

1 **The influence of thermal maturity on the stable isotope compositions and concentrations of**  
2 **molybdenum, zinc and cadmium in organic-rich marine mudrocks**

3  
4 Alexander J. Dickson<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Erdem Idiz<sup>1</sup>, Donald Porcelli<sup>1</sup>, Sander H.J.M. van den Boorn<sup>3</sup>

5  
6 1. Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, UK.

7 2. Department of Earth Sciences, Royal Holloway University of London, Egham, Surrey, UK.

8 3. Shell Global Solutions International B.V., Rijswijk, The Netherlands

9 \*alex.dickson@rhul.ac.uk

10

11 Keywords: Molybdenum-isotopes, zinc-isotopes, cadmium-isotopes, organic matter, thermal  
12 maturity, pyrolysis

13

14 **Abstract**

15 The concentrations and isotopic compositions of molybdenum (Mo), zinc (Zn) and cadmium (Cd) in  
16 organic-rich marine mudrocks may be used to characterize ocean chemistry in the geological past.  
17 These approaches rely on the rarely tested assumption that the geochemical signatures of these  
18 metals are not affected by the thermal maturation of the organic matter with which they are  
19 associated. We have conducted a series of artificial maturation experiments on two well-known  
20 immature organic-rich mudrocks, the Kimmeridge Blackstone Band (Late Jurassic age), and the  
21 Posidonia Shale (Early Jurassic age). These pyrolysis experiments allow us to trace changes in  
22 the composition of organic matter through varying stages of maturation, and the concentration and  
23 isotopic compositions of metals in rock residues and evolved organic fluids. Our results indicate  
24 that the thermal maturation of organic matter does not result in significant alteration of the isotopic  
25 compositions of Mo, Zn and Cd in the rock residues, which thus retain primary palaeodepositional  
26 information. Systematic increases in the concentrations of Mo, Zn and Cd in rock residues with  
27 progressively higher thermal maturity are attributed to the loss of substrate mass in the form of  
28 fluids released during pyrolysis-induced cracking of kerogen, and to the relatively low  
29 concentrations of Mo, Zn and Cd in these fluids. The Mo-isotope compositions of fluids produced  
30 during pyrolysis are isotopically similar to the bulk rock; in contrast the isotopic composition of Zn  
31 in organic fluids is ~0.4–0.6 ‰ lighter than the bulk rock. The progressive loss of organic matter  
32 from rock residues during maturation coupled with the increases in metal concentrations leads to  
33 an increase of metal/TOC ratios, which may be up to double their original (syn-depositional) value  
34 in thermally mature rocks. This observation must be taken into account when using metal/TOC  
35 ratios as proxies for oceanic metal inventories throughout geological time. Finally, calculations  
36 using the mass of asphaltenes recovered during the pyrolysis experiments suggest that organically  
37 bound Mo, Zn and Cd account for several percent of the total rock metal inventory.

38

## 39 **1. Introduction**

40 Sedimentary organic matter (kerogen) is thermally degraded during the process of catagenesis  
41 (Tissot and Welte, 1984). With progressive burial, kerogen undergoes thermal cracking in  
42 response to increasing temperature (typically on the order of ~30°C heating per kilometer of  
43 burial) resulting in the production of lower molecular weight compounds in a solvent-extractible  
44 bitumen fraction (Fig. 1). In the early stages of cracking, this bitumen is composed of a significant  
45 proportion of high molecular weight asphaltenes that contain N, S and O heteroatoms, and are  
46 generally accepted as smaller building blocks of the parent kerogen. With progressive maturation,  
47 more of the kerogen is cracked to generate bitumen, which itself undergoes further cracking as  
48 well as disproportionation, generating lower molecular weight hydrocarbon molecules and a coke-  
49 like C-rich residue that is insoluble (pyrobitumen). During this process, there are also losses of  
50 gases such as CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>S. Overall, as kerogen becomes more thermally 'mature,' it passes  
51 through the stages of oil generation and gas generation, with up to 60% of the original organic  
52 matter lost due to secondary migration of the generated products away from the host rock (Tissot  
53 and Welte, 1984; Lewan et al., 1979; Raiswell and Berner, 1987). The end of the maturation  
54 process (metagenesis) comprises a C-rich residue from the original kerogen and pyrobitumen  
55 (coke) from secondary cracking and disproportionation of bitumen.

56

### 57 *Trace metals in organic-rich rocks*

58 Some metals are found in high concentrations in organic-rich rocks (e.g. Brumsack et al., 1980).  
59 These enrichments can be attributed to low Eh conditions in aquatic environments that promote  
60 the delivery and burial of organic-matter and redox-sensitive metals such as Mo, U, V, Ni, Cd, Zn,  
61 Cr and Re (Tribovillard et al., 2006; Piper and Calvert, 2009). Relationships between these metals  
62 and between metals and total organic carbon (TOC), have been used to define indices to  
63 reconstruct paleoenvironmental conditions during the deposition of marine sediments (e.g. Lewan  
64 and Maynard, 1982; Lewan, 1984; Algeo and Lyons, 2006; Algeo and Tribovillard, 2009; Sweere et  
65 al., 2016).

66 Metals associated with organic-matter in sedimentary deposits may be adsorbed or bound  
67 by organic ligands in compounds such as metalloporphyrins, naphthenates, metal chlorins, or high-  
68 molecular weight polar compounds (e.g. asphaltenes) (Filby, 1994). For example, Ni and V are  
69 known to be incorporated into organic porphyrins under specific Eh–Ph conditions (Lewan and  
70 Maynard, 1982, Lewan, 1984), and have the highest concentrations of metals in oils and bitumens  
71 (Ellrich et al., 1985; Mercer et al., 1992; Fitzgerald and Filby, 1992). Other metals have also been  
72 measured in oils and bitumens at µg/g concentrations, although it is not clear how these metals are  
73 structurally associated with the organic matter (e.g. Ellrich et al., 1985; Odermatt and Curialle,  
74 1991; Mercer et al., 1992; Fitzgerald and Filby, 1992; Selby et al., 2007). Direct measurement of  
75 metal bound to kerogen is difficult as the only way to isolate kerogen is by destroying the mineral  
76 matrix through the use of strong acids such as HF and HCL, which can also affect the metal

77 content of the kerogen. Consequently the behaviour of metals in organic-rich mudrocks as bitumen  
78 is generated and removed from the parent kerogen is poorly understood.

79

### 80 *Metals and metal isotopes as palaeo-chemical tracers*

81 The isotopic compositions of molybdenum, cadmium and zinc in organic-rich marine sediments  
82 have recently been investigated as tracers for redox conditions and nutrient cycling in past oceans  
83 (Georgiev et al., 2015; Little et al., 2016; Vance et al., 2016; Dickson, 2017; Kendall et al., 2017).  
84 Implicit in these studies is the assumption that changes in the structure of the organic matter to  
85 which these metals may be bound, nor the progressive loss of organic matter during thermal  
86 maturation and fluid migration, will affect the isotopic composition of the bulk rock. This assumption  
87 is important, because the behaviour of these metal-based isotope systems are defined from  
88 observations of waters and sediments accumulating in the modern ocean, where thermal  
89 maturation is unimportant (Barling et al., 2001; McManus et al., 2002; Neubert et al., 2008; Siebert  
90 et al., 2003, 2006; Poulson et al., 2006; Poulson-Brucker et al., 2009; Noordman et al., 2014; Little  
91 et al., 2016; Vance et al., 2016). In contrast, many studies, particularly using the molybdenum-  
92 isotope system, use organic-rich mudrocks from the geological record that have undergone varying  
93 degrees of burial and uplift, and hence, thermal maturation (e.g. Arnold et al., 2004; Wille et al.,  
94 2008; Duan et al., 2010; Gordon et al., 2010; Asael et al., 2013). While some studies (Mongenot et  
95 al., 1996; Ardakani et al., 2017) have suggested that thermal maturation may have little influence  
96 on the concentration of molybdenum in organic-rich mudrocks, there is no current evidence for the  
97 effect of maturity on the isotopic composition of transition metals.

98 This study uses controlled laboratory pyrolysis experiments to determine whether thermal  
99 maturation leads to discernable shifts in the isotopic composition and concentration of  
100 molybdenum, cadmium and zinc in organic-rich mudrocks. Furthermore, we investigate the  
101 partitioning of these metals between organic sub-fractions by measuring the concentration and  
102 isotopic compositions of metals in the solvent-extractable organic matter (bitumen) and the fraction  
103 of this bitumen that is insoluble in apolar solvents (asphaltenes). The metal concentrations within  
104 the asphaltene fractions are subsequently used to calculate the inventory of organically-bound  
105 metals in the bulk rocks.

106

## 107 **2. Methods**

108 Artificial maturation of kerogen using pyrolysis is commonly utilized to simulate the hydrocarbon  
109 generation process (Lewan, 1979; Lewan et al. review). In this study, a series of aliquots of two  
110 thermally immature organic-rich mudrocks were pyrolysed for varying lengths of time at a fixed  
111 temperature of 325°C. Operational terms for each sample fraction are noted in Fig. 2 and used  
112 throughout the discussion, but are briefly noted here for clarity. *Bulk rocks* are the unaltered,  
113 powdered rock without any additional chemical treatment; *extracted rock residues* are rock  
114 powders from which soluble organic matter has been removed; *bitumen* is the total soluble organic

115 matter; *asphaltenes* are the high-molecular weight bitumen fraction that is insoluble in *n*-heptane;  
116 and *maltenes* are the hydrocarbon-containing lighter molecular weight bitumen fraction that is  
117 soluble in *n*-heptane. Bitumen that evolved at each step of the pyrolysis process was extracted  
118 using organic solvents, and the concentrations and isotopic compositions of Mo, Zn and Cd were  
119 measured from these and the extracted rock residues.

120

### 121 *2.1 Sample material*

122 Two samples were used in this study. The first was obtained from the Blackstone Band level of the  
123 Kimmeridge Clay Formation (Late Jurassic age), exposed in outcrop in Kimmeridge Bay, Dorset,  
124 England. The organic matter in this outcrop is immature, with a low vitrinite reflectance (VR%) of  
125 ~0.4–0.5 (Scotchman, 1990). The second sample was obtained from the carbonate-rich Posidonia  
126 Shale (Early Jurassic age) in a drill core taken from the Lower Saxony Basin (LSB) in northern  
127 Germany. The sample used is also immature, with a VR% of ~0.54. Large (200 g) aliquots of each  
128 sample were carefully cleaned to remove external surfaces and homogenized in an agate TEMA  
129 mill.

130

### 131 *2.2 Preparation of labware, acids and solvents*

132 Laboratory reagents, glassware and Teflon were treated prior to use to remove organic and  
133 inorganic contaminants. Teflon labware was refluxed in concentrated HNO<sub>3</sub> and soaked in dilute  
134 HCl, HNO<sub>3</sub> and ultra-pure (18.2 MΩ) water. Glassware was initially sterilized at 450°C in a furnace  
135 overnight before soaking in hot 20% HNO<sub>3</sub> and rinsed with hot 18.2 MΩ water. Trace-metal-grade  
136 acids were quartz-distilled prior to use. All organic solvents (*n*-heptane, methanol (MeOH),  
137 dichloromethane (DCM)) were purchased as HPLC or trace-metal grade, and subsequently  
138 distilled in a Teflon u-bend still to further reduce the level of metal contaminants. Most chemical  
139 steps were undertaken in a class 10 trace-metal-clean laminar flow hood. However, Soxhlet  
140 extractions were undertaken in a pre-cleaned standard laboratory fume hood. Soxhlet thimbles  
141 were acid-cleaned PTFE.

142

### 143 *2.3 Pyrolysis experiments*

144 The experimental approach used is summarized in Fig. 2. Untreated aliquots of the Kimmeridge  
145 Clay and Posidonia Shale were analysed for bulk organic and inorganic geochemical  
146 characteristics (outlined in sections 2.4 and 2.5). Indigenous bitumen was then extracted from ~10  
147 g sub-samples using a 3:1 mixture of DCM:MeOH in a Soxhlet for 36 hours. The extracted rock  
148 residues were dried, re-homogenized and subdivided into 1.5 g aliquots, which were loaded into  
149 clean glass Carius tubes. Each Carius tube was connected to a vacuum extraction line and flame  
150 sealed after the internal pressure was reduced to 10<sup>-2</sup> atm. The tubes were then loaded into  
151 stainless steel containment vessels for heating.

152 Each sample was subjected to isothermal heating at 325°C for either 1 day, 4 days, 2  
153 weeks or 5 weeks. Upon removal from the furnace, Carius tubes were taken from their stainless  
154 steel jackets and immediately placed in a freezer set to -80°C. Each tube was scored with a  
155 diamond cutter and broken open. Any bitumen evolved during pyrolysis heating was then extracted  
156 by Soxhlet refluxing for 36 hours. The remaining extracted rock residues were dried and re-  
157 homogenised prior to characterisation of their bulk organic and inorganic geochemistry.

