Weathering, sedimentary and diagenetic controls of mineral and geochemical characteristics of the vertebrate-bearing Silesian Keuper

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(Received 24 April 2014; revised 17 August 2014; Editor: George Christidis)

ABSTRACT: Mudstones and claystones from the southern marginal area of the European Upper Triassic, midcontinental Keuper basin (Silesia, southern Poland) were investigated using XRD, organic and inorganic geochemistry, SEM, K-Ar of illite-smectite, AFT, and stable isotopes of O and C in carbonates in order to unravel the consequent phases of the geological history of these rocks, known for abundant fossils of land vertebrates, and in particular to evaluate the diagenetic overprint on the mineral composition. The detected and quantified mineral assemblage consists of quartz, calcite, dolomite, Ca-dolomite, illite, mixed-layer illite-smectite, and kaolinite as major components, plus feldspars, hematite, pyrite, chlorite, anatase, siderite, goethite as minor components. Palygorskite, gypsum, jarosite and apatite were identified in places.

The K-Ar dates document a post-sedimentary thermal event, 164 Ma or younger, which resulted in partial illitization of smectite and kaolinite. The maximum palaeotemperatures were estimated from illite-smectite as ~125ºC. Apatite fission track data support this conclusion, indicating a 200–160 Ma age range of the maximum temperatures close to 120ºC, followed by a prolonged period of elevated temperatures. These conclusions agree well with the available data on the Mesozoic thermal event, which yielded Pb-Zn deposits in the area. Organic maturity indicators suggest the maximum palaeotemperatures <110ºC.

Palygorskite was identified as authigenic by crystal morphology (TEM), and calcite by its accumulation in soil layers and by its isotopic composition evolving with time, in accordance with the sedimentary and/or climatic changes. Dolomite isotopic composition indicates more saline (concentrated) waters. Palygorskite signals a rapid local change of sedimentary conditions, correlated with algal blooms. This assemblage of authigenic minerals indicates an arid climate and the location at the transition from a distal alluvial fan to mudflat.

Fe-rich smectite, kaolinite, and hematite were products of chemical weathering on the surrounding lands and are therefore mostly detrital components of the investigated rocks. Kaolinite crystal morphology and ordering indicates a short transport distance. Hematite also crystallized in situ, in the soil horizons. A large variation in kaolinite/2:1 minerals ratio reflects hydraulic sorting, except of the

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DOI: 10.1180/claymin.2014.049.4.07

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Rhaetian, where it probably signals a climatic change, i.e. a shift in the weathering pattern towards kaolinite, correlated with the disappearance of hematite. Quartz, 2M₁ illite, and minor feldspars and Mg-chlorite were interpreted as detrital minerals. The documented sedimentation pattern indicates that in more central parts of the Keuper playa system, where an intense authigenesis of the trioctahedral clays (chlorite, swelling chlorite, corrensite, sepiolite) took place, illite and smectite were the dominant detrital clay minerals.

Cr/Nb and Cr/Ti ratios were found as the best chemostratigraphic tools, allowing for the correlation of all investigated profiles. A stable decrease of these ratios up the investigated sedimentary sequence is interpreted as reflecting changes in the provenance pattern from more basic to more acidic sequence.

KEYWORDS: AFT, carbonate stable isotopes, chemostratigraphy, clay minerals, diagenesis, hematite, K-Ar, Keuper, palygorskite, playa, provenance, quantitative XRD, weathering.

The Silesian Keuper pertains to the southern marginal area of the Upper Triassic Keuper intracontinental basin, with the depocentre extending from central Poland towards Germany, England, and the southern part of the North Sea (Fig. 1). The Silesian Keuper has generated a lot of interest recently after discoveries of abundant fossils of land vertebrates, and in particular Dinosauria (Dzik et al., 2000).

The European Keuper basin is one of the classic areas for the investigation of clay autigenesis in sedimentary environments of the arid zone. The clay studies were initiated by Endell in the thirties of the 20th century and have continued, mostly in Germany, France, Great Britain, and Spain until recently (reviews in Krum, 1969, and Jeans, 2006). Corrensite, the most common trioctahedral regular mixed-layer clay mineral, was first identified in a Lower Triassic marl (Lippman, 1956) and was named after a prominent early investigator of the Triassic clays.

The provenance studies (K-Ar of micas: Paul et al., 2008) indicate that the Keuper basin was supplied by detrital material from several surrounding elevated areas. As summarized by Krum (1969), close to the basin margins the detrital assemblage: kaolinite, illite, and minor Fe-chlorite have been recorded in Scandinavia, Central Europe and North Africa. Smectites or illite-smectites and illite occur in the entire basin, while Mg-rich clays such as chlorite, swelling chlorite, corrensite, sepiolite, and palygorskite are present mostly in the central part. Both sepiolite and palygorskite occur as widespread thin layers, most often within the broader zones of the Mg-chloritic minerals. Massive occurrences of 1M or 1Md ferruginous illite were recognized in several areas and interpreted as pedogenic (Jeans et al., 1994). The Mg-clays have been recognized at an early stage as authigenic, but their more detailed origin (transformation vs. neoformation, low or high temperature) is still a matter of debate (Jeans, 2006).

Most Keuper studies lack maximum palaeotemperature measurements, which are necessary to evaluate the degree of diagenetic overprint on the pattern resulting from the weathering and sedimentary processes. Jeans et al. (2005) made such a study using a spore colour index and concluded that corrensites and Mg-chlorites crystallized below 100ºC. The origin of illite-smectite remains uncertain.

In this contribution, dealing with the Silesian Keuper, the emphasis is put on a precise evaluation of the diagenetic overprint in order to identify the weathering and sedimentary controls of the mineralogical and geochemical composition of the rocks which are useful for correlation purposes and for the reconstruction of the environment where the dinosaurs have lived. It was hoped also that the application of more accurate quantitative mineralogical techniques should make the genetic interpretations of the clay mineral compositions more reliable, and in particular will permit a distinction of climatic from sedimentary sorting controls over the kaolinite abundance.

The Silesian Keuper sediments are continental and oxidized, consequently with very poor biostratigraphic record; correlations dependant mostly on lithostratigraphy (Szulc & Racki, 2014). For this reason, an attempt was made to correlate the investigated profiles by means of chemostratigraphic tools.

GEOLOGICAL SETTING

The present day shape of the European Keuper basin is not very different from the original and includes the central playa system surrounded by the
peripheral alluvial fan zone (Fig. 1). The basin developed in an arid subtropical zone, as evidenced by the palaeolatitude (~20–23\(^\circ\)N; vide Reinhardt & Ricken, 2000) and by the occurrences of rock salt, gypsum, anhydrite, baryte and celestite (Krum, 1969; Reinhardt & Ricken, 2000; Bzowska & Racka, 2006; Jeans, 2006). In the south it had connections with the incipient Tethys ocean and some sedimentary events in both basins are concurrent (Feist-Burkhardt et al., 2008).

The Silesian Keuper rocks are mostly red mudstones and claystones, with minor sandstone...
and carbonate layers, numerous erosional discontinuities (Deczkowski, 1977), and incipient palaeo-weathering horizons (Szulc, 2005). They are almost flat-lying at the surface, accessible in clay pits and by shallow boreholes. The southern and SW borders of the Silesian Keuper are erosional (Fig. 1), while towards the NE the Triassic rocks dip gently under the Jurassic cover.

