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25

INTRODUCTION: THE IMPORTANCE OF TAPHONOMY

26

27 Taphonomic analyses can provide valuable insights into a spectrum of
28 paleobiological questions, including biology, tissue composition, and paleoecology, as
29 well aspects of the paleoenvironment such as sediment pore-water composition and ocean
30 water geochemistry. In celebrated examples, unique taphonomic windows and
31 exceptional preservation have allowed fundamental questions about a group to be
32 resolved. Ediacaran macrofossils are amongst the least-well understood of any
33 macrobiotic assemblage in terms of their biology, paleoecology, and phylogenetic
34 affinity. A thorough understanding of the processes involved in their preservation is
35 required to distinguish between taphonomic artifact and genuine morphological features.
36 Accordingly, there is a long history of actualistic taphonomic analyses undertaken on this
37 biota, combining field-based observations with petrographic and experimental data.
38 Furthermore, recent research has demonstrated that the coincidence of multiple
39 taphonomic windows operating on the same organisms allow us to resolve fundamental
40 questions regarding the taphonomic processes themselves; each window provides a test-
41 bed against which the others can be compared. Of all Ediacaran macrofossil assemblages,
42 those traditionally referred to as the 'Ediacara biota' (e.g. Gehling, 1999; Narbonne,
43 2005) have been the most intensively scrutinised, and thus form the focus of this
44 discussion.

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46

The most notable difference between the Ediacaran and the Phanerozoic is the
abundance of moldic preservation of soft parts in sand-grade sediments, but the

47 differences in geochemistry and taphonomic processes between the two are not yet fully
48 understood. There remain fundamental questions regarding life and its preservation in the
49 Ediacaran, including the composition of the soft parts of the organisms, the taphonomic
50 biases imparted by the various paleoenvironments in which the organisms lived, and the
51 relationship between organism, microbial mat, and sediment. Only by understanding the
52 taphonomy of these organisms can we begin to confidently elucidate other aspects of
53 their biology. Herein, we review Ediacaran diversity and paleobiology, discussing the
54 dominant preservational styles, the importance of microbial mats, and a few intriguing
55 oddities. We explore the limitations to our current knowledge, and suggest future
56 directions for research in this fascinating Period.

57

58 **Ediacaran macrofossils – it's life, but not as we know it!**

59 The Ediacaran Period (635-541 Ma; Knoll et al., 2004) hosts the earliest
60 macrofossils currently known from the rock record. These include the ~600 Ma Lantian
61 biota (Yuan et al., 2011), and the much more widely-studied assemblages commonly and
62 collectively referred to as the Ediacara biota (e.g. Gehling, 1999; Narbonne, 2005; see
63 MacGabhann, 2014 for a discussion). Assemblages included in the latter biota span some
64 40 Ma of Earth history, from immediately after the Gaskiers glaciation to the base of the
65 Cambrian (Fedonkin et al., 2007; Narbonne et al., 2012), and shape our ideas of early
66 metazoan evolution and the development of Phanerozoic ecosystem structure. They also
67 provide a means of calibrating molecular clocks and the origination of metazoan clades
68 (Erwin et al., 2011). They are thought by many to include some of the earliest metazoans
69 (e.g. Narbonne, 2005), but interpretations regarding their phylogenetic affinity are as

70 varied as the organisms themselves. They have been interpreted as, or allied to, stem- or
71 crown-group metazoans (e.g. Glaessner, 1979; Clapham et al., 2003; Sperling and
72 Vinther, 2010; Sperling et al., 2011), algae (Ford, 1958), xenophyophores (large benthic
73 foraminifera; Seilacher et al., 2003), fungal-grade organisms (Peterson et al., 2003), an
74 extinct Kingdom (the Vendobionta; Seilacher, 1984, 1992) and even lichens (Retallack,
75 1994). Part of this confusion is, at least in part, attributable to the historic treatment of the
76 biota as one phylogenetic group, when it almost certainly includes representatives from
77 many disparate clades (Xiao and Laflamme, 2009; Erwin et al., 2011). Treatment of the
78 organisms on a 'case by case basis' will, no doubt, lead to a clearer understanding of the
79 diversity and biology of the organisms present.

80 Most workers now recognize several distinct groups (Fedonkin et al., 2007;
81 Laflamme et al., 2013), including: 1) rangeomorphs, characterised by repeated branching
82 which creates a pseudo-fractal, “modular” architecture (Narbonne, 2004; Brasier et al.,
83 2012); 2) arboreomorphs, which are similar in gross appearance to rangeomorphs but
84 have a different (non-fractal) branching pattern; 3) kimberellomorphs, which are
85 bilaterally symmetrical, display clearly defined anterior-posterior differentiation and have
86 at least three concentric zones; 4) erniettomorphs, which are modular and consist of
87 tubular units, and 5) dickinsoniomorphs, which are also modular but show anterior-
88 posterior differentiation. Four additional groups are defined based purely on their
89 symmetry: bilateralomorphs (which are likely polyphyletic; Laflamme et al., 2013),
90 triradialomorphs, tetradialomorphs, and pentaradialomorphs (Laflamme et al., 2013).
91 Although considered phylogenetically distinct, individuals of all described groups
92 comprise serially-repeated units.

93 Three assemblages have been proposed: the Avalon, White Sea and Nama
94 assemblages (Waggoner, 2003). Whilst these correlate broadly with current
95 understanding of paleogeography and age, debate as to the extent of the influence of
96 depositional environment on biotic composition of any given site persists (Grazhdankin,
97 2004; Droser et al., 2006; Gehling and Droser, 2013). Understanding the
98 paleoenvironment of a site, and thus the biases imposed on taphonomic processes, is of
99 critical importance in assessing the fidelity of the fossil assemblage to the life assemblage
100 (e.g. Grazhdankin et al., 2008).

