

1 Turbulence, displacement, death and worms: a day in the life of a fluvial Carboniferous
2 bivalve

3

4 Ian A. Kane

5

6 ABSTRACT

7 In the Pennsylvanian Rough Rock Flags and Rough Rock of northern England, trace
8 fossils attributed to the non-marine bivalve *Carbonicola* are found. *Carbonicola*,
9 recorded by *Lockeia* and associated trace fossils, lived a semi-infaunal lifestyle and thus
10 were influenced by both the sediment in which they were hosted, and the currents which
11 supplied their nutrients and oxygen. A number of palaeocurrent indicators are commonly
12 associated with *Lockeia* and are confirmed by this study: (a) downstream inclination of
13 vertical burrows; (b) palaeoflow-parallel orientation of long axes. Additional
14 palaeocurrent indicators include: (c) steeper scouring and higher sediment surface on the
15 upstream side; (d) diffuse lamination downstream of the trace, or, more widespread
16 downstream erosion. These semi-infaunal bivalves were partly exposed to the prevailing
17 flow and acted as bed defects, disturbing flow over an otherwise relatively smooth
18 surface; flow separation and acceleration enhanced flow turbulence around the bivalve
19 leading to erosion and the development of a variably developed fan shaped zone of scour
20 immediately downstream. Disturbance and destabilisation of sediment in this way may
21 affect bivalves immediately downstream, plausibly explaining the relatively regular
22 spacing pattern of individual *Lockeia*, or clusters of *Lockeia*, exposed on bedding planes
23 and revealed by nearest neighbour analyses. Bivalves that did not survive high energy
24 flow events were either trapped within the sediment, or transported downstream and

25 deposited in lower-energy environments within the otherwise high-energy deposits of the
26 Rough Rock. These are often associated with *Planolites* and *Cochlichnus*, trace fossils of
27 scavenging worms which radiate around the imprints of dead bivalves. This assemblage
28 of trace fossils indicates that areas suitable for bivalve colonisation occurred in upstream
29 areas.

30

31 *Ian A. Kane* [i.a.kane@leeds.ac.uk], *School of Earth and Environment, University of*
32 *Leeds, Leeds LS29JT, UK.*

33

34 Introduction

35 The recognition and interpretation of trace fossils can be critical to our understanding of
36 ancient sedimentary successions, particularly where body fossil preservation is rare.
37 Although tracks, trails and burrows have been recognised in Carboniferous strata since
38 the mid nineteenth century (Binney 1852, on the Westphalian strata of Lancashire), it was
39 the pioneering work on Westphalian strata of Germany which established the relationship
40 of trace fossil assemblages to sedimentary and faunal cyclicity (Jessen 1949; Jessen et al.
41 1952; Seilacher 1963, 1964). Continental invertebrate ichnology has become increasingly
42 important in sedimentary geology, particularly in terms of the interpretation of
43 palaeoenvironmental conditions, and hence prediction of facies associations and
44 distributions, the identification of key stratigraphic surfaces in the absence of temporally
45 distinctive body fossils, and also in our understanding of the evolution, behavioural
46 characteristics and environmental distributions of the trace makers (e.g. Buatois &
47 Mángano 2004, 2007 and references therein). Bivalves were one of the major trace fossil
48 producers present throughout the Phanerozoic; their environmental adaptability has seen

49 them conquer a diverse range of habitats during their long evolutionary history (e.g.,
50 Stanley 1970; Eagar 1978; Savazzi 1982; Seilacher 1990).

51 The bivalves trace fossils reported herein belong to a transitional Skolithos-
52 Mermia ichnofacies, being produced dominantly in subaqueous conditions which may be
53 subject to variability in flow conditions and periodic emergence, e.g. channel bars,
54 floodplain areas, crevasse splays (see discussion in Lawfield and Pickerill 2006, and
55 references therein; see also Eagar et al. 1985, p.133 “Scoyenia association”).

56 Within the Late-Mississippian and Pennsylvanian of the British Isles, trace fossils
57 attributed to the burrowing, vertical “escape” and horizontal locomotion of bivalves have
58 long been recognised (e.g. Binney 1852, Eagar 1974, Hardy & Broadhurst 1978, Eagar et
59 al. 1985). Inferences of palaeoenvironmental conditions, including palaeocurrent
60 directions have been made from these. Numerous biogenic sedimentary structures have
61 previously been identified within the Rough Rock and Rough Rock Flags at Cracken
62 Edge, Derbyshire (Hardy 1970; Miller 1986). The present study reports the occurrence
63 and distribution of traces attributed to the non-marine bivalve *Carbonicola* with the aim
64 of answering the following questions: (1) What features of *Lockeia* and associated traces
65 are indicators of palaeoflow direction, and what do these features tell us about the
66 hydraulic regime? (2) What factors might induce the observed regular spacing of
67 *Lockeia*? (3) How are *Lockeia* associated with other traces? (4) Collectively, can
68 interpretation of these observations provide generic insights for palaeoenvironmental
69 analysis of other systems? (5) Can these insights provide areas for further study of the
70 Rough Rock and Rough Rock Flags?

71 The ichnogenic name *Lockeia* is here used, for the hypichnial moulds and
72 epichnial casts interpreted as bivalve resting traces, following the discussion by Maples

73 & West (1989). Prior to this, the junior synonym *Pelecypodichnus* had been used
74 alongside or replacing *Lockeia*, which was regarded incorrectly as a nomen oblitum. For
75 this reason it should be noted that many of the key papers reported herein refer to
76 *Pelecypodichnus* rather than *Lockeia*, but that the two are largely interchangeable.
77 Crucially however, '*Lockeia*' does not presume formation through the activity of
78 bivalves, or any other creature, which is an important aspect of the general approach to
79 ichnology.

80

81 Carboniferous Rough Rock and Rough Rock Flags

82 The Carboniferous (Pennsylvanian, Regional Stage: Yeadonian G₁) (Fig. 1) Rough Rock
83 Flags and the overlying Rough Rock are considered to be the deposits of a progradational
84 fluvio-deltaic system deposited within the Pennsylvanian Pennine Basin of northern
85 England (Heath 1975; Bristow 1987, 1988, 1993; Hampson et al. 1996). The Rough Rock
86 has received much attention over the years (Hull & Green 1864; Gilligan 1920; Wray
87 1929; Shackleton 1962; Wright 1964; Heath 1975; Bristow 1987, 1988, 1993;
88 Holdsworth & Collinson 1988; Maynard 1991; Hampson et al. 1996). The pioneering
89 work of Gilligan (1920) on the petrography of the Rough Rock led to his conclusions that
90 deposition was from fluvio-deltaic systems analogous to the modern Mississippi, Ganges
91 and Brahmaputra Rivers under a monsoonal climate, with sediment sourced from a
92 distant northern granitoid gneiss with additional metamorphic and sedimentary rocks.
93 These ideas were refined by Heath (1975) who suggested that the major Rough Rock
94 channels were braided with extensive crevasse splay and overbank deposits. Bristow
95 (1993) describes the Rough Rock as a coarse-grained multi-storey, multi-lateral braided

96 river sheet sandstone and also proposed the Brahmaputra (Jamuna) River (Bangladesh) as
97 an analogue.

98 The underlying fine-grained sandstones and siltstones of the Rough Rock Flags
99 have received less attention, although they occur at the approximate stratigraphic level of
100 the better known Upper Haslingden Flags (Collinson & Banks 1975; Collinson 1988)
101 (Fig. 1). Typically, the Rough Rock Flags consist of variably well-developed coarsening
102 upwards packages. South of the present study area, at Ridgeway, Bristow (1988)
103 describes the Rough Rock Flags as consisting of alternating fine-grained ripple laminated
104 sandstones and siltstones, laterally extensive and of consistent thickness over tens of
105 metres. At Cracken Edge, Miller (1986) described the unit as fine-grained cross-
106 laminated and planar-laminated sandstones; further north, at Elland, a similar facies
107 association is overlain by minor coarse-grained channel sandstones within the Rough
108 Rock Flags. Bristow (1988) describes a southwards fining of the Rough Rock Flags with
109 the deposits interpreted as that of a lobate, fluvial dominated delta, analogous to the
110 modern Atchalafaya Delta, USA.

111 The study area, Cracken Edge (Fig. 1), is a north-south trending escarpment
112 dominated by the quarried Rough Rock and underlying Rough Rock Flags which are
113 exposed discontinuously over a distance of 5 km. Cracken Edge runs along the eastern
114 face of Chinley Churn, a 451m high hill between Birch Vale and Chinley in the High
115 Peak of Derbyshire. The principal exposures are Cracken Edge Quarry (disused) and
116 Foxholes Clough 1 km to the north. The underlying sequence is exposed in the valley
117 immediately to the east of Chinley Churn and is marked at the base by shales containing
118 the *Reticuloceras gracile* marine band. These are overlain by the fluvial Chatsworth Grit,
119 Simmondley Coal, and shales containing the *Gastrioceras cancellatum* and *Gastrioceras*

120 *cumbriense* marine bands respectively (Maynard 1991; Waters et al. 2008). The Rough
121 Rock Flags and the overlying Rough Rock form Cracken Edge and are overlain by the
122 *Gastrioceras subcrenatum* marine band marking the boundary between the European
123 Namurian and Westphalian stages.

124

125 Trace fossil assemblage

126 The Rough Rock Flags feature plentiful trace fossils of the *Skolithos-Mermia* ichnofacies
127 (Seilacher 1967; Buatois and Mángano 1995, 2004; Lawfield & Pickerill, 2006)
128 including *Planolites*, *Cochlichnus*, *Palaeophycus*, *Didymaulichnus* and *Lockeia*, aspects
129 of which were described at the locality by Hardy (1970) and Miller (1986). Whilst the
130 previous work forms the basis of this study, the observations and interpretations
131 presented herein comprise a comprehensive review of implications for palaeocurrent
132 analysis and certain aspects of bivalve development and behaviour. *Lockeia* (*L. siliquaria*
133 James, 1879) of the Yeadonian at Cracken Edge, and other Carboniferous sandstones of
134 northern England have previously been attributed to *Carbonicola* although shells are
135 rarely preserved (Hardy 1970; Eagar 1974; Hardy & Broadhurst 1978; Eagar et al. 1985;
136 Miller 1986). However, rare examples of *Carbonicola* have been found at the tops of sub-
137 vertical trace fossils similar to those described herein, and from similar aged strata
138 (Hardy 1970; Eagar 1974; Broadhurst et al. 1980; Eagar 1983, Eagar et al. 1985). Moulds
139 and casts of bivalve shells are more commonly found, preservation of shell material was
140 probably rare due to the high energy nature of the environment, compaction of the
141 sediment, and dissolution of carbonate within the vados or phreatic zone (e.g., Bridge et
142 al. 1986; Lawfield & Pickerill 2006). Hardy (1970) suggested that dissolution of bivalve

143 shells may have provided the carbonate found within the common carbonate concretions
144 within the Rough Rock, although this was disputed by Miller (1986).