The local lithostratigraphic divisions correlate well with the classic divisions in the German part of the basin, so the classic nomenclature will be used. The Keuper succession (in particular its middle and upper parts) displays layer-cake lithostratigraphy, reflecting the general trend from shallow marine to freshwater conditions and climatic fluctuations, ranging between “wetter” and “drier” lithofacies. The main lithostratigraphic units are quite well dated by means of palinostratigraphic data (Orlowska-Zwolinska, 1983; Szulc et al., 2006): Ladinian Grenzdolomite and Carnian Lower Gipskeuper (“dry” intervals: sabkha/playa sediments), followed by Carnian Schilfsandstein fluvial clastic (“wet” interval: braided/anastomosing river sediments), Carnian/Norian Upper Gipskeuper (“dry” interval playa sediments), Norian Steinmergelkeuper (semi-dry to wet facies: ephemeral and/or perennial fluvial sediments), and finally the Rhaetian “wet” facies. Within Steinmergelkeuper locally lacustrine/palustrine carbonates occur (Wozniki Limestone) related to a spring system controlled by a major fault (Szulc et al., 2006). The generally clear and simple stratigraphic pattern is more complex at the level of higher resolution stratigraphy, reflecting the general trend from shallow marine to freshwater conditions and soil-forming processes (nodules, caliche, slickensides, etc.), red, green or variegated in colour. Occasionally carbonate layers and sandstone layers appear. The underlying Ladinian sediments are massive dolomites. The overlying Rhaetian sediments do not have red colours and carbonates, and are more coarse-grained than their Keuper counterparts.

All the samples were crushed to <0.5 mm and separated using a hand splitter into portions for XRD and chemical analyses, following Środoń & Kawiak (2012). Samples for the bulk rock XRD analysis were ground with the ZnO internal standard in the McCrone mill and registered in 2–65° 2θ range (Środoń et al., 2001) by Thermo X’tra diffractometer, equipped with Cu tube and the solid-state Peltier-cooled detector. These XRD patterns were then used for the mineral identification, including precise measurements of selected peak positions corrected for the ZnO standard, and the mineral quantification with new QMIN computer program of Marek Szczerba, using natural mono-mineral standards and the approach of Środoń et al. (2001).

These data were then used for selecting representative samples for detailed clay mineralogical XRD investigation. The selected samples were treated chemically by the standard procedures to remove carbonates, sulfates, organic matter (OM) and iron oxides (Jackson, 1975) and the <0.2 µm fractions were separated by centrifugation, cleaned of the excess electrolyte, and analysed by XRD in oriented preparations both air-dried and glycolated, with Na as the exchange cation (detailed procedure in Środoń et al., 2006). The smectite content in mixed-layer illite-smectite (%S) was measured using a selected peak positions technique (Środoń, 1981, 1984), newly calibrated on mono-mineral illite-smectite from bentonites (Środoń et al., 2013). %S was then used to evaluate the maximum palaeotemperatures (Środoń, 2007).

All bulk rock samples were analysed chemically after the water loss measurement (100°C for 24 h)
by ICP-OES and ICP-MS for major elements, trace elements, and REE (CHEMOSTRAT laboratory in Welshpool, Powys, UK, according to Jarvis & Jarvis, 1992) and for water loss between room temperature and 200°C in the Kraków laboratory of ING PAN (thermobalance: 3 min. ramp heating plus 25 min. at 200°C). In selected samples N, H, S and total C were measured in air-dry state by elemental analyser at the Warsaw laboratory of ING PAN and then were corrected for the water loss. The total organic carbon (TOC) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis were determined at the University of Silesia using an Eltra Elemental Analyzer model CS530 and Agilent 6890 Series Gas Chromatograph interfaced to an Agilent 5973 Network Mass Selective Detector and Agilent 7683 Series Injector (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, California, USA). More details are provided in Marynowski et al. (2012). Another set of selected samples was analysed after drying in 110°C for B (PGNAA, 0.5 ppm det. limit) and Cl (INAA, 0.01% det. limit) by Actlabs (Canada).

The analyses of isotopic composition of oxygen and carbon in carbonates were performed at the Warsaw laboratory of ING PAN using a KIEL IV instrument attached on-line to the Delta Plus mass spectrometer in the dual inlet system. The sample preparation followed the classic McCrea technique. The sample mass was adjusted based on the XRD quantitative analysis to contain ~100 μg of a carbonate. The international NBS 19 standard was run after each ten-sample set. The results are reported with respect to the PDB standard. The measurement accuracy is 0.03‰ for δ^{13}C and 0.07‰ for δ^{18}O.

Selected samples in a natural state were carbon or chromium-coated and observed under SEM equipped with EDS detector in order to verify XRD mineral identification and to obtain information on crystal size, morphology and arrangement. Ten <0.2 μm fractions from the Woźniki profile were K-Ar dated at the Krakow laboratory of ING PAN, following the methodology of Środoń et al. (2006).

Apatite separation and fission track analysis followed the procedure by Anczkiewicz et al. (2013). The apatite fission track (AFT) dating method is a well established technique used to unravel thermal history experienced by rocks both during burial and during their movement towards the surface (Wagner & Van den Haute, 1992; Donelick et al., 2005). Fission tracks are totally annealed at temperatures higher than about 120°C, but partial resetting occurs above 60°C. Some variations in the annealing kinetics result from differences in the chemical composition of apatites (e.g. Barbarand et al., 2003).

10–30 apatite crystals clean and free of defects and inclusions were selected for analyses. Data were analysed and ages calculated using the Zeta value for CN5 of 348.19±6.5 and the Trackkey 4.2 program (Dunkl, 2002).

All quoted AFT ages are “central ages” (weighted mean ages ±1σ) of Galbraith & Laslett (1993), and the variation of single grain ages was assessed using the % age dispersion of the central age and the chi-square test (Galbraith, 1981; Green, 1981). The fission track ages and the length data were modelled using a multi-kinetic model (Ketcham et al., 2007) employing the HeFty software (Ketcham, 2005). This is a numerical search routine based on a data-driven approach using Monte Carlo methods. The result defines time-temperature “envelopes” that contain all randomly generated acceptable paths that pass baseline statistical criteria and conform to a set of user-defined geological criteria. For a comprehensive overview of fission-track methods and their modelling techniques, the reader is referred to Donelick et al. (2005), Ketcham (2005) and Braun et al. (2008).

RESULTS

Mineral identification

The mineralogical data are presented in Table 1. The mineral composition of the investigated profiles is rather monotonous (Fig. 2a). Major components are quartz, dioctahedral 2:1 minerals, kaolinite, calcite, and dolomite or Ca-dolomite. Common minor components are K-feldspar, albite, chlorite, hematite, goethite, pyrite and anatase. Occasionally traces of siderite were identified. In and below the bone bed in Krasiejów abundant palygorskite is present (Fig. 2b), in agreement with earlier reports (Bzowska & Racka, 2006). Two samples at the bottom of the Schilfsandstein series in Woźniki contain gypsum, jarosite and abundant apatite, probably fluorapatite (300 reflection at 2.70 Å). The soil horizon among the Ladinian dolomites in Woźniki most probably
contains dawsonite (NaAlCO$_3$(OH)$_2$), as indicated by a weak XRD peak at 5.69 Å, though not confirmed under SEM. Dawsonite is a rare mineral of alkaline environments, often accompanying dolomite (Worden, 2006, and references therein).

The dioctahedral 2:1 mineral group consists of 2M$_1$ illite/mica and illite-smectite of 1Md to turbostratic tri-dimensional structure. Only in three samples pure illite without illite-smectite was detected (Fig. 2b). A $d_{001}$ = 9.94–9.96 Å, based on 002 and 005 reflections, not displaced after glycolation, indicates pure K-illite, without detectable NH$_4$ substitution. Illite-smectite minerals range from R0 80%S (percent smectite layers) to R1

Fig. 2. XRD patterns of (a) bulk rock random preparations with ZnO as internal standard, illustrating mineral composition of the Keuper fine clastics, from illite-smectite to kaolinite-dominated clay fraction, (b) oriented glycolated preparations from <0.2 μm fractions with MoS$_2$ as internal standard, illustrating the palygorskite admixture and the variation of illite-smectite composition. IS = illite-smectite, I = illite, Ch = chlorite, K = kaolinite, Ab = albite, Ksp = potassium feldspar, G = gypsum, C = calcite, D = dolomite, CaD = Ca-dolomite, P = pyrite, M = marcasite, H = hematite, J = jarosite, A = apatite.
24%S (Fig. 2b), according to the identification based on peak position techniques (Srodon et al., 2013), applying the calibration by peak positions of pure bentonitic illite-smectites (Srodon et al., 2009). 060 reflection of the 2:1 clay group, indicative of an Fe content in the structure ranges from 1.501 Å (Al-rich composition) to 1.506 Å (0.34 FeO10(OH)2; Heuser et al., 2013). The textures of 2:1 minerals observed under SEM seem indicative of a dominant sedimentary origin, characterized by irregular flat particles of micrometric size, often covering tangentially rounded quartz grains (Fig. 3a). The textures indicating authigenic growth of clays are rare, being more abundant only in the Krasiejów clays (Fig. 3b).