101 Many sites record diverse subaqueous communities (e.g. Xiao et al., 2013),
102 comprising upright and flat-lying forms, and some thought to be wholly or partially
103 buried in the sediment; the majority were benthic, sessile, and epifaunal (Narbonne, 2005;
104 Laflamme and Narbonne, 2008). Whilst scant evidence for motility has been documented
105 from the oldest of these sites (Liu et al., 2010), it is not until the latest Ediacaran that
106 bioturbation (e.g. Chen et al, 2013; Meyer et al., 2014c) and macro-benthic predation
107 (e.g. Hua et al., 2003) become obvious. Microbial mats are widespread and well-
108 documented from these assemblages, and have been implicated in their paleoecology
109 (e.g. Seilacher, 1999).

110

111 **Peeking through the taphonomic windows at a soft-bodied world**

112 The Ediacaran is conspicuous for its sheer abundance of soft-tissue preservation.
113 Dozens of sites are known from across five continents, and include representatives from
114 multiple paleoenvironmental settings hosting abundant and diverse communities. They
115 allow a glimpse onto a world populated almost entirely by soft-bodied organisms.

116 Without such abundant preservation of these soft parts, we would have little knowledge
117 of macro-benthic life during most of this critical interval of Earth history; mineralization
118 in macro-organisms only evolves in the terminal Ediacaran (e.g. Grant, 1990; Grotzinger
119 et al., 2000; Penny et al., 2014), and the makers of known trace fossils largely remain
120 elusive.

121 Many aspects of the Ediacaran paleoenvironment differed to the Phanerozoic, and
122 different taphonomic biases held sway: sediment surfaces were sealed by microbial mats,
123 scavenging and deep bioturbation were absent, and the organisms were largely sessile and
124 immotile. Consequently, there was a lack of disturbance and an attendant lack of
125 significant time-averaging. Microbes are often cited as key to preservation (e.g. Briggs,
126 2003; Raff and Raff, this volume), and they formed ubiquitous mats in the Ediacaran (see
127 *Binding it all together*, below). It also had a potentially very different sedimentary and
128 oceanic chemistry, with lower seawater sulfate concentrations (Canfield et al., 2008),
129 abundant labile dissolved organic carbon in the deep oceans (Sperling et al., 2011), and a
130 condensed sediment-water geochemical profile, favoring early diagenetic mineralization
131 (Callow and Brasier, 2009b).

132 The multiple views provided onto the community by the different taphonomic
133 windows, coupled with the lack of significant time-averaging, give us greater confidence
134 in the relative completeness of ecosystems. This has allowed inferences about community
135 successions (Clapham et al., 2003), evolutionary progressions (Xiao and Laflamme,
136 2009) and ecological interactions to be made (Clapham and Narbonne, 2002; Clapham et
137 al., 2003; Droser et al., 2006; Darroch et al., 2013). Nevertheless, details of the anatomy
138 of many Ediacaran organisms are largely unknown. Only external and, rarely, internal

139 surfaces are preserved (Meyer et al., 2014a, 2014b); in marked contrast to the
140 Phanerozoic, convincing evidence of preserved internal structures is virtually absent
141 (though see Dzik, 2002, 2003; Narbonne, 2004).

142

143 **VARIETY IS THE SPICE OF LIFE**

144

145 The taphonomic windows through which we can view the biota are many and
146 varied, each giving us a different perspective on their biology. Crucially, some organisms
147 are preserved in more than one taphonomic mode, allowing the biases induced by each
148 mode to be ascertained (e.g. Grazhdankin et al., 2008). Ediacaran preservation is
149 dominated by three major taphonomic modes: 1) moldic; 2) replication by early
150 diagenetic minerals; and 3) carbonaceous compression, each of which are detailed below.
151 Two or more modes sometimes combine in an individual specimen (Fig. 1; Cai et al.,
152 2012). The mode in which a fossil is preserved depends on a variety of factors, many of
153 which are still incompletely understood, but which include the nature of the burial
154 sediment and depositional environment (Narbonne, 2005), the nature of the microbial
155 community (Gehling, 1999; Gehling et al., 2005), and the chemistry of the pore waters
156 (Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006; Callow and Brasier, 2009b).

157

158 **Upsides and downsides: moldic preservation**

159 Moldic preservation is the most abundant and typical preservational style of the
160 Ediacaran (Fig. 2–4; e.g. Gehling, 1999; Steiner and Reitner, 2001; Narbonne, 2005;
161 Grazhdankin et al., 2008; Cai et al., 2012) but, barring a handful of exceptional examples

162 (e.g. MacGabhann et al., 2007), is largely unknown outside of this Period. Terms used to
163 describe the nature of the molds, and their relationship to the beds preserving the fossils,
164 were introduced by Glaessner and Wade (1966). Features observed on the top surface of a
165 bed are termed epirelief (Fig. 2), and those seen on the base of a bed are hyporelief (Fig.
166 3). Features which form hollows or depressions have negative relief (Fig. 2a,c,d,f; Fig.
167 3a,b,c) and those which protrude above the substrate surface have positive relief (Fig.
168 2b,e; 3e). The sense of relief is thought to involve an interplay between the relative
169 resistance of the soft parts to collapse, and the timing of substrate lithification (Gehling,
170 1999; Narbonne, 2005): more robust or recalcitrant parts collapse or decay more slowly,
171 and so are cast by still-soft material from the underlying bed being injected upwards
172 (creating negative hyporelief; Fig. 3a,b,c/positive epirelief impressions; Fig. 2b,e), whilst
173 more fragile, fluid-filled or labile parts collapse or decay quickly, creating impressions
174 which are filled and presumably cast by material from the overlying bed subsiding into
175 the void (resulting in positive hyporelief; Fig. 3e/negative epirelief impressions; Fig.
176 2a,c,d,e; Fig. 4). The latter process likely requires stabilization of the lower surface of the
177 organism prior to complete decay in order to retain the observed level of morphological
178 detail (Darroch et al., 2012). Both senses of relief may be seen even within a single
179 specimen, and in different specimens of the same taxon from different localities (Fig. 2b–
180 e). In the Avalon Assemblage sites of Newfoundland and Charnwood Forest, the fossils
181 are only seen preserved as epirelief impressions (Fig. 2; Fig. 4); the counterparts are as
182 yet unknown.