145

146 *Lockeia and genetically associated traces*

147 *Lockeia siliquaria* James, 1879

148 These characteristically almond-shaped traces are 8-30mm in length, preserved as
149 epichnial hollows and hypichnial expressions, sometimes with a more pointed end, which
150 generally has a common orientation, ‘pointing’ upstream, based on its preserved
151 relationship to underlying and overlying ripple cross-lamination and trough cross-
152 bedding (Figs. 2 and 3). Rare casts resembling cross-sections through sand-filled bivalve
153 shells are found in some *Lockeia* traces (Fig. 2). Where more than one trace is found,
154 there may be a strong degree of ellipse (and palaeoflow) parallelism, smaller groups of
155 individuals may form an en-echelon pattern on the bedding plane, again parallel to
156 palaeoflow (Fig. 3).

157 *Lockeia* may be found clustered on individual bedding planes, with maximum
158 recorded population densities of up to 1000 per m² (Fig. 3), however they may be
159 associated with smaller groups, although in general terms where one trace is found within
160 a bed it is likely that they there will be associated traces. Large bedding plane exposures
161 reveal a relatively regular spacing pattern, although *Lockeia* may be ‘paired’ or found in
162 clusters (Fig. 3). Nearest neighbour analysis, following the technique of Pemberton &
163 Frey (1984) was applied to *Lockeia* distributions at two localities (Fig. 3). Within a 200 ×
164 200 mm quadrant, the distance from each *Lockeia* to its nearest neighbour was measured
165 (r), the sum (Σr) and the mean distance (r_A) was then calculated (Fig. 3). The mean value
166 is compared with the mean distribution expected in a randomly distributed population (r_E)

167 given by: $r_E = 1/2\sqrt{p}$; where p is the density of individuals per unit area. Departure of the
168 observed distribution from a random distribution is given by the ratio (R) of r_A/r_E . Where
169 $R < \text{unity}$, the distribution may be aggregated; where $R = \text{unity}$ the distribution is random,
170 and where $R > \text{unity}$ the distribution is approaching maximum spacing. Distributions
171 varied from conditions approaching uniform spacing (maximum spacing) (Fig. 3A), to
172 aggregated (Fig. 3B). In Fig. 3B it is apparent that clustered or ‘aggregated’ individuals
173 occur in densely populated bands.

174 *Lockeia* have a bimodal size distribution, with each mode having a relatively
175 narrow size range: large traces, representing about 20% of the population, with a mean
176 length and width of 24.1 mm and 14.8 mm respectively; small traces, representing about
177 80% of the population, with a mean length and width of 12.5 mm and 9.7 mm wide
178 respectively (100 samples). Large and small traces have mean length/width ratios of 1.6
179 and 1.3 respectively.

180 This trace fossil appears in large numbers within two distinct horizons in the
181 Rough Rock Flags, the lower horizon is laterally extensive covering at least 0.5 km in the
182 lower section of the quarry (also noted by Miller 1986, his localities 3-9). The preserved
183 extent of the upper unit is truncated by the channelised base of the overlying Rough
184 Rock. In both cases a thin (80-120 mm) siltstone horizon very rarely containing vertical
185 traces is overlain by thicker fine-medium grained planar-laminated sandstone which is
186 often extensively marked by subvertical burrows, the tops of which are marked by these
187 almond shaped traces. The base of the sandstone has a different character, being poorly-
188 sorted, organic-rich and lacking sedimentary structure (Fig. 4). Epichnial impressions of
189 *Lockeia* are associated with sub-vertical traces cutting through underlying sediment, and
190 hypichnial expressions on bed bases (Fig. 5).

191

192 *Interpretation*

193 These *Lockeia* traces have previously been attributed to resting traces of the unionid
194 bivalve *Carbonicola* (Hardy 1970; Eagar 1977; Miller 1986); this study finds no reason
195 to disagree. The presence of two distinct size-classes suggests that the bivalves in each
196 class were of approximately the same age. Modern unionids produce larvae which live as
197 a parasite attaching themselves to the gills of fish (Ellis 1978). Whether this mode of
198 dispersal was developed in the Carboniferous is unknown, although freshwater fish
199 became more common and diversified considerably throughout the Carboniferous (Long
200 2007). It is likely that dispersal of larvae was probably more general, utilising currents
201 and settling out of suspension in areas of lower flow energy. This method of distribution
202 is used today by marine bivalves which typically have a planktonic larva known as
203 veliger (Ellis 1978), and often leads to the development of colonies of bivalves of
204 distinctive size-classes. However, planktonic distribution is problematic as a method of
205 reproduction and colonisation in a fluvial regime, as strong currents may wash veliger out
206 to sea, although the lower density of fresh water (relative to sea water) may allow more
207 rapid settling. Today the only freshwater bivalve with a planktonic stage is *Dreissena*, a
208 comparatively recent coloniser of the freshwater environment (McMahon 1996). In
209 Sphaeriidae, young are kept in brood pouches and extruded in low numbers (6-30) as
210 relatively large miniatures of the adult (Ellis 1978). The bimodal distribution and
211 association with a chaotic organic-rich sandstone deposit, interpreted as a flood deposit,
212 suggests that the colony arrived as mature adults, carried from upstream, and was
213 dominated by one year group, with lesser mature individuals. The 'spread' of larger sizes
214 of *Lockeia* supports the conclusion that bivalves were transported in flood conditions, and

215 that progressively a year-class would be found farther downstream. This could lead to
216 entire mature year-classes in upstream localities being represented by only a few
217 individuals, as survivors of an earlier community (Broadhurst, et al. 1980), compared to a
218 younger year class which may be well represented.

219 Eagar (1978) and Hardy & Broadhurst (1978) recorded ellipse parallelism of
220 *Lockeia* traces within Lower Westphalian sediments and attributed it to parallel
221 alignment, along the commissural plane, of the bivalve *Carbonicola*. The larger of the
222 *Lockeia* type traces commonly have a stronger degree of ellipse parallelism than the
223 smaller traces, perhaps because larger bivalves presented a larger obstacle to flow
224 necessitating alignment; additionally, the data presented in Fig. 3 show that larger
225 specimens tended to be more elliptical. The upstream ‘pointing’ of *Lockeia* (Fig. 2) has
226 previously been attributed to the upstream positioning of the inhalant siphon typical of
227 filter feeding bivalves (Eagar 1974, 1977; Wildish et al. 1987; Vincent et al. 1988;
228 Monismith et al. 1990), and agrees with other sedimentary palaeocurrent indicators
229 within the section (Fig. 3A). Additionally, this orientation reduces the risk of inhaling
230 matter that should only ever be exhaled.

231 Spacing of *Lockeia* analysed using the nearest neighbour technique revealed a
232 combination of aggregated and well-spaced distributions. The technique was not pursued
233 at length as suitably large exposures were not available; and the character of distribution
234 varied greatly on individual surfaces, for example in Fig. 3B clusters of *Lockeia* appear as
235 ‘bands’ of individuals, presumably related to some sort of flow alignment and flow
236 sheltering. The distribution between clusters and individuals appears to be more uniform;
237 clusters tend to be close-knit groups suggesting that they acted as an individual within the
238 flow, allowing them to shelter and avoid erosion; this is analogous to mussel banks in

239 modern marine environments (Gascoigne et al. 2005). The effect of turbulence on
240 individuals and clusters is discussed in a little more detail below. The nearest neighbour
241 technique may therefore work better if clusters of *Lockeia* were counted as individuals,
242 and the spacing between clusters and individuals be taken into account.

243

244 *Burrow traces*

245 Sub vertical ‘burrows’ are common, recorded as sub-vertical and curved endichnia,
246 reaching up to 650 mm in length (Figs. 4, 5 and 6). Where the bedding plane is exposed,
247 the burrow top of is marked by an epichnial impression and the base by a hypichnial
248 expression (attributed above to *Lockeia*). The burrows are generally infilled by the same
249 sediment as the host bed, typically fine-medium sand forming menisci laminae, but
250 commonly with small <1 mm mudstone flakes, coarser grains and heavy minerals found
251 in the deepest parts. Where burrows are apparently abandoned, it is common for the last
252 stage of fill to be coarser-grained (Fig. 5). The centre of the burrow may be marked by v-
253 shaped meniscae, cone like in three dimensions, associated with dark-coloured zones of
254 sediment and/or cement; the ‘burrow’ is a composite of these nested cones. Lamination
255 upstream of the trace is commonly slightly higher than downstream, with lamination
256 warped steeply into the burrow, downstream lamination is generally less steeply warped
257 and returns to horizontal more gradually.

258 The burrow wall, and sediment surrounding the burrow often has a proud
259 weathering profile suggesting differential cementation (Fig. 4). The width of the burrow
260 tends to increase upwards, in some places more rapidly than others. The traces cut
261 through lamination and bedding. In some areas there is a curvature of the entire trace, or
262 part of the trace, which shows slight down-current movement of the trace producer (Fig.

263 4). In several sections there is a diffusion of lamination immediately downstream of the
264 trace (Figs. 5 and 6). In one particular bed this is a relatively common feature, with the
265 development of diffuse lamination and more heavily scoured surfaces on the downstream
266 side of the traces (discussed in more detail below).

267

268 *Interpretation*

269 Heath (1975) refers to these traces as ‘internally symmetrical vertical burrows’ and Miller
270 (1986) terms them ‘escape shafts’. Increase in burrow width from the base to the tops of
271 the traces suggests that the bivalves grew in the space of time taken to deposit the bed;
272 however, no discernible trends have been recorded from these traces. Bivalve growth
273 does indicate that sedimentation was relatively slow but episodic and that these are not
274 true escape traces. Bromley (1996) terms such traces ‘Equilibichnia’ as movement was an
275 effort to keep in equilibrium with the sediment/water interface. Equilibichnia are distinct
276 from Fugichnia which *are* escape traces and are created in response to a rapid influx of
277 sediment. Additional evidence of these traces representing upwards movement, rather
278 than burrowing, is their length: it is unlikely for bivalves to burrow to 650 mm depth,
279 Stanley (1970) reported that the deepest burrowers known today reach only 250 mm and
280 are marine, although M. Amler (pers. comm.) reports estuarine *Mya arenaria* of the
281 Brittanian coast burrowing down to 400 mm. Ellipse parallelism was interpreted above to
282 represent palaeoflow alignment of bivalves a view which is supported here; alignment of
283 incurrent/exhalent siphons with tidal currents has also been documented from *Mya*
284 *arenaria* in tidal flat areas (Vincent et al. 1988). This is an important point in the
285 interpretation that the traces were produced by upwards movement, as the ellipse

286 parallelism is found wherever sub-vertical traces cut through bedding; there is no obvious
287 reason for bivalves to maintain this alignment beneath the sediment-water interface.