158 The bitumen fractions were dried under a stream of N<sub>2</sub> and then weighed to obtain their dry  
159 mass. After an aliquot was taken for ICP analysis, each sample was mixed with 5–10 ml *n*-  
160 heptane, agitated for 30 minutes, and left to settle overnight. This process separated the high-  
161 molecular-weight asphaltene fraction. The remaining maltene fraction was removed from the  
162 precipitated asphaltenes by pipette after centrifugation. The asphaltene residues were treated with  
163 a further *n*-heptane rinse to ensure complete maltene removal. Both fractions were dried gently on  
164 a hotplate at 35°C and the dry residues were weighed.

165

#### 166 *2.4 Bulk organic geochemistry*

167 The amount, composition and thermal maturity of the organic matter in the extracted and  
168 unextracted bulk rocks and rock residues were characterized using a Rock-Eval 6 (Behar et al.,  
169 2001). Samples were measured in triplicate and the precision of the measurements was monitored  
170 using 13 analyses of an in-house mudrock standard (St. Audries Bay Shale). The relative 2 S.D.  
171 precisions were ±6 % for total organic carbon (TOC), ±10 % for hydrogen index, and ±0.5 % for  
172 T<sub>max</sub>. Note that T<sub>max</sub> is the temperature of maximum hydrocarbon generation during the Rock-Eval  
173 analysis and is an indicator of thermal maturity. It is not the same as the temperature the samples  
174 were heated to during pyrolysis in section 2.3. Individual uncertainties are shown in Fig. 3 as the 2  
175 S.D. of triplicate measurements for each sample.

176

#### 177 *2.5 Inorganic geochemistry*

178 For metal concentrations, sample aliquots were digested in a 3:1 mixture of concentrated HNO<sub>3</sub>  
179 and HCl for 3 days to oxidize organic matter and authigenic components, and were subsequently  
180 dried and re-dissolved in 2:1 HNO<sub>3</sub>/HF to dissolve silicates. Sample digests were diluted 7500-fold  
181 and measured on a quadrupole ICP-MS. The accuracy and precision of trace-metal concentration  
182 data were monitored using standards within each run, and were within ±10% for Mo, Cd and Zn.

183 Isotopic measurements of Mo and Zn were made from the same sample powder aliquot. An  
184 aliquot containing ~400–500 ng Mo and Zn was mixed with purified solutions containing a <sup>100</sup>Mo–  
185 <sup>97</sup>Mo double spike and a <sup>67</sup>Zn–<sup>64</sup>Zn double spike. Double spikes were added so as to obtain a  
186 spike to sample ratio for Mo of ~0.6, and a spike to sample ratio for Zn of ~1.2. Samples were  
187 digested initially in inverse *aqua-regia* at 150°C for 48 hours. Subsequently, a small amount of HF  
188 was added to dissolve silicates and heated for 24 hours at 120°C. Following digestion, Mo and Zn  
189 were separated using a 200 µl anion-exchange column (Sweere et al., 2018). The Zn aliquot was

190 passed through the column procedure a second time to maximize the removal of interfering  
191 elements Ba and Ni. Similar procedures were used to purify Mo and Zn from the bitumen and  
192 asphaltene extracts, except that double spikes were added directly to the digested sample aliquots  
193 previously used for quadrupole ICP-MS measurements.

194 The bulk rock and extracted rock residue digests initially used for quadrupole ICP-MS  
195 measurements were spiked with a  $^{113}\text{Cd}$ – $^{111}\text{Cd}$  double spike to obtain a spike/sample ratio of ~1.  
196 Cd was purified from matrix elements using 2 ml AG1-X8 anion exchange resin (200–400 mesh).  
197 Samples were loaded in 0.5M HCl/1M HF, and matrix elements were subsequently washed off in  
198 0.5M HCl/1M HF and 4M HCl. Sn was then eluted in 10 ml 3M  $\text{HNO}_3$ /0.1M HBr, before Cd was  
199 eluted in 8 ml 3M  $\text{HNO}_3$ . The column procedure was then repeated using 200  $\mu\text{l}$  columns to ensure  
200 removal of the interfering element Sn. Samples were loaded in 0.8 ml 0.5M HCl/1M HF, and matrix  
201 elements were removed with 1.5 ml 0.5M HCl/1M HF and 1.5 ml 4M HCl. Sn was eluted in 1.2 ml  
202 3M  $\text{HNO}_3$ /0.1M HBr, before Cd was eluted in 1 ml 3M  $\text{HNO}_3$ . Cd recovery was typically >95%.

203 Isotopic measurements were made using a Nu Plasma I MC-ICP-MS coupled to a Nu  
204 Instruments DSN desolvating sample introduction system. Mo- and Cd-isotopes were measured on  
205 ~80 ppb and 60 ppb solutions respectively in low-resolution mode. Zn isotopes were measured on  
206 ~120 ppb solutions in medium-resolution mode. To account for changing backgrounds in the  
207 instrument, blank 2%  $\text{HNO}_3$  acid was measured prior to every sample and subtracted from the raw  
208 sample voltages before data processing. All samples were corrected to bracketing isotopic  
209 standard solutions mixed with a similar proportion of double-spike. Spike-sample mixtures were re-  
210 processed from the raw voltage data offline, and the results are expressed in delta-notation as  
211 follows:

$$\delta_{\text{Mo, Cd, Zn}} = ((R_{\text{sample}} - R_{\text{standard}}) / R_{\text{standard}}) * 1000 \quad (1)$$

212  
213 Where R is either the  $^{98}\text{Mo}/^{95}\text{Mo}$ ,  $^{66}\text{Zn}/^{64}\text{Zn}$ , or  $^{114}\text{Cd}/^{110}\text{Cd}$ . Mo isotopes are expressed as  $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$   
214 relative to NIST 3134, where NIST 3134 has a value of +0.25 ‰ (Nägler et al., 2014). Zn isotopes  
215 are expressed as  $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$  relative to IRMM-3702, where IRMM-3702 has a value of +0.28 ‰  
216 (Archer et al., 2016). Cd isotopes are expressed as  $\delta^{114/110}\text{Cd}$  calculated using the composition  
217 NIST 3108 as the standard (Abouchami et al., 2012). Mo, Zn and Cd concentrations were  
218 calculated by isotope dilution, using the  $^{100}\text{Mo}/^{95}\text{Mo}$ ,  $^{64}\text{Zn}/^{66}\text{Zn}$  and  $^{111}\text{Cd}/^{112}\text{Cd}$  ratios.

219 The accuracy and reproducibility of the Mo data was estimated using repeated digestions  
220 of the SDO-1 USGS shale standard, which gave a value of  $1.04 \pm 0.08$  ‰ ( $n = 33$ , 2 S.D.) that is  
221 within uncertainty of the value published by Goldberg et al. (2013). The accuracy and precision of  
222 Zn and Cd measurements were assessed using measurements of the AA-ETH Zn (Alfa Aesar Zn  
223 foil, lot I17Z058) solution standard and the ‘OxCad’ (Alfa Aesar Specpure Cd, lot 81-081192A) Cd  
224 solution standards, spiked and diluted in proportion to ‘unknown’ samples measured in the same  
225 analysis sessions. The reproducibility of Zn and Cd measurements was also estimated with a  
226  
227

228 limited number of SDO-1 digestions. The value measured for AA-ETH was  $0.04 \pm 0.11$  ‰ relative  
229 to IRMM-3702 (n= 13, 2 S.D.), which is within uncertainty of the weighed mean of  $-0.02 \pm 0.032$  ‰  
230 published by Archer et al. (2016). The 2 S.D. reproducibility of  $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$  for SDO-1 was  $\pm 0.07$  ‰ (n  
231 = 7). The value measured for OxCad was  $-0.86 \pm 0.06$  ‰ (n = 9, 2 S.D.), which is within  
232 uncertainty of the value of  $-0.81 \pm 0.1$  ‰ published by Abouchami et al. (2012). The 2 S.D.  
233 reproducibility of  $\delta^{114/110}\text{Cd}$  for SDO-1 was  $\pm 0.06$  ‰ (n = 5).

234 A procedural blank was measured by refluxing distilled organic solvents in a clean Soxhlet  
235 for 36 hours. These solvents were transferred to a Teflon vial and evaporated dry, before being  
236 digested using the same mixture of  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{HCl}$  and  $\text{HF}$  as the bulk sediment samples. After  
237 evaporating the digestion acids, the sample was re-diluted in 10ml 2%  $\text{HNO}_3$  and measured using  
238 a quadrupole ICP-MS in the same analysis session as the bulk sediment powders. The total  
239 procedural blanks for Mo and Zn were 2 ng and 8 ng respectively, which are <0.5% of the total Mo  
240 and 1–2% of the total Zn processed per sample. The Cd blank was below the detection limit.

241

### 242 **3. Results**

#### 243 *3.1 Bulk organic geochemistry*

244 Results of the bulk organic geochemical measurements are shown in Fig. 3 and Tables 1 and 2.  
245 As expected, the effect of progressively longer pyrolysis heating results in increasing maturation of  
246 both samples. The Rock-Eval  $T_{\text{max}}$  (temperature of maximum hydrocarbon yield) over the course of  
247 the 1 day, 4 day, 2 week and 5 week experiments increased from 413 to 450°C (equivalent to a  
248 calculated vitrinite reflectance (VR/E%) of ~0.4–1.0, with the vitrinite equivalence calculated from  
249  $T_{\text{max}}$ ) for the Kimmeridge Clay and 432 to 450°C (VR/E% of ~0.54–1.0) for the Posidonia Shale.  
250 Correspondingly, TOC decreased from 35% to 29% (-17% change) for the Kimmeridge Clay and  
251 from 13% to 7% (-42% change) for the Posidonia Shale. The hydrogen index (HI) decreased from  
252 733 to 178 mgHC/g TOC for the Kimmeridge Clay and from 702 to 239 mgHC/g TOC for the  
253 Posidonia Shale. The decreases in HI are represented as near linear increases in the  
254 transformation ratio (TR) of both rocks with progressive longer heating times (Fig. 3). These results  
255 are consistent with primary cracking of the kerogen and production of bitumen (and gas) during  
256 catagenesis, with linear relationships between heating time and  $T_{\text{max}}$ , HI, TOC and TR (Fig. 3).

257 The highest maturity sample for the Kimmeridge Clay does not contain the lowest TOC  
258 concentration of the experiments. This observation suggests at the highest maturities,  
259 disproportionation of bitumen into pyrobitumen (coke) and lighter hydrocarbons and gases  
260 occurred, resulting in increased TOC in the rock residues as a result of the addition of  
261 unextractable organic mater.

262

#### 263 *3.2 Trace metal concentrations of bulk rocks and extracted rock residues*

264 Mo, Zn and Cd concentrations and isotope ratios for bulk rocks and extracted rock residues are  
265 shown in Fig. 4, and in Tables 1 and 2. The bulk rock Mo concentrations of 47 ppm for the

266 Kimmeridge Clay and 124 ppm for the Posidonia Shale represent significant authigenic  
267 enrichments of >150-fold above average crustal values when normalized to Al. The results of the  
268 pyrolysis experiments show that Mo concentrations increase across the maturity range, from 47 to  
269 74 ppm for the Kimmeridge Clay and 124 to 132 ppm for the Posidonia Shale. Mo/TOC ratios  
270 calculated for each rock increase by ~58–85% over the same maturity range. The bulk rock Zn  
271 concentrations of 42 ppm for the Kimmeridge Clay and 211 ppm for the Posidonia Shale also  
272 represent authigenic enrichments of ~2.5 for the Kimmeridge Clay and ~10 for the Posidonia Shale  
273 when normalized to Al. For the Kimmeridge Clay, the Zn concentration is ~37 ppm in the bulk rock,  
274 while extracted rock residues have higher values of ~55 ppm, with one outlier of 117 ppm. For the  
275 Posidonia Shale, Zn concentrations for the bulk rock and non-pyrolysed rock residue are 243 and  
276 195 ppm, respectively. The difference can potentially be explained by a significant adsorbed Zn  
277 component that was removed during solvent treatment. The Zn concentration of the extracted rock  
278 residue after 4 days of heating has a higher value of 293 ppm Zn. The bulk rock Cd concentrations  
279 of 1 ppm for the Kimmeridge Clay and 2.6 ppm for the Posidonia Shale are enriched >380-fold  
280 above average crustal values when normalized to Al. Cadmium concentrations behave in a similar  
281 manner to molybdenum, increasing across the maturity range from 1 to 1.4 ppm for the  
282 Kimmeridge Clay and from 2.4 to 3.1 ppm for the Posidonia Shale (Fig 4). Cd/TOC ratios increase  
283 across the maturity range by ~45% for the Kimmeridge Clay and by 105% for the Posidonia Shale.