183 The influence of the nature of the surrounding sediment and the depositional
184 environment on the taphonomy of an organism is apparent from the four styles of moldic

185 preservation proposed by Narbonne (2005), but is not yet completely understood. He
186 considers “Conception-style” preservation to be attributable to early diagenesis of
187 reactive minerals in a smothering volcanic ash. In contrast, the classic White Sea
188 Assemblage sites of Australia preserve their fossils on the bases of event beds
189 (hyporelief), for which Narbonne (2005) coined the term “Flinders-style” (Fig. 3c,e). This
190 style is also observed in the sandstone-and-shale facies of the White Sea (Grazhdankin,
191 2004), and has been suggested to be characteristic of shallow-marine environments
192 between fair- and storm-wave base. In both regions, fossils may in whole or in part be
193 preserved as positive or negative relief features. In his “Fermeuse-style preservation”,
194 only the bases of holdfasts, and trace fossils, are preserved (Narbonne, 2005). In “Nama-
195 style preservation” (Narbonne, 2005), named after its occurrence in the Nama Group of
196 Namibia, three-dimensional internal and external molds of fossils (Fig. 3d,f,g) are
197 preserved within storm event beds and channel-fill deposits deposited above fair-weather
198 wave base. Whilst it has also been reported from the Spaniard’s Bay locality of
199 Newfoundland (Fig. 4; Narbonne, 2004), other authors have interpreted the taphonomic
200 mode there to be more akin to death mask preservation, with the higher relief of the
201 fossils attributable to their preservation within scours in the underlying bed (Brasier et al.,
202 2013). Regardless, the exquisite preservation on this bed is remarkable, and is dependent
203 on a so-far unique combination of taphonomic artifice. This likely includes the burial of
204 the frond within sediment (Brasier et al., 2013), which exposed the entirety of the frond
205 to mineralizing pore waters, and unusually rapid and thorough mineralization, which was
206 potentially a function of pore water chemistry with favorable iron and sulfur ion
207 concentrations (see discussion of death mask preservation below).

208 Several taphonomic experiments have sought to replicate moldic preservation of
209 soft parts, but these have typically used specimens from only one species (Darroch et al.,
210 2012) or one phylum (Seilacher, 1984; Norris, 1989; Bruton, 1991). This limits their
211 usefulness in interpreting the soft-part composition or phylogenetic affinity of the fossils,
212 as limited comparison between tissue types or phyla can be made (under the same set of
213 experimental parameters). Indeed, the different responses and preservation potential of
214 the cnidarian taxa studied by Norris (1989) hints at the importance of the structure and
215 composition of an organism on its taphonomy. Under favorable conditions, medusoids
216 and chondrophorans produce simple concentric or radial impressions; pennatulids appear
217 more susceptible to contraction even under burial and compression, with the stalk and
218 polyps producing clear impressions, but most branches retracting into an indistinct mass.
219 Interestingly, no impression of musculature was produced in these experiments (Norris,
220 1989); its preservation in the Phanerozoic typically involves phosphatization (Briggs,
221 2003 and refs. therein), which seems to play only a minor role in the Ediacaran outside of
222 Doushantuo-type preservation (Schiffbauer et al., this volume). Is the absence of
223 musculature in the Ediacaran original, or due to failure of preservation? Additionally,
224 only the influence of the content of organic matter in the sediment was investigated
225 (Norris, 1989; Darroch et al., 2012); other parameters (e.g. grain size, composition) exert
226 an as yet unquantified influence. These experiments have also been conducted under an
227 array of environmental conditions, from water-covered (Bruton, 1991; Darroch et al.,
228 2012) to water-saturated with compression (Norris, 1989) to dry (beach strandline;
229 Bruton, 1991). Interestingly, experiments conducted under water but without mats or
230 compression result in poor or absent impressions, as the buoyancy of the decaying

231 organism lifts it off the sediment surface (Norris, 1989; Bruton, 1991). Whilst these
232 experimental approaches represent great leaps forward in our taphonomic understanding,
233 greater finesse is required to determine the relative influences of the many variables (see
234 Sansom, this volume).

235 *Breaking the mold: Gehling's death mask hypothesis.—*

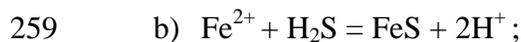
236 Once formed, the impressions must be rapidly stabilized in order to be preserved.
237 Groundbreaking work into understanding this mode of preservation, and particularly how
238 biological structures could be preserved in their original positive relief, was made by
239 Gehling (1999), based on observations from the Flinders Ranges. The elegant “death
240 mask” hypothesis he proposed consists of four main stages:

- 241 1) Organisms living on a microbial mat were smothered by sediment;
- 242 2) Labile or fluid-filled organisms/tissues decayed rapidly, leaving impressions
243 which were infilled by sediment from the overlying bed, while more robust
244 organisms/tissues persisted;
- 245 3) Sulfur-reducing bacteria exploited the organic material of both carcasses and
246 mat, releasing reduced sulfur compounds which combined with iron in the sediment,
247 resulting in the formation of pyrite. This pyrite coated the lower surface of the now-
248 collapsed labile organisms/tissues, and the upper surface of the recalcitrant
249 organisms/tissues, stabilizing the impressions and forming the so-called “death mask”;
- 250 4) Death masks which formed over more recalcitrant tissues were infilled from
251 below by still-unlithified sediment.