288 Eagar (1977) noted that burrows often commence obliquely, curving upwards to
289 near vertical in their upper parts. Thoms & Berg (1985) also described basal curvature in
290 much larger traces in the Devonian Catskill Formation (Pennsylvania, USA), which they
291 attributed to forcing by unidirectional currents and sediment accretion on the upstream
292 side. In this case, and apparently those reported by Eagar (1977), it would be reasonable
293 to assume that the curvature is prominent at the base of the trace as currents may have
294 been stronger at earlier times, but through time flow energy waned. Alternatively, growth
295 of the trace maker through time, potentially combined with increasingly ellipsoid shell
296 morphologies, may have provided it with extra stability so that it was progressively less
297 affected by current activity (assuming relatively uniform current velocities).

298 The slightly higher sediment surface and steep scouring on the upstream side of
299 the trace is typical of erosional scour around denser/larger (and hence more stable)
300 objects on a finer grained mobile bed (Allen 1971). Erosion and diffusion of lamination
301 downstream of the traces suggests that the bivalves were locally enhancing flow
302 turbulence. This scenario could lead to destabilisation of bivalves downstream –
303 potentially leading to the relatively regular spacing patterns of *Lockeia* reported above.
304 This is discussed in more detail below.

305

306 Turbulence and erosion

307 Evidence of erosion of bivalves is revealed in several palaeocurrent-parallel sections
308 where sub-vertical burrows are exposed. As noted above, extensive subvertical burrows
309 typically occur in parallel laminated, micaceous sandstones, however, in some sections

310 the sediment downstream of the burrows is either devoid of sedimentary structure, or
311 lamination has become diffuse or highly irregular (Fig. 6). In some cases, there is a
312 repetitive disturbance, i.e., throughout the stratigraphy, of the sediment in the lee of an
313 individual subvertical trace. On bedding planes, similar structures are expressed as low
314 amplitude hummocky surfaces on the lee side of *Lockeia*. These may have a fan-like
315 shape but are generally indistinct.

316

317 Interpretation

318 The close relationship between traces and disruption of sediment on their lee sides
319 suggests that the burrow aperture, or protruding bivalve was acting as an obstacle to flow,
320 or bed defect (e.g., Allen 1971). Flow line convergence on either side of the bivalve
321 would cause local acceleration, whilst downstream flow separation may enhance
322 turbulence, leading to localised scour around the shell. The effect of the scour is to further
323 induce upstream flow separation and enhance erosion, as part of a positive feedback loop.
324 The result is that a zone of erosion forms, being steep sided upstream of the bivalve but
325 shallowing and flaring out downstream. The fact that some localities seem to have been
326 particularly prone to this, or that the same trace created this effect repeatedly suggests
327 that the bivalves were often close to the threshold limit for the bed shear stress they could
328 withstand, either due to their positioning (e.g., close to an overspill point) or due to
329 disequilibrium between their size/form and the prevailing flow conditions. The
330 enhancement of turbulence in the wake of the bivalve may trigger bed erosion at lower
331 shear stresses than typically required for plane bed erosion.

332 Sediment destabilisation in the turbulent wake of the bivalve may lead to the
333 erosion and entrainment of the bivalves' contemporaries. This potentially could explain

334 the relatively regular spacing patterns between individual and clusters of *Lockeia* within
335 large colonies (Fig. 3A). Modern bivalves have developed strategies to avoid acting as a
336 focus of bed scour, including the development of shell ridges (Stanley 1975a, 1975b,
337 1981; Watters 1994), and the ability to burrow to a depth great enough to preclude
338 erosion (Thoms & Berg 1985).

339

340 *Lateral movement traces*

341 Epichnial grooves, 5-6 mm wide with slightly raised ridges on either side of the central
342 furrow are found on the tops of fine-grained sandstone but are relatively uncommon, and
343 only known from fallen blocks (Fig. 7). Lateral movement traces consist of straight to
344 slightly sinuous trails which sometimes cross but never branch. The longest trails seen
345 were just over 500 mm in length, but this is a product of limited exposure, potentially
346 they are much longer. Some examples show a range of orientations but most are roughly
347 aligned with each other. Similar trails were reported by Hardy (1970), Hardy &
348 Broadhurst (1978) and Miller (1986).

349

350 *Interpretation*

351 These traces are here attributed to the ploughing movement of bivalves in response to a
352 drop in water level. The bivalves most-likely inhabited shallow water environments such
353 as sand-banks, sand-flats or crevasse splay areas, such environments are prone to
354 emergence during low flow stage and changes in river course; during these times the
355 bivalves would need to move to submerged areas. The approximate alignment of traces
356 suggests movement following a receding water-line, such behaviour has been noted in
357 modern day bivalves during drought conditions and reservoir draining (Fig. 9; also see

358 Lawfield and Pickerill 2006, Fig. 4 C, E, F). The prominent ridges (epichnial
359 expressions) developed in non-cohesive sediment suggest that the sediment was probably
360 sub-aerially exposed for some period and that the bivalves were able to withstand this.
361 Modern day bivalves are able to withstand days or weeks of desiccation (Miller & Payne
362 1998). Hardy (1970) reported that these trails may cross cut laminae and were made
363 endichnially up to the sediment surface; this has not been noted in the present study but
364 presumably reflects movement from a slightly deeper burrow occupied during times of
365 submergence.

366

367 Death and worms

368 *Planolites*, *Cochlichnus* and *Didymaulichnus* were described by Miller (1986) at Cracken
369 Edge. The present study has found *Didymaulichnus* to be rare, but *Palaeopyhcus* is more
370 common, although not reported by Miller (1986). Most typically, these traces occur
371 within finer-grained intervals in the Rough Rock channel bodies, although they do occur
372 to a lesser extent within the Rough Rock Flags (similar to Miller's (1986) Type A facies
373 association). *Planolites* and *Cochlichnus* dominate and are commonly found in
374 association with *Lockeia*; however where *Lockeia* is widespread, for example on
375 individual bedding planes, they are less common. However, on certain bedding planes,
376 particularly those of relatively fine-grained intervals within the Rough Rock, preserved as
377 hypichnial expressions on sandstone beds, the above assemblage occurs with *Lockeia* and
378 the two often have an intimate relationship (Fig. 8). *Lockeia* traces may be of the
379 characteristic almond shape discussed above, or may be gradational to more rounded
380 forms, suggestive of the inferred bivalve trace maker lying on its side, i.e., an imprint of
381 part of the side of the bivalve rather than the narrower ellipse imprint indicative of a 'life-

382 position'; around these traces, *Planolites* and *Cochlichnus* may be particularly abundant,
383 in some cases radiating from a central *Lockeia* type trace (Fig. 8B-E).

384

385 *Interpretation*

386 Hardy (1970) and Eagar et al. (1985) documented the occurrence of this assemblage of
387 trace fossils with *Lockeia* type traces, and attributed the relationship to the scavenging of
388 dead and decaying bivalves by polychaete worms (*Planolites*) and probably nematode
389 worms (e.g., Elliott 1985; see discussion in Uchman et al. 2009). A similar assemblage
390 has been recorded from the Lower Cretaceous Tunbridge Wells Sand (southern England)
391 where the relationship was attributed to nematodes or annelids feeding on dead in-situ
392 bivalves (Goldring et al. 2005). This scavenging fauna was truly opportunistic and able to
393 establish itself very rapidly, as they are only found in significant numbers in close
394 association with *Lockeia*. It is common for such opportunistic faunas to be found in high
395 densities but low diversities (Bromley 1996). Traces of this fauna generally are not
396 present amongst the life assemblages of bivalve traces, with the exception of small
397 numbers of *Cochlichnus*. It is suggested that the fauna tended to live within quieter
398 environments of the main river channels, feeding off organic material within the
399 sediment. When these quiet areas were inundated during flood events, potentially
400 carrying bivalves, they took advantage of the situation, migrating to scavenge off the
401 dead or dying bivalves. Traces of the scavenging fauna are generally absent in overlying
402 sandstones.

403 This relationship most commonly occurs at the upper interface of finer grained
404 intervals (e.g. the fallen block of Fig. 8) within the more typically coarse-grained Rough
405 Rock braided river facies. The occurrence of *Lockeia* within this interval suggests that

406 suitable environments for bivalve habitation occurred in the immediate upstream area. In
407 turn, this suggests that similar environments to that where the Rough Rock Flags
408 accumulated, which were demonstrably suitable for bivalve life, also occurred laterally to
409 the Rough Rock braided river channels, probably as crevasse splays or other marginal
410 environments subject to periodic emergence.

411

412 Discussion

413 *Lockeia* are interpreted as the traces of bivalves which lived an semi-infaunal lifestyle,
414 maintaining equilibrium with the sediment-water interface, and able to burrow to shallow
415 depths to avoid erosion from the substrate. A number of features have previously been
416 described as diagnostic of palaeocurrent trend or direction. Parallelism of the
417 commissural planes of bivalves, in response to the prevailing current direction, gives
418 *Lockeia* its characteristic ellipse parallelism (Eagar 1977; Hardy & Broadhurst 1978). As
419 such, where enough measurements may be taken to establish a reliable sample
420 population, it may be possible to infer the trend of palaeoflow. In the case of the Rough
421 Rock Flags, the local palaeoflow indicated by alignment of commissural planes and
422 direction of inhalant siphons suggests flow towards the SE. Local sedimentary
423 palaeocurrent indicators (ripple cross-lamination) above and below suggest the same.
424 This is opposed to the typical palaeocurrents reported for the Rough Rock Flags, which
425 suggest flow towards the SW (Bristow 1987, 1988) (although Miller (1986) reported
426 some palaeocurrents towards the east). The sedimentary and ichnological flow indicators
427 may reflect deposition in an area where flow was locally diverging from the axial flow,
428 such as a crevasse splay, or point bar.

429 Thoms & Berg (1985) hypothesised that basal curvature of subvertical bivalve
430 burrows may be related to downcurrent forcing of the bivalve; this study confirms that
431 the inclination of burrows is generally linked to the palaeoflow history of the sediments
432 in which they are found, with flow indicated by those swinging from NE to SE. These
433 burrows typically straighten as they reach the upper parts, suggesting either that flows
434 waned through time, or that bivalve growth provided extra stability allowing the bivalve
435 to maintain its position within the sediment. Additionally, *Lockeia* and associated
436 burrows tend to have steeper scour margins on their upstream side, and in some cases the
437 lamination surface is higher on the upstream trace. Sediment on the downstream side of
438 the trace may be deflated through erosion, or may reflect lower depositional rates
439 associated with increased flow energy and turbulence induced by flow around the
440 bivalve.