284

### 285 *3.3 Trace metal concentrations of bitumens and asphaltenes*

286 The Mo and Zn concentrations and isotope compositions of extracted bitumens and asphaltenes  
287 are shown in Fig 5 and Tables 1 and 2. Although these concentrations are appreciable, they are  
288 significantly lower than in the bulk rock starting materials and the extracted rock residues. For the  
289 Posidonia Shale, bitumens and asphaltenes have up to 32 ppm Mo, which is lower than the rock  
290 residues. Similarly, the concentrations of Zn in the bitumens and asphaltenes are generally <33  
291 ppm, with a single much higher value of 93 ppm. Interestingly, the Mo/Zn ratio in the extracted rock  
292 residues are in the 0.9–1.2 range, but are ~0.4 in the bitumens (Tables 1 and 2). These ratios  
293 suggest that a greater fraction of Zn is mobilized in the bitumen phase compared to Mo, with the  
294 implication that a significantly larger proportion of the total Zn is bound or adsorbed to kerogen  
295 than total Mo.

296 The Mo and Zn concentrations for the Kimmeridge Clay bitumens are similar to those of the  
297 asphaltenes (Fig. 6). Mo and Zn are both slightly more concentrated in the asphaltene versus the  
298 bitumen fractions of the Posidonia Shale. The ICP-MS analyses of Cd concentrations averaged  
299 0.12 ppm for Kimmeridge bitumens and 0.11 ppm for Posidonia bitumens.

300

### 301 *3.4 Trace element isotope compositions*

302 For the bulk rocks, as well as the extracted rock residues, the Mo, Zn, and Cd isotope ratios are  
303 indistinguishable across the full maturity range for both the Kimmeridge and Posidonia samples



304 (Fig. 4). The average bitumen  $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$  values for the Kimmeridge samples are similar to the bulk  
305 rocks and rock residues, albeit with a greater spread in the data (Fig. 5). Posidonia shale bitumen  
306  $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$  values are marginally lighter than the bulk rock and rock residues (average [residue –  
307 bitumen] = 0.27 ‰). For  $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$ , the average [extracted rock residue – bitumen] difference is 0.4–  
308 0.6 ‰, which is the same range as the difference between the isotopic composition of modern  
309 seawater and Zn accumulating in organic-rich sediments (Little et al., 2016; Vance et al., 2016).  
310 The Mo and Zn isotope compositions of bitumens and asphaltenes are almost identical to one  
311 another in both the Kimmeridge Clay and Posidonia Shale (Fig. 6). The total mass of Cd recovered  
312 in the bitumen extracts was insufficient for isotopic analysis.

313

## 314 **4. Discussion**

### 315 *4.1 Isotope compositions of rock residues*

316 The most striking feature of the isotope data is the lack of variability in the fractions that have  
317 undergone different levels of pyrolysis for both the Kimmeridge and Posidonia samples (Fig. 3),  
318 despite a loss of sample mass due to the formation of bitumen.

319 In general, there is potential for altering the Mo, Zn and Cd isotopic compositions of the  
320 extracted rock residues if a sufficient fraction of isotopically distinct metal was removed along with  
321 the bitumen. Indeed, significant concentrations of Mo, Zn and Cd were found in the bitumen  
322 extracts (Fig. 5), in a similar vein to previous studies that have identified ug/g concentrations of Mo  
323 and in bitumens extracted from the Monterey Formation (Odermatt and Curiale, 1991), New  
324 Albany Shale (Mercer et al., 1992), Woodford Shale and Green River Shales (van Berkel, 1987) as  
325 well as in petroleum samples (Ventura et al., 2015).

326 The potential of metal fluid loss to alter the rock residue isotopic compositions can be  
327 quantified using simple mass-balance calculations of metals in the bulk rock and bitumen phases.  
328 Firstly, the fraction of each metal removed into the bitumen during each pyrolysis step can be  
329 calculated using the mass of the bitumen, along with the measured concentrations of metals in the  
330 bulk rock and the bitumen:

331

$$332 \quad f_{\text{Bit}}^X = \frac{(f_{\text{bit}} * [X]_{\text{bit}})}{[X]_{\text{rock}}} \quad (2)$$

333

334 Where  $f_{\text{Bit}}^X$  is the fraction of metal X contained in the extracted bitumen,  $f_{\text{bit}}$  is the ratio of the mass  
335 of the bitumen to the mass of the starting rock ( $M_{\text{Bit}}/M_{\text{Rock}}$ ),  $[X]_{\text{bit}}$  is the concentration of the metal  
336 (Mo, Zn or Cd) in the extracted bitumen, and  $[X]_{\text{rock}}$  is the concentration of Mo, Zn and Cd in the  
337 unextracted bulk rock. The results of these calculations are listed in Table 3. The fraction of Mo  
338 contained within the extracted bitumens range from 0.000–0.037 across the full range of maturity  
339 experiments for both the Kimmeridge Clay and the Posidonia Shale. The fractions of Zn contained  
340 within the extracted bitumens are slightly higher, ranging from 0.005–0.311. The fraction of Cd  
341 contained within extracted bitumens of both samples (0.001–0.205) is similar to Mo and Zn (Tables

342 3 and 4). Overall, in each experiment the fraction of each metal removed in bitumen is a small  
343 fraction of the total inventory of that metal in the rock.

344 The calculated bitumen metal fractions can be combined with their measured isotopic  
345 compositions to calculate the effect of fluid removal on the extracted rock residue isotopic  
346 compositions. The balance of mass in the experiments is:

347

$$348 f_{Rock}^X = f_{Bit}^X + f_{Res}^X + f_{Vol}^X \quad (3)$$

349

350 where  $f_{Vol}$  is the mass fraction of volatiles evolved and lost during pyrolysis. The isotope mass  
351 balance is:

352

$$353 f_{Rock}^X \delta_{Rock}^X = f_{Bit}^X \delta_{Bit}^X + f_{Res}^X \delta_{Res}^X \quad (4)$$

354

355 where  $\delta_{Rock}^X$ ,  $\delta_{Bit}^X$ , and  $\delta_{Res}^X$  are the isotope compositions of the bulk rock, bitumen, and extracted  
356 rock residue, respectively. If there was only minor volatile loss so that it can be assumed that  
357  $f_{Vol}^X=0$ , then:

358

$$359 \delta_{Res}^X = \frac{\delta_{Rock}^X - (f_{Bit}^X \delta_{Bit}^X)}{1 - f_{Bit}^X} \quad (5)$$

360

361 As expected, the calculated rock residue  $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$  values (1.84 ‰, varying only at the third decimal  
362 place) are always within uncertainty of measured non-pyrolysed bulk rock value of  $1.84 \pm 0.11$  ‰.  
363 Although the bitumen fractions have isotopically light Zn signatures compared to bulk rocks (Fig 5),  
364 they contain relatively little Zn and thus result in calculated rock residue  $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$  values of 0.45–  
365 0.52 ‰ that are the same as for the bulk rock ( $0.45 \pm 0.05$  ‰). Insufficient Cd in the bitumens  
366 prevented isotopic measurements, meaning that the Cd isotope composition of the extracted rock  
367 residues could not be calculated.

368 For Mo, the insignificant fractionation observed between bitumens and extracted rock  
369 residues means the removal of even large amounts of organically bound Mo would not induce a  
370 substantial isotopic change in the residue Mo. For Zn, where organic extracts are isotopically  
371 lighter than the extracted rock residues, ~10–30% of Zn would need to be removed into the  
372 bitumen to induce a >0.1 ‰ shift in the rock residue composition. Therefore, although there is a  
373 mobilisation of these metals by the bitumen fraction during pyrolysis, the fraction of metals  
374 transferred is not large enough for the isotopic composition of thermally matured mudrocks to be  
375 significantly altered. Consequently, useful paleo-depositional information may be retained in the  
376 isotopic compositions of thermally mature organic-rich mudrocks.

377

378 *4.2 Changes in metal concentrations of rock residues*

379 The increase in Mo, Zn and Cd concentrations and metal/TOC ratios with increasing maturity in the  
380 Kimmeridge and Posidonia experiments can be explained by a reduction in the mass of the bulk  
381 rock, which would act to concentrate the residual metals. This process would be expected to occur  
382 in view of the bitumen metal fractions that are always substantially less than in the residues, and  
383 in view of the combined loss of rock mass by bitumen removal, loss of volatile organic matter, and  
384 water from the dehydration of clays during heating,. The extent of this effect can be calculated:

$$386 \quad C_{res} = \frac{C_{bulk} * (1 - f_{bit-metal})}{1 - f_{bit}} \quad (6)$$

387  
388 Using the concentrations of Mo, Zn and Cd in the bulk rock samples as a starting point ( $C_{bulk}$ ),  
389 calculated changes in metal concentrations capture the primary increases observed in the  
390 Kimmeridge Clay and Posidonia Shale rock residues (Fig. 7), albeit with some scatter, and thus  
391 support the contention that these increases are primarily driven by mass loss of the rock during  
392 catagenesis.

393 The substantial increase in metal concentrations observed in the experiments, replicated in  
394 two different types of starting rock, suggests that thermal maturation exerts a strong control on the  
395 metal concentrations, and on metal/TOC ratios of high maturity organic-rich mudrocks. This effect  
396 is not likely to adversely affect qualitative palaeoenvironmental interpretations using these proxies  
397 in single stratigraphic successions of limited spatial extent that experienced a common burial  
398 history. It is, however, likely to affect the detail of long-term reconstructions of metal inventories in  
399 global seawater across multi-million year timescales, which incorporate data from numerous  
400 different sections that may have experienced varying thermal and fluid migration histories (e.g.  
401 Scott et al., 2008, 2013; Partin et al., 2013; Sheen et al., 2018). In principle, a sedimentary host  
402 could retain its syn-depositional metal concentration if no fluid loss occurred. However, zero fluid  
403 loss would be extremely unlikely across burial-exhumation timescales of  $10^7$ – $10^9$  years, and even  
404 harder to reject as a possibility from field data. The implication is that already very low Mo/TOC  
405 ratios previously documented from thermally mature euxinic successions (e.g. Algeo and Rowe,  
406 2011), and indeed during the Proterozoic (Lyons et al., 2014) are likely to be upper estimates, with  
407 the ‘true’ syn-depositional concentrations perhaps as much as half those observed. Also, these  
408 new pyrolysis data suggest that the availability of bio-essential nutrients and oxygen inferred in  
409 these studies for past oceans may have been even lower than previously suggested from metal  
410 concentration data. Likewise, quantitative inferences of hydrographic situations inferred from the  
411 comparison of metal/TOC ratios in modern and ancient basins need to account for the thermal  
412 maturation of older sedimentary successions.

#### 413 414 *4.3 Distribution of Mo, Zn and Cd in organic matter*

415 The similarity between the isotopic compositions of the bitumen and asphaltene fractions in Fig. 6  
416 is consistent with the general observation that metals in organic fluids are primarily associated with

417 the asphaltene fraction (e.g. Yen, 1975; Duyck et al., 2008). Similar observations have also been  
418 made for rhenium and osmium in oils (Selby et al., 2007). It is generally observed that there is a  
419 decreasing metal concentration with maturation in oils, primarily because of the overall decrease in  
420 the asphaltene fraction at progressively higher maturities (Hitchon et al., 1975).

421 A wealth of previous pyrolysis studies have identified that asphaltenes and kerogens are  
422 structurally similar (Behar et al., 1984; Huc et al., 1984; Behar and Pelet, 1985; Eglinton et al.,  
423 1991; Horsfield et al., 1991; di Primio and Horsfield, 1996; Dieckmann et al., 2002;) and therefore  
424 that asphaltenes can be viewed as building blocks of the parent kerogen, cleaved off as high  
425 molecular weight fragments. In our study, we therefore assume that asphaltene ligands binding the  
426 trace metals in the bitumen are the same as those in the parent kerogens. Consequently, analysis  
427 of asphaltenes can be used to estimate the budgets of Mo, Zn and Cd associated with total organic  
428 matter. Note that organic matter has been measured in the bulk rocks as TOC, the concentration  
429 of organic carbon, while the concentration of organic matter is equal to  $[TOC] / [C]_{OM}$ . The fraction  
430 of the total budget of each metal in the bulk rock found in organic matter can be calculated using  
431 the metal concentration in the asphaltene extracts ( $[X]_{asp}$ ) obtained from the early stages of  
432 pyrolysis (1 and 4 day experiments, prior to disproportionation of the asphaltenes to lower  
433 molecular weight compounds at higher maturities):

434

$$435 \quad f_{OM}^X = \frac{[X]_{asp}[TOC]}{[X]_{Bulk}[C]_{OM}} \quad (7)$$

436

437 where  $f_{OM}^X$  is the fraction of metal X in the bulk rock organic matter,  $[X]_{asp}$  and  $[X]_{Bulk}$  are the  
438 concentrations of the metal in the asphaltene and bulk rock, respectively, and  $[C]_{OM}$  is the  
439 concentration of C in the organic matter. This calculation shows that for the Kimmeridge Clay, only  
440  $4.5 \pm 2.2$  % of Mo,  $12.4 \pm 3.8$  % of Zn and  $8.1 \pm 4.1$  % of Cd is associated with organic matter (2  
441 S.D. of n=4 asphaltene values). Similarly for the Posidonia Shale, only 2.6 % of Mo, 0.2 % of Zn  
442 and 3.6 % of Cd is associated with organic matter (n=1 asphaltene values, Fig. 8). The implication  
443 of Fig. 8 is that Mo and Zn, which are authigenically enriched over typical detrital contributions in  
444 these samples, are primarily held in inorganic phases, probably sulfides (Helz et al., 2011; Vance  
445 et al., 2016). There is insufficient data to determine if this is the case for Cd. Note that these values  
446 assume  $[C]_{OM} = 1$ . An additional source of complexity in these estimates is that metals originally  
447 attached to inorganic particles may be bound to organic matter during diagenesis, or vice-versa.  
448 The data presented here cannot directly address this issue, but can be considered as maximum  
449 estimates of organically bound metals. These estimates provide a starting point for future studies  
450 to investigate the detailed partitioning of metals between organic and inorganic substrates.