252

253 The pyrite thus formed is observed on the base of the event bed, comprising a sole veneer
254 of sediment grains infilled by interstitial pyrite; this layer is typically no more than a few
255 sand grains thick (Gehling et al., 2005; Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006). The reactions
256 involved can be summarized thus (Gehling et al., 2005):

257



261

262 Several factors influence pyrite precipitation, which in turn influences the anatomical
263 fidelity of the resulting impression (Darroch et al., 2012; Meyer et al., 2014b). In
264 pyritization, a balance exists between the quantity, quality and distribution of organic
265 matter, and the availability of sulfate and iron ions in the system (see Farrell, this
266 volume). Several factors may have contributed to the comparative prevalence of this
267 taphonomic mode in Ediacaran systems. First, the buried microbial mat provided both a
268 diverse population of decay bacteria and a ready supply of organic matter at the horizon
269 which hosts the fossils (Gehling, 1999). Secondly, sealing of the sediment by the
270 microbial mat re-establishing on top of the event bed may have been particularly
271 important in isolating the now anoxic/dysoxic pore waters from the oxic water column
272 above, controlling the availability of sulfate ions and maintaining anoxic pore waters in
273 even porous sediments (Gehling et al., 2005; Callow and Brasier, 2009b).

274 This model has since been expanded upon (Gehling et al., 2005; Mapstone and
275 McIlroy, 2006; Laflamme et al., 2011), as its ubiquity and variability has become

276 appreciated. Comparable pyrite sole veneers have been described from the Amadeus
277 Basin of Australia (Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006), and inferred from hematite partings
278 (Gehling et al., 2005) and Fe and S within preserved microbial mats (Laflamme et al.,
279 2011) from Newfoundland. Fossils from the Nama Group were originally thought to have
280 been preserved via a different process (Narbonne, 2005), but this has since been
281 questioned (Meyer et al., 2014a, 2014b). These fossils have a thin coating of pyrite that
282 lines the voids left by the external walls of the organism. The thinness of the pyrite
283 coating has been attributed to the dearth of organic matter in the system; in the absence of
284 a microbial mat, the sole source of organic matter was the carcass and sediment (Meyer et
285 al., 2014a, 2014b). Pyritization has also been implicated in the preservation of specimens
286 from the White Sea (Dzik, 2003) and the Gaojiashan biota (Cai et al., 2012), and replaces
287 the organic wall of frond stems from Siberia (Steiner and Reitner, 2001).

288 Formation of a pyritiferous sole veneer or parting is also key in the recovery of
289 the fossils: it provides a surficial horizon which is more susceptible to weathering than
290 the bulk rock (Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006; Meyer et al., 2014a, 2014b), allowing the
291 rocks to split along those horizons where fossils have been preserved. The red iron-oxide
292 and iron-oxyhydroxide staining resulting from this weathering also aids field
293 identification of likely fossil-bearing surfaces (Fig. 3e,f; Gehling et al., 2005).

294 If pyrite is the only mineral involved in making the death mask, then the level of
295 morphological detail retained in fossils is difficult to reconcile with their collapse and/or
296 decay prior to pyritization (which does not occur until step 3 of Gehling's 1999 model).
297 Recent evidence suggests that either authigenic aluminosilicate templating (see below) or

298 the microbial mat (see *Binding it all together*, below) may have stabilized the impression
299 during the earliest stages of its formation (Darroch et al., 2012).

300

301 **Coatings of clay – the timing of aluminosilicate mineralization.**

302 The role and importance of clay minerals in soft tissue preservation is
303 controversial, but they have been generated experimentally during early stages of decay
304 (Darroch et al., 2012). Clays are most famously invoked in the preservation of Burgess
305 Shale fossils, although the precise timing of its formation is debated (Orr et al., 1998;
306 Gaines et al., 2005; Butterfield et al., 2007; Page et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2011).
307 Authigenic clays were first suggested to have played a role in the preservation of
308 Ediacaran fossils by Wade (1969), and they have recently been noted in association with
309 fossils in several Ediacaran localities. In the Amadeus Basin, aluminosilicates occur as
310 part of a complex suite of very early diagenetic minerals, which consist of authigenic
311 quartz, illite, K-feldspar, chlorite, smectite, glauconite, and lastly hematite after pyrite
312 (Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006). These cements fill interstitial space between the sand
313 grains of the enclosing sediment, and stabilized the fossil impressions throughout burial.
314 In addition to the interstitial minerals, these authors noted a “matted” fabric of clay
315 minerals, hematite and silt grains which form a superficial coating on the fossils. Rather
316 than representing a death mask, which would have additionally included pyrite
317 framboids, they interpreted this coating to record fines falling out of suspension onto the
318 associated mat prior to burial (Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006).

319 Clay minerals and pyrite appear involved in the preservation of fossils from the
320 Doushantuo and Dengying formations (Anderson et al., 2011) and from the Gaojiashan

321 Lagerstätte (Cai et al., 2012; Meyer et al., 2012). In the Gaojiashan Lagerstätte, three-
322 dimensional fossils which have the finest level of three-dimensional morphological detail
323 are pervasively pyritized (Fig. 1a,b,f); two-dimensional carbonaceous compression fossils
324 are stabilized by Fe-rich clay minerals (Fig. 1c,d,e,g). Based on their composition,
325 spheroidal aggregate habit, and the fact that the fossils they template retain poorer
326 morphological detail, these clays are thought to reflect relatively late diagenetic
327 replacement of an earlier mineral which stabilized the fossil but which formed later in the
328 diagenetic sequence than pyrite (which is associated with the best fossils).