Kaolinite can be characterized more precisely only if it is relatively abundant and in all such samples it appears well-ordered. Kaolinite identified by SEM occurs predominantly as small irregular flat particles, thicker than 2:1 clays, in the Rhaetian samples occasionally associated with euhedral quartz crystals (Fig. 3c). A few large flat particles, resembling pseudomorphs after micas and more complete booklets (Fig. 3d) were also spotted. The presence of K2O in some of such particles may indicate remnants of primary mica or incipient authigenic illitization. Chlorite is a minor component almost always accompanied by dominant kaolinite (Table 1). In samples where it dominates kaolinite, chlorite is Mg-rich and non-expandable (Fig. 2b). Authigenic chlorite morphologies were not observed.

Sample Krasiejów 4 contains very delicate fibres filling locally the pore space (Fig. 3e) and growing on the surfaces of flat clay particles. Most probably the fibres represent palygorskite, but are too thin to confirm the identification by EDS. Rare incipient fibres were found also in the Krasiejów 5 sample (Fig. 3b), although XRD did not detect palygorskite.

Dolomite was identified by the most intense peak at 2.888–2.890 Å and Ca-dolomite by the peak in the 2.890–2.908 Å range (Table 1) and by EDS analyses in the SEM (distinction from ankerite due to lack of Fe). Most often dolomite and Ca-dolomite occur separately, but in the upper part of the Patoka profile the coexistence of the two minerals is common (Table 1). Dolomite often coexists with calcite, but typically either dolomite or calcite is definitely dominant (Table 1). Most of calcite and dolomite are finely dispersed; larger idiomorphic crystals are rare.

The XRD characteristics of hematite (very broad 104 peak at 2.702 and narrow 110 peak at 2.522 Å, Fig. 2a) are indicative of an origin from a goethite precursor via a low-temperature topotactic dehydration reaction (Brindley & Brown, 1980, p. 372). These crystals are intimately dispersed in clay and so small that in most cases cannot be identified by SEM. The BSE technique combined with EDS detected uneven concentrations of iron in clay-hematite aggregates (Fig. 3f). Surfaces of such aggregates are covered by clay particles, but accumulations of elongated hematite particles with dimensions of 150–30 nm can be observed if the aggregates are broken (Fig. 3g). Gypsum was identified in two samples at the bottom of the Schilfsandstein in Wozniki in the form of large idiomorphic crystals occurring locally, accompanied by abundant pyrite and native sulfur (Fig. 3h).

Quantitative mineral relationships

Very clear quantitative correlations exist among clay minerals and quartz (Fig. 4, Table 1). Kaolinite and illite 2M1 are correlated positively with quartz, while illite-smectite correlate negatively. Also the d060 of 2:1 clay correlates negatively with quartz, indicating that larger values, i.e. more Fe-rich compositions, characterize the 1Md clay. These relations are best visible for the Patoka well, which displays a broad range of compositional variation, but can also be clearly observed in the Woźniki profile; thus they characterize the entire Keuper section. Carbonates are absent in the Rhaetian rocks and almost absent in the Schilfsandstein. Dolomite is enriched clearly below the Schilfsandstein and in the bottom part of Patoka, while calcite is enriched in the upper part of Woźniki and in the entire Kobyłarz profile. The distribution of carbonates is highly bimodal: rocks rich in calcite are poor in dolomite and vice versa. In the Patoka and Kobyłarz profiles, containing multiple alterations of soils and shales, a clear calcite and hematite enrichment of soil horizons, typical for calcisols, is observed (Table 1). Pyrite occurs essentially in green and grey, hematite-free rocks, but otherwise no regularities were observed, except for a clear pyrite enrichment at the onset of kaolinite-rich sedimentation (Schilfsandstein (Carnian) in Woźniki and the top of Norian in Patoka). The concentrations of potassium feldspar and chlorite show regional variations: feldspar is more abundant in the east, while chlorite is abundant in the west (Table 1). Also %S varies regionally; only R1 clays of <35%S were detected in the eastern profiles,
Fig. 3. SEM photographs documenting morphology of the identified minerals. (a) Detrital morphology of illite particles tangentially covering rounded quartz grains; (b) possible incipient growth of palygorskite from surfaces of detrital particles; (c) dispersed crystals of kaolinite and authigenic quartz; (d) slightly rounded kaolinite “booklet”; (e) fibres of palygorskite filling pore space; (f) clay-hematite aggregate covered tangentially by clay particles, broken in the upper part (BSE image with accumulations of hematite in light colour); (g) accumulation of fine hematite crystals surrounded by bigger clay particles (high magnification of f); (h) native sulfur crystals on fine-grained pyrite substrate.
while in the west both R1 clays and R0 up to 80%S are present.

In the Patoka well the mineralogical composition evolves systematically with depth, from quartz- and kaolinite-rich rocks at the top to illite-smectite rich at the bottom (Fig. 5). To classify this variability, the profile was divided into four parts, A, B, C and D, and the corresponding mean values for clastics (i.e. excluding carbonate rocks) were calculated (Table 1). Clear changes of slope of this general trend occur at ~50 and 150 m; between these depths the mineralogical composition is relatively constant. %S follows this trend, from R1 at the top to R0 at the bottom, i.e. opposite to the burial diagenetic trends. Chlorite in Patoka is most abundant in the middle part of the profile.

The Patoka profile was regarded in this description as reference, because of its largest mineralogical variability, and the remaining occurrences were compared to Patoka. The Krasiejo´w and Lipie sites are closer geographically and resemble compositionally the bottom of the Patoka profile (parts C and D): they are low in quartz and kaolinite and high in carbonates and 2:1 minerals. Also the expandability of illite-smectite is similarly high.

The Wo´zniki profile starts from the Ladinian dolomites, which are overlain by three distinct parts, based on mudstone mineral composition. The lowest part resembles Patoka D, because of low quartz and kaolinite contents and high carbonate and 2:1 mineral contents. A characteristic unique feature is the presence of samples with pure illite, without mixed-layer illite-smectite. The middle part (Schilfsandstein) resembles Patoka B, but is enriched in kaolinite. The upper part has a similar composition to Patoka C.

The Kobylarz profile is very homogenous and closely resembles Patoka C. The Kozieg³wy profile is much more heterogenous. On average it also resembles Patoka C, but the two samples, representing the part identified as Schilfsandstein, resemble the Schilfsandstein composition in Wo´zniki, and also the Patoka B section. Similar to the Wo´zniki profile, pure illite without illite-smectite was found below Schilfsandstein.

**Distribution of geochemical data**

Sodium, B, Sr, Cl and Ba increase systematically with depth in the Patoka profile (Table 2 (deposited), Fig. 6). The Na₂O, B and Sr curves (Fig. 6) are analogous to the mineral curves (Fig. 5), displaying changes of slope at ~50 and 150 m. Interestingly, the Sr content is not related to the carbonate content, which varies significantly in the Patoka profile. Also the Na₂O content is not related to the albite, which occurs in constant trace amounts. In the Ba profile only a rapid increase at 150 m is apparent. Mo also increases down the profile, but the maximum values are reached at 125–152 m depth, decreasing thereafter. Only Zr shows a clear opposite trend, explained by positive correlation with quartz (Fig. 7), which implies that biogenic silica is not present in measurable quantities. Local concentrations of one order of magnitude are observed for Pb in the upper part of the profile and for U and V in the lower part. Carbon measured chemically is essentially inorganic, as is indicated by the good correlation between C measured and C calculated from the calcite and dolomite contents (Fig. 8). The Rhaetian part of the profile (A) is exceptionally enriched in Al, Si and Ti, but is poor in Fe, Mn, Mg, Ca, K and P.

