several confounding factors that can  
53 lead to difficulty in interpreting trends in the Jurassic belemnite record. Firstly, belemnites may  
54 exhibit a fractionation different to that of the (most commonly used) oxygen isotope temperature  
55 equations which were empirically derived for modern biotic (e.g. Epstein et al., 1953; Shackleton,  
56 1974; Killingley and Newman, 1982; Brand et al., 2013) or abiotic (e.g. Kim and O'Neil, 1997;  
57 Coplen, 2007; Kele et al., 2015; Daëron et al., 2019) calcite. As belemnites are extinct, it is not  
58 possible to measure their specific fractionation factor, and there is debate as to whether belemnite  
59 calcite was grown in equilibrium with seawater (e.g., Voigt et al., 2003; Price et al., 2015; Stevens  
60 et al., 2017). Secondly, oxygen isotope temperature reconstructions require knowledge of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
61 value of the seawater from which the calcite precipitated ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$ ). Mesozoic temperature studies  
62 commonly assume a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} = -1 \text{ ‰}$ , the global average for an ice-free world (Shackleton and  
63 Kennett, 1975). However, this assumption is a gross estimate that bears large uncertainties since the  
64  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  of the modern oceans is measurably variable by up to 10 ‰, depending on depth, and local  
65 evaporation and runoff balances (e.g. LeGrande and Schmidt, 2006), and ancient oceans are likely  
66 to have exhibited the same heterogeneity (e.g. Zhou et al., 2008). Moreover, there is limited  
67 knowledge of belemnite life habits, i.e. what depth they inhabited, and whether or not they were  
68 migratory. Much of what is thought to be known about belemnite habitat depth and migration  
69 patterns comes from studying the sedimentological evidence (i.e. which facies associations they are  
70 found in), examination of their nearest living relatives, and belemnite rostrum morphology and  
71 geochemistry, but this evidence has led to contradictory conclusions, and may reflect differences  
72 between belemnite species or genera. In general, it is now considered that belemnites inhabited the

73 well-oxygenated, top 200 m of the water column, in shallow marine, hemipelagic shelf  
74 environments, in order to support their active swimming, predatory lifestyle (Hoffmann and  
75 Stevens, 2019 and references therein). Within these limits, different belemnite genera are thought to  
76 have inhabited different niches, i.e. different water temperatures and depths (Hoffmann and  
77 Stevens, 2019).

78

79 Clumped isotope thermometry offers a solution to the problem of reconstructing marine  
80 temperatures from belemnites by reconstructing calcite precipitation temperatures independently of  
81 the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$ . This proxy measures the temperature-dependent enrichment of  $^{18}\text{O}$ - $^{13}\text{C}$  bonds over a  
82 stochastic distribution in the carbonate molecule. At thermodynamic equilibrium, the clumped  
83 isotope composition ( $\Delta_{47}$ ) of the measured carbonate should be solely a function of the carbonate  
84 precipitation temperature (e.g., Eiler, 2007). Temperatures derived from this method can then be  
85 used in combination with conventional oxygen isotope measurements to reconstruct the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  from  
86 which the calcite precipitated (e.g., Came et al., 2007; Price and Passey, 2013; Wierzbowski et al.,  
87 2018; Vickers et al., 2019).

88

89 In this study, we apply clumped isotope thermometry to exceptionally well-preserved belemnite  
90 rostra from the Middle- to Late Jurassic succession of Staffin Bay, Trotternish Peninsula, Isle of  
91 Skye, Scotland in order to improve understanding of belemnite life habits and reconstruct changes  
92 in temperatures and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  throughout this interval. We analyse two belemnite genera, *Pachyteuthis*  
93 and *Cylindroteuthis*, to see if there are any significant difference between them arising from  
94 different general life habits or vital effects. It has been suggested that *Pachyteuthis*, with its short,  
95 thick rostrum, may represent a more nektonic lifestyle (Mutterlose et al., 2010). *Cylindroteuthis*

96 may have lived in an offshore habitat, possibly living in deeper hemipelagic environments (95 – 189  
97 m; Matrill et al., 1994; Hewitt, 2000).