329 An association of pyrite and Fe- and Mg-rich aluminosilicates has also been
330 documented from the Fermeuse Formation in Newfoundland (Laflamme et al., 2011),
331 which is notable for its abundance of discoidal fossils assigned to *Aspidella terranovica*
332 Billings (Billings, 1872; Gehling et al., 2000). This study found that *Aspidella* specimens
333 interpreted as holdfasts were preserved in three dimensions, and were coated in a thin
334 layer of finer-grained material. The interior of the holdfast and the surrounding sediment
335 is sand-grade and principally composed of Si and Na (analyzed using EDS); the interior
336 sediment was slightly richer in Al, Ca, K, Fe, Na, Mg, P, and Mn, but poorer in C. This
337 was thought to record a vital effect, with sediment inferred to have been incorporated into
338 the holdfast during life (Laflamme et al., 2011). However, it could alternatively record
339 post-mortem precipitation of clay minerals within the holdfast as a function of its specific
340 decay microenvironment. The finer-grained material coating the fossils had higher
341 concentrations of Al, Mg, Fe, Ti, K, Mg, and S than both the holdfast interior and the
342 exterior sediment. This finer-grained layer, which is of variable thickness, was interpreted

343 to record authigenic aluminosilicate and pyrite growth in a decaying biofilm which had
344 completely surrounded the holdfast during life (Laflamme et al., 2011).

345 Authigenic chlorite also preserves compressed discs in the Jinxian biota, which
346 are found in stratigraphic association with carbonaceous compressions of *Chuaria*,
347 *Shousienia* and *Tawuia* (Zhang et al., 2006).

348

349 **Caught on film: carbonaceous compressions**

350 Carbon compression fossils are best known from Chinese localities, with
351 examples from the Gaojiashan Lagerstätte (Fig. 1c,d; Cai et al., 2012), Doushantuo
352 Formation (Fig. 5a; Anderson et al., 2011), Miaohe (Xiao et al., 2002; Zhu et al., 2008),
353 Lantian (Fig. 5c–f; Yuan et al., 2011) and Jinxian (Zhang et al., 2006) biotas, and also
354 from the Denying Formation (Sun, 1986). Preservation of fossils in this mode has enabled
355 inferences about the nature of the original composition of the organism (i.e.,
356 recalcitrance) and, by extension, phylogenetic affinity (Zhu et al., 2008) to be made.
357 Assemblages of the ~550 – 590 Ma Miaohe biota are found in black shales in the
358 Yangtze Gorges, and host a diverse range of macrofossils, many of which are interpreted
359 as algae based on the sub-millimetric resolution of preservation and the observation of
360 delicate thalli-like structures (Xiao et al., 2002). Specimens preserved in a comparable
361 manner to the Miaohe fossils are documented from the White Sea and from Siberia,
362 where they occur in finely-laminated, silicified calcareous mudstones of the Khatyspyt
363 Formation (Steiner and Reitner, 2001; Grazhdankin et al., 2008). Kerogenization of
364 carbonaceous compressions has been documented from the Gaojiashan, and has been
365 inferred to have contributed to stabilization of the fossils (Cai et al., 2012).

366 Although the paleoenvironments are very different, carbonaceous compression
367 fossils do not seem to differ from typical Phanerozoic fossils such as Carboniferous
368 plants (see Locatelli, this volume) preserved in this way: at first glance, they appear to be
369 a simple film of organic carbon compressed onto the sediment surface. However, the
370 extent of microbial influence in their preservation is uncertain, particularly for those
371 fossils which also have a moldic component. Although comparisons have been made
372 between Ediacaran carbonaceous compressions which are associated with clay minerals
373 and/or pyrite, and preservation in the Burgess Shale (e.g. Anderson et al., 2011; Cai et al.,
374 2012; Meyer et al., 2012), the presence or influence of any differences in sedimentology,
375 pore water chemistry or even nature of microbial community on preservation between the
376 sites is unknown. Given the uncertainty regarding the phylogenetic affinity and biological
377 composition of Ediacaran organisms, it is also unclear to what degree the composition of
378 tissues would affect the quality or type of preservation within this taphonomic spectrum.

379

380 **Bridging the taphonomic void**

381 The large number of biotas now known enables the preservation of single taxa to
382 be compared across different paleoenvironments and taphonomic windows, and thus the
383 biases imparted by each to be elucidated (Fig. 5; Grazhdankin et al., 2008; Zhu et al.,
384 2008). This promises to allow original ecological variability in assemblages to be
385 distinguished from secondary, taphonomic effects. The exclusion of certain organisms
386 from deposits in which fossils are preserved as carbonaceous compressions has been
387 shown to be a purely taphonomic artifact, and may record differences in original tissue
388 composition (Grazhdankin et al., 2008). In the Khatyspyt Formation of Siberia, fossils are

389 preserved in two, facies-dependent, modes: as carbonaceous compressions and by
390 authigenic carbonate cementation. *Charnia* is commonly found in the latter, but is only
391 observed in the former as “phantoms” where it fortuitously distorts co-occurring
392 carbonaceous films (Grazhdankin et al., 2008). In some cases, individual fossils are
393 preserved in multiple modes, suggesting a complex taphonomic pathway (Cai et al.,
394 2012). The fine balance between these modes may provide insights into the nature of the
395 original organic material, and/or the chemistry of the host sediment. In order to preserve a
396 carbonaceous compression, decay by sulfate-reducing bacteria, and hence pyrite
397 formation, must be halted early. This may be accomplished by overwhelming the system
398 with disseminated organic carbon, or by limiting diffusion of sulfate from seawater into
399 the sediment.

400

401 **BINDING IT ALL TOGETHER: THE IMPORTANCE OF MICROBIAL MATS**

402

403 In contrast to much of the Phanerozoic, microbial mats played a conspicuous role
404 in the preservation of soft parts in the Ediacaran, and may be at least partly responsible
405 for the comparative abundance of soft-tissue preservation at this time (Seilacher, 1984;
406 Gehling et al., 2005). Their ubiquity on the sea-floor is widely supported by a myriad of
407 field and petrographic fabrics (e.g. Gehling, 1999; Steiner and Reitner, 2001; Noffke et
408 al., 2002; Gehling et al., 2005; Grazhdankin and Gerdes, 2007; Callow and Brasier,
409 2009b; Wilby et al., 2011; Lan and Chen, 2012). These fabrics include microbially-
410 induced sedimentary structures (“MISS”, *sensu* Noffke et al., 2001) such as wrinkle
411 marks, reticulate network fabrics, old elephant skin textures and pustular fabrics (see

412 Gehling, 1999, and refs. therein), as well as “bubble trains” (Laflamme et al., 2012;
413 though see Brasier et al., 2013 for an alternative explanation of these structures). Despite
414 this abundant evidence, there are only scant reports of microbial body fossils outside of
415 the Doushantuo Formation of China (Hofmann et al., 1979; Callow and Brasier, 2009a).