441 Erosion of sediment immediately downstream of the trace may occur through the
442 localised enhancement of turbulence as the bivalve acts as a bed defect (Allen 1971);
443 scour further enhances flow separation, turbulence generation and lead to increased
444 scour. This may ultimately lead to erosion of the bivalve from the substrate (Fig. 10A
445 T3). The resultant sedimentary record includes of scour around a bivalve includes diffuse
446 lamination, or even more irregular scour topography, downstream of the burrow (Fig. 6).
447 Although dominantly found as individuals within larger colonies, *Lockeia* are commonly
448 clustered, either in pairs, or greater numbers; this close association may allow the cluster
449 to behave as a single ‘defect’ within the flow. For this reason, the spacing pattern
450 between clusters and individuals may be fairly uniform, although within the clusters they
451 may be closely spaced. For this reason, nearest neighbour analysis is problematic, as
452 depending on the focus of the study, bivalves may be ‘aggregated’ in a palaeoflow

453 parallel cluster, or uniformly spaced as individuals or smaller clusters (Fig. 10B). The
454 effect of turbulence enhancement is of importance as it plausibly explains the reasonably
455 uniform spacing pattern of individual or clustered bivalves within large colonies.
456 Evidence of bivalves being dislodged from their substrate is abundant (Fig. 5C-D), which
457 is perhaps unsurprising given the periodically high strength flows and the non-cohesive
458 nature of the sediment.

459 The size distribution of *Lockeia* suggests domination by at least two year-classes,
460 with larger individuals forming a less tightly associated group, suggesting that they may
461 represent several year classes. Such a distribution may be expected in a unidirectional
462 flow regime where transport of individuals is generally downstream; accordingly, older
463 year-classes may be more evenly distributed along a given river length than younger
464 year-classes, so that in a given locality the older year-class would be less well
465 represented. This has been interpreted by other workers to imply high rates of infant
466 mortality (e.g. Eagar, 1978). In contrast, bivalves that live on a stable substrate in fluvial
467 environments may be characterised by colonies of bivalves with much more complex age
468 and size range structures (Payne et al. 1989).

469 Lateral movement traces are rare within the Rough Rock Flags, suggesting that
470 bivalves tended to be submerged at a depth great enough to maintain their position year
471 round. Additionally, traces tend to occur on surfaces that appear to have been subaerially
472 exposed; preservation potential of these surfaces was probably fairly low, as they would
473 be particularly prone to erosion during the arrival of the next flood event.

474 The food source that made this environment attractive to bivalves was most-likely
475 the large quantities of organic material transported by the Rough Rock braided river
476 system. Evidence of this includes thick accumulations of carbonaceous material and

477 coalified plant fragments at Cracken Edge, and within many Rough Rock outcrops in the
478 inferred upstream area (e.g., Bristow 1987). At Cracken Edge, plant imprints within the
479 Rough Rock are numerous and include *Calamites*, *Sigillaria*, *Cordaites*, *Lepidodendron*,
480 *Stigmaria*, *Bothrodendron*, and *Alethopteris*. In the Rough Rock Flags, plant fragments
481 are typically comminuted and largely unidentifiable.

482 In quiet backwaters of the Rough Rock river system, in areas such as abandoned
483 channel-fills, polychaete and nematode worms scavenged on decaying vegetation within
484 the sediment, and on the flesh of dead, decaying bivalves transported during flood events.
485 The preservation potential of sedimentary units within sandy braided rivers is generally
486 low (e.g., Ashworth et al. 1999), implying that most bivalves will not be preserved in-situ
487 after their death, but will be reworked along with their host sediment. *Planolites*, thought
488 to be the trace of polychaete worms, are the predominant trace of this association and
489 often radiate around the *Lockeia*, which are thought to represent dead bivalves.
490 Nematodes are thought to create *Cochlichnus* traces, which has been demonstrated
491 experimentally; although there has been some debate that *Cochlichnus* may also be
492 formed by insects, or insect larvae (Uchman et al. 2009, and references therein). This
493 scavenging association does not occur in the Rough Rock Flags, suggesting that bivalves
494 which were eroded and entrained from their substrate were carried with the main channel
495 flow and deposited either in the channel or carried to coastal areas; however, as suggested
496 above, preservation potential of shell material was probably rare; thus accumulations of
497 dead bivalves are under-recorded in the stratigraphy (e.g., Bridge et al. 1986; Lawfield &
498 Pickerill 2006). The association suggests that environments similar to those populated by
499 bivalves during Rough Rock Flags times were present during Rough Rock times, and that
500 the Rough Rock Flags is probably a lateral as well as distal equivalent of the Rough

501 Rock. The existing subdivision is based on lithofacies, but the two lithofacies may simply
502 reflect depositional sub-environments of the same system (Fig. 11).

503

504 Conclusions

505 The bivalves which created *Lockeia* and associated locomotion trails and subvertical
506 burrows lived an semi-infaunal lifestyle and thus were influenced by both the sediment in
507 which they were hosted, and the currents which supplied nutrients and oxygen.
508 Conclusions are subdivided into those which may be of general importance and
509 applicable to other systems, and those which allow further interpretation of this particular
510 setting.

511 These trace fossils have received scientific attention over the last two centuries
512 but several new insights from this study further demonstrate the importance of these
513 traces in terms of palaeoenvironmental analysis:

514

515 (1) A number of palaeocurrent indicators are commonly associated with *Lockeia* and
516 are confirmed by this study: (a) downstream inclination of near-vertical burrows.
517 The angle may hint at sedimentation rates and also the size of the individual. (b)
518 Long axes of *Lockeia* are commonly oriented parallel to palaeoflow, presumably
519 with inhalant siphons pointing upstream. Additional palaeocurrent indicators
520 include: (c) steeper sided scour and higher sediment surface on the upstream side
521 of the trace; (d) diffuse lamination downstream of the trace, or, more widespread
522 downstream erosion.

523 (2) Enhancement of turbulence by flow around individual or clusters of bivalves may
524 lead to the development of a fan-shaped zone of increased erosion immediately

525 downstream; this may lead to disturbance and destabilisation of sediment, and
526 hence other bivalves, downstream. This effect may plausibly explain the
527 relatively uniform spacing pattern of *Lockeia* and provides an additional
528 indication of palaeoflow.

529 (3) Scavenging of transported bivalves (killed prior to, or during transport) by
530 polychaete and nematode worms, marked by *Planolites* and *Cochlichnus* traces
531 respectively which often radiate towards the imprints of dead bivalves. These
532 assemblages indicate that areas which were suitable for bivalve colonisation
533 occurred in upstream areas.

534

535 These conclusions may provide generic insights into systems with similar settings. In
536 terms of the Rough Rock and the Rough Rock Flags, the trace fossils provide further
537 insights into this well-studied system: (a) palaeocurrent analysis of the traces suggests
538 that a significant component of the flow which deposited the Rough Rock Flags was
539 towards the north-east to south-east; this is confirmed by detailed observation of
540 sedimentary current indicators within the section but is counter to previous interpretations
541 of palaeoflow dominantly to the south-west. This may reflect a different source, as
542 postulated for the Haslingden Flags, or may reflect flow divergence associated with
543 overbank flow, crevasse splays or point bars (potentially supported by Miller's 1986
544 data). (b) The occurrence of *Lockeia-Planolites-Cochlichnus* scavenging horizons within
545 the Rough Rock braided river sandstones suggests that suitable environments for bivalve
546 colonisation existed in upstream localities, suggesting that Rough Rock Flags type facies
547 are probably lateral, as well as distal equivalents to the Rough Rock.

548

549 Acknowledgements

550 The author would like to thank Dr Andy Johnson for guidance and inspiration during the
551 early stages of this project. Advice from Dr John Pollard is also much appreciated. Mr H.
552 Hallam (Piece Farm) is thanked for access to sites in the vicinity of Fox Holes Clough.
553 The comments and corrections of an anonymous reviewer and M. Amler significantly
554 improved the manuscript for which I am very grateful.

555

556 References

557 Allen, J.R.L. 1971: Transverse erosional marks of mud and rock: their physical basis and
558 geological significance. *Sedimentary Geology* 5, 167-385.

559

560 Binney, E.W. 1852: On some trails and holes found in rocks of the Carboniferous strata,
561 with remarks on the *Microconchus carbonarius*. *Memoirs of the Literary and*
562 *Philosophical Society of Manchester (second series)* 10, 181-201.

563

564 Bridge, J.S., Gordon, E.A. & Titus, R.C. 1986: Non-marine bivalves and associated
565 burrows in the Catskill Magnafacies (Upper Devonian) of New York State.
566 *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 55, 65–77.

567

568 Bristow, C.S. 1987: *Sedimentology of large braided rivers ancient and modern*. PhD
569 Thesis, University of Leeds, UK.

570

571 Bristow, C.S. 1988: Controls on the sedimentation of the rough rock group (Namurian)
572 from the Pennine basin of northern England. *In* Besley, B.M. & Kelling, G. (eds):

573 *Sedimentation in a Synorogenic Basin Complex: The Upper Carboniferous Of Northwest*
574 *Europe* 114-131. Blackie, Glasgow.

575

576 Bristow, C.S. 1993: Sedimentology of the Rough Rock: A Carboniferous braided river
577 sheet sandstone in northern England. In Best, J.L. & Bristow, C.S. (eds), *Braided Rivers*,
578 291-304. Geological Society of London Special Publication 75.

579

580 Broadhurst, F.M., Simpson, I.M. & Hardy, P.G. 1980: Seasonal sedimentation in the
581 Upper Carboniferous of England. *Journal of Geology* 88, 639-651.

582

583 Bromley, R.G. 1996: *Trace Fossils - Biology, taphonomy and applications*, 2nd edn, 384
584 pp. Chapman and Hall, London, UK.

585

586 Buatois, L.A. & Mángano, M.G. 1995: The paleoenvironmental and paleoecological
587 significance of the lacustrine *Mermia* ichnofacies: An archetypical subaqueous
588 nonmarine trace fossil assemblage. *Ichnos* 4, 151-161.

589

590 Buatois, L.A. & Mángano, M.G. 2004: Ichnology of fluvio-lacustrine environments:
591 Animal-substrate interactions in freshwater ecosystems. In McIlroy, D. (ed.), *The*
592 *application of ichnology to palaeoenvironmental and stratigraphic analysis*, 311-333.
593 Geological Society of London Special Publication 228.