98

### 99 *1.1 Geological Setting*

100 During the Jurassic, the Isle of Skye was part of the Hebrides Basin (palaeolatitude *c.* 40 °N, Fig.  
101 1), a half-graben that formed, along with a number of basins on the Atlantic margin, during the  
102 early extensional phases of the evolution of the Central and North Atlantic Oceans (Morton and  
103 Hudson, 1995; Hesselbo and Coe, 2000). The Hebrides Basin was, in turn, part of the “Laurasian  
104 Seaway”, which connected the mid-low latitude Tethys Ocean to the northern high latitude Boreal  
105 Ocean (Hesselbo and Coe, 2000; Bjerrum et al., 2001). During the Jurassic, lithofacies and  
106 palaeobiogeographic studies suggest there were times when southward-flowing currents (e.g. Boreal  
107 down to the Tethys) dominated the seaway, and others when northward currents dominated  
108 (summarised in Bjerrum et al., 2001). Broadly, the Jurassic succession on Skye consists of shallow  
109 marine siliciclastics and carbonates (Lower Jurassic; Hesselbo et al., 1998) shallowing to lagoonal,  
110 deltaic and fluvial in the mid-Middle Jurassic (upper Bajocian; Cox et al., 2002). The Callovian saw  
111 a return to marine facies, and the Upper Jurassic sediments (Oxfordian to lowest Kimmeridgian) are  
112 dominated by marine mudrocks (Staffin region, Trotternish) or marine siltstone and sandstones (on  
113 the Strathaird peninsula; Morton and Hudson, 1995).

114

115 On Skye, the emplacement of the Paleocene igneous complex has variably thermally affected all  
116 Jurassic sediments older than the Callovian (Thrasher, 1992; Bishop and Abbott, 1995). Callovian  
117 to early Kimmeridgian strata with well-preserved fossils occur in outcrop near Staffin Bay,  
118 Trotternish, in the northernmost part of the island (Fig. 2). The section at Staffin Bay is renowned  
119 for being the most stratigraphically complete Oxfordian section in the UK (Morton and Hudson,

120 1995; Hesselbo and Coe, 2000), despite the exposure being in fossil coastal landslides (tilted fault  
121 blocks). Previous studies have however achieved the reconstruction of a complete composite  
122 section (Morton and Hudson, 1995; Hesselbo and Coe, 2000). This area is also the type locality for  
123 several of the Boreal middle and upper Oxfordian Zones and Subzones (Sykes & Callomon 1979),  
124 which has led to the section being proposed as the Global Stratotype Section and Point (GSSP) for  
125 the Oxfordian–Kimmeridgian boundary (Barski et al., 2018).

126

127 The regional Cenozoic igneous activity has not affected the shales in this locality (Thrasher, 1992),  
128 except very locally where minor igneous intrusions are present (Bishop and Abbot, 1995).

129 Furthermore, the maximum burial depth experienced by the host shales never exceeded 1 km  
130 (Morton and Hudson, 1995); Rock Eval data shows the organic matter to be immature (av.

131  $T_{\max}=424$  °C; Nunn, 2009), and biomarker analysis shows exceptional preservation and very low  
132 thermal degradation of the organic matter (Lefort et al., 2012). Given (1) that the burial depth did

133 not exceed 1 km, (2) that the igneous activity in the south of the island did not affect Trotternish  
134 (Thrasher, 1992), and (3) that the organic matter is not thermally altered (Lefort et al., 2012), we

135 estimate that burial temperatures did not exceed 50 °C in these sediments. It is therefore unlikely  
136 that diagenetic alteration or solid-state reordering has affected the numerous belemnites found in

137 this succession, as the calcite must be held at temperatures exceeding 80-120 °C for million year  
138 timescales for this to occur ( Henkes et al., 2014; Stolper and Eiler 2015). This succession is thus an

139 ideal candidate for a reconstruction of Middle to Late Jurassic temperatures (e.g. Wierzbowski

140 2004; Nunn et al., 2009). In addition to the pristine preservation of the biogenic calcite and organic  
141 matter, there is an excellent biostratigraphic scheme (Sykes & Callomon, 1979; Riding and Thomas,

142 1997; Hesselbo and Coe, 2000; Barski, 2018 and references therein), supported by Re-Os

143 radioisotope ages (Selby, 2007) and magnetostratigraphy (Przybylski et al., 2010).

144

145 The stratigraphy of the Callovian to Kimmeridgian strata at Staffin Bay, Trotternish, consists of the  
146 lower Callovian Staffin Bay Formation, the oyster-rich shales of the Upper Ostrea Member,  
147 overlain by the conspicuous Belemnite Sands Member, a well-cemented and belemnite-rich  
148 siltstone and sandstone bed at the top of the formation (Morton and Hudson, 1995; Hesselbo and  
149 Coe, 2000). This formation is overlain by the middle Callovian to lower Kimmeridgian Staffin  
150 Shale Formation, which is subdivided into five members. At the base of the formation lies the mid  
151 Callovian-aged Dunans Shale Member, which consists of laminated bituminous shales with thin  
152 layers of glauconitic silt. It was deposited under largely anoxic conditions, except in the bioturbated  
153 glauconitic silts. This is overlain by the well-oxygenated Dunans Clay Member (upper Callovian to  
154 Lower Oxfordian), which is composed of bioturbated non-laminated grey-green clays with  
155 carbonate nodules (Morton and Hudson, 1995). The formation shallows upward into the uppermost  
156 lower to middle Oxfordian Glashvin Silt Member. These dark grey, carbonaceous silts, with  
157 occasional beds of green clay, were oxygenated, and this member was still largely deposited below  
158 the storm wave base except for occasional large storm events that deposited rare thin sandy layers  
159 (Morton and Hudson, 1995). The shallowing trend continues into the paler-coloured and coarser  
160 Digg Siltstone Member (middle Oxfordian), where deposition is interpreted to have been occurring  
161 close to the fair weather wave base (Morton and Hudson, 1995). There is a facies change at the  
162 boundary between pale, fine-grained sandstones with subordinate dark-grey silts of the Digg  
163 Siltstone Member and the overlying basal, middle/upper Oxfordian dark glauconitic siltstones of the  
164 fossiliferous Flodigarry Shale Member. The Flodigarry Shale Member then grades into dark grey,  
165 slightly bituminous shaly clays, where the youngest beds are dated biostratigraphically as latest  
166 early Kimmeridgian in age (*cymodoce* zone; Hesselbo and Coe, 2000).