416 The timing of pyritization relative to collapse of the organism as per the death
417 mask model (see discussion above), and the attendant difference in sense of relief of the
418 resultant fossil, testifies to the importance of microbes in Ediacaran preservation (Gehling
419 et al., 2005; Narbonne, 2005). Sites in the Flinders Ranges with thicker microbial mats
420 (evidenced by prominent surface textures) show negative hyporelief preservation of
421 fossils: pyrite formed before collapse of the organisms. By comparison, sites with thinner
422 microbial mats (relatively subdued microbial textures) exhibit composite and shallow,
423 positive hyporelief preservation: pyrite formed after collapse of the organisms. Therefore,
424 a thicker mat induced earlier formation of a death mask. Similarly, Narbonne (2005)
425 attributes “Flinders-style” preservation to rapid mineralization related to the presence of
426 the thick mats which could develop in the environments where this style is common
427 (Seilacher, 1984; Gehling, 1999). In contrast, he suggests that organisms preserved either
428 by poor examples of “Flinders-style” preservation or by “Nama-style” preservation are
429 attributable to their occurrence in environments above fair-weather wave base, which
430 would have lacked a well-developed mat. In contrast, “Fermeuse-style” preservation has
431 been suggested to have arisen from failure of the overlying bed to lithify before complete
432 decay of the organism, due to either an absence of a mat, or the presence of a mat
433 composed entirely of heterotrophic and/or sulfur-oxidizing bacteria (Narbonne, 2005).

434 Additionally, the extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) produced by the
435 microbial mat likely played an important role in the initial formation and stabilization of the
436 fossil impression by binding the sediment grains prior to precipitation of authigenic
437 minerals (Darroch et al., 2012). In a series of experiments, the impressions which retained
438 the finest morphological detail and lasted the longest were those that contained microbial
439 mats (Darroch et al., 2012). These samples preserved exceptional detail (as scored on
440 their taphonomic index) for two weeks after death of the subject, compared to one week
441 in samples with no mat. In mat-hosted samples, precipitation of pyrite precursors initiated
442 after just one day and reached maximum extent after two weeks. In samples without
443 mats, pyrite precursors initiated after two weeks in unsterilized sand, and failed to initiate
444 in sterilized sand. The importance of microbial mats in preservation is highlighted when
445 this recent experimental approach is compared with those conducted in the 1980s and
446 1990s, particularly given the relatively low return rate of recognizable impressions in
447 experimental runs with otherwise similar conditions (Norris, 1989).

448

449 ***ASPIDELLA* EVERYWHERE! THE ABUNDANCE OF HOLDFASTS**

450

451 Without doubt, the most abundant macrofossils found throughout the Ediacaran
452 are discoidal. The majority of these belong to the taxon *Aspidella*, which brings under its
453 umbrella many different, and previously taxonomically distinguished, forms (Gehling et
454 al., 2000). They are thought to principally represent holdfasts (Gehling et al., 2000;
455 Laflamme et al., 2011; MacGabhann, 2007), and may be so profuse that they entirely
456 cover bedding surfaces, as seen in the Fermeuse Formation of Newfoundland (Fig. 6e).

457 Only rarely are holdfasts preserved on the same horizon as their fronds (e.g. in
458 Charnwood Forest, Fig. 2b,d; Wilby et al., 2011); in most localities, either one or the
459 other is preserved. Most holdfasts were likely buried within the sediment, in whole or in
460 part, and their frequent concentric rings are generally interpreted as collapse structures.
461 On certain surfaces, only fronds of certain taxa are associated with holdfasts (e.g.
462 *Charniodiscus* in Mistaken Point, Newfoundland). In these cases, the holdfasts are
463 typically positive epirelief, and have been inferred to record upper surfaces of holdfasts
464 which protruded above the mat surface in life and were preserved before their collapse by
465 rapid mineralization of the ash (Conception-style preservation; Narbonne, 2005). Fronds
466 on these surfaces which appear without associated holdfasts (e.g. *Charnia*) may have had
467 ones which remained entirely buried within the sediment during their life and death
468 (Laflamme et al., 2007), and so are out of the plane of preservation. Some localities
469 preserve only holdfasts and trace fossils (“Fermeuse-style” preservation; Narbonne,
470 2005).

471 There may be several taphonomic reasons for the relative abundance of holdfasts
472 to fronds. First, their *in vivo* position within the sediment means that, even if the holdfasts
473 collapse after death or are tugged out, they may still leave an expression, such as collapse
474 structures formed as sediment falls back into the void left after decay (Narbonne, 2005),
475 and shear structures (Tarhan et al., 2010), respectively. Secondly, their anchorage within
476 (Laflamme et al., 2011) or beneath (Mapstone and McIlroy, 2006) the mat means that
477 they are less likely than the frond to be tugged out and removed by the current. Thirdly,
478 their presence within or close to the zone of active diagenesis (the “mixed layer”; Callow
479 and Brasier, 2009b) gives them a higher preservation potential. Finally, there is some

480 evidence that holdfasts were made of more resistant material; they may be preserved as
481 carbonaceous compressions while stems are replicated by pyrite (Steiner and Reitner,
482 2001), or as positive epirelief structures while fronds are preserved in negative epirelief
483 (Fig. 2e; 4a,b,d,f; Narbonne, 2005). Their comparative persistence may lead to their
484 preservation even in conditions conducive to only slow mineralization (cf. Darroch et al.,
485 2012).