594

595 Collinson, J.D. & Banks, N.L. 1975: The Haslingden Flags (Namurian G1) of south east
596 Lancashire: Bar finger sands in the Pennine Basin. *Proceedings of the Yorkshire*
597 *Geological Society* 40, 431-458.
598

599 Collinson, J.D. 1988: Controls on Namurian sedimentation in the Central Province Basins
600 of northern England. In Besley, B.M. & Kelling, G. (eds): *Sedimentation in a*
601 *Synorogenic Basin Complex: The Upper Carboniferous Of Northwest Europe* 85-101.
602 Blackie, Glasgow.
603

604 Eagar, R.M.C. 1974: Shape of the shell of *Carbonicola* in relation to burrowing. *Lethaia*
605 7, 219-238.
606

607 Eagar, R.M.C. 1977: Some new Namurian bivalve faunas and their significance in the
608 origin of *Carbonicola* and in the colonization of Carboniferous deltaic environments. *Phil*
609 *Trans. Royal Soc B*, 280, 535-570.
610

611 Eagar, R.M.C. 1978: The shape and function of the shell: a comparison of some living
612 and fossil bivalve molluscs. *Biological Review* 53, 16-210.
613

614 Eagar, R.M.C., Okolo, S.A. & Walters, G.F. 1983: Trace fossils as evidence in the
615 evolution of *Carbonicola*. *Proceedings of the Yorkshire Geological Society*, 44, 283-303.
616

617 Eagar, R.M.C., Baines, J.G., Collinson, J.D., Hardy, P.G., Okolo, S.A. & Pollard, J.E.
618 1985: Trace fossil assemblages and their occurrence in Silesian (mid-Carboniferous)

619 deltaic sediments of the Central Pennine Basin, England. In Curran, H.A. (ed.), *Biogenic*
620 *Structures: Their Use In Interpreting Depositional Environments*, 99-149. Society of
621 Economic and Paleontologists and Mineralogists, Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA.

622

623 Elliott, R.E. 1985: An interpretation of the trace fossil *Cochlichnus kochi* (Ludwig) from
624 the East Pennine Coalfield of Britain. *Proceedings of the Yorkshire Geological Society*,
625 45, 183-8.

626

627 Ellis, A.E. 1978: British freshwater bivalve Mollusca. Keys and notes for the
628 identification of the species. *Synopses of the British fauna No. 11*, 109 pp. Academic
629 Press, London, UK.

630

631 Frey, R.W., Pemberton, S.G. & Fagerstrom, J.A. 1984: Morphological, ethological and
632 environmental significance of the ichnogenera *Scoyenia* and *Anchorichnus*. *Journal of*
633 *Paleontology*, 58, 511-518.

634

635 Gascoigne, J. C., Beadman, H.A., Saurel, C. & Kaiser, M. J. 2005: Density dependence,
636 spatial scale and patterning in sessile biota. *Oecologia*, 145, 371-381.

637

638 Gilligan, A. 1920: The petrography of the Millstone Grit Series of Yorkshire. *Quarterly*
639 *Journal of the Geological Society of London* 75, 251-294.

640

641 Goldring, R., Pollard, J.E. and Radley, J.D. 2005: Trace fossils and pseudofossils from
642 the Wealden strata (non-marine Lower Cretaceous) of southern England, *Cretaceous*
643 *Research*, 26, 665–685.

644

645 Hampson, G.J., Elliott, T. & Flint, S.S. 1996: Critical application of high resolution
646 sequence stratigraphic concepts to the Rough Rock Group (Upper Carboniferous) of
647 northern England. In Howell, J.A. & Aitken, J.F (eds), *High resolution sequence*
648 *stratigraphy: innovations and applications*, 221-246. Geological Society of London,
649 Special Publications, 104.

650

651 Hardy, P.G. 1970: *Aspects of palaeoecology in arenaceous sediments of Upper*
652 *Carboniferous age in the area around Manchester*. Unpublished PhD thesis, University
653 of Manchester.

654

655 Hardy, P.G. & Broadhurst, F.M. 1978: Refugee communities of *Carbonicola*. *Lethaia*,
656 11, 175-8.

657

658 Heath, C.W. 1975: *A sedimentological and palaeogeographical study of the Namurian*
659 *Rough Rock in the Southern Pennines*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Keele,
660 UK.

661

662 Holdsworth, B.K. & Collinson, J.D. 1988: Millstone Grit cyclicity revisited. In Besley,
663 B.M. & Kelling, G. (eds): *Sedimentation in a Synorogenic Basin Complex: The Upper*
664 *Carboniferous Of Northwest Europe* 132-152. Blackie, Glasgow.

665

666 Hull, E. & Green, A.H. 1864: On the Millstone-grit of North Staffordshire and the
667 adjoining parts of Derbyshire, Cheshire, and Lancashire. *Quarterly Journal of the*
668 *Geological Society*, 20, 242-267.

669

670 James, U.P. 1879: Description of new species of fossils and remarks on some others,
671 from the Lower and Upper Silurian rocks of Ohio. *The Paleontologist*, 3, 17-24.

672

673 Jessen, W. 1949: "Augenschiefer"-Grabgänge, ein Merkmal für Faunenschiefer-Nähe im
674 Westfälischen Oberkarbon. *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Geologischen Gesellschaft*, 101,
675 23-43.

676

677 Jessen, W., Kremp, G. & Michelau, P. 1952: Gesteins-Rhythmen und Faunenzyklen des
678 Ruhrkarbons und ihre Ursachen. *Comptes Rendues 3mme Congrès Stratigraphie et*
679 *Géologie Carbonifère, Heerlen*, 3, 289-94.

680

681 Lawfield, A.M.W. & Pickerill, R.K. 2006: A novel contemporary fluvial ichnocoenose:
682 Unionid bivalves and the *Scoyenia-Mermia* ichnofacies transition. *Palaios* 21, 391-396.

683

684 Long, J.A. 2007: Rise of Fishes. In Briggs, D.E.G. & Crowther, P.R. (eds) *Palaeobiology*
685 *II*, 52-57. Wiley-Blackwell, London.

686

687 McMahon, R.F. 1996: The physiological ecology of the zebra mussel, *Dreissena*
688 *polymorpha*, in North America and Europe. *American Zoologist* 36, 339–363.

689

690 Maples, C.G. & West, R.R. 1989: *Lockeia*, not *Pelecypodichnus*. *Journal of Paleontology*
691 63, 694-696.

692

693 Maynard, J.R. 1991: Sequence stratigraphy of the Upper Yeadonian of northern England.
694 *Marine and Petroleum Geology* 9, 197-207.

695

696 Miller, A.C. & Payne, B.S. 1998: Effects of disturbances on large-river mussel
697 assemblages. *Regulated Rivers: Research & Management*, 14, 179–190.

698

699 Miller, G.D. 1986: The sediments and trace fossils of the Rough Rock Group on Cracken
700 Edge, Derbyshire. *Mercian Geologist* 10, 189-202.

701

702 Monismith, S.G., Koseff, J.R., Thompson, J.K., O'Riordan, C.A. & Nepf, H.M. 1990: A
703 study of model bivalve siphonal currents. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 35, 680-696.

704

705 Payne, B.S., Miller, A.C., Hartfield, P.D. & McMahon, R.F. 1989. Variation in size
706 demography of lotic populations of *Corbicula fluminea* (Muller). *Nautilus*, 103, 78–82.

707

708 Pemberton, S.G. & Frey, R.W. 1984: Quantitative methods in ichnology: spatial
709 distribution among populations. *Lethaia* 17, 33-49.

710

711 Savazzi, E. 1982: Shell sculpture and burrowing in the bivalves *Scapharca inaequalvis*
712 and *Acanthocardia tuberculata*. *Stuttgarter Beiträge zur Naturkunde Serie A (Biologie)*
713 353, 1-12.
714

715 Seilacher, A. 1963: Lebensspuren und Salinitäts-facies. *Fortschritte Geologie Rheinland*
716 *und Westfalen* 10, 81-94.
717

718 Seilacher, A. 1964: Biogenic sedimentary structures. In Imbrie, J. & Newall, N.D. (eds)
719 *Approaches to Paleoecology*, 296-316. Wiley, New York, U.S.A.
720

721 Seilacher, A. 1967: Bathymetry of trace fossils. *Marine Geology* 5, 413–428.
722

723 Seilacher, A. 1978: Use of trace fossil assemblages for recognizing depositional
724 environments. In Basan, P.B. (ed), *Trace Fossil Concepts*, 167-181. Society of Economic
725 Paleontologists and Mineralogists Short Course 5.
726

727 Seilacher, A. 1990: Aberrations in bivalve evolution related to photo- and
728 chemosymbiosis. *Historical Biology* 3, 289–311.
729

730 Seilacher, A. 2007: *Trace Fossil Analysis*, 226 pp. Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg,
731 Germany.
732

733 Shackleton, J.S. 1962: Cross-strata of the Rough Rock (Millstone Grit series) in the
734 Pennines. *Geological Journal* 3, 109-118.

735

736 Stanley, S.M. 1970: Relation of shell form to life habits in the Bivalvia (Mollusca).

737 *Memoir of the Geological Society of America* 125, 296 pp. Boulder, Colorado, U.S.A.

738

739 Stanley, S.M. 1975a: Adaptive Themes in the Evolution of the Bivalvia (mollusca).

740 *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences* 3, 361.

741

742 Stanley, S.M. 1975b: Why clams have the shape they have: an experimental analysis of

743 burrowing. *Paleobiology* 1, 48-58.

744

745 Stanley, S.M. 1981: Infaunal survival: alternative functions of shell ornamentation in the

746 Bivalvia (Mollusca). *Paleobiology*, 7, 384-393.

747

748 Thoms, R.E. & Berg, T.M. 1985: Interpretation of bivalve trace fossils in fluvial beds of

749 the basal Catskill Formation (Late Devonian), Eastern U. S. A. *In* Curran, H.A. (ed),

750 *Biogenic Structures: Their Use In Interpreting Depositional Environments*, 13-20.

751 Society of Economic and Paleontologists and Mineralogists, Tulsa, Oklahoma, USA.

752 Uchman, A., Kazakauskas, V. & Gaigalas, A. 2009: Trace fossils from Late Pleistocene

753 varved lacustrine sediments in eastern Lithuania. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology,*

754 *Palaeoecology* 272, 199-211.

755 Vincent, B., Desrosiers, G. & Gratton, Y. 1988: Orientation of the infaunal bivalve *Mya*

756 *arenaria* L. in relation to local current direction on a tidal flat. *Journal of Experimental*

757 *Marine Biology and Ecology*, 124, 205-214.