167

168 **2. Material and methods**

169 *2.1 Belemnite selection and preservation*

170 Exceptionally well-preserved belemnite rostrum samples, based on published minor element (Fe  
171 concentrations  $< 20 \mu\text{g/g}$ , Mn  $< 12 \mu\text{g/g}$ ) and cathodoluminescence (CL) data (Nunn et al., 2009),  
172 were selected for clumped isotope thermometry. These data informed us which samples of rostra  
173 calcite were best-preserved overall (e.g. Ullmann et al., 2015), but in order to get an idea of micro-  
174 scale variations within a good specimen, and select the best regions for sampling, further analyses  
175 were undertaken on a representative subset of those well-preserved samples selected for clumped  
176 isotope analyses (Nunn et al., 2009). These samples include one belemnite from each genus  
177 (*Cylindroteuthis* and *Pachyteuthis*), and span the oldest, middle and youngest intervals analysed  
178 (upper Callovian, mid Oxfordian and lower Kimmeridgian). Micro x-ray fluorescence ( $\mu\text{-XRF}$ ),  
179 scanning electron microscopy energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (SEM-EDS), and Electron  
180 Backscatter Diffraction (EBSD) mapping of polished belemnite thick sections allowed us to identify  
181 the best-preserved regions within the rostra, and assess whether the original biomineralisation  
182 crystal patterns are preserved. These methods allow us to assess the preservational state of the  
183 selected rostra (taken as representative for all the belemnite rostra analysed for clumped isotopes in  
184 this study) from large scale down to very small scale. The  $\mu\text{-XRF}$  analysis were performed at the  
185 Natural History Museum of Denmark using an M4-Tornado benchtop  $\mu\text{-XRF}$ . The SEM-EDS and -  
186 EBSD analyses were performed at the SEM laboratory at the Geological Survey of Denmark and  
187 Greenland (GEUS), which hosts a ZEISS Sigma 300VP Field Emission Scanning Electron  
188 Microscope (FE-SEM) that is equipped with 2 Bruker Xflash 6|30 129 eV EDS detectors and a  
189 Bruker e-Flash FS EBSD detector. The belemnites were mounted in epoxy resin blocks (40 mm  
190 diameter) and, for the sample chosen for EBSD, polished with a final step of 30 minutes polishing  
191 with colloidal silica to obtain a scratch-free surface. Only one sample was chosen for EBSD,



192 SK3\_5.55. This is considered representative of all samples analysed due to the close likeness  
193 observed between it and the other polished specimens under micro-XRF, SEM, and published CL  
194 and minor element data (Nunn et al., 2007). Before EBSD analysis, the detector was calibrated  
195 based on matching Kikuchi EBSD patterns to ensure results of a high certainty (i.e., certainty  
196 >95%).

197

## 198 *2.2 Clumped Isotope thermometry*

199 Powdered samples were collected using a dremel drill, away from the apical area and outer edge of  
200 the rostrum (except instances where we specifically wished to measure an altered part of the rostrum  
201 for comparative purposes), with samples spanning many growth lines. The tip of the rostrum was  
202 avoided. Clumped isotope measurements were carried out at the ETH Zurich using a ThermoFisher  
203 Scientific MAT253 mass spectrometer coupled to a Kiel IV carbonate preparation device, following  
204 the methods described in Müller et al. (2017). The Kiel IV device included a PoraPakQ trap kept at -  
205 40 °C to eliminate potential organic contaminants. Samples were measured between November 2018  
206 and July 2019 by measuring maximum 2 replicates of each sample per measuring session which  
207 consists generally of 24 samples of 130-150 µg interspersed with 20 replicates of each of the three  
208 carbonate standards ETH-1, ETH-2 and ETH-3 (Bernasconi et al., 2018). The samples were analysed  
209 in LIDI mode with 400 seconds of integration of sample and reference gas. The calculations and  
210 corrections were done with the software Easotope (John & Bowen, 2016) using the revised “Brand  
211 parameters” for <sup>17</sup>O correction as suggested by Daëron et al. (2016). The data are reported with respect  
212 to the carbon dioxide equilibration scale CDES. Temperatures were calculated using the Kele et al.  
213 (2015) calibration recalculated with the "Brand parameters" and the new accepted values for the ETH  
214 standards as reported in Bernasconi et al. (2018). These were chosen because calibration and samples  
215 were measured and converted to the absolute reference frame with the same methodology as in ETH

216 set-up. Furthermore, this revised Kele (2015) calibration is statistically indistinguishable from  
217 independent calibrations for marine biogenic calcite from other laboratories (Peral et al. 2018,  
218 Meinicke et al. 2020; Breitenbach et al. 2018), suggesting that it is appropriate for marine biogenic  
219 carbonates.