By analogy with the mineral data, the levels of Na₂O, Sr and Ba render the Krasiejo´w and Lipie
sites similar to the bottom part (D) of the Patoka profile. The Mo levels are also similar (Krasiejów) or even much higher (Lipie). A positive Pb anomaly was recorded in Lipie. The Zr/quartz ratios are clearly elevated in Lipie. The bone bed in Krasiejów (Kr-4) does not differ chemically from other samples, even in P₂O₅.

The Na₂O, Sr, and Ba contents in the Wozniki, Koziegłowy, and Kobylarz profiles are similar to Patoka C, with a few major positive anomalies in Sr, Ba and Mo concentrations. Cl and B concentrations have been measured for Koziegłowy and are at Patoka C/D levels. The Zr/quartz ratios in the three profiles are similar to Patoka (Fig. 7). In all three profiles, positive Cu anomalies were recorded (Table 2). At the bottom of the Schilfsandstein in the Wozniki profile, the sample with apatite contains almost 5% P₂O₅ (almost 70 × enrichment over other mudstones) and represents a major geochemical anomaly — increased Ba, Co, Cu, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sc, Th, U, Y and REE, including a radically increased Sm/Nd ratio (0.26) and decreased La/Ce ratio (also 0.26). Except for P, the most enriched elements are Y (23 ×) and the REE. The pattern of REE enrichment is typical for apatites and controlled by crystallochemistry (Pan & Fleet, 2002) — lowest for LREE and HREE (6–8 ×) and highest for Sm, Eu, and Gd (>30 ×). A sample taken few metres above the apatite-bearing profile has increased Co, Cu, Mo, Ni and U contents. The Schilfsandstein sections of Wozniki and Koziegłowy resemble the composition of major elements the Rhaetian part of Patoka — elevated Si, Al and Ti contents and low Mn, Mg and Ca contents. However Fe, K and P are not depleted like in the Rhaetian horizons.

Water loss measured at 200°C equals ~1.5 times the water loss at 100°C, which is typical for Ca-smectites (Środon & McCarty, 2008). This water loss is strongly correlated with the amount of 2:1 minerals (Fig. 9). The relationship is not linear, as the more clay-rich samples are more smectitic.

The isotopic composition of carbon and oxygen in carbonates was measured for a set of samples, selected due to the presence of one dominant carbonate phase (calcite, dolomite or Ca-dolomite), according to the quantitative XRD analysis, which represented the entire section. The δ¹⁸O values range from +1.90 to −6.78, and δ¹³C from +0.18 to −9.70 (Table 2). Two controls over the isotopic composition can be detected — mineralogy and the position in the profile, which was established using geochemical indicators (see below). If only calcite data are analysed, they form a clear trend towards lighter isotopic C and O composition in the younger
rocks (from the horizon IV towards I: Fig. 10). Dolomites do not differ detectably from Ca-
dolomites and both have oxygen isotopes clearly
heavier than calcites, while their carbon isotopes
are either heavier or comparable to the calcites.

The content of total organic carbon is available
for the Patoka and Koziegłówy profiles (Table 2);
single measurements from Woźniki, Patoka, and
Lipie clay-pits are also available (Marynowski &
Wyszomirski, 2008). The values are generally low,
<0.5%. Higher values, reaching >2%, were found in
the Schilfsandstein samples in both profiles and in
Lipie, where coals (jets) were also found. Interestingly, the upper part of Patoka profile (B),
which is mineralogically similar to the
Schilfsandstein, does not have high TOC contents.

K-Ar data

Ten K-Ar dates were obtained for <0.2 μm
fractions from the Woźniki profile (Table 3). Four
of them are older than the stratigraphic age and six
are younger. The two groups contain a range of
samples, from almost pure illite to dominant illite-
smectite of similar expandability plus variable
amounts of kaolinite. Samples with higher K₂O
contain less kaolinite and have lower IS/I ratio.

AFT data

Results of AFT analyses are presented in Table 4
and Fig. 11. The analysed samples were shown to
be fluoroapatites, based on a small etch-pit size
(Dpar in Table 4), similar to the Durango
fluoroapatites (Barbarand et al., 2003; Donelick et
al., 2005). Central ages of these samples range from
166.2±9.0 to 120.7±8.0 Ma, which are much lower
than the stratigraphic ages. Only one sample gave
an age of 206.1 ± 38.1 Ma, close to the Triassic
stratigraphic age (PAT-1/51.5-7).

Table 3. K-Ar data for <0.2 μm fractions of Woźniki samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>% K₂O</th>
<th>% 40Ar*</th>
<th>40Ar* (pmol/g)</th>
<th>Age (Ma)</th>
<th>Error (Ma)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>K-1/23.8</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>78.93</td>
<td>1818.7</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/41.4</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>89.54</td>
<td>2380.1</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>K-1/44.7</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>76.98</td>
<td>1238.6</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/57.5</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>77.09</td>
<td>1572.3</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/73.6</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>70.94</td>
<td>1411.6</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/76.6</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>80.26</td>
<td>1800.5</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/85.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>80.81</td>
<td>2015.4</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/90.5</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>73.81</td>
<td>1952.3</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/94.7</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>87.24</td>
<td>2499.2</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/96</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>74.38</td>
<td>1938.3</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three samples yielded single populations of grain ages as shown by $P(\chi^2)$ values (Table 4) greater than 5% (Galbraith, 1981; Green, 1981), and the remaining three samples showed more than one population of apatite in the same sample ($P(\chi^2) < 5\%$). Both the oldest and the youngest AFT ages

Fig. 11. Radial plots of fission track ages. Central age is defined by the dashed line, stratigraphic age is represented by the shaded area. $x$ scale represents the precision of individual grain age estimate ($1/\sigma$), calibrated as percent relative standard error, whilst $y$ scale, calibrated in units of standard error ($\sigma$), represents dispersion of ages from the mean value. The age of each crystal may be determined by extrapolating a line from the origin on the left through the crystal’s $x$; $y$ coordinates to the radial age scale (Galbraith, 1990). Radial plots were drawn using the program TRACKKEY, version 4.2 (Dunkl, 2002).
Table 4. AFT results. U – the concentration of uranium evaluated by the Trackkey 4.2 software (Dunkl, 2002); \( \rho_d \) – density of induced tracks in external detector which cover dosimeter (glass CN5) (\( \times 10^6 \) tracks for cm\(^{-2} \)), Nd – numbers of counted tracks; ps – density of spontaneous tracks (\( \times 10^6 \) tracks for cm\(^{-2} \)), Ns – numbers of counted spontaneous tracks; \( \rho_i \) – density of induced tracks in external detector (mica) (\( \times 10^6 \) tracks for cm\(^{-2} \)), Ni numbers counted induced tracks. \( P (\chi^2) \) given in % is the probability of homogeneity of the apatite population, i.e. a measure of the dispersion of ages of analysed apatite crystals (Galbraith, 1981; Green, 1981). Age is the central age of a sample (Galbraith & Laslett, 1993), counted by using calibration method zeta (Hurford, 1990) and the dosimeter (glass) CN5. Length\( \pm \)SE is an average length of confined tracks plus standard error, SD – standard deviation of the length. Dpar is the mean fission-track etch pit diameter parallel to the crystallographic c axis of apatite grain. At least four Dpar measurements per apatite grain, analysed for AFT age and/or confined track length, have been made.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample no.</th>
<th>Rock type</th>
<th>Stratigraphy</th>
<th>No. of crystals</th>
<th>U (ppm)</th>
<th>Dosimeter ( \rho_d )</th>
<th>Nd</th>
<th>Spontaneous ps</th>
<th>Ns</th>
<th>Induced ( \rho_i )</th>
<th>Ni</th>
<th>( P (\chi^2) ) (%)</th>
<th>Age (Ma) ( \pm 1\sigma )</th>
<th>Length ( \pm )SE (( \mu m ))</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Number of tracks</th>
<th>Dpar (( \mu m ))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K-1/80.7</td>
<td>Sandstone</td>
<td>Karnian: 228–217 Ma</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>1.171</td>
<td>3699</td>
<td>1.189</td>
<td>637</td>
<td>1.945</td>
<td>1042</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>132.2±11.1</td>
<td>12.90±0.12</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-1/82.5</td>
<td>Sandstone</td>
<td>Karnian: 228–217 Ma</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>1.184</td>
<td>3699</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>1.527</td>
<td>1102</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>120.7±8.0</td>
<td>12.91±0.15</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LS-5</td>
<td>Sandstone</td>
<td>Norian: 217–204 Ma</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>3587</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>1.742</td>
<td>1129</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>132.5±7.7</td>
<td>13.30±0.12</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>2.17</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAT-1/51.5</td>
<td>Sandstone</td>
<td>Norian: 217–204 Ma</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>3564</td>
<td>0.867</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>0.922</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>206.1±38.1</td>
<td>14.43±0.26</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAT-1/73.6</td>
<td>Sandstone</td>
<td>Norian: 217–204 Ma</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>1.203</td>
<td>3806</td>
<td>1.445</td>
<td>896</td>
<td>1.811</td>
<td>1123</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>166.2±9.0</td>
<td>13.24±0.14</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAT-1/96.1</td>
<td>Sandstone</td>
<td>Norian: 217–204 Ma</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>1.108</td>
<td>3564</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>1.147</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>158.9±20.3</td>
<td>13.62±0.36</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
belong to the latter category. The measured mean track lengths (MTL) are significantly reduced and vary from 14.43 \( \mu m \) to 12.90 \( \mu m \). The samples have rather unimodal track length distributions. The MTL are very well correlated with the AFT ages, including the oldest sample.