451 The similarity between the Mo isotope composition of bulk rocks, bitumens asphaltenes  
452 and extracted rock residues in each rock is striking, and indicates that there is limited Mo isotopic  
453 fractionation during bitumen generation. This observation supports the contention that the Mo-  
454 isotope composition of oils reflects that of the source rock (Ventura et al., 2015). Therefore, based

455 on these experimental results, Mo-isotopes can be used for oil – source rock correlations with  
456 some confidence.

457 The Zn isotope composition of pyrolysate bitumens and asphaltenes are notably lighter  
458 than the bulk rocks by ~0.4–0.6 ‰. This observation raises the possibility that the isotopic  
459 composition of modern organic-rich sediments might be partly controlled by the presence of  
460 isotopically light Zn in organic matter itself. Alternatively, isotopically light Zn may be derived  
461 entirely from the burial of Zn-sulfides (Vance et al., 2016), which become diagenetically  
462 incorporated into organic matter following burial. The isotopically light signature of Zn in pyrolysed  
463 and non-pyrolysed bitumens and asphaltenes across the measured maturity gradient suggests that  
464 Zn-isotopes might also be used for oil – source rock bitumen correlations.

465

## 466 **5. Conclusions**

467 The starting point for the development of any geochemical proxy is a robust investigation of the  
468 processes that control its behaviour in the natural environment, in order to successfully disentangle  
469 useful palaeo-chemical signals from the rock record. The impact of catagenesis on the  
470 concentration of transition metals in ancient organic-rich mudrocks has rarely been studied (Mercer  
471 et al., 1992; van Berkel et al., 1987; Ardakani et al., 2017) and the impact of catagenesis on  
472 transition-metal isotope compositions has never been previously investigated. The results of  
473 laboratory pyrolysis experiments of two different organic-rich mudrocks presented here lead to a  
474 number of key conclusions:

475 (i) Catagenesis and the loss of volatile hydrocarbons does not induce changes in the Mo,  
476 Zn and Cd isotope compositions of the pyrolysed rock residues. This effect can be  
477 primarily attributed to the low partitioning of these metals into organic fluids, which  
478 results in a small total fractional loss of metals from the rock matrix. For Zn, where  
479 organic fluids are isotopically light compared to the bulk rock, approximately 10–30 % of  
480 the total zinc inventory would need to be transferred to organic fluids before the  $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$   
481 of the bulk rock residue would change by >0.1 ‰.

482 (ii) Catagenesis leads to significant increases in the concentrations of Mo, Zn and Cd in the  
483 pyrolysed rock residues, and in corresponding element/TOC ratios. This effect can be  
484 attributed to a loss of mass during thermal maturation by the removal of bitumen and,  
485 coupled with the low partitioning of metals into organic fluids. Additional mass losses  
486 are probably due to the generation of H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>S and CO<sub>2</sub> from both the organic and  
487 inorganic phases in the rocks. At high thermal maturities, Mo/TOC, Zn/TOC and  
488 Cd/TOC ratios may increase considerably. Consequently, the use of metal/TOC ratios  
489 in mature mudrock and shale deposits will lead to overestimates of dissolved metal  
490 inventories in the geological past.

- 491 (iii) The isotopic compositions of Mo and Zn in bitumens and asphaltenes are similar over  
492 the range of measured maturities. From this observation, it can be inferred that the  
493 solvent-extractable metal fraction is mainly bound to moieties within the asphaltenes.
- 494 (iv) The  $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$  of bitumens are similar to the bulk rocks and rock residues, suggesting  
495 that  $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$  can be used for oil to source rock correlations. In contrast, the  $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$  of  
496 bitumens are generally 0.4–0.6 ‰ lighter than the bulk rocks and rock residues across  
497 the range of studied maturities, suggesting that Zn-isotopes may be used for oil to  
498 bitumen correlations.
- 499 (v) Several percent of the total metal inventory of Mo, Zn and Cd is directly associated with  
500 organic matter. This observation implies that inorganic constituents comprise the  
501 majority of the authigenic metal enrichments in these organic-rich mudrocks.
- 502 (vi) The results of this study constitute a first step towards understanding the effect of  
503 catagenesis on transition metal isotopes. It will be important for the results to be tested  
504 with more prolonged pyrolysis experiments, and in field-based studies.

505

#### 506 **Acknowledgements**

507 We would like to thank Alan Hsieh and Phil Holdship for assistance with mass spectrometry, Steve  
508 Wyatt for helping with Soxhlet extractions and Jennifer Mabry for assistance with the vacuum line.  
509 Funding was provided by Shell Global Solutions B.V.

510

#### 511 **References**

512 Abouchami, W., Galer, S.J.G., Horner, T.J., Rehkämper, M., Wombacher, F., Xue, Z., Lambelet,  
513 M., Gault-Ringold, M., Stirling, C.H., Schönbachler, M., Shiel, A.E., Weis, D. and Holdship, P.F.  
514 (2012), A common reference material for cadmium isotope studies – NIST SRM 3108.  
515 Geostandards and Geoanalytical Research doi: 10.1111/j.1751-908X.2012.00175.

516

517 Algeo, T.J. and Lyons, T.W. (2006), Mo-total organic carbon covariation in modern anoxic marine  
518 environments: implications for analysis of paleoredox and paleohydrologic conditions.  
519 *Paleoceanography* 21, PA1016, doi:10.1029/2004PA001112.

520

521 Algeo, T.J. and Rowe, H. (2012), Paleocyanographic applications of trace-metal concentration  
522 data. *Chemical Geology* 24, 6–18.

523

524 Algeo, T.J. and N. Tribovillard (2009), Environmental analysis of paleocyanographic systems  
525 based on molybdenum-uranium covariation. *Chem. Geol.* 268, 211-225.

526

527 Archer, C., Anderson, M.B., Cloquet, C., Conway, T.M., Dong, S., Ellwood, M., Moore, R., Nelson,  
528 J., Rehkämper, M., Rouxel, O., Samanta, M., Shin, K-C., Sohrin, Y., Takano, S. and Wasylenki, L.

529 (2016), Inter-calibration of a proposed new primary reference standard AA-ETH Zn, for zinc  
530 isotope analysis. *Journal of Analytical Atomic Spectroscopy* 32, 415–419.

531

532 Ardakani, O.H., Chappaz, A., Sanei, H. and Mayer, B. (2016), Effect of thermal maturity on  
533 remobilization of molybdenum in black shales. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 449, 311–320.

534

535 Arnold, G.L., Anbar, A.D., Barling, J. and Lyons, T.W. (2004), Molybdenum isotope evidence for  
536 widespread anoxia in the mid-Proterozoic oceans. *Science* 304, 87-90.

537

538 Asael, D., Tissot, F.L.H., Reinhard, C.T., Rouxel, O., Dauphas, N., Lyons, T.W., Ponzevera, E.,  
539 Liorzou, C. and Chéron, S. (2013), Coupled molybdenum, iron and uranium stable isotopes as  
540 oceanic paleoredox proxies during the Paleoproterozoic Shunga event. *Chemical Geology* 362,  
541 193–210.

542

543 Barling, J., Arnold, G.L. and Anbar, A.D. (2001), Natural mass-dependent variations in the isotopic  
544 composition of molybdenum. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 193, 447–457.

545

546 Behar, F., Beaumont, V. and Penteadó, H.L.D.B. (2001), Rock-Eval 6: performances and  
547 developments. *Oil and Gas Science and Technology* 56, 111–134.

548

549 Behar, F. and Pelet, R. (1984), Characterisation of asphaltenes by pyrolysis and chromatography.  
550 *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* 7, 121–135.

551

552 Behar, F. and Pelet, R. (1985), Pyrolysis-gas chromatography applied to organic geochemistry:  
553 structural similarities between kerogens and asphaltenes from related rock extracts and oils.  
554 *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* 8, 173–187.

555

556 Behar, F., Pelet, R. and Roucacha, J. (1984), Geochemistry of asphaltenes. *Advances in Organic*  
557 *Geochemistry* 1983. Pergamon, p587–595.

558

559 Brumsack, H-J. (1980), Geochemistry of Cretaceous black shales from the Atlantic Ocean (DSDP  
560 Legs 11, 14, 36 and 41). *Chemical Geology* 31, 1–25.

561

562 Chappaz, A., Lyons, T.W., Gregory, D.D., Reinhard, C.T., Gill, B.C., Li, C. and Large, R.R. (2014),  
563 Does pyrite act as an important host for molybdenum in modern and ancient euxinic sediments?  
564 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 126, 112–122.

565

566 Dickson, A.J. (2017), A molybdenum isotope perspective on Phanerozoic deoxygenation events.  
567 Nature Geoscience 10, 721–726.  
568

569 Di Primio, R. and Horsfield, B. (1996), Predicting the generation of heavy oils in  
570 carbonate/evaporitic environments using pyrolysis methods. Organic Geochemistry 24, 999–1016.  
571

572 Dieckmann, V., Caccialanza, P.G. and Galimberti, R. (2002), Evaluating the timing of oil expulsion:  
573 about the inverse behaviour of light hydrocarbons and oil asphaltene kinetics. Organic  
574 Geochemistry 33, 1501–1513.  
575

576 Duan, Y., Anbar, A.D., Arnold, G.L., Lyons, T.W., Gordon, G.W. and Kendall, B. (2010),  
577 Molybdenum isotope evidence for mild environmental oxygenation before the Great Oxidation  
578 Event. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* 74, 6655–6668.  
579

580 Duyck, C., Miekley, N., Fonseca, T.C.O., Szatmari, P. and Vaz dos Santos Neto, E. (2008), Trace  
581 Element Distributions in Biodegraded Crude Oils and Fractions from the Potiguar Basin, Brazil.  
582 Journal of the Brazil Chemical Society 19, 978–986.  
583

584 Eglinton, T.I., Larter, S.R. and Boon, J.J. (1991), Characterisation of kerogens, coals and  
585 asphaltenes by quantitative pyrolysis-mass spectrometry. Journal of Analytical and Applied  
586 Pyrolysis 20, 25–45.  
587

588 Ellrich, J., Hirner, A. and Stärk, H. (1985), Distribution of trace elements in crude oils from southern  
589 Germany. Chemical Geology 48, 313–323.  
590

591 Filby, R.H. (1994), Origin and nature of trace element species in crude oils, bitumens and  
592 kerogens: implications for correlation and other geochemical studies. Geological Society of  
593 London, Special Publications 78, 203–219.  
594

595 Filby, R.H. and van Berkel, G.J. (1987), Geochemistry of metal complexes in petroleum source  
596 rocks and coals: an overview. In: Filby, R.H. and Branthaver, J.F. (eds.), Metal complexes in fossil  
597 fuels. American Chemical Society Symposium Series 344, 2–39.  
598

599 Fitzgerald, S.L. and Filby, R.H. (1992), The effect of minerals on trace element distributions in  
600 hydrous pyrolysates of kerogens from the New Albany Shale.  
601



602 Georgiev, S.V., Horner, T.J., Stein, H.J., Hannah, J.L., Bingen, B. and Rehkämper, M. (2015),  
603 Cadmium-isotopic evidence for increasing primary productivity during the Late Permian anoxic  
604 event. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 410, 84–96.  
605

606 Goldberg, T., Gordon, G., Izon, G., Archer, C., Pearce, C.R., McManus, J., Anbar, A.D. and  
607 Rehkämper, M. (2013), Resolution of inter-laboratory discrepancies in Mo isotope data: an  
608 intercalibration. *Journal of Analytical Atomic Spectrometry*, doi:10.1039/c3ja30375f.  
609

610 Gordon, G.W., T.W. Lyons, G.L. Arnold, J. Roe, B.B. Sageman and A.D. Anbar (2009), When do  
611 black shales tell molybdenum isotope tales? *Geology* 37, 535-538.  
612

613 Helz, G.R., Miller, C.V., Charnock, J.M., Mosselmans, J.F.W., Pattrick, R.A.D., Garner, C.D. and  
614 Vaughan, D.J. (1996), Mechanism of molybdenum removal from the sea and its concentration in  
615 black shales: EXAFS evidence. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 60, 3631–3642.  
616

617 Helz, G.R., Bura-Nakić, E., Mikac, N. and Ciglencčki, I., 2011, New model for molybdenum  
618 behaviour in euxinic waters. *Chem. Geol.* 284, 323-332.  
619

620 Hitchon, B., Filby, R.H. and Shah, K.R. (1975), Geochemistry of trace elements in crude oils,  
621 Alberta, Canada. In Yen, T.F. (ed.), *The role of trace metals in petroleum*. Ann Arbor Science  
622 Publishers, Ann Arbor, USA, p111–122.  
623

624 Horsfield, B., Heckers, J., Leythaeuser, D., Littke, R. and Mann, U. (1991), A study of the Holzener  
625 Asphaltkalk, northern Germany: observations regarding the distribution, composition and origin of  
626 organic matter in an exhumed petroleum reservoir. *Marine and Petroleum Geology* 8, 198–211.  
627

628 Hu, Y-F. and Guo, T-M. (2001), Effect of temperature and molecular weight of n-alkane  
629 precipitants on asphaltene precipitation. *Fluid Phase Equilibria* 192, 13–25.  
630

631 Huc, A.Y., Behar, F. and Roussel, J.C. (1984), Geochemical variety of asphaltenes from crude oils:  
632 characterisation of heavy crude oils and petroleum residue. Paris, Editions Technip 40, 99–103.  
633

634 Janssen, D.J., Conway, T.M., John, S.G., Christian, J.R., Kramer, D.I., Pedersen, T.F. and Cullen,  
635 J.T. (2014), Undocumented water column sink for cadmium in open ocean oxygen-deficient zones.  
636 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 111, 6888–6893.  
637

638 Kendall, B., Dahl, T.W. and Anbar, A.D. (2017), Good goly, why moly? The stable isotope  
639 geochemistry of molybdenum. *Reviews in Mineralogy and Geochemistry* 82, 683–732.