220

### 221 **3. Results**

222 The preservation of all analysed belemnites is exceptional, as shown by the micro-XRF and EDS  
223 element mapping of polished belemnite blocks (see Figs. 3, 4 and Appendix B), and is supported by  
224 the previously published minor element and CL data (Nunn et al., 2009). EBSD maps of selected  
225 belemnites further demonstrate the near-pristine preservation state, with no diagenetic  
226 recrystallisation of the calcite, except in the apical or outer rim areas. The EBSD map area of  
227 belemnite SK3\_5.55 covers a well-preserved section of the rostrum with well-preserved calcite and  
228 a distinct hollow alveolar area that is infilled with a fine-grained carbonate-rich cement (Fig. 3A).  
229 The SEM-BSE image (Fig. 3B) and EBSD data (Fig. 3) show radiaxial fibrous calcites that increase  
230 in size (length and width) from the centre towards the outer rim, in agreement with published SEM  
231 and light-microscopy observations on very well-preserved belemnite rostra (Ullmann et al., 2015;  
232 Benito et al., 2016). The c-axes in the lamellae are similar in orientation but show rotation along the  
233 crystallographic c-axis resulting in a rotating a-axis (Fig. 3F). Each of the radial lamellae has a  
234 slight bend of 10 – 15 degrees, as indicated by the broad band of the stereographic projection of the  
235 calcite crystals (Fig. 3D). This observation confirms the postulation presented in Ullmann et al  
236 (2015) that the crystallographic orientation should change close to the apical line/alveolar cavity.  
237 The observed lamellae are a primary biomineralisation fabric, as recrystallized crystals are expected  
238 to be not elongated but more equant in size and erratic in orientation (e.g. Casella et al., 2018).

239

240 In the growth rings in the apical area the SEM-EDS elemental maps reveal compositional changes  
241 in Mg and S, but not in Fe and Mn (Fig. 4). Enrichment of Mg in the apical area is believed to be  
242 related to distortion of the calcite crystals close to the apical line, whereas beyond the apical area  
243 variations in Mg may be related to calcite precipitation rates, with higher calcification rates leading  
244 to incorporation of less Mg (Ullmann et al., 2015; Ullmann and Pogge von Strandmann 2017). This  
245 may be the same case for S, as these two elements co-vary (Fig. 4 and Appendix B). The fact that  
246 Mn and Fe show enrichment in different areas (opposite trend to Mg and S; Fig. 4) supports the  
247 conclusion that variations in Mg and S are primary (biomineralisation) phenomena and not related  
248 to diagenesis.

249

250 The  $\Delta_{47}$  values range between  $0.650(\pm 0.0026)$  ‰ and  $0.695(\pm 0.023)$  ‰. The standard deviation for  
251 the clumped isotope measurements, calculated from  $\geq 10$  replicate analyses are between 0.017 ‰  
252 and 0.049 ‰ (mean 0.029 ‰). The  $\Delta_{47}$  values yield seawater temperatures ranging between 19°C  
253 and 32 °C, with a median temperature of 26 °C. While excluding the apical line calcite  
254 measurements (this area of the belemnite is notoriously known to favour the precipitation of early  
255 diagenetic calcite, e.g. Ullmann et al., 2015; Benito et al., 2016), the range is narrowed to 21 – 32  
256 °C, with the mean and median remaining at 26 °C. The average uncertainty calculated from the 95  
257 % confidence level for the reconstructed temperatures is  $\pm 5$  °C. *Pachyteuthis* are consistently within  
258 error of the *Cylindroteuthis* data, and the differences in  $\Delta_{47}$  between the two genera are not  
259 statistically significant at the  $2\sigma$  level.

260

261 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  values were calculated by inputting the reconstructed clumped isotope temperatures into  
262 the various published oxygen isotope thermometry equations for different calcite types, both  
263 organic and inorganic (e.g. Epstein et al., 1953; Shackleton, 1974; Anderson and Arthur, 1983; Kim

264 and O'Neil, 1997; Coplen, 2007; Brand et al., 2013; see Appendix A). The majority of these  
265 equations returned similar  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  values to the Kim and O'Neil (1997) equation derived for  
266 inorganic calcite. Only the equations for equilibrium inorganic calcites of, Coplen, 2007; Kele et al.  
267 (2015), and Daëron (2019) yielded significantly lower  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  (Fig. 5).