486

487 **UNRAVELLING THE RAVAGES OF TIME: BIOSTRATINOMY AND THE**
488 **GRADATION OF FORMS**

489

490 Biostratinomy encompasses the effects of post-mortem compaction, contraction
491 (whether by dehydration or bacterial decay), folding, and transport (Gehling et al., 2005),
492 which necessarily influence the final morphology of the fossil. Compared to the
493 Phanerozoic, fewer biostratinomic processes operated in Ediacaran times. Scavengers
494 consume or disarticulate carcasses, but are unknown from the Period, and bioturbation
495 was limited. Those processes which would have endured throughout the Proterozoic into
496 the Phanerozoic are microbial decay and abiotic (physical) disturbance. Syn- or post-
497 mortem distortion of the morphology of the organism by physical processes has been
498 recorded from localities around the globe, and includes wrinkling (Gehling, 1991),
499 folding (Seilacher, 1992) and ripping (Runnegar and Fedonkin, 1992). If different parts of
500 an organism had dissimilar rheologies, they will be affected differently by shared
501 biostratinomic processes. For example, the crenellated part of *Kimberella* shows
502 comparatively greater deformation or wrinkling than the rest of the organism, and is

503 accordingly inferred to have been a broad, flattened “foot” which was less robust than a
504 surrounding, unmineralized shell (Fig. 3a; Fedonkin and Waggoner, 1997).

505 In fossils from Newfoundland, the quality of preservation is seen to decrease
506 along their length; there is greater opportunity for sediment to settle beneath the more
507 distal and lateral parts of the frond during felling (Laflamme et al., 2007). Fronds of
508 increasing size may show variations in susceptibility to current-induced stacking of
509 branches and compression of overall form. The observed change from I to V to U and to
510 O plan-view morphology in *Bradgatia* with overall increase in size may thus reflect
511 increased resistance to this process (Brasier et al., 2013), rather than a purely ontogenetic
512 signal (Flude and Narbonne, 2008). On a finer scale, the branching pattern of
513 rangeomorphs may also be affected during the burial event, for example the current-
514 induced imbrication of primary branches recorded in specimens from Spaniard’s Bay,
515 Newfoundland (Fig. 4; Brasier et al., 2013). If this interpretation is correct, it is
516 unnecessary for these branches to have been either constrained in a sheath or attached to
517 each other, as has been proposed for some taxa (Narbonne et al., 2009).

518

519 **Sweeping up: interpreting “mops”**

520 The potential extent of modification of form by physical disruption is further
521 evidenced by so-called “mop” structures (Tarhan et al., 2010). They have a highly
522 variable appearance and relief, but are consistently aligned parallel to ripped-up stems on
523 the same bed, have well-defined distal margins, and subparallel internal lineations that
524 are orthogonal to the margin. There is a gradation from typical *Aspidella* holdfasts to full
525 “mop”, consistent with these structures representing an effect imposed upon an organism

526 rather than a discrete taxon. “Mops” are thus interpreted to be the result of current shear
527 on frond holdfasts; the fronds themselves are not preserved, and are suggested to have
528 been either torn off by the current or held above the preservational surface (Tarhan et al.,
529 2010). They may alternatively have been held out of the plane of preservation. Upstream
530 parts of “mops” have a range of distal margin shapes, and are interpreted as buckled and
531 compressed parts of the holdfast, whereas downstream, linear structures are interpreted as
532 torsion-induced stretch marks. The smallest “mops” are expressed solely as distortion of
533 the surrounding sediment, suggesting that the smallest fronds were removed entirely. This
534 may provide an explanation for the lack in many communities of specimens below a few
535 centimeters. Alternatively, it may be that the entire mop spectrum represents disturbance
536 and distortion of the microbial mat arising from plucking out of the holdfast, and are
537 therefore a form of MISS (Laflamme, pers. comm.. 2014).

538

539 **Is it all rot? Iveshediomorphs**

540 Forms currently referred to as “iveshediomorphs” (Fig. 6a–d) are contentious, and
541 include a wide spectrum of morphologies. These were originally described from
542 Charnwood Forest as discrete taxa, and include *Ivesheadia*, *Blackbrookia*, *Pseudovendia*
543 and *Shepshedia* (Boynton and Ford, 1979, 1995); similar forms in Newfoundland are
544 referred to as “pizza discs”, “lobate discs” and “bubble discs” (Narbonne et al., 2001;
545 Laflamme et al., 2012). A full spectrum between such forms and fronds exhibiting fine
546 detail has been documented from several bedding planes in Newfoundland, leading to the
547 interpretation of “ivesheadiomorphs” as the remnants of dead organisms which were in
548 the process of microbial decay at the time of burial (Liu et al., 2011). The irregular,

549 unusually high relief and often network-like internal features of these forms were
550 suggested to represent a conflation of sediment trapped by EPS and gas derived from the
551 decay process (Liu et al., 2011). However, other authors have suggested alternative
552 explanations: Laflamme et al. (2012) interpret these structures as purely microbial in
553 origin, and Wilby et al. (2011) propose that at least some of the forms may be created by
554 differential loading on the fossil-bearing surface following collapse of organisms within
555 the overlying bed.

556

557 **All full up: the timing of sand infills**

558 Resolution of both the mechanism and timing (*in vivo* or post-mortem) of
559 sediment infill is of great significance for current interpretations of the biology of the
560 organisms in which they are found. Rangeomorphs and erniettomorphs have been
561 interpreted as osmotrophs, absorbing dissolved organic carbon from the water column
562 (Laflamme et al., 2009). The proposed model requires the organisms to have had a very
563 small (< 2 %) volume of metabolically-active material, which could potentially have been
564 achieved by *in vivo* incorporation of sediment (Laflamme et al., 2009). If this can be
565 demonstrated, then an osmotrophic mode of life is plausible; if not, then the inert material
566 must be a fluid, which might be expected to exert its own influence on the rheology of the
567 organism and on its taphonomic behaviour.