640

641 Lewan, M.D. (1984), Factors controlling the proportionality of vanadium to nickel in crude oils.  
642 *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 48, 2231–2238.

643

644 Lewan, M.D., Winters, J.C. and McDonald, J.H. (1979), Generation of oil-like pyrolysates from  
645 organic-rich shales. *Science* 203, 897–899.

646

647 Lewan, M.D. and Maynard, J.B. (1982), Factors controlling enrichment of vanadium and nickel in  
648 the bitumen of sedimentary rocks. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 46, 2547–2560.

649

650 Little, S.H., Vance, D., McManus, J. and Severmann, S. (2016), Key role of continental margin  
651 sediments in the oceanic mass balance of Zn and Zn isotopes. *Geology* 44, 207–210.

652

653 Lyons, T.W., Reinhard, C.T. and Planavsky, N. (2014), The rise of oxygen in Earth's early ocean  
654 and atmosphere. *Nature* 506, 307–315.

655

656 McManus, J., T. Nägler, C. Siebert, C.G. Wheat and D.E. Hammond (2002), Oceanic molybdenum  
657 isotope fractionation: diagenesis and hydrothermal ridge-flank alteration. *Geochemistry,*  
658 *Geophysics, Geosystems*, 1078, doi:10.1029/2002GC0003569.

659

660 Mercer, G.E., Regner, A.J. and Filby, R.H. (1992), Trace element distributions in kerogen,  
661 bitumens and pyrolysates isolated from New Albany Shale. *Preprints American Chemical Society*  
662 *Division of Fuel Chemistry* 37, 1761–1768.

663

664 Mongenot, T., Tribovillard, N-P., Desprairies, A., Lallier-Vergès, E. and Laggoun-Defarge, F.  
665 (1996), Trace elements as palaeoenvironmental markers in strongly mature hydrocarbon source  
666 rocks: the Cretaceous La Luna formation of Venezuela. *Sedimentary Geology* 103, 23–37.

667

668 Morgans-Bell, H.S., Coe, A.L., Hesselbo, S.P., Jenkyns, H.C., Weedon, G.P., Marshall, J.E.A.,  
669 Tyson, R.V. and Williams, C.J. (2001), Integrated stratigraphy of the Kimmeridge Clay Formation  
670 (Upper Jurassic) based on exposures and boreholes in south Dorset, UK. *Geological Magazine*  
671 138, 511–539.

672

673 Nägler, T.F., Anbar, A.D., Archer, C., Goldberg, T., Gordon, G.W., Greber, N.D., Siebert, C.,  
674 Sohrin, Y. and Vance, D. (2014), Proposal for an international molybdenum isotope measurement  
675 standard and data representation. *Geostandards and Geoanalytical Research* 38, 149–151.

676

677 Neubert, N., T.F. Nägler and M.E. Böttcher (2008), Sulphidity controls molybdenum isotope  
678 fractionation into euxinic sediments: evidence from the modern Black Sea. *Geology* 36, 775-778.  
679

680 Noordman, J., Weyer, S., Montoyo-Pina, C., Dellwig, O., Neubert, N., Eckert, S., Paetzel, M. and  
681 Böttcher, M.E. (2015), Uranium and molybdenum isotope systematics in modern euxinic basins:  
682 case studies from the central Baltic Sea and the Kyllaren fjord (Norway). *Chemical Geology* 396,  
683 182–195.  
684

685 Odermatt, J.R. and Curiale, J.A. (1991), Organically bound metals and biomarkers in the Monterey  
686 Formation of the Santa Maria Basin, California. *Chemical Geology* 91, 99–113.  
687

688 Partin, C.A., Bekker, A., Planavsky, N.J., Scott, C.T., Gill, B.C., Li, C., Podkovyrov, V., Maslov, A.,  
689 Konhauser, K.O., Lalonde, S.V., Love, G.D., Poulton, S.W. and Lyons, T.W. (2013), Large-scale  
690 fluctuations in Precambrian atmospheric and oceanic oxygen levels from the record of U in shales.  
691 *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 369–370, 284–293.  
692

693 Piper, D.Z and Calvert, S.E. (2009), A marine biogeochemical perspective on black shale  
694 deposition. *Earth Science Reviews* 95, 63-96.  
695

696 Poulson, R.L., C. Siebert, J. McManus and W.M. Berelson (2006), Authigenic molybdenum isotope  
697 signatures in marine sediments, *Geology* 34, 617-620.  
698

699 Poulson-Brucker, R.L., McManus, J., Severmann, S and Berelson, W.M. (2009), Molybdenum  
700 behaviour during early diagenesis: insights from Mo isotopes. *Geochemistry, Geophysics,*  
701 *Geosystems* 10, Q06010, doi:10.1029/2008GC002180.  
702

703 Raiswell, R. and Berner, R.A. (1987), Organic carbon losses during burial and thermal maturation  
704 of normal marine shales. *Geology* 15, 853–856.  
705

706 Rooney, A.D., Selby, D., Lewan, M.D., Lillis, P.G. and Houzay, J-P. (2012), Evaluating Re-Os  
707 systematics in organic-rich sedimentary rocks in response to petroleum generation using hydrous  
708 pyrolysis experiments. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 77, 275–291.  
709

710 Scotchman, I.C. (1990), Kerogen facies and maturity of the Kimmeridge Clay Formation in  
711 southern and eastern England. *Marine and Petroleum Geology* 8, 278–295.  
712

713 Scott, C., T.W. Lyons, Bekker, A., Shen, Y., Poulton, S.W., Chu, X. and Anbar, A.D. (2008),  
714 Tracing the stepwise oxygenation of the Proterozoic ocean. *Nature* 452, 456–459.

715

716 Scott, C., Planavsky, N.J., Dupont, C.L., Kendall, B., Gill, B.C., Robbins, L.J., Husband, K.F.,  
717 Arnold, G.L., Wing, B.A., Poulton, S.W., Bekker, A., Anbar, A.D., Konhauser, K.O. and Lyons, T.W.  
718 (2013), Bioavailability of zinc in marine systems through time. *Nature Geoscience* 6, 125–128.

719

720 Selby, D., Creaser, R.A. and Fowler, M.G. (2007), Re-Os elemental and isotopic systematics in  
721 crude oils. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 71, 378–386.

722

723 Siebert, C., Nägler, T.F., von Blanckenburg, F. and Kramers, J.D. (2003), Molybdenum isotope  
724 records as a potential new proxy for paleoceanography, *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* 211, 159-171.

725

726 Siebert, C., J. McManus, A. Bice, R. Poulson and W.M. Berelson (2006), Molybdenum isotope  
727 signatures in continental margin sediments, *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.* 241, 723-733.

728

729 Sweere, T., van den Boorn, S., Dickson, A.J. and Reichart, G-J. (2016), Definition of new trace-  
730 metal proxies for the controls on organic matter enrichment in marine sediments based on Mn, Co,  
731 Mo and Cd concentrations. *Chemical Geology* 441, 235–245.

732

733 Tissot, B.P. and Welte, D.H. (1984), *Petroleum formation and occurrence*. Springer, Berlin,  
734 Heidelberg.

735

736 Tribouillard, N., Algeo, T.J., Lyons, T. and Riboulleau, A. (2006), Trace metals as paleoredox and  
737 paleoproductivity proxies: an update. *Chem. Geol.* 232, 12-32.

738

739 van Berkel, G.J. (1987), *The role of kerogen in the evolution of the nickel and vanadyl porphyrins*.  
740 PhD dissertation, Washington State University, Pullman, WA.

741

742 Vance, D., Little, S.H., Archer, C., Cameron, V., Andersen, M.B., Rijkenberg, M. and Lyons, T.W.  
743 (2016), The oceanic budgets of nickel and zinc isotopes: the importance of sulfidic environments  
744 as illustrated by the Black Sea. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A374*, 20150296,  
745 doi:10.1098/rsta.2015.0294.

746

747 Ventura, G.T., Gall, L., Siebert, C., Prytulak, J., Szatmari, P., Hürlimann, M. and Halliday, A.N.  
748 (2015), The stable isotope composition of vanadium, nickel, and molybdenum in crude oils.  
749 *Applied Geochemistry* 59, 104–117.

750

751 Wille, M., Nägler, T.F., Lehmann, B., Schröder, D. and Kramers, J.D. (2008), Hydrogen sulphide  
752 release to surface waters at the Precambrian/Cambrian boundary. *Nature* 435, 767-769.

753

754 Yen, T. F. (1975), The role of trace metals in petroleum. Ann Arbor Science Publishers, Ann Arbor,  
755 USA, pp.219.

756

### 757 **Figure captions**

758 **Figure 1:** The changing proportions of the different organic matter constituents in a sample as  
759 thermal maturation progresses. Kerogen is the solid organic matter that remains after mainly  
760 microbial diagenesis in near-surface sediments, and which progressively breaks down into fluid-  
761 phase organic matter (bitumen) during catagenic alteration. This process yields a rising proportion  
762 of bitumen throughout maturation, which in a natural system would be prone to migration away  
763 from the host rock. At the highest stages of maturation, any bitumen that does not migrate can be  
764 re-incorporated into the solid fraction again as pyro-bitumen.

765 **Figure 2:** Overview of the experimental procedures and analytical approach. Operational terms  
766 are defined in the text.

767 **Figure 3:** Bulk organic geochemical results. A: Heating time versus  $T_{max}$ . B: Heating time versus  
768 hydrogen index (HI). C: Heating time versus %TOC. D: Heating time versus transformation ratio  
769  $[(HI_{original} - HI_{measured})/HI_{original}]$ . Filled symbols are for the Posidonia Shale, and open symbols are for  
770 the Kimmeridge Blackstone Band. Uncertainties are the 2 S.D. of sample aliquots measured in  
771 triplicate. Dashed lines indicate trends in the datasets.

772 **Figure 4:** Mo, Zn and Cd isotopes, concentrations, and metal/TOC ratios for bulk rocks and rock  
773 residues of the Kimmeridge Blackstone Band and the Posidonia Shale. Horizontal lines indicate  
774 the mean values of the bulk rock and rock residue isotope data across the measured maturity  
775 ranges, and the 2 S.D. external reproducibilities. Individual uncertainties for isotope data points are  
776 the propagated 2 S.E. of the measurements and the bracketing zero-delta standards.

777 **Figure 5:** Mo, Zn and Cd isotopes and concentrations for bitumens and asphaltenes of the  
778 Kimmeridge Blackstone Band and the Posidonia Shale. Horizontal lines show the mean values of  
779 the bulk rock and rock residue isotope data across the measured maturity ranges, and the 2 S.D.  
780 external reproducibilities, for comparison. Individual uncertainties for isotope data points are the  
781 propagated 2 S.E. of the measurements and the bracketing zero-delta standards. Grey bands  
782 indicate the range of metals concentrations measured in bulk rocks and extracted rock residues.

783 **Figure 6:** Comparison between Mo and Zn isotope and concentration data for extracted pyrolysate  
784 bitumens and asphaltenes.

785 **Figure 7:** Comparison between measured molybdenum and zinc concentrations in bulk rocks and  
786 rock residues, with predicted concentrations calculated from equation (6).