268

## 269 **4. Discussion**

### 270 *4.1 Belemnite preservation and life habits*

271 As demonstrated by our multi-proxy, thorough investigation of the belemnite calcite, the  
272 preservation of the belemnites is exceptional, with the sampled areas showing no recrystallisation.

273 However, recent geochemical and electron beam work on the ultrastructure of well-preserved  
274 belemnites has identified the existence of two distinct calcite phases within the rostrum, for  
275 belemnites from the Middle Jurassic and younger (Benito et al., 2016; Hoffmann et al., 2016).

276 The origin of one ultrastructural element which forms units of roughly tetrahedral shape that point  
277 away from the apical line is considered primary, i.e. secreted actively by the belemnite (Hoffmann  
278 et al., 2016).

279

280 The interpretation of the second ultrastructure filling the remaining fraction of the rostrum is more  
281 uncertain. It has previously been suggested that this second phase is an early diagenetic cement, and  
282 that the belemnite rostrum in fact had a porosity of 50 – 90 % (e.g. Benito et al., 2016; Hoffmann et  
283 al., 2016). This interpretation, however, is contradicted by geochemical evidence documenting that  
284 the isotopic and chemical composition of the second phase is incompatible with diagenetic cements  
285 (e.g., Price et al., 2015; Stevens et al., 2017). Clear geochemical trends relating to precipitation rate  
286 and isotopic signatures that can be matched through multiple profiles through the same rostrum

287 (Ullmann et al., 2015; Ullmann and Pogge von Strandmann 2017) contradict the notion that variable  
288 amounts of diagenetic cement would have filled an originally highly porous structure.

289

290 In order to understand the meaning of belemnite temperature measurements and consequently  
291 paleoecology and palaeoenvironmental signatures, it is of some importance to determine  
292 confidently the timing of biomineral formation. If the second calcite phase were formed at the  
293 seafloor during earliest diagenesis, a bias toward colder temperatures would be expected if the  
294 studied taxa generally occupied the upper part of the water column. Our data, however, support the  
295 hypothesis that this second phase – if present – is also formed during the animal’s life and would  
296 unlikely have formed only during times when the belemnite dwelled at the seafloor. The  
297 temperatures derived from our clumped isotope measurements are at the upper end of the expected  
298 range for belemnites (e.g. 10 – 30 °C, Hoffmann and Stevens, 2019), and sub-samples from the  
299 visibly porous apical area yield colder temperatures than samples taken from the intermediate  
300 growth increments (between apical line and rim; Table 1; Fig. 5). This originally slightly porous  
301 area (Ullmann et al., 2015) is prone to diagenetic alteration, as indicated by the higher  
302 concentrations of Mn and Fe in this region (Fig. 4 and Appendix B), thus favouring the circulation  
303 of diagenetic fluids (e.g. Ullmann et al., 2015; Benito et al., 2016). The observed diagenetic  
304 precipitation most likely occurred at an early stage at the seafloor, prior to burial, or within the  
305 uppermost metre of the sediment, which is generally well mixed by bioturbation and whose pore-  
306 water remains in equilibrium with seawater. In both cases, this diagenetic calcite would reflect  
307 bottom water temperatures, which would explain the lower temperatures obtained in the apical line  
308 as compared to other areas of the rostrum. Consequently, formation of the second calcite phase is  
309 incompatible with a bias towards bottom water temperatures in the bulk of the rostrum as this  
310 process should have led to similar temperature bias as in the apical zone. On the basis of our data it

311 appears much more likely that the formation of the second calcite phase is (nearly) simultaneous  
312 with the formation of the first phase, and secretion is continuous.

313

314 The reconstructed clumped isotope temperatures are  $> 10$  °C warmer than those estimated by Nunn  
315 (2009) using oxygen isotope thermometry from the same samples (12 °C average vs 26 °C  
316 average), with an assumed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  of -1 ‰ (Fig. 5). This is also much warmer than temperatures  
317 estimated by Wierzbowski (2004) using oxygen isotope thermometry on belemnites from the same  
318 section (Staffin Bay). These clumped isotope temperatures therefore support the interpretation that  
319 Middle–Late Jurassic belemnite habitats, at least for the two genera examined here, were pelagic,  
320 i.e. within the upper 200 m of the water column (e.g. in the photic zone, Klug et al., 2016; Vickers  
321 et al., 2019; Hoffmann and Stevens, 2019). This is further supported by the lower temperatures  
322 obtained from the calcite of the apical line which most likely reflect bottom-water temperatures, as  
323 compared to temperatures obtained from other areas of the rostrum (Table 1). This is contrary to  
324 older studies which have suggested that *Cylindroteuthis* and *Pachyteuthis* were nektobenthic, based  
325 on oxygen isotope measurements and rostrum morphology (e.g. Matril et al., 1994; Mutterlose et  
326 al., 2010). There was no significant difference in the measured temperatures between  
327 *Cylindroteuthis* and *Pachyteuthis* samples, given the average uncertainty of  $\pm 5$  °C (Fig. 5), which  
328 suggests that they inhabited similar, environments, although it is possible that one genus may have  
329 favoured slightly colder waters/deeper depths that were within this confidence interval. However,  
330 the lack of significant statistical difference between the two genera in the large  $^{18}\text{O}$  dataset of Nunn  
331 et al. (2009), and the fact they are found together in the sediments, supports the former conclusion.