**INTERPRETATION**

**High-temperature overprint**

K-Ar dates younger than the stratigraphic age in some samples and older than the stratigraphic age in others (Table 3) indicate that the 2:1 clay minerals in the Keuper rocks contain a mixture of detrital and authigenic illitic material, i.e. that the rocks underwent in situ illitization long after the deposition. This process produced both illite-smectite and discrete illite, as the youngest dates are not correlated with the high ratio of illite-smectite to discrete illite. The vertical distribution of %S in the Patoka profile, opposite to the normal diagenetic trend, indicates that the illitization is not a product of burial diagenesis. This conclusion is consistent with the available information on the post-Triassic burial history of the area, where only a few hundred metres of the Jurassic and Cretaceous sediments can be accounted for (Marek & Pajchlowa, 1997; Botor et al., 2012).

On the other hand, the area has been affected by a widespread Mesozoic hydrothermal event, documented by the Pb-Zn ore deposits in Triassic rocks (Heijlen et al., 2003) and K-Ar dates of illite-smectite from the Carboniferous bentonites (Środon et al., 2006). Such an event of Late Jurassic or even younger age explains all K-Ar data collected in this study (Table 3). It is a feasible assumption that the coarse-grained rocks were more accessible for these hot fluids and as a result their illitization is more advanced, offering the upper estimate of the temperature of penetrating fluids, \( \sim 125^\circ C \) (Table 1), consistent with 80–158\(^\circ\)C temperature range of Pb-Zn deposit formation, based of the fluid inclusions in sphalerite (Kozłowski & Górecka, 1993; Kozłowski, 1995). The hydrothermal activity in the area, though of lower temperature, had already started locally in the Norian, as documented by the hydrothermal component detected in the Woźniki limestones, overlying directly the Steinmergel sediments in many places (Szulc et al., 2006).

Among the 44 samples investigated in the \(<0.2 \mu m\) fraction, the three samples from the Lower Gipskeuper in Woźniki and Koziegłowy are exceptional, containing essentially pure illite, instead of an illite plus illite-smectite mixture, and being almost free of kaolinite (Table 1, Fig. 2b). Their K-Ar ages (Table 3) indicate that they are mixtures of detrital and authigenic illite, so most probably they also are products of the Mesozoic hydrothermal event which caused illitization of both smectite and kaolinite. Both K-Ar ages and the average value of \(d_{000}\) (Table 1) indicate that these are not lacustrine Fe-illites, known from the European Keuper in other locations (Jeans et al., 1994). A possible explanation of such local, elevated levels of illitization is a tectonic-related conduit for hot fluids, opened at the contact of very competent massive dolomite rocks with the overlying elastics.

The AFT dates support the reconstruction of thermal history based on illite. All but one sample gave AFT ages significantly younger than the stratigraphic ones, suggesting at least partial thermal resetting (post-depositional temperatures above 60\(^\circ\)C). The \(P(\chi^2)\) values far from 100 indicate that the resetting was not complete, which implies maximum temperatures not higher than 100–120\(^\circ\)C (Anckiewicz et al., 2013). Older ages are correlated with longer tracks, which indicate shorter residence of these samples in theapatite partial annealing zone (APAZ).

The track length distributions were modelled assuming an Upper Carboniferous or Ladinian detrital age of apatites, according to the expected sediment sources in the Moesian microplate (Fig. 1). Modelling (Fig. 12) yielded results very insensitive to the detrital age, indicating that post-depositional reset was almost complete, and thus the maximum palaeotemperatures were close to 120\(^\circ\)C. The ages of these palaeotemperatures were evaluated as 160–170 Ma in Woźniki, in perfect agreement with the youngest K-Ar date from this profile, 160–170 Ma in Lipie, and 190–200 Ma in Patoka. According to these models the samples left APAZ at \(\sim 100–120 \text{ Ma} \).

For the Lipie and Woźniki profiles, where unoxidized organic matter was found, the maximum palaeotemperature estimates from illite-smectite (90\(^\circ\)C and 120\(^\circ\)C, respectively – Table 1) and from AFT modelling (110\(^\circ\)C – Fig. 12) can be compared with organic maturity indicators. For the green shales from Lipie, the predominance of less stable \(C_{31}R\) over \(C_{32}S\) homohopane and the detection of unsaturated pentacyclic triterpanes
Fig. 12. AFT time-temperature paths obtained from inverse modelling by the HEFTY program, using the Monte Carlo algorithm (Ketcham, 2005). Predicted apatite fission-track data were calculated according to the Ketcham et al. (2007) annealing model and Dpars were used as the kinetic parameter. Shaded areas mark envelopes of goodness-of-fit (GOF) ±0.5, and the thick lines correspond to the thermal history with the best fit (= maximum GOF). Thermal paths outside the partial annealing zone are largely inferential as the fission-track data provide reliable information only in the temperature range 60–120ºC (the exact temperatures depending on resistance to annealing and cooling rate). GOF gives an indication of the fit between observed and predicted data (values close to 1 are best). Mean track lengths are reported after c-axis projection and therefore differ from those listed in Table 4. The time-temperature boxes used as constraints apply the Upper Carboniferous or Ladinian detrital ages of apatites and the mean surface temperature for periods prior to the stratigraphic age and the Cenozoic. In between, a wide range of temperature between 120 and 10ºC was used.
(nornehop-13(18)-ene and neohop-13(18)-ene) and C\textsubscript{30} as well as C\textsubscript{31} hopanes with biological ββ configuration (Marynowski & Wyszomirski, 2008) indicate very low OM maturation, equivalent of vitrinite reflectance R\textsubscript{o} = 0.35% (Peters et al., 2005). A similar hopanes distribution, with lower concentration of unsaturated hopanes, but still revealing immature character (equivalent of R\textsubscript{o} = 0.40%), was found in the Wozniki well samples, between 76.7 and 78.1 m (Fig. 13).