787 **Figure 8:** Organic-matter bound Mo, Zn and Cd in the Kimmeridge Blackstone Band (A) and in the  
788 Posidonia Shale (B) expressed as a percentage of the total rock metal inventory. Values were  
789 calculated using equation (7).

790

791  
792  
793  
794  
795  
796  
797  
798  
799  
800  
801  
802  
803  
804  
805  
806  
807  
808  
809  
810  
811  
812  
813  
814  
815  
816  
817  
818  
819  
820  
821  
822

823  
824  
825  
826  
827

Table 1: Kimmeridge Blackstone Band geochemical data. HI: hydrogen index. TOC: total organic carbon.  $T_{max}$ : temperature of maximum hydrocarbon yield during pyrolysis. TR: transformation ratio (change in hydrogen index during pyrolysis). Ext. Res: extracted residue, i.e. pyrolysed bulk rock after solvent extraction of soluble organic matter. Bitumen: the total solvent-extractable organic matter. Asphalt: asphaltene fraction, i.e. the *n*-heptane insoluble fraction of the bitumen. N.D.: not determined.

Heating time (hours)	Sample type	HI	TOC (%)	$T_{max}$ (°C)	TR	Al (ppm)	$\delta^{98/95}Mo$ (‰)	2 S.E.	Mo (ppm)	$\delta^{66/64}Zn$ (‰)	2 S.E.	Zn (ppm)	$\delta^{114/110}Cd$ (‰)	2 S.E.	Cd (ppm)	Mo/TOC ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )	Zn/TOC ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )	Cd/TOC ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )	
0	Bulk rock	733	35.2	413	0	21220	1.84	0.11	47.02	0.45	0.05	37.3	0.26	0.13	1.10	1.34	1.06	0.031	
0 (#1)	Ext. Res.	715	35.0	412	0.02	25330	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	240	2.05	0.03	2.35	0.04	0.02	27.10	n.d.	n.d.	0.08	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	200	2.06	0.03	5.83	-0.08	0.04	67.17	n.d.	n.d.	0.11	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
0 (#2)	Ext. Res.	725	34.8	413	0.01	24610	1.83	0.11	49.29	0.41	0.06	37.92	0.12	0.10	0.97	1.42	1.09	0.028	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	170	1.99	0.03	4.40	-0.13	0.19	9.52	n.d.	n.d.	0.09	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	140	2.02	0.03	4.20	-0.11	0.05	9.47	n.d.	n.d.	0.12	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
24 (#1)	Ext. Res.	685	36.8	414	0.07	14710	1.89	0.04	52.41	0.34	0.08	47.24	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.42	1.28	n.d.	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	4970	1.73	0.03	10.70	-0.36	0.04	268.44	n.d.	n.d.	0.39	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	3910	1.83	0.05	9.87	-0.39	0.04	287.24	n.d.	n.d.	0.39	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
24 (#2)	Ext. Res.	719	36.0	413	0.02	23170	1.87	0.04	52.80	0.51	0.05	58.60	n.d.	n.d.	0.95	1.47	1.63	0.026	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2090	1.73	0.06	3.05	0.26	0.07	8.56	n.d.	n.d.	0.19	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1960	1.78	0.05	4.93	0.27	0.06	15.60	n.d.	n.d.	0.30	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
96 (#1)	Ext. Res.	665	35.2	417	0.09	27590	1.89	0.04	56.15	0.41	0.07	57.31	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.60	1.63	n.d.	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	670	1.84	0.03	3.81	0.58	0.10	8.54	n.d.	n.d.	0.14	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2160	1.80	0.03	4.47	0.40	0.08	10.27	n.d.	n.d.	0.16	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
96 (#2)	Ext. Res.	665	35.8	418	0.09	15580	1.86	0.02	55.52	0.41	0.06	116.54	n.d.	n.d.	1.05	1.55	3.26	0.029	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	620	1.77	0.03	4.67	-0.11	0.07	79.32	n.d.	n.d.	0.13	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	570	1.79	0.03	3.92	-0.23	0.05	74.27	n.d.	n.d.	0.13	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
325 (#1)	Ext. Res.	510	31.4	433	0.30	19690	1.85	0.02	65.89	0.44	0.06	54.88	n.d.	n.d.	1.18	2.10	1.75	0.037	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	34	1.92	0.04	4.03	-0.67	0.12	9.71	n.d.	n.d.	0.08	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.93	0.04	n.d.	-0.81	0.07	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
325 (#2)	Ext. Res.	521	31.7	432	0.29	26310	1.85	0.02	67.56	0.43	0.07	52.53	0.14	0.09	1.20	2.13	1.66	0.038	
	#1																		
	Ext. Res.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.40	0.09	1.44	n.d.	n.d.	0.045	
	#2																		
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	8	1.94	0.04	3.06	-0.72	0.04	23.59	n.d.	n.d.	0.08	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	28	1.91	0.03	5.63	-0.72	0.03	44.39	n.d.	n.d.	0.11	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
840 (#1)	Ext. Res.	178	33.0	451	0.76	40920	1.84	0.04	69.91	0.46	0.04	54.72	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2.12	1.66	n.d.	
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	320	1.72	0.40	0.09	2.43	0.07	1.48	n.d.	n.d.	0.90	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	12	1.72	0.12	0.18	0.17	0.06	1.84	n.d.	n.d.	0.03	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

828  
829

830  
831  
832  
833  
834  
835  
836

Table 2: Posidonia Shale geochemical data. Definitions of terms are the same as for table 1.

Heating time (hours)	Sample type	HI	TOC (%)	T <sub>max</sub> (°C)	TR	Al (ppm)	$\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$ (‰)	2 S.E.	Mo (ppm)	$\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$ (‰)	2 S.E.	Zn (ppm)	$\delta^{114/110}\text{Cd}$ (‰)	2 S.E.	Cd (ppm)	Mo/TOC ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )	Zn/TOC ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )	Cd/TOC ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )
0	Bulk rock	702	12.89	432	0	26030	1.58	0.04	123.56	0.51	0.03	242.54	0.03	0.07	2.63	9.59	18.82	0.20
0	Ext. Res.	706	11.72	432	0	30660	1.57	0.02	121.88	0.54	0.04	195.15	0.02	0.05	2.39	10.40	16.65	0.20
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	120	1.17	0.14	0.95	0.05	0.03	17.86	n.d.	n.d.	0.07	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	100	1.46	0.03	1.68	0.01	0.03	33.06	n.d.	n.d.	0.09	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
96	Ext. Res.	589	9.97	436	0.16	30560	1.61	0.04	124.87	0.51	0.04	293.92	0.08	0.11	2.59	12.52	29.48	0.26
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1090	1.47	0.04	9.59	0.15	0.03	24.75	n.d.	n.d.	0.21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.51	0.03	31.83	0.13	0.03	93.48	n.d.	n.d.	0.75	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
840	Ext. Res.	239	7.42	442	0.66	32280	1.58	0.04	131.49	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.05	0.04	3.11	17.73	n.d.	0.42
	Bitumen	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	45	1.33	0.24	2.19	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.05	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Asphalt.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	59	1.52	0.04	5.29	0.08	0.04	25.48	n.d.	n.d.	0.13	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

837  
838  
839  
840  
841  
842  
843  
844  
845  
846  
847  
848  
849  
850  
851  
852  
853  
854



855  
856  
857  
858  
859  
860  
861  
862  
863  
864

Table 3: Calculated changes in rock residue metal concentrations and isotope compositions in the Kimmeridge Blackstone Band. Uncertainties in the calculated isotope compositions of the rock residues are propagated through equation (5), assuming conservative 2% uncertainties for isotope dilution concentrations and 5% uncertainties for sample masses.

Heating time (hours)	% total rock mass of extracted bitumen	Fraction of Mo in bitumen	Calculated bulk residue Mo (ppm)	Calculated bulk residue $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$ (‰)	Propagated uncertainty (‰)	Fraction of Zn in bitumen	Calculated bulk residue Zn (ppm)	Calculated bulk $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$ (‰)	Propagated uncertainty (‰)	Fraction of Cd in bitumen	Calculated bulk residue Cd (ppm)
0	2.4	0.001	48.1	1.84	0.15	0.017	37.6	0.46	0.04	0.002	1.12
0	2.1	0.002	47.9	1.84	0.15	0.005	37.9	0.45	0.04	0.002	1.12
24	16.4	0.037	54.1	1.84	0.15	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.058	1.24
24	10.8	0.007	52.3	1.84	0.15	0.025	40.8	0.46	0.04	0.019	1.21
96	6.5	0.005	50.0	1.84	0.15	0.015	39.3	0.45	0.04	0.009	1.17
96	14.6	0.015	54.3	1.84	0.15	0.311	30.1	0.70	0.06	0.018	1.27
325	22.0	0.019	59.1	1.84	0.15	0.057	45.1	0.52	0.04	0.017	1.39
325	7.3	0.005	50.5	1.84	0.15	0.046	38.4	0.51	0.04	0.005	1.18
840	25.0	0.000	62.6	1.84	0.15	0.010	49.2	0.43	0.03	0.205	1.17

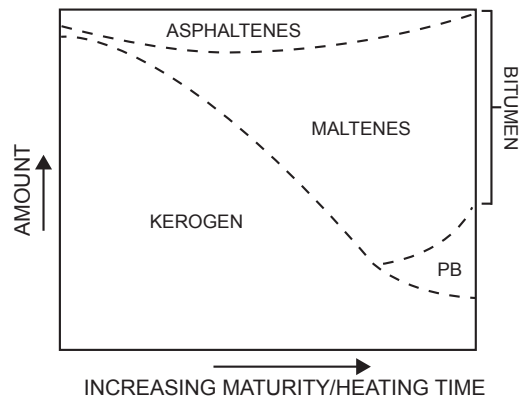
865  
866  
867  
868

Table 4: Calculated changes in rock residue metal concentrations and isotope compositions in the Posidonia Shale. Uncertainties in the calculated isotope compositions of the rock residues are propagated as for Table 3.

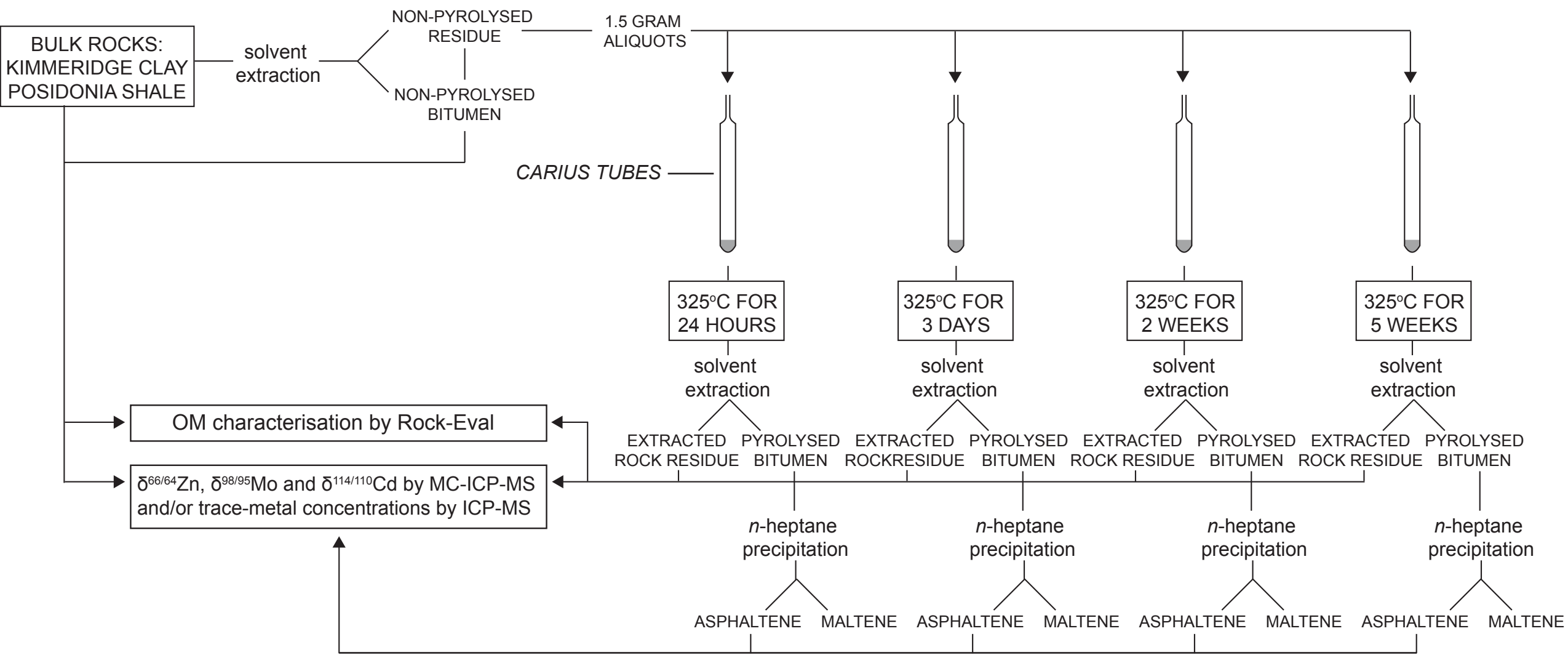
Heating time (hours)	% total rock mass of extracted bitumen	Fraction of Mo in bitumen	Calculated bulk residue Mo (ppm)	Calculated bulk residue $\delta^{98/95}\text{Mo}$ (‰)	Propagated uncertainty (‰)	Fraction of Zn in bitumen	Calculated bulk residue Zn (ppm)	Calculated bulk $\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}$ (‰)	Propagated uncertainty (‰)	Fraction of Cd in bitumen	Calculated bulk residue Cd (ppm)
0	4.2	0	128.9	1.58	0.13	0.003	252.9	0.51	0.04	0.001	2.7
96	4.1	0.003	128.5	1.58	0.13	0.004	252.1	0.51	0.04	0.003	2.7
840	20.8	0.004	155.4	1.58	0.13	n.d.	305.0	0.51	0.04	0.004	3.3