332

333 *4.2 Seawater temperature and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  reconstruction*

334 In modern oceans, whilst the global average deep water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  is 0 ‰ SMOW, there are very few  
335 places in the surface ocean that actually have a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  of 0 ‰ (e.g. LeGrande and Schmidt, 2006)  
336 with a general trend of higher values in the tropics decreasing towards high latitudes. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  is  
337 variable with depth and geography, and the local  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  is dependent on the relative contributions  
338 of meteoric water and evaporation. Whilst there are uncertainties in local palaeogeography and  
339 palaeoceanography, GCM models for the Mesozoic return a large spread from very light values  
340 (e.g. as low as -7 ‰) for the semi-enclosed Boreal Ocean, and relatively heavy values (e.g. 0 to 0.5  
341 ‰) for the Tethys ocean in an ice-free world (Zhou et al., 2008, Cretaceous simulation). In the  
342 present study, reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  values, using most of the common calcite-thermometry  
343 equations (e.g. Kim and O'Neil, 1997, for inorganic calcite; Brand et al., 2013, for brachiopod  
344 calcite; Shackleton, 1974, for benthic foraminifera; Epstein et al., 1953, and Anderson and Arthur,  
345 1983, for molluscan calcite) are surprisingly high, up to as much as +3 ‰ (Fig. 5). This is  
346 approximately 1 ‰ heavier than may be expected for even the evaporative middle part of the North  
347 Atlantic today (e.g. Schmidt et al., 1999; LeGrande and Schmidt, 2006), and indeed, such high  
348 values are not seen in sea water anywhere today except in hypersaline brines or entirely continental  
349 water bodies (Schmidt et al., 1999). For a greenhouse Earth, with global average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  of -1 ‰  
350 (Shackleton and Kennett, 1975), this high value is even more unlikely in any ocean-connected basin  
351 (e.g. Zhou et al., 2008), and indeed, there is no sedimentological or palaeontological evidence for  
352 hypersalinity in the basin (e.g. Morton and Hudson, 1995; Hesselbo and Coe, 2000; Lefort et al.,  
353 2012). Only the equations of Coplen (2007) and Daëron et al., (2019), both calibrated for slow-  
354 growing terrestrial vein calcite; and Kele et al. (2015) for travertine calcite, provide  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  values  
355 that range under normal conditions in a semi-enclosed to open basin (Fig. 5). This finding is in  
356 concert with recent results from other Mesozoic belemnite clumped isotope studies (e.g. Price and  
357 Passey, 2013; Wierzbowski et al., 2018; Price et al., 2019; Vickers et al., 2019).

358

359 The reason for why these equations fit better may be that many of the more traditional calcite  
360 thermometry equations do not in fact represent true equilibrium fractionation between calcite and  
361 water, as has been recently demonstrated by Daëron et al. (2019). These authors showed that true  
362 equilibrium calcite-water fractionation values are systematically c. 1.5 ‰ greater than in the (biotic  
363 and abiotic) calcites used to derive the more common thermometry equations (e.g. Epstein et al.,  
364 1953; Anderson and Arthur, 1983; Kim and O'Neil, 1997 etc.). Our findings show that the  
365 equations of Coplen, 2007; Kele et al. (2015), and Daëron et al. (2019), for extremely slow-  
366 growing, abiotic calcites, when applied to well-preserved belemnite calcite, return  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  values  
367 within the expected range for open water to semi-enclosed basin setting (-2 to +1 ‰; Fig. 5). Whilst  
368 the biomineralisation in belemnites is very different to slow-growing, abiotic precipitates  
369 (belemnites are believed to have had a lifespan of 1 – 2 years, Hoffmann and Stevens, 2019), this  
370 study supports the evidence that they precipitated their rostrum in near-equilibrium with ambient  
371 seawater. This finding agrees with evidence that modern coleoids biomineralise in near-equilibrium  
372 with the ambient seawater (Rexfort and Mutterlose, 2006; Price et al., 2009).