758

759 Waters, C.N., Chisholm, J.I., Benfield, A.C. and O'Beirne, A.M. 2008: Regional
760 evolution of a fluviodeltaic cyclic succession in the Marsdenian (Late Namurian Stage,
761 Pennsylvanian) of the Central Pennine Basin, UK. *Proceedings of the Yorkshire*
762 *Geological Society*, 57, 1-28.

763

764 Watters, G.T. 1994: Form and function of unionoidean shell sculpture and shape
765 (Bivalvia). *American Malacological Bulletin* 11, 1-20.

766

767 Wildish, D.J., Kristmanson, D.D., Hoar, R.L., Decoste, A.M., McCormick, S.D. & White,
768 A.W. 1987: Giant scallop feeding and growth Responses to flow. *Journal of*
769 *Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, 113, 207-220.

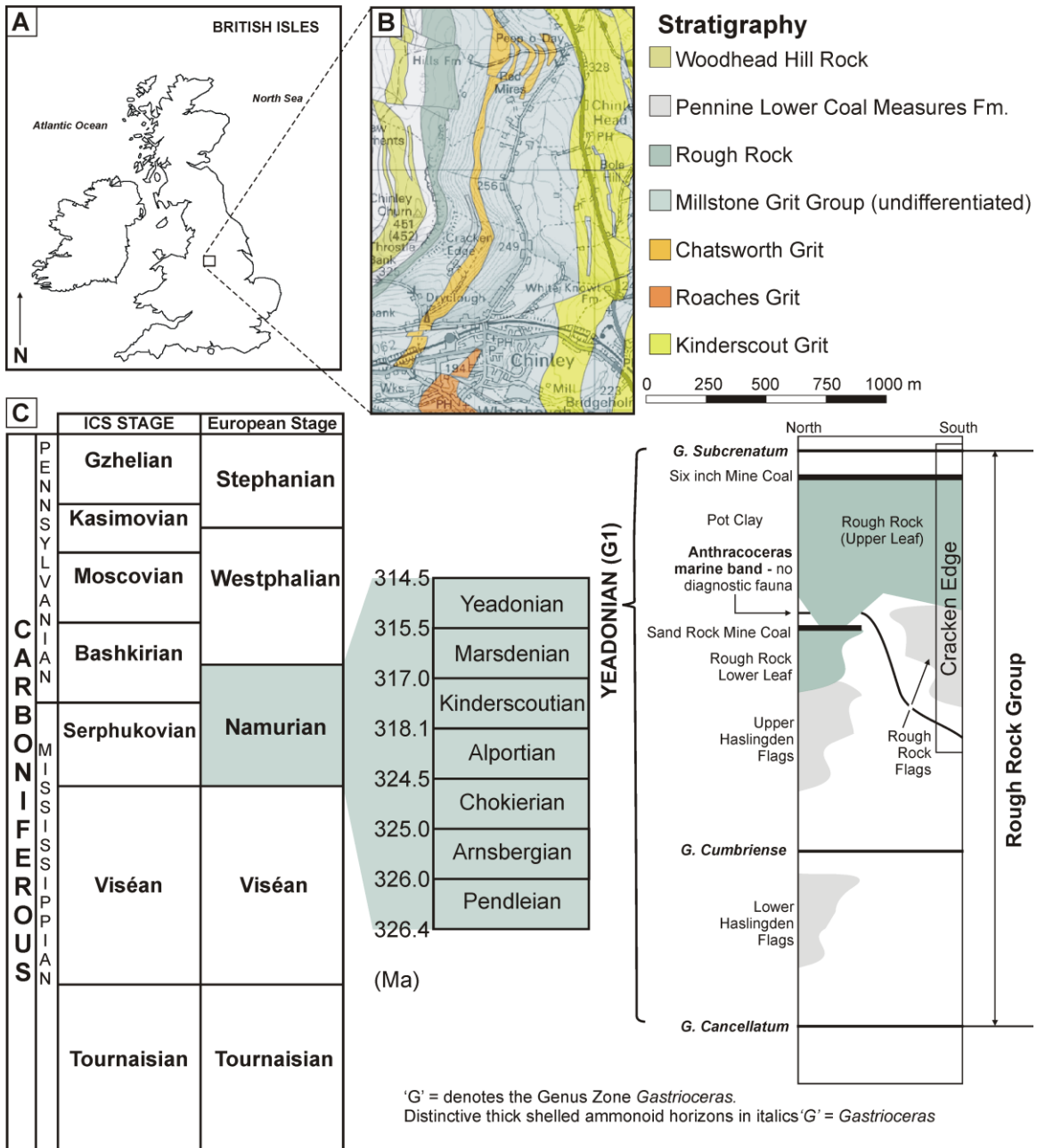
770

771 Wray, D.A. 1929: The Carboniferous Succession in the Central Pennine Area.
772 *Proceedings of the Yorkshire Geological Society* 20, 228-279.

773

774 Wright, M.D. 1964. Cross-bedding in the Millstone Grit of the Central Pennines and its
775 significance. *Geological Magazine* 101, 520-530.

776



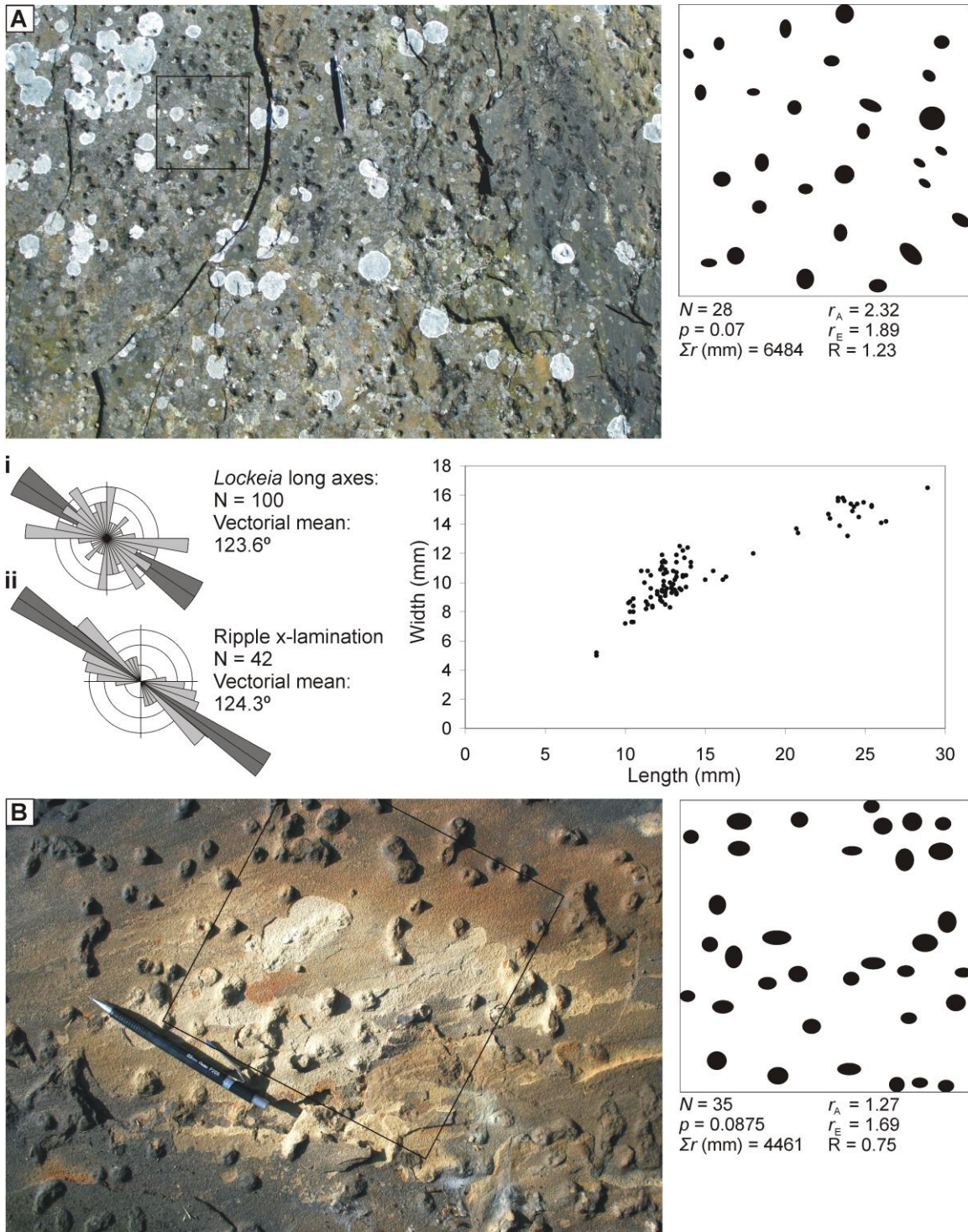
777
 778 Figure 1 – (A) Location of the study area in the UK; (B) Geological map of the area
 779 around Cracken Edge, near Chinley in the High Peak of Derbyshire (Geological Map
 780 Data©NERC 2009); (C) Stratigraphy of the Rough Rock Group, showing the defining
 781 ammonoid zones (*Gastrioceras cancellatum* and *Gastrioceras subcrenatum* at the base
 782 and top respectively). The location of Cracken Edge is shown schematically. Partly
 783 modified from Hampson et al. (1996).

784
 785
 786



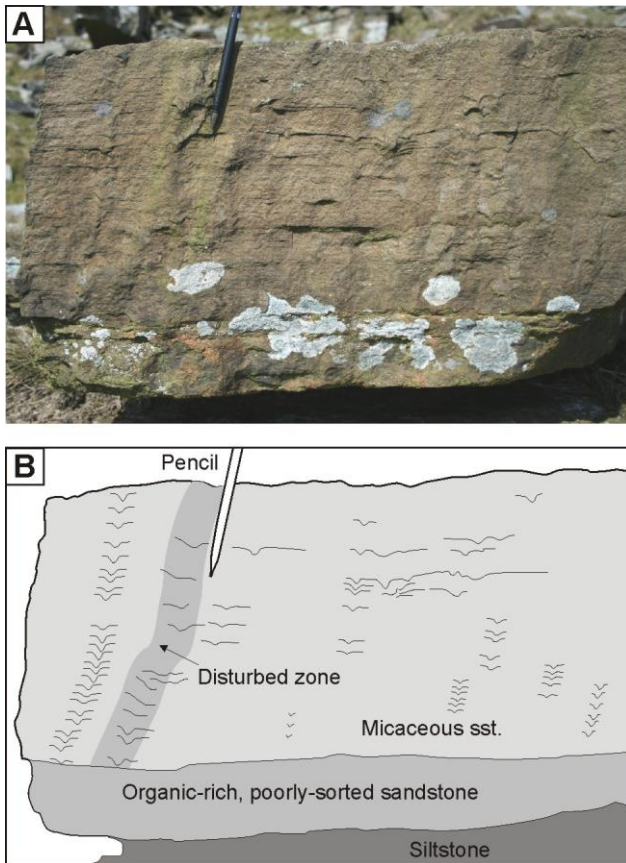
787

788 Figure – 2. *Lockeia* epichnial depression with sand-filled cast of bivalve shell. Several
789 specimens are revealed at the tops of burrows (Fig. 5) but no well-preserved examples of
790 the trace maker have been found. Hardy (1970) and Miller (1986) attribute this bivalve to
791 *Carbonicola* based on its occurrence at other localities. Note the pointed end of the shell
792 (top) marking the position of the inhalant siphon.