568 Sand fills observed in stalks of fronds from the Amadeus Basin exhibit ripple
569 cross-lamination contiguous to that of the surrounding sediment, and are convincingly
570 demonstrated to record post-mortem slumping of sediment into the stalk (Mapstone and
571 McIlroy, 2006). In contrast, it has been suggested that sand in the holdfasts (“bulbs”) and

572 central stalks of fossils of *Rangea* from Namibia was incorporated into the body of the
573 organism during life, based on the similarity of the sediment within the “bulb” and stalk
574 to that infilling the gutter casts below the fossil (Vickers-Rich et al., 2013). A similar *in*
575 *vivo* fill has been interpreted in holdfasts from the Fermeuse Formation of Newfoundland
576 (see *Aspidella* section above; Laflamme et al., 2011).

577 If this *in vivo* interpretation holds, then such a fill could have served to stabilise or
578 anchor the organisms. However, a post-mortem infilling might explain the recorded
579 presence of a gap in the sediment fill part way up the stalk (Vickers-Rich et al., 2013),
580 their Fig. 7.3,7.4), which is hard to reconcile with the *in vivo* interpretation. In contrast, a
581 taphonomic sand infill is more difficult to argue for specimens of taxa such as *Ernietta*
582 which are preserved as three-dimensional sediment casts. There are no obvious tears or
583 punctures through which sediment could enter, and it might be expected that a post-
584 mortem fill would be less pervasive than an *in vivo* one, either restricted to a few
585 (damaged) individuals or to partial infills. If these fossils represent templates of the
586 external surface which have been infilled by uncemented sediment (Meyer et al., 2014a,
587 2014b), how did this sediment penetrate a more-or-less continuous veneer after its
588 formation? Perhaps these organisms did have an *in vivo* fill; in that case, how was this
589 achieved?

590 Fully understanding the biostratinomy of the organisms can be hugely useful in
591 determining various aspects of their biology. The observation of torsion-induced stretch
592 marks in holdfasts indicates both that these were firmly anchored in the sediment, and
593 that they were sufficiently elastic to deform rather than snap or tear. This, in turn, casts
594 doubt on interpretations of structures such as “mops” and isolated *Aspidella* specimens

595 which invoke ripping off the frond. We can infer that tissues which do show evidence of
596 tearing under the same conditions were likely more rigid. That organisms can fold over
597 indicates a certain degree of flexibility, and the style of fold can provide additional
598 information on body rheology: assuming no decay had occurred, those that kink over at a
599 sharp line (e.g. dickinsoniids) were likely more rigid/solid than those which show more
600 sinuous or irregular folds (e.g. the rangeomorph, *Fractofusus*).

601

602 **KNOW YOUR LIMITS: PRESERVATIONAL BIASES AND UNKNOWABLE**
603 **UNKNOWNNS**

604

605 Although soft-tissue preservation is reasonably common in the Ediacaran, with
606 bed after bed preserving fossils, it is by no means perfect, and has its own inherent
607 problems and biases. Two-dimensional records of three-dimensional organisms are by
608 their very nature either composite (with structures at multiple levels in the organism
609 compressed together into one plane) and/or partial; usually, only one side of an organism
610 is cast. This is most problematic for organisms with a highly three-dimensional
611 morphology, such as multifoliate rangeomorphs (*sensu* Laflamme and Narbonne, 2008)
612 and erniettomorphs, as opposed to flatter organisms such as unifoliate rangeomorphs
613 (*sensu* Laflamme and Narbonne, 2008) and dickinsoniids. Imagine how the two-
614 dimensional impression of a bushy plant would compare to its three-dimensional
615 morphology, and how much more complex and confused, and less representative of the
616 living morphology, this would be in contrast to the compression of a plant like a fern.

617 This is exemplified in the changing morphology and decreased clarity of branching of
618 *Bradgatia* with increasing size (see *Biostratinomy* section above).

619 As in any Lagerstätte, we must still consider what has not been preserved, in
620 terms of both parts of the organisms and of whole organisms. For those specimens which
621 have been transported and deposited in death assemblages (Namibian channel-fill
622 deposits), we have lost information regarding their *in situ* ecology, such as their relative
623 abundances and spatial distributions, as well as their position relative to the sediment-
624 water interface. The limits of the resolution of preservation also render invisible any
625 meiofauna which may have been present, and so we have no knowledge of these
626 components of the ecosystem (Sperling et al., 2013). Any organism capable of motility
627 (Liu et al., 2010) has a greatly reduced chance of being captured in the ecosystem than its
628 sessile compatriots. Despite early (now-refuted) suggestions of discoidal fossils as
629 medusoids (e.g. Sprigg, 1947, 1949; Glaessner and Wade, 1966), there is to date no
630 convincing evidence of pelagic forms. As such, we have no knowledge whatsoever of the
631 macroscopic life which may have been present in the water column during the Ediacaran.
632 By extension, if these organisms did have a planktonic dispersal stage (discussed in
633 Darroch et al., 2013), it is unlikely that this would be captured. Apparent support for such
634 a life stage is the lack of preserved individuals smaller than a centimeter, despite sub-
635 millimetric preservation, and that even the very smallest fossils currently known are
636 identical in morphology to adult forms (Liu et al., 2012, 2013).

637 For the organisms that we do see, the overwhelming dominance of two-
638 dimensional, external moldic preservation means that we have little, if any, evidence of
639 internal anatomy. Reported examples of internal “struts” in rangeomorphs from

640 Spaniard's Bay (Narbonne, 2004) have subsequently been explained as branches filled by
641 sediment casting the underside of the upper surface and creating positive epirelief
642 impressions (Fig. 4b,c), rather than casting the lower surface and creating negative
643 epirelief impressions (Fig. 4a,d,e,f), as is typical at this locality (Brasier et al., 2013). The
644 ridges originally interpreted as struts are accordingly inferred to be the divisions between
645 higher-order branches (Brasier et