869

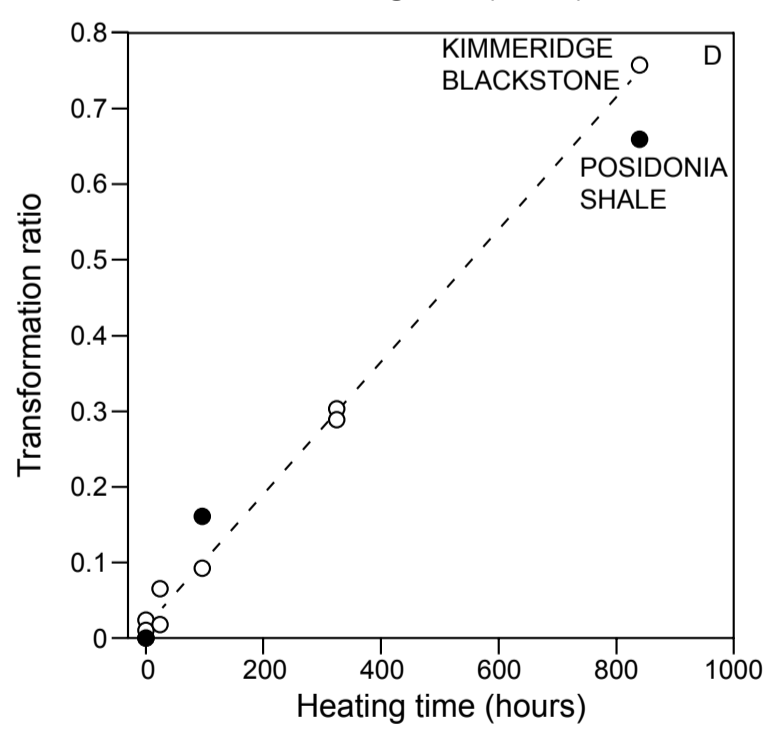
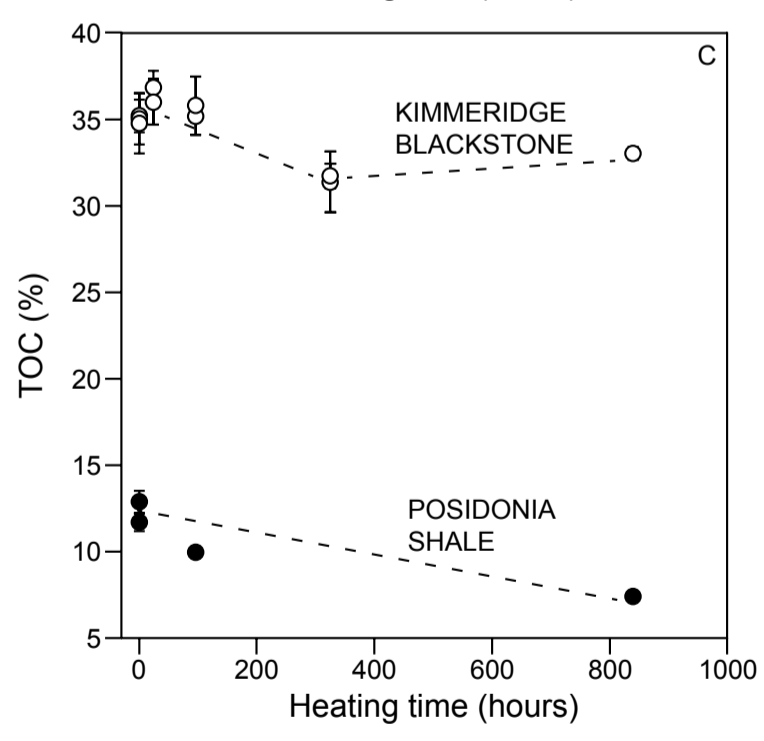
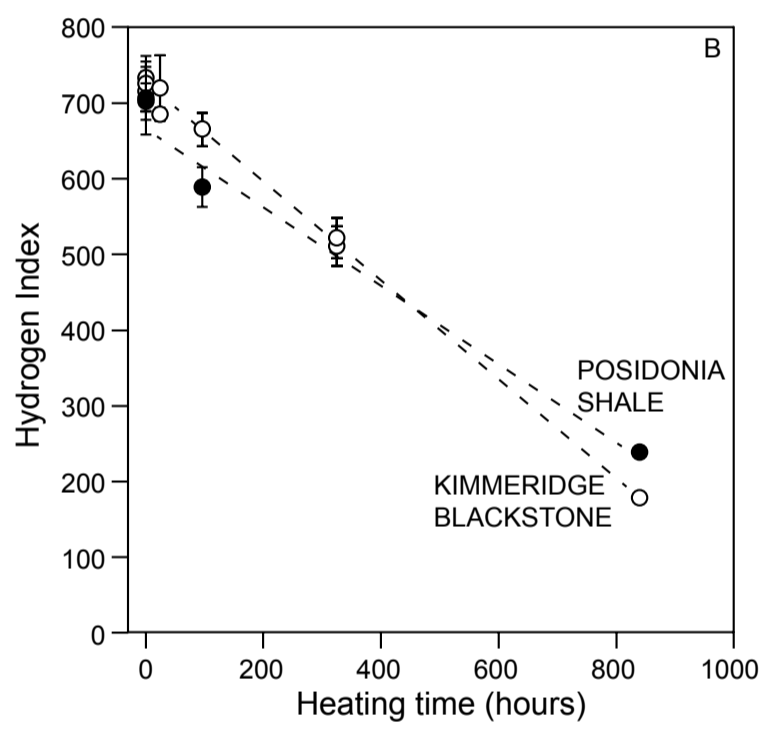
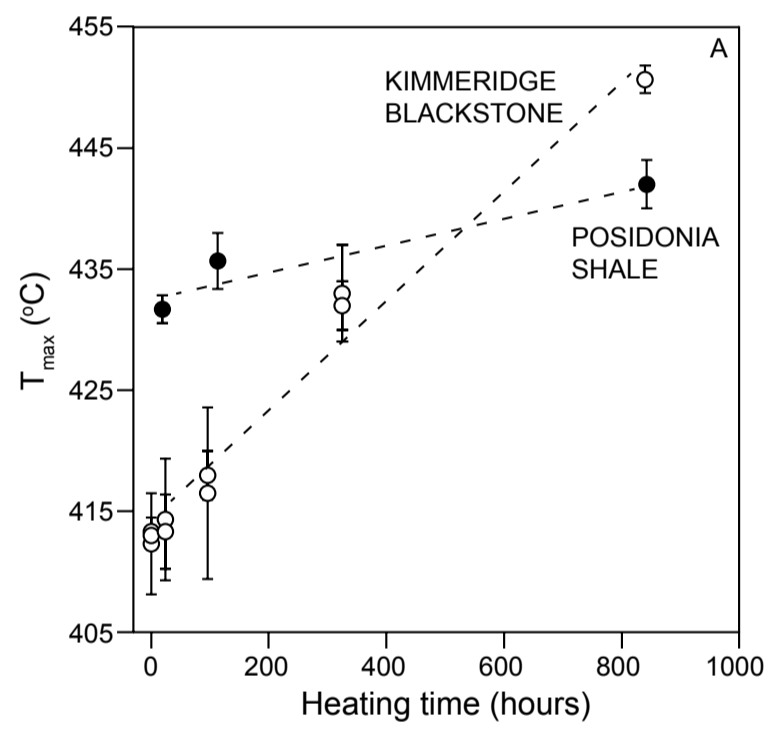
Figure