The organic indicators confirm more advanced alteration in Wozniki and generally low level of diagenesis, below oil window. Organic parameters are controlled by kinetics, so the evaluation of the maximum palaeotemperatures is not straightforward (e.g. Sweeney & Burnham, 1990). According to the measurements in oil wells from young sedimentary basins, R\textsubscript{o} = 0.5% corresponds roughly to 90–110ºC (Suggate, 1998; Środon et al., 2006); thus the data for Lipie and Wozniki indicate palaeotemperatures below this range. A similar discrepancy between the estimates from illite-smectite and from an organic maturity indicator (vitrinite reflectance) was noted in the Carboniferous rocks in NE part of the Upper Silesian Coal Basin, which were affected by the same thermal event (Środon et al., 2006). This discrepancy is waiting for a convincing explanation.

The crystallization of illite involves incorporation of potassium, other cations similar to potassium (NH\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{+}, Rb\textsuperscript{+}, Cs\textsuperscript{+}), and B, which substitute for Si in the tetrahedral sheet (e.g. Środoń, 2010). Theoretically, potassium may originate from within the rock by dissolution of the detrital components (micas, feldspars) or it may be imported from outside the rock. To answer this question, the ratio of %K\textsubscript{2}O to the sum of minerals potentially involved in the illitization reaction (clays and feldspars) was calculated and plotted vs. the degree of illitization expressed as %S (Fig. 14a). The result is a clear indication of an open system showing the import of potassium into the rock during the illitization process, which is consistent with an open hydrothermal system.

Ammonium increases slightly along with %K\textsubscript{2}O, but the concentrations are close to the detection limit (Table 2), much lower than commonly encountered during burial diagenesis of sedimentary basins (e.g.}

![Fig. 13. Partial m/z 191 mass chromatogram of a green clay enriched in terrestrial plant debris showing immature character of hopanes distribution. Wozniki well, 77.7m sample. DB-35 column was used.](image-url)
are different. The correlation Rb-K$_2$O is strictly

dioctahedral smectite, and illite.


elements, and were dominated by kaolinite,


present composition in K and the associated


sediments were impoverished with respect to their


temperature hydrothermal overprint, it can be


both but the trends are different. The correlation Rb-K$_2$O is strictly

linear, indicating a stable K/Rb ratio of ~200, which

is typical for sedimentary rocks, indicating control

by most common K-bearing minerals, i.e. K-
feldspar and dioctahedral mica (Shaw, 1968). The

correlation Cs-K$_2$O is not linear. When the Cs/K$_2$O

ratio is plotted against %S clear diagenetic

enrichment in Cs with respect to K appears. It is

an indication of an open system and of a selective

incorporation of Cs by illite.

It seems feasible that the authigenic quartz in the

coarsest mudstones (Fig. 3g) and local concentra-
tions of Pb, Cu, Ba, U, V and Mo (Table 2) are also

related to the Mesozoic thermal event, which
deposited large Zn and Pb deposits just E and SE

of the investigated area (Heijlen et al., 2003) These

hot fluids interacted with and remobilized metals

from the Carboniferous porphyry copper deposits

(Chaffee et al., 1994) located under the eastern part

the investigated area (Fig. 1) or perhaps they signal

other deposits hidden farther to the west.

Based on this reconstruction of the high-
temperature hydrothermal overprint, it can be

assumed that the clay fractions of original Keuper

sediments were impoverished with respect to their

present composition in K and the associated

elements, and were dominated by kaolinite,
dioctahedral smectite, and illite.

**Sedimentary and low-temperature diagenetic
overprint**

The elevated concentrations of Na, B, Sr, Cl and

Ba at the bottom of Patoka and in other western

localities indicate contact with saline waters. The

sedimentary and diagenetic history of the area

implies that such contact may have happened twice —
during sedimentation and during the infiltration

of hydrothermal fluids, which caused illitization, and

which are well documented as being saline from the

fluid inclusions in sphalerite (Kozłowski, 1995). The

elevated contents of Na, B, Sr, Cl and Ba are

characteristic of the most fine-grained sediments

(compare Figs 5 and 6), which were least illitized

because of the restricted penetration of fluids in low-

permeability rocks. Such distribution may indicate

that these elevated values signal saline conditions

during sedimentation. In more porous sediments the

original sedimentary waters were exchanged by the

hydrothermal waters, and those in turn by meteoric

waters. Analogous selective sedimentary pore water

preservation in mudstones was documented for the

Carpathian foredeep Miocene sediments (Środoń &

Kawiak, 2011).

Low-temperature authigenic minerals include

calcite, dolomite, Ca-dolomite, palygorskite,
gypsum, jarosite, pyrite, marcasite, native sulfur,
apatite and possibly dawsonite. Calcite and
dolomite are considered sedimentary in origin and

facies-bound because of their fine grain and the
oxylene isotope composition controlled by strati-
graphy (cf. Reinhard & Ricken, 2000). The largest

distance between sample locations is less than

80 km; thus the observed isotopic variation most

probably reflects the interplay between the supply

of isotopically light meteoric waters and evapora-
tion. The trend towards lighter isotopic composition

calcite at the top in Patoka, Wozniki, and

Koziegłowy implies diminishing saline water

influence, consistent with the progradation of the

peripheral alluvial fan zone, recorded also by the

cosier grain composition of the Patoka mudstones.
The change of climate towards more humidity

would produce the same effect. Calcites from the

same age zone (II) are isotopically heavier in

Patoka than in other profiles; this is consistent with

the location of Patoka farther into the basin centre,

compared to other profiles (Fig. 1).

Dolomites fit this picture possibly as markers of

the episodes with higher evaporation — in a given

sedimentary setting the oxygen in dolomites is

always isotopically heavier than in calcites. All

dolomite samples except one from the top zone (I)
in Patoka, where the fresh water influence is

strongest, are isotopically heavier than the Upper

Triassic Thetyan seawater (−1 per mil δ$^{18}$O; Veizer

et al., 1997), thus periodic marine incursions cannot

be excluded. Such periodic incursions are further

supported by the fact that increased evaporation

alone seems to produce calcite, as evidenced by the

increased calcite content of the soil horizons.
Palygorskite is present only in one thin layer in Krasiejów in association with calcite but not dolomite. The oxygen in calcite associated with palygorskite is significantly heavier than the overlying mudstone without palygorskite (Table 2), although far below the marine water level. This indicates fresh water, concentrated by evaporation, as the environment of palygorskite crystallization. The carbon in calcite associated with palygorskite is the heaviest among the analysed samples, which may be the clue to the specific conditions of palygorskite crystallization. Several explanations are possible (e.g. organic productivity, temperature: cf. Reinhard & Ricken, 2000); thus the problem cannot be solved without palygorskite-calcite isotopic analysis, which should provide the temperature of crystallization. In any case, the occurrence of palygorskite in thin horizons, characteristic also for other areas of the European Keuper (Jeans, 2006), is indicative of an episodic change of the sedimentary environment, and the lack of palygorskite in the rocks of corresponding age in other profiles implies that this change is local.

Gypsum is an obvious indicator of the evaporitic environment, recorded in the most saline part of the profile (abundant dolomite: Table 1). Most probably it was originally much more abundant, but was dissolved during later geological history and in particular during the penetration of hydrothermal waters. The pseudomorphs of gypsum and halite crystals are commonly observed in the Silesian Keuper rocks (Szulc et al., 2006).

Pyrite and marcasite most probably formed at the expense of detrital hematite, deposited in a reducing environment. Marcasite is clearly associated with the coal matter while native sulfur indicates extreme reducing conditions. Apatite concentration at the bottom of the Schilfsandstein in Wozniki signals a rapid environmental change to overbank setting like backswamp or crevasse splay, where organic-mediated concentration of phosphorus, released during the reduction of hematite (Ruttenberg & Berner, 1993) could have taken place (cf. Knudsen & Gunter, 2006).