793
 794 Figure 3 – (A) *Lockeia* as epichnial impressions (negative traces) on an in-situ upper
 795 bedding plane surface, which overlies the subvertical burrows of Fig. 4. *Lockeia* has a
 796 relatively regular spacing pattern; it is however common to find clusters of two or more
 797 individuals, often with an ‘en echelon’ alignment with palaeoflow (see ‘i’ and ‘ii’).
 798 Nearest neighbour analyses reveal that *Lockeia* in has a non-random distribution
 799 ($R=1.23$) (values above unity suggests distribution is approaching maximum spacing).
 800 Long-axes trend approximately NW-SE, directional information suggests alignment with
 801 palaeoflow towards 123.6° . Size distribution analysis reveals two distinct size classes.

802 (B) Hypichnial expressions of *Lockeia* with central apertures (on a loose slab). *Lockeia*
803 also have a non-random distribution but their low value ($R=0.75$) suggests that they are
804 aggregated, which is clear to see in the image. Quadrants are 200×200 mm; pencil is
805 145 mm long. Note the central ‘apertures’ of *Lockeia*, which may reflect foot withdrawal;
806 these are not a common feature of *Lockeia* in the present study, although they resemble
807 some of the *Lockeia* found at the bases of ‘escape shafts’ illustrated by Broadhurst et al.
808 (1980, Fig. 8).
809
810



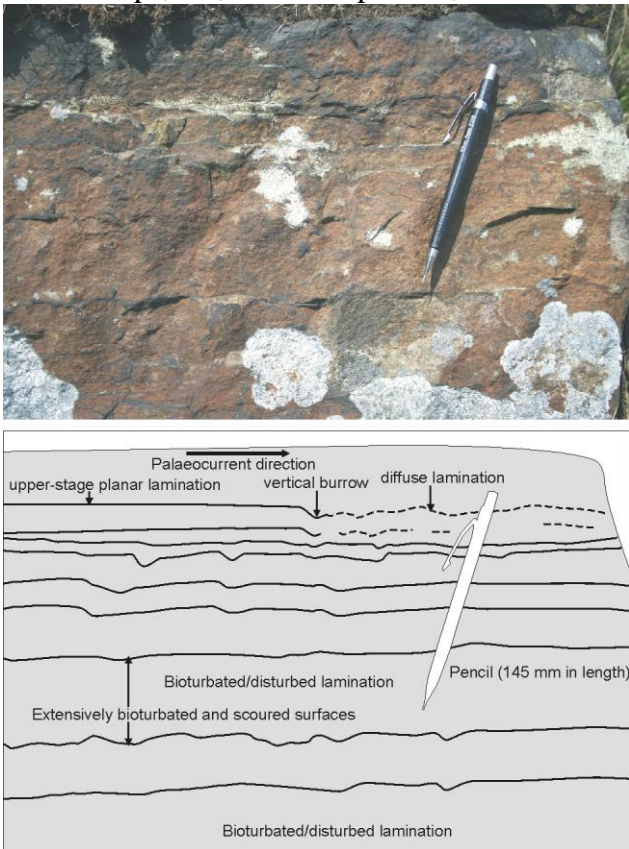
811
812 Figure 4 – (A) Vertical ‘burrow’ traces preserved as endichnia, marked at their tops and
813 bases by epichnial and hypichnial *Lockeia* respectively. Prominent traces are highlighted
814 in (B). These traces are referred to Equilibichnia, as they represent the response of the
815 organisms (bivalves) to episodic sedimentation, rather than true escape traces, or
816 downwards burrowing traces. The traces appear to originate from the organic-rich
817 structureless sandstone at the base, interpreted to be a flood deposit.
818
819
820



821
822
823
824

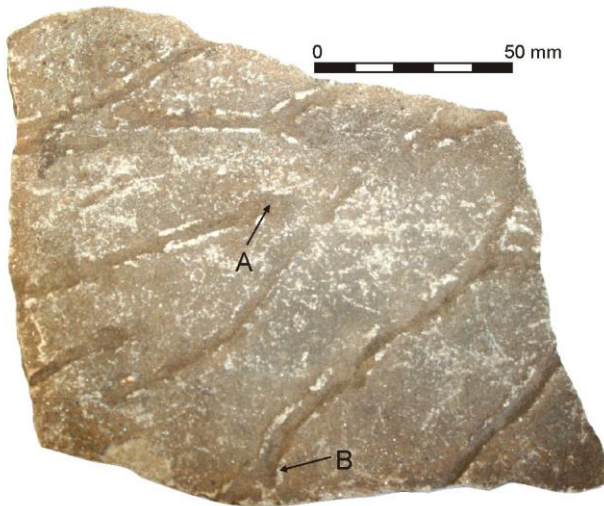
Figure 5 – Sliced sections. (A) Opposing sections through *Equilibichnia* trace associated with hypichnial expression (white arrows) and epichnial impression of *Lockeia*. In this

825 case the bivalve appears to have burrowed into the sediment in response to erosion of the
 826 substrate (demonstrated by the scour topography overlying the burrow aperture); this has
 827 subsequently been filled by micaceous and muddy sediment; the outline of the sand filled
 828 shell is marked by dark-coloured cement (circled in lower image). The protrusion of the
 829 bivalve is marked in the top image (black arrow). (B) Sub-vertical burrows with basal
 830 *Lockeia* hypichnial expressions marked (white arrows). Black arrows indicate the change
 831 in sediment surface relief across one of the burrows, indicating palaeoflow from right to
 832 left. The dashed line indicates downward burrowing of an unknown organism, note
 833 sharply down-warped sediment on RHS of line. (C) Burrow arrowed in white suggests
 834 progressive downstream dislodging of bivalves; however, it cannot be said for certain
 835 whether this is the progressive downstream movement of one individual or more, i.e.,
 836 successive colonisation surfaces. Note the uppermost white arrow shows a large trace
 837 with no apparent underlying precursor. The black arrow points to an abandoned burrow,
 838 the relief of which was progressively healed by later flows. Dashed oval line indicates the
 839 outline of a sand-filled shell indicating death in-situ (e.g. Broadhurst et al. 1980) (D)
 840 Black arrow indicates an abandoned burrow trace. Centre of sample is marked by an
 841 intensively burrowed fabric, entirely created by bivalve movement. (E) Steep upstream
 842 burrow margin with diffuse laminae and shallow margin on the downstream side. (F)
 843 Burrow tops, i.e., *Lockeia* epichnia, infilled with coarse-granular sand.

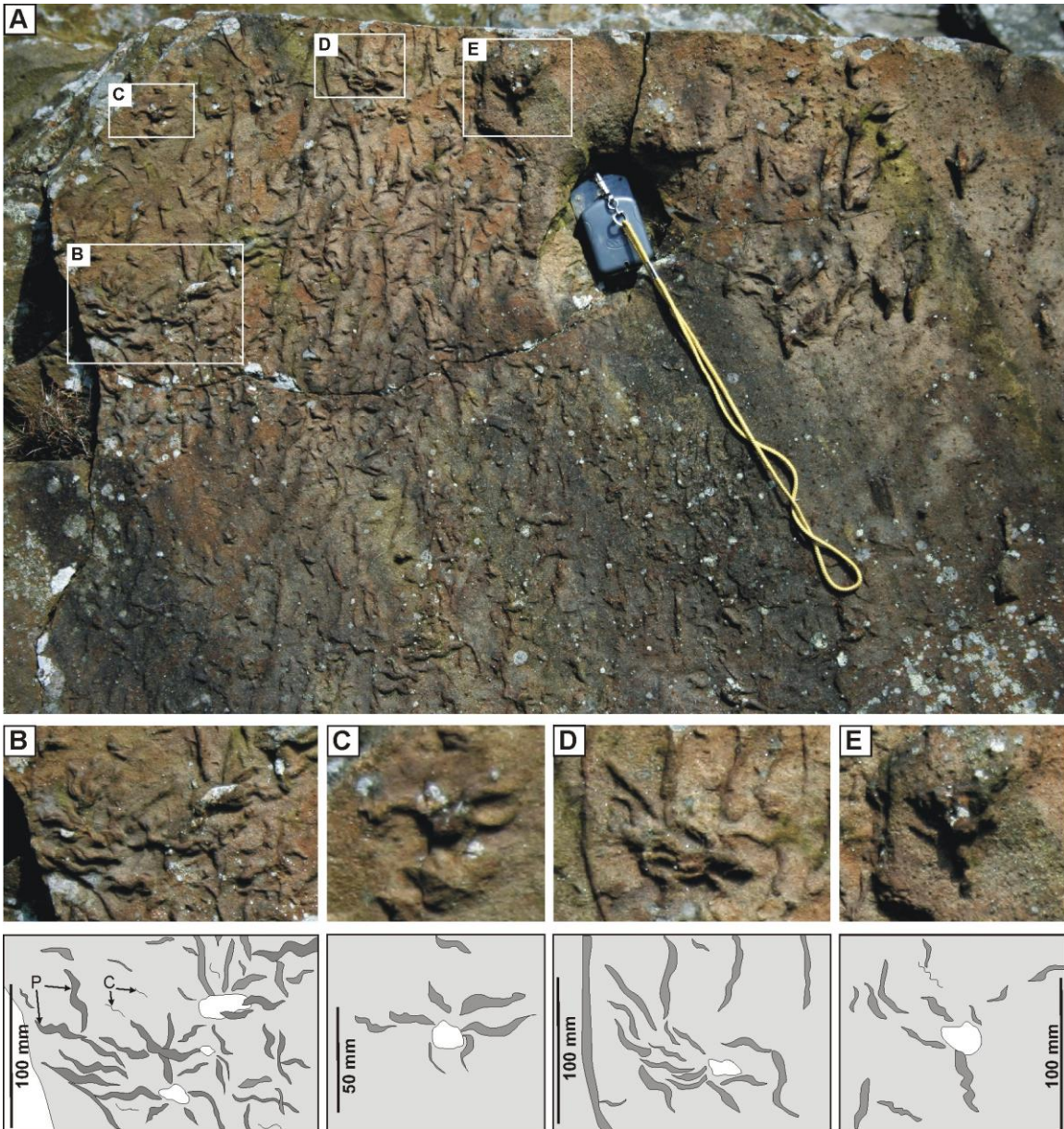


844 Figure 6 – Relatively impersistent subvertical burrows within an exposure approximately
 845 parallel to palaeoflow. There are a number of clear examples of downstream erosion on
 846 the lee-side of the vertical traces, which are attributed to bivalve equilibrium. On the
 847 lee-side of the trace, lamination which is clear and defined by micaceous layers on the
 848 upstream side, is replaced by diffuse lamination, or an apparently massive appearance.
 849 This feature is here attributed to downstream erosion of the substrate. This effect may be
 850