373

#### 374 *4.3 Palaeogeographic implications*

375 The average temperature (26 °C) is slightly warmer than that derived by  $\Delta_{47}$  on belemnites from the  
376 Middle Russian Sea (23 °C, Fig. 6), which may indicate more of an Arctic water source for the  
377 Middle Russian Sea vs. a Tethyan source for the Hebrides Basin, or may be a result of some  
378 visually-imperceptible solid-state re-ordering in the belemnite calcite. Nonetheless, despite  
379 uncertainties as to the absolute temperature and reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  values, trends in both may  
380 shed light on changes in circulation patterns in the narrow Lurasian Seaway. There is uncertainty  
381 in the main direction of the flow of dominating currents in the Lurasian Seaway through time,



382 which could either be at times southward (Boreal-sourced) or northward (Tethyan-sourced; Bjerrum  
383 et al., 2001; Dera et al., 2015). Temperatures in the Hebrides Basin average around 24 °C in the  
384 Callovian to lowest Oxfordian, increasing in the middle Oxfordian to 27 °C, and remain high (av.  
385 29 °C) in the Upper Oxfordian and lowest Kimmeridgian (*baylei* zone; Fig. 6). In the Lower  
386 Kimmeridgian *cymodoce* zone there is an apparent shift to lower temperatures (22 °C), a change in  
387 temperature that is greater than the  $\pm 5$  °C uncertainty in the measurements (Fig. 6).

388

389 Temperature trends in the southern North Sea (Euro-Boreal realm, Fig. 1), reconstructed using  
390 sporomorph data (Abbink et al., 2001), support the Skye belemnite clumped isotope record during  
391 the Callovian and Oxfordian, with cool temperatures in the Upper Callovian, and significant  
392 warming in the middle Oxfordian (Fig. 6). Our results contrast to the belemnite clumped isotope  
393 temperature record from the Russian Platform through the same interval (Wierzbowski et al., 2018),  
394 which shows a mid-Oxfordian cooling trend (Fig. 6).

395

396 There is an observable isotopic gradient, from very low (unradiogenic)  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  values in the Arctic  
397 regions to higher (more radiogenic) values in the Tethyan open marine domains (Dera et al., 2015),  
398 and the  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  records from the Euro-Boreal Realm and the Russian platform are quite different in  
399 the Callovian to mid-Oxfordian (c. 2  $\epsilon$ -units more positive in the Russia Platform). A clear rise  
400 observed in  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  in the Euro-Boreal (and peri-Tethyan) areas during the mid-Oxfordian is not  
401 apparent in the Russian Platform data (Dera et al., 2015). This rise in  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  has been attributed to a  
402 strengthening of southern Tethyan surface currents intruding the northern domains (Dera et al.,  
403 2015), which, though  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  data for the Hebrides Basin are lacking, may explain the shift to  
404 warmer values in the Skye belemnite clumped temperatures in the Middle Oxfordian.

405

406 The shift to cooler temperatures in the early Kimmeridgian is suggested in the Russian Platform  
407 dataset, and is not clear in the southern North Sea (terrestrial) sporomorph record (Abbink et al.,  
408 2001; Fig. 6). Reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  in both the Russian Platform and the Hebrides Basin show a  
409 marked decrease here. Published  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  data show closer agreement between Euro-Boreal and Peri-  
410 Tethyan realms and the Russian Platform than in earlier times, and all three show a decrease in  
411  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  in the Late Oxfordian to very unradiogenic (Boreal water) values. The clumped isotope data  
412 therefore support the interpretation that a change in ocean circulation may have driven this  
413 Kimmeridgian cooling trend, by strengthening the influx of Boreal waters down the Viking  
414 Corridor, and weakening the Tethyan influence (Fig. 1). This may account for the lowering of  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$   
415 values in the Russian Platform and Euro-Boreal realms (Dera et al., 2015) and the cooling and  
416 freshening of the Russian platform and Hebrides Basin (Wierzbowski et al., 2018) and this is  
417 documented by the present study. This interpretation is also supported by observed changes in  
418 marine fauna – e.g. the southward migrations of boreal ammonites, and regional retreats of coral  
419 reefs (Dera et al., 2015).

420

## 421 **5. Conclusions**

422 Our clumped isotope dataset from exceptionally well-preserved belemnites from Staffin Bay, Isle of  
423 Skye reveals that seawater temperatures throughout the Callovian to Early Kimmeridgian were  
424 significantly warmer than previously supposed by conventional oxygen isotope thermometry. These  
425 data support the view that belemnites, at least those of the genera *Cylindroteuthis* and *Pachyteuthis*,  
426 inhabited the upper 200 m of the water column, and were nektonic rather than nektobenthic. These  
427 temperature and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  estimates demonstrate that slow-growing, abiotic calcite thermometry  
428 equations are more applicable to belemnite calcite in conventional stable isotope studies, and  
429 indicate that  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  may have varied significantly in the Hebrides Basin throughout this interval.