**D detrital assemblage: provenance, weathering vs. transportation control**

The small percentage of feldspars, especially albite, in relation to quartz in the non-clay detrital assemblage (Table 1) indicates either a very long transport or an intense weathering of the parent rock. The detrital origin of kaolinite is evidenced by dominant fragmentation of the kaolinite aggregates. The abundance of kaolinite, and in particular the occasional preservation of very fragile kaolinite vermiform aggregates (Fig. 3g), strongly indicates intense weathering but a short transport. Also, the preservation of kaolinite tridimensional order points to a short transport (Shutov et al., 1970). Since well-ordered kaolinite is uncommon in soils (Wilson, 2013, p. 37), weathering crusts or older, probably Carboniferous sediments are the more plausible sources.

The intensity of weathering can also be assessed from the geochemical data. Retallack (1997) proposed several geochemical parameters, which can be applied to mudstones subjected to pedogenesis. Unfortunately these parameters include K for the calculation of palaeoweathering rate (e.g. Chemical Alteration Index — CAI), and in the studied section potassium was introduced long after deposition. A feasible alternative is the spider diagram, where elements are compared to a reference mudstone composition. For the purpose of this study the Post-Archaean Avarage Shale has been chosen (Taylor & McLennan, 1985, 1995). Enrichment factors (Fel) have been calculated as follows: \[ Fel = \frac{C_{el \ sample}}{C_{Al \ sample}} / \left( \frac{C_{el \ PAAS}}{C_{Al \ PAAS}} \right) \]

where \( C_{el} \) is an element concentration, and \( C_{Al} \) is Al concentration (Barbera et al., 2006). The PAAS-standardized distribution curves of selected elements show variable enrichment and depletion trends among all analysed samples (Fig. 15). The most prominent depletion (the concentrations from a few to 100 times smaller than in the PAAS sample) concerns sodium, clearly indicating an intense weathering of the source rocks. Other depletions indicate the lack of organic material (P, Mo), or non-marine conditions (Sr, Ba).

The ratio of kaolinite to 2:1 clays is often interpreted as a climatic signal (e.g. Brański 2011; Linterova et al., 2013). On the other hand, it is well established that these minerals are sorted during transportation, because illite and especially illite-smectite particles are much smaller than kaolinite particles (e.g. Ruffell et al., 2002). When the ratio of % kaolinite to % 2:1 clay is plotted against % quartz, used as a proxy for the grain size, a very clear pattern emerges (Fig. 16). Most samples plot as a continuous trend of % kaolinite/ % 2:1, increasing with the grain size, which
indicates that the hydraulic sorting, and not provenance or weathering intensity, is responsible for the observed variation in the mudstone composition. Only one Rhaetian sample has a high kaolinite content and plots clearly off the general trend, implying most probably a change towards more humid climate. This conclusion is supported by the disappearance of hematite at the Norian-Rhaetian border (Table 1). Four other samples with excess kaolinite are dolomitic rocks with a minute admixture of silicates, suggesting possible increased aeolian input.

Potassium feldspar is relatively enriched in the east and chlorite in the west, in rocks of similar quartz content (Table 1). Both minerals are probably detrital, as authigenic textures were not observed. The most feasible explanation for the distribution pattern is the hydraulic sorting control. The enrichment of hematite in soil horizons documents the weathering origin of hematite and indicates arid climatic conditions on land, which are consistent with the state of preservation of OM, characterized by intense oxidation in the red clays (Marynowski & Wyszomirski, 2008). Except for the soil horizons, hematite is then a detrital component. Its quantity is controlled also by the post-depositional reduction and, in effect, hematite and pyrite are negatively correlated. The post-depositional reduction of hematite is supported by the oxidized character of OM detected in green interlayers and nests (sensu Wyszomirski & Muszyński, 2007). Only in rare levels enriched in terrestrial plant debris OM retains its original, non-oxidized character. Both the TOC content and biomarker distributions are very similar in red clays and green intercalations (Marynowski & Wyszomirski, 2008). These data imply OM oxidation on land under arid conditions and then its transport with hematite and other minerals to the sedimentary basin.

The 060 reflection of 2:1 minerals results from the superposition of the aluminous illitic component, eroded from the older rocks, and a more Fe-rich smectitic weathering product (up to 0.34 Fe/O₁₀(OH)₂). Such Fe-rich smectites are typical soil weathering products (Wilson, 2013, pp. 245–246), thus this composition corroborates the weathering origin of smectite. During diagenetic illitization, this Fe-rich signature of primary smectite is inherited by the illite-smectite (Table 1).

**Chemostratigraphic correlation**

Chemostratigraphy is a branch of stratigraphy which involves the description and correlation of
sedimentary successions using variations in their elemental composition (Ratcliffe et al., 2010 and references cited therein). The complex post-sedimentary history of the investigated area makes the application of the standard chemostratigraphic approach unfeasible — the distributions of many elements have been affected by the hydrothermal event. Instead, an attempt was made to find chemical signals controlled mostly by provenance, hoping that a gradual change of the source of the detrital material can be detected and used for correlation.

The chemical signal of provenance should be independent from the hydraulic sorting; thus the correlation with % quartz, used as a proxy for the grain size, was checked in the first step. The % Al₂O₃ in the investigated rocks is independent of the grain size (Fig. 17), which reflects the higher aluminum concentration in kaolinite, enriched in the coarser grained rocks, with respect to 2:1 clays, enriched in the finer grained rocks (Fig. 3). Thus the elements usually associated with Al: Be, Cr, Ga, Nb, Sc, Ta, and Ti were taken into account. All elements show good positive correlation with Al. For Be, Ga, Sc and Ta the correlations for Patoka and Woźniki wells are very similar, while for Cr, Nb and Ti they differ. The Cr contents in Woźniki depart from the Patoka data contrary to Nb and Ti (Fig. 18). The Cr/Nb and Cr/Ti ratios were then selected as the chemostratigraphic tools.

These indices divide the investigated material into four zones (Table 2, Fig. 19). The top zone I is present only in Patoka, down to 168 m. The zone II involves the bottom of Patoka, Krasiejo´w, Lipie, top of Woźniki and Koziegło´wy, and almost the entire Kobylarz. The zone III was detected in Woźniki, Koziegło´wy and at the bottom of Kobylarz, while the zone IV in Woźniki and at the very bottom of Koziegło´wy.

Comparison of the absolute values (Table 2) indicates that Nb and Ti vary much less than Cr; thus the latter is the major controlling factor, which is consistent with the provenance control over these indices. Compared to Ti and Nb, the concentrations of Cr are much more differentiated between the rock types, Cr being indicative of the basic and ultrabasic rocks, where its concentration is up to two orders of magnitude higher than in the acidic rocks (Motzer, 2005). Thus the observed gradual decrease of the two indices up the profiles can be regarded as indicative of decreasing input of the detritus derived from more basic rocks.

The discussed chemical technique seems to be a promising tool for local stratigraphic correlation of the sections poor in index fossils, such as the cases studied here. The results are consistent with lithofacies dating by means of palinostratigraphic data (Orlowska-Zwolińska, 1983; Szulc et al., 2006). However since some diachronism of the chemical indices can be expected, cross-checking by means of e.g. magnetostratigraphy would be required.

**DISCUSSION**

The studied Keuper profile is known for scattered occurrences of ore minerals; galena, zinc sulfide,
bornite, chalcopyrite, azurite and malachite, identified by a microscopic study in the SE part of the study area and farther to SE (Grodzicka-Szymanko, 1993). These data support the interpretation of chemical anomalies presented in this study.

This study confirms earlier data on the mineral composition of the Keuper rocks from the investigated area. Wiewiörä & Wyrwicki (1977) studied <2 μm fractions and identified illite as the main clay component, illite-smectite with very variable expandability, 20–90%S, Mg-chlorite, goethite, and quartz. Kaolinite was identified only in Steinmergelkeuper, misidentified as Rhaetian in age. Bzowska & Racka (2006) investigated the Krasiejów pit and identified the complete set of minerals described in this study, including palygorskite and hematite, and additionally celestite and baryte. Branński (2011) identified illite, smectite (randomly interstratified IS according to the published XRD pattern), kaolinite, and chlorite, and observed increasing kaolinite content from Lower Norian to Lower Rhaetian.