851 a critical factor in the spacing of bivalves within colonies (Fig. 3). The impersistence of
852 traces in this locality suggests that it was subject to regular high energy flow events
853 (lower 8 m of the Rough Rock Flags recorded by Miller 1986).
854

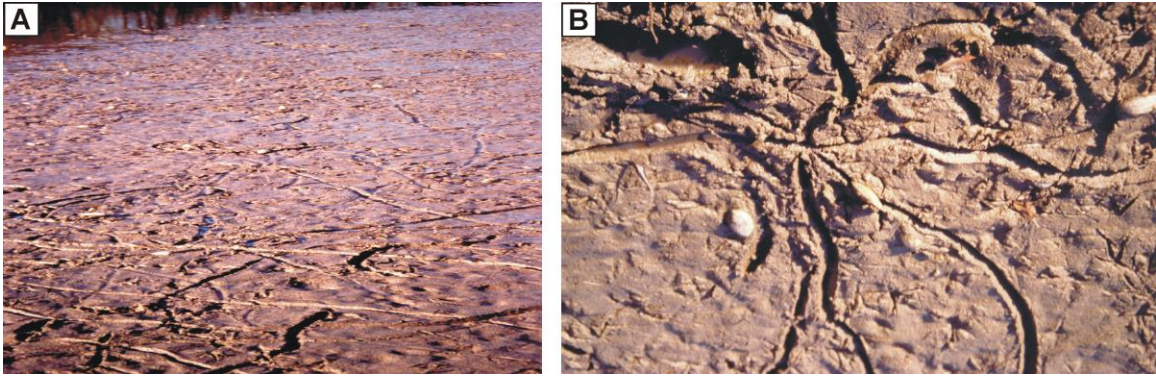


855
856
857 Figure 7 – Locomotion tracks are uncommon at Cracken Edge. These “plough marks”
858 take the form of epichnial grooves, 5-6mm wide with slightly raised ridges on either side
859 of the central furrow, and often terminate in a *Lockeia* trace (A). Tracks are straight to
860 slightly sinuous trails which sometimes cross but never branch, these have only been
861 found on loose slabs from the lower 8 m of the Rough Rock Flags recorded by Miller
862 1986, the longest trail revealed was 500 mm in length. These were probably created in
863 subaerially exposed sediment, necessary to maintain their steep sides and ridges (B), and
864 reflect movement of the (bivalve) trace maker towards a receding waterline (see Fig. 9).
865



866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878

Figure 8 – Scavenging association typically includes *Planolites*, *Cochlichnus*, *Didymaulichnus* and *Palaeophycus*. (A) Basal bedding plane of a fallen block. The horizon from which the block fell is consistently marked by this ichnocoenoses and overlies a thin (100 mm) siltstone interval, overlying which a relatively finer-grained sandstone lens within the Rough Rock. Long traces are commonly aligned from the top to bottom of the block, corresponding to ENE-WSW on the in-situ bedding planes; Hardy (1970) recorded NW-SE orientated *Cochlichnus* in the Rough Rock Flags. Insets B-E show predominantly *Planolites* (P) and *Cochlichnus* (C) traces radiating towards central hypichnial mounds interpreted to be *Lockeia* (pale grey colour), casts of dead and decaying bivalves carried by flood waters to a previously quiet environment (e.g., a small abandoned channel).

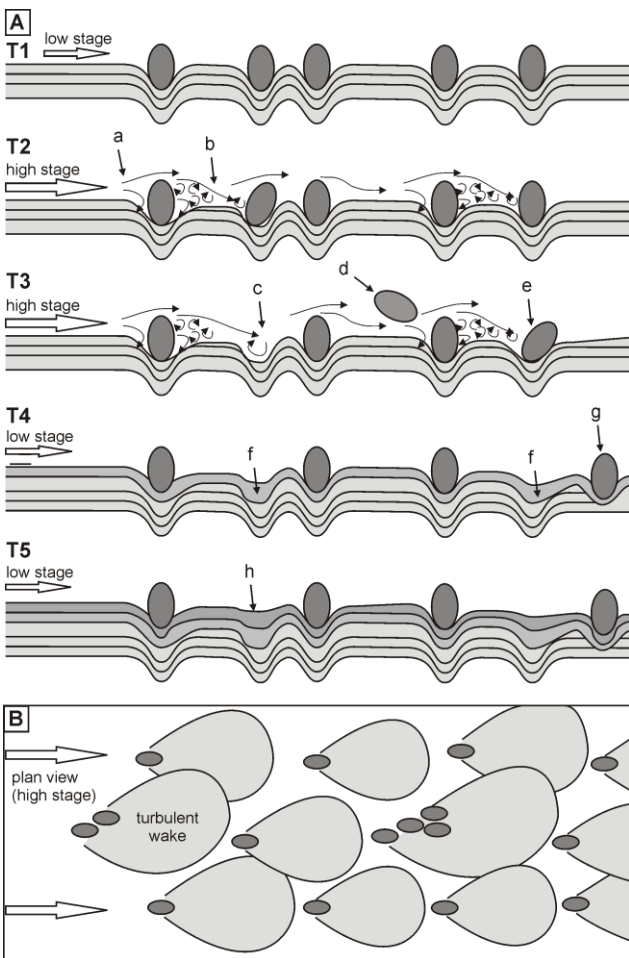


879

880 Figure 9 – Lateral movement traces (epichnial grooves) created by bivalves following a
 881 receding water line during reservoir draining (Mapperley Reservoir, Derbyshire,
 882 England). traces are generally sub-perpendicular to the receding water-line Photographs
 883 courtesy of Dr Andrew Johnson.

884

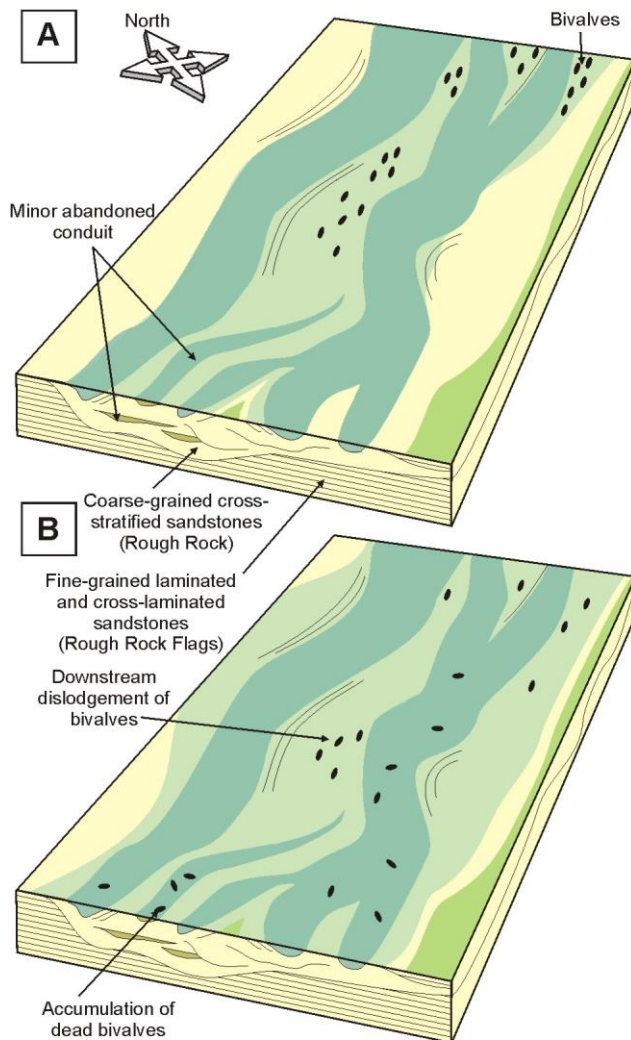
885



886

887 Figure 10 – A relatively regular spacing pattern of *Lockeia* has been noted. Evidence of
 888 erosion and scouring downstream of *Lockeia* has also been recorded. (A) A model is
 889 presented whereby erosion and scour associated with flow around individual, or clusters,
 890 of semi-infaunal bivalves on a non-cohesive substrate induces further flow separation and

891 creates a turbulent wake downstream of the organism. This turbulence leads to enhanced
 892 erosion and the destabilisation of bivalve in the immediate downstream vicinity. This
 893 mechanism may plausibly explain the relatively uniform spacing pattern of *Lockeia* often
 894 observed within the Rough Rock Flags and elsewhere. (a) steeper side to burrow on
 895 upstream side of bivalve; (b) deflation of sediment surface downstream of bivalve; (c)
 896 abandoned burrow, due to destabilisation associated with turbulent wake of upstream
 897 bivalve; (d) bivalve transported downstream; (e) bivalve destabilised within sediment;
 898 ponding of sediment within hollow begins to heal the topography (compare to Fig. 5D);
 899 (g) bivalve relocated downstream (compare to Fig. 5C); (h) sediment surface nearly
 900 entirely healed (compare to Fig. 5D). (B) Plan view of the generation of turbulent wakes
 901 around individual or clusters of bivalves.



903 Figure 11 – Braided river setting of the Rough Rock during normal flow stage (A) and
 904 high stage (B). Bivalves are thought to have colonised areas of relatively lower energy
 905 flow, such as sand-flats developed on bar tops or crevasse splay areas. As such
 906 environments are prone to erosion, bivalves were periodically dislodged from their
 907 burrows and either managed to re-establish themselves soon after, or were transported
 908 down system, either being deposited in quieter areas, in this case a minor abandoned
 909 conduit, or transported further downstream. Dead bivalves deposited in these
 910

911 environments within the Rough Rock channel system were scavenged by polychaete and
912 nematode worms. In unidirectional flow regimes, bivalve year-classes may be transported
913 progressively further downstream, with the result that the oldest bivalve year classes may
914 be poorly represented in upstream localities.
915