430 Trends in the belemnite clumped isotope temperatures and in the reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  reveal  
431 changes in palaeocurrent in the Laurasian Seaway throughout the Callovian-Kimmeridgian and,  
432 when considered with other published temperature and  $\epsilon\text{Nd}_{(t)}$  studies, support the following  
433 conclusions:  
434 1) Observed mid-Callovian warming was due to a strengthening of the northward-flowing, warm,  
435 saline Tethyan current into the Euro-Boreal Realm and Laurasian Seaway, but not onto the Russian  
436 Platform.  
437 2) The southward flowing, cold, fresher Boreal current strengthened down the Viking Corridor and  
438 Mezen-Pechora strait in the Early Kimmeridgian, resulting in cooler waters entering the Laurasian  
439 Seaway (Hebrides Basin), and Russian Platform, but did not extend as far south as the southern  
440 North Sea.

441

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450

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## 700 TABLES AND FIGURES

701

702 **Table 1:** Summary of the samples analysed and clumped isotope data from the Staffin Bay Section,  
703 as presented in this study. Full details, including the published trace element data (Nunn et al.,  
704 2007) can be found in Appendix A. Detailed images from the EDS, BSE and  $\mu$ -XRF analyses can  
705 be found in Appendix B.

706 **Figure 1:** Palaeogeographic reconstruction showing the situation of Isle of Skye, the Laurasian  
707 Seaway (red outline) and other regions discussed in the text during the Jurassic. (Map modified  
708 after Dera et al., 2015).

709

710 **Figure 2:** (A) Map of Scotland showing location of Isle of Skye (in red) and Staffin Bay  
711 (rectangle). (B) Staffin Bay with sampling localities marked.

712

713 **Figure 3:** (A) Photograph of the belemnite SK3\_5.55. Scale bar is 1 cm. (B) SEM-BSE micrograph  
714 of the analysed area shown in A. (C) Kikuchi EBSD pattern calibration result of 95.2% certainty.  
715 (D) Maps of EBSD crystallographic orientations along the x, y, and z axes, as well as a grain map  
716 that delineates individual grains with distinct crystallographic orientations. (E) Stereographic  
717 projections of the poles to the crystal faces. Calcite stereographic projections measured at 153027  
718 points (56.7%), 28066 zero solutions (10.4%). (F) Line scan across the calcite lamellae indicating  
719 rotation around the crystallographic c-axis of roughly 60 degrees. (G) Zoomed in IPFY map,  
720 schematic illustrating the rotation of the calcite crystals, and stereographic projections of the poles  
721 to the crystal faces.

722

723 **Figure 4:** (A) Photograph of the belemnite SK4\_0.2. White square indicates where insets (B) to (F)  
724 are taken from. (B) SEM secondary electron photomicrograph of area chosen for EDS element  
725 maps (C) - (F) EDS element maps for Mg, S, Mn and Fe.

726

727 **Figure 5:** Measured clumped isotope temperatures from selected exceptionally well-preserved  
728 belemnites, compared to published  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  temperature reconstructions (Nunn et al., 2009, using the  
729 Anderson and Arthur, 1983 equation, assuming “normal” marine salinity of 34 PSU and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} = -1$   
730 ‰), plotted against existing bio- and lithostratigraphic scheme for the Trotternish section (Hesselbo  
731 and Coe, 2000). Open circles on the Nunn et al. (2009) data indicate samples analysed for clumped  
732 isotopes in this study. Reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  data are shown on the left. Reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$   
733 calculated using the equations of Kim and O’Neil (1997) and Kele et al. (2015) are shown. L. Call =  
734 lower Callovian; MC = middle Callovian; UC = upper Callovian; L. Kimm. = lower Kimmeridgian  
735 Mbr = Member

736

737 **Figure 6:** Comparison of the reconstructed clumped isotope temperatures and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  from this  
738 study to those made using quantitative sporomorph data for the southern North Sea (Abbink et al.,  
739 2001), and clumped isotope temperatures for belemnites from the Russian Platform (Wierzbowski  
740 et al., 2018  $\Delta_{47}$  data; recalculated using the [*Brand*] isotopic parameters (Daëron et al., 2016) with  
741 the Wacker et al. (2014) calibration (pale blue and red); and converted to ETH values through ETH  
742 standards with "york regression" and converted to temperature using the Bernasconi et al., 2018  
743 calibration, deep red blue and red). Seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  was reconstructed using the equations of Kele et  
744 al. (2015; red and blue), and Kim and O'Neil (1997; pale blue and pink).  $\epsilon\text{Nd}$  (t) data compilation  
745 for Euro-Boreal realm and Russian Platform from Dera et al. (2015).

746

## 747 **Appendices**

748 **Appendix A:** spreadsheet with the clumped isotope data and calculated  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$  presented in this  
749 study.

750

751 **Appendix B:** Supplementary  $\mu$ -xrf and SEM data for selected belemnites.



**Key**

- Precambrian crust
- Caledonian crust
- Hercynian crust Euro-Boreal realm
- Deep ocean basin
- Deep marine shelf
- Shallow marine shelf
- Subduction
- Mid-ocean ridge
- Hebrides Basin
- Laurasian Seaway