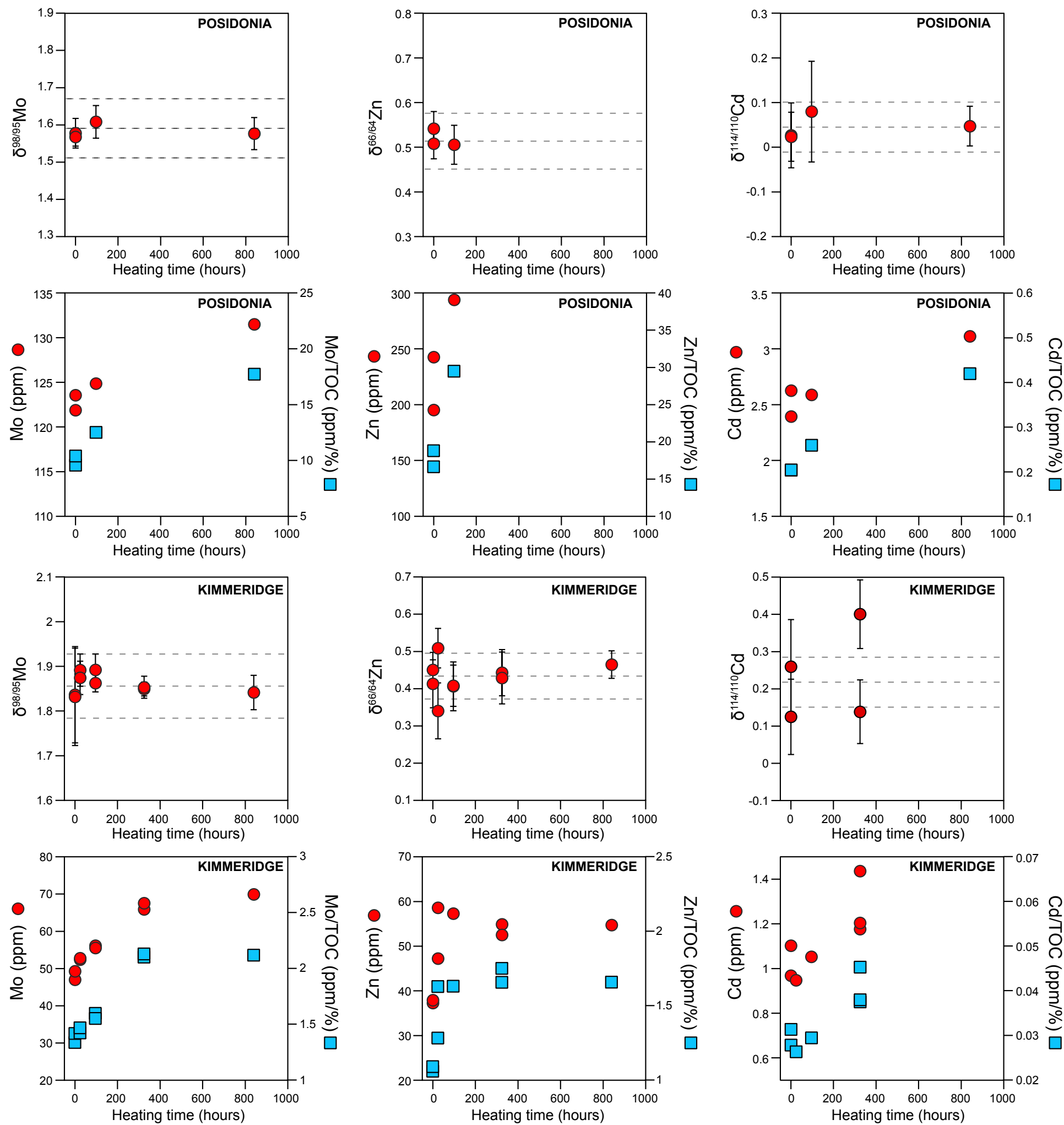
Figure



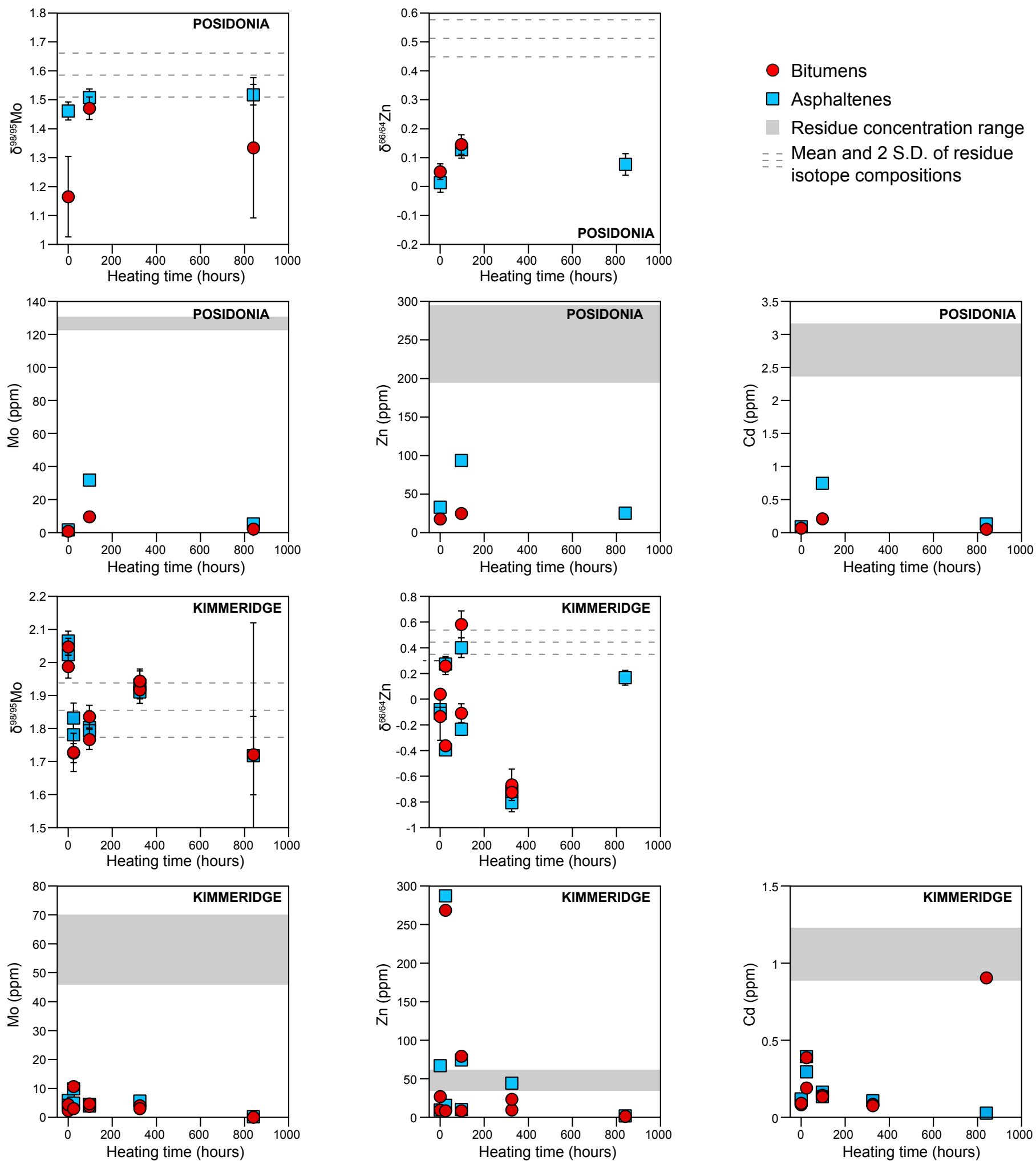
Figure



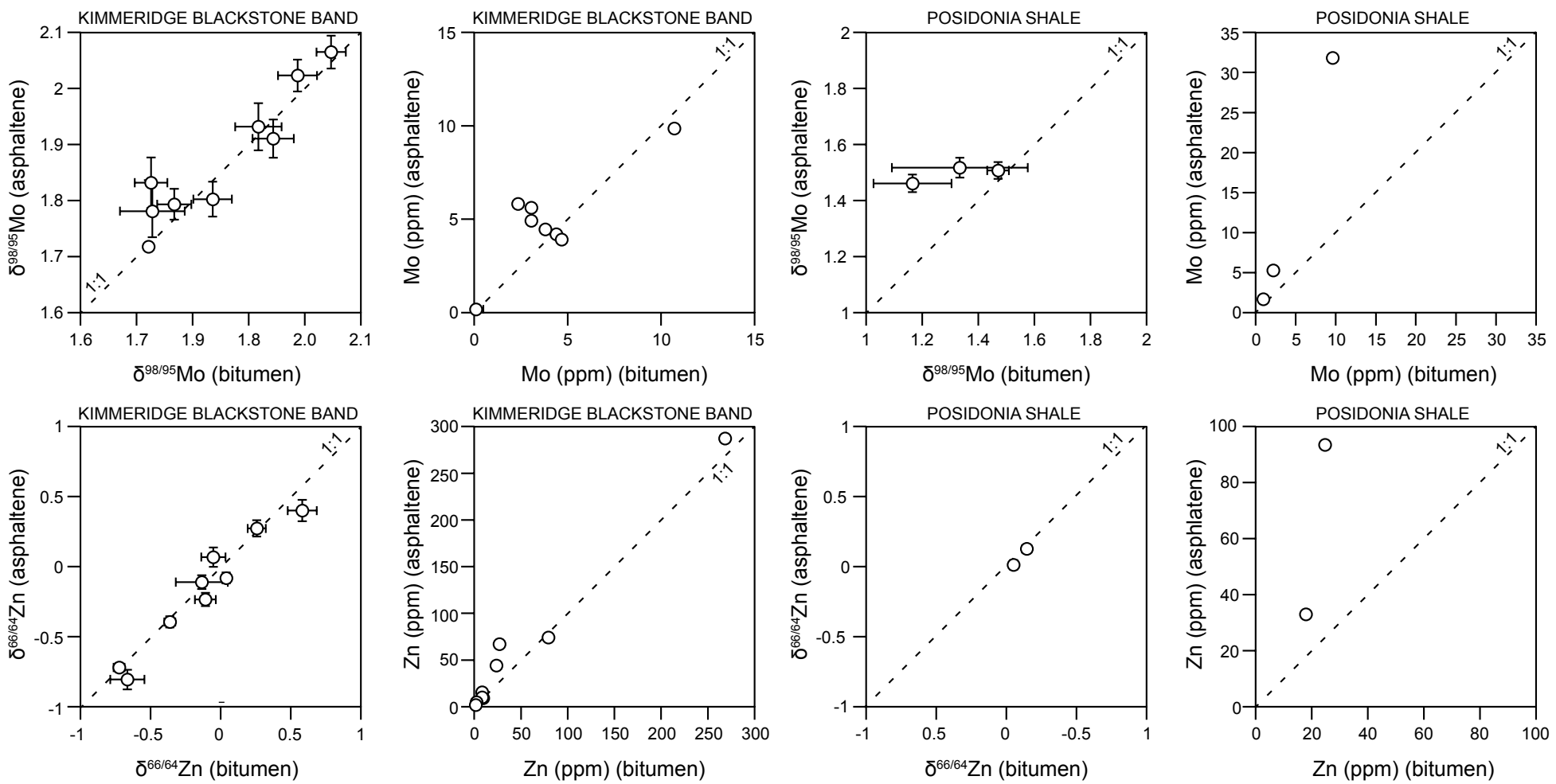
Figure



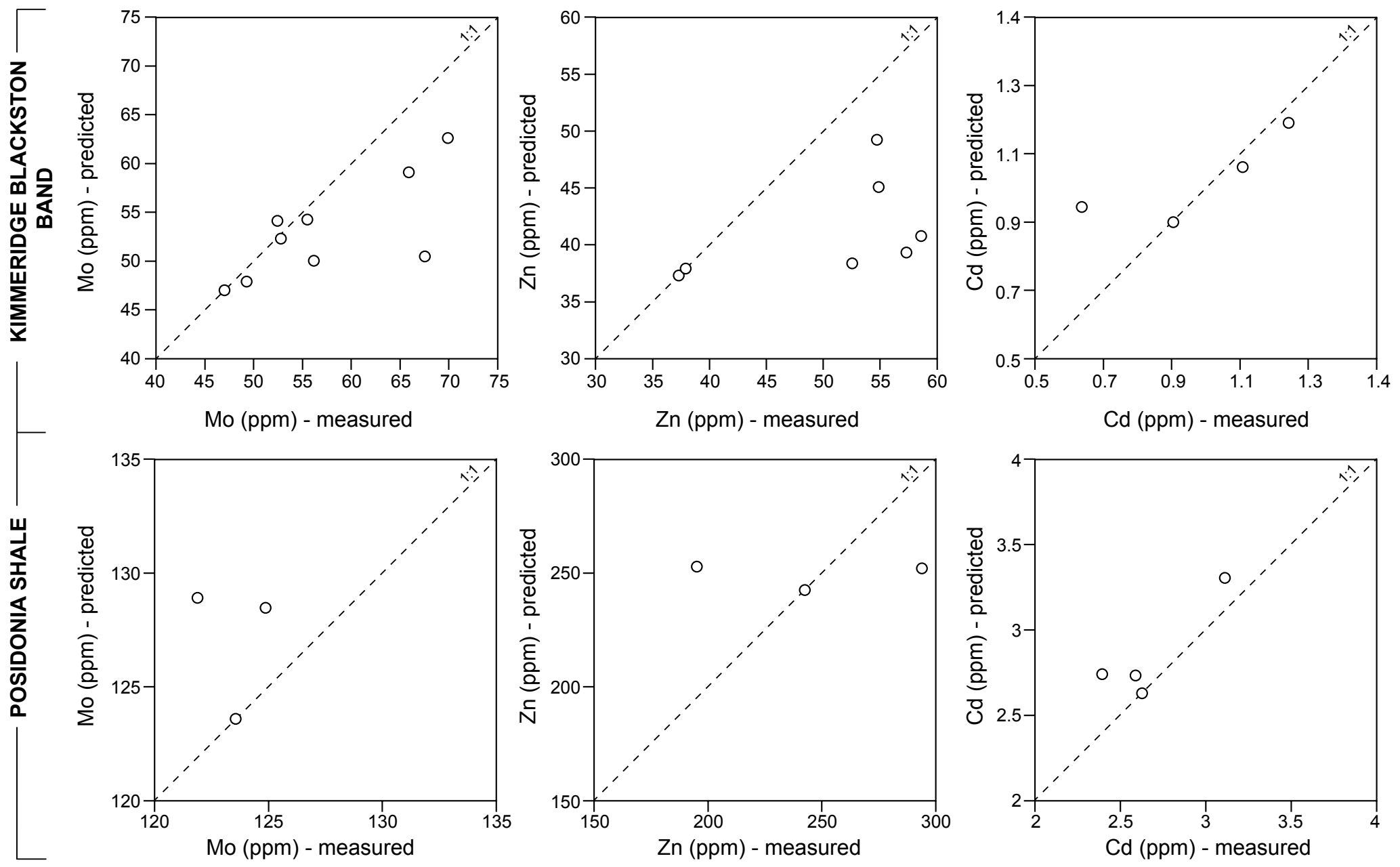
Figure



Figure

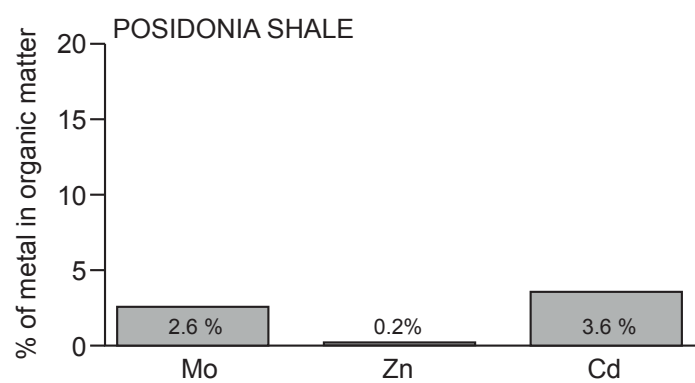
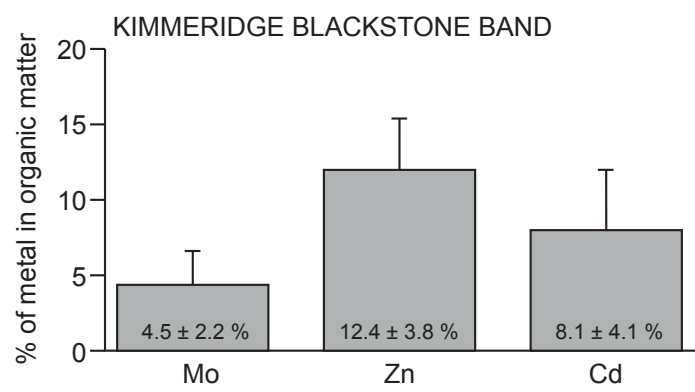


Figure





Figure



**Source or Other Companion File**

[Click here to download Source or Other Companion File: Pyrolysis manuscript\\_REVISED2\\_TC\\_\\_August2019.docx](#)