In all the Silesian Keuper studies chlorite is reported as a minor component and expandable chlorite or corrensite were not observed. An expandable chlorite as a major component of the Upper Keuper clays has been reported from the Holy Cross Mts. region (Wyszomirski & Muszyński, 2007), located at the depocentre of the Polish part of the Keuper basin (cf. Świdrowska et al., 2008). This regional difference is consistent with the general pattern of clay minerals distribution in the basin (Krum, 1969). Preceding Keuper studies did not recognize illite-smectite and part of illite as products of the Mesozoic thermal event. This finding is applicable to the Keuper rocks from many locations as the Mesozoic thermal events have been very widespread in Europe, at least from the Paris basin to the Upper Silesia (Środon et al., 2006, and the references therein). In consequence of
this finding, soil smectite was recognized as the primary 2:1 weathering product.

The results of this study offer a warning against a too simplistic use of the kaolinite content as a palaeoclimatic indicator, arguing that most of the observed variation, including the rise of kaolinite content in the Schilfsandstein, can be explained by hydraulic sorting. This interpretation is consistent with the concentration of kaolinite at the edges of the Keuper basin (Krum, 1969). During the wetter Schilfsandstein (Carnian) period kaolinite was not necessarily forming in extra amounts, but the kaolinite available at the basin margin was transported farther into the playa plain. The observed compositional trend indicates that the lack of kaolinite in the central parts of the playa system is a primary sedimentary feature, and not a result of the authigenesis of Mg-clays.

Only the Rhaetian rocks provide evidence of an increased supply of kaolinite, well beyond the hydraulic sorting trend. This anomaly implies a long-term shift towards wetter climate, because it is consistent with the oxygen isotope data presented with other lines of evidence (cf. Feist-Burkhardt et al., 2008), and it is a basin-wide phenomenon (Brański, 2014). In general, an increased supply may also indicate a shift of provenance area, as documented by the contemporary changes in the Nile sediment load (Stanley & Wingerath, 1996). Kaolinite and smectite may form simultaneously by weathering of the same rock in locations with different rainfall (e.g. Barshad, 1966; Johnsson et al., 1993) or may represent subsequent phases of weathering in different climatic conditions.

The depositional environment of the Krasiejów bone bed with palygorskite was identified as a “meandering river of low energy” (Gruszka & Zieliński, 2008) or “typical sheetflood deposits formed by ephemeral stream system under semi-dry climatic conditions”, i.e. evaporite-free sandflat and mudflat sediments succeeding evaporitic playa-mudflat deposits, which were found in a borehole, ~15 m below the bone bed (Szulc, 2005). Exactly in such position, i.e. at the transition from alluvial fan to mud flats, palygorskite, accompanied by calcrete and gypsum, was found in a Miocene closed basin in Spain (Armenteros et al., 1995) which was never buried to a depth of more than 120 m (Ildefonso Armenteros — personal information). Dolocrete (Ca-dolomite) and silcrete were found farther from the edge zone, in the inner part of mud flats, while sepiolite and magnesian smectite in the depocentre — saline mud flat/ephemeral lake. The Silesian Keuper facies correspond in this classification to the alluvial fan and the inner mudflat area. The Keuper depocentre deposits (Holy Cross Mts. and many locations in Germany, England, etc.) also contain Mg-clays, but with abundant chloritic components (chlorite, expandable chlorite, and corrensite).

The occurrence of palygorskite in the Krasiejów profile is correlated with a radical increase of gyrogonites frequency, which consists of calcitic remains of the green algae called charophytes (Zatoń et al., 2005). Either both the algae bloom and the palygorskite crystallization are reactions to the same unknown environmental factor, or possibly the cause of palygorskite crystallization was the massive calcite precipitation resulting from algal blooming and the ensuing intense biocalcification. The latter resulted in an increase of the Mg/Ca ratio in the ambient waters, which is a prerequisite for palygorskite formation (cf. Wilson, 2013). Such a concept, assuming the algal-mediated binding of isotopically lighter carbonates, also explains well the exceptionally heavy isotopic composition of carbon from the bone bed calcitic matrix and cements as remnant precipitates.

If the established chemostratigraphic zones are chronostratigraphic, they imply that the playa conditions (Upper Gipskeuper) lasted longer in the Patoka and Koziegłowy deposits than in more southern locations. This is consistent with the location of the depocentre to the north and with the location of source areas to the S and SE (Gajewska, 1973) in the region undergoing the Cimmerian tectonic uplift since the Ladinian (Szulc, 2000; Paul et al., 2008).

**CONCLUSIONS**

Five conclusions have been drawn.

1. The rocks of Silesian Keuper underwent thermal alteration at shallow depth, recorded by the illitization of smectite and by the resetting of fission tracks in apatite. The age of this thermal event was evaluated from AFT as 200—160 Ma, i.e. from Rhaetian to Middle Jurassic, and from K-Ar dating of the clay fractions as ≤164 Ma. Illite-smectite layer composition established by XRD indicates the maximum temperature of this event close to 125°C, in agreement with the AFT data modelling, which also implies very slow cooling. These age and temperature estimates agree well
with the existing data on the hydrothermal activity in the area, responsible for the formation of Pb-Zn deposits.

2. The assemblage of detrital minerals (quartz, illite, smectite, kaolinite, hematite, minor feldspars and chlorite) documents advanced weathering and transport to the basin from a rather short distance, as indicated by the preservation of kaolinite crystal morphology and structural order. The elevated Fe content of smectite indicates a pedogenic origin, while well-ordered kaolinite is characteristic of the weathering crusts. Most variation in the detrital clay fraction composition is explained by hydraulic sorting, which concentrated kaolinite in coarse-grained rocks, dominantly in the marginal facies of the basin, while illite, smectite and chlorite were transported farther towards the centre. Only in the Rhaetian rocks, the high kaolinite content and the disappearance of hematite signal most probably the climatic change.

3. Numerous soil horizons, identified by morphological features (slickensiding, root canals, carbonate concretions, etc.) have been rather short-lasting, as the only detectable mineralogical changes with respect to the underlying sediments, are calcite and hematite accumulations.

4. Authigenic minerals in sediments include calcite, dolomite, Mg-dolomite, palygorskite, pyrite, gypsum, native sulfur and apatite. The oxygen isotopic composition of calcite evolves with time towards lighter values, reflecting stronger influence of rainwater, which can be explained either by the progradation of alluvial fan or the climatic change. Dolomite isotope compositions reflect crystallization from heavier water, not excluding marine incursions. Pyrite, gypsum, native sulfur and apatite signal local organic matter accumulations, which generated reducing conditions and the supply of phosphorus. The environment of palygorskite crystallization is constrained as evolved freshwater by the isotopic composition of coexisting calcite, locally the heaviest but well below the seawater level. Palygorskite formation, specific for the bone-bearing horizon in Krasiejo ´w, is a local episodic phenomenon correlated with a massive algal bloom in ponds located at the transition from mudflats to the alluvial fan, like in other playa systems. The lack of other authigenic Mg-rich clay minerals, typical for the central parts of the playa systems, is consistent with the peripheral location of the investigated area.

5. The Cr/Ti and Cr/Nb ratios in the bulk rocks, diminishing systematically with time, reflect the change in detrital material from more basic to more acidic sources, and allow chemostratigraphic correlation of the investigated profiles.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Małgorzata Zieliński for the clay separation work, Tadeusz Kawiak for recording the XRD patterns, Leszek Chudzikiewicz and Andrzej Łaptas for help with the graphics. The provenance interpretation benefited from the discussions with Mariusz Paszkowski. This work was financed from the NCN project N N307 117037 granted to Prof. Grzegorz Racki, whose help is highly appreciated. The comments of two reviewers and the editorial changes improved significantly the presentation of our study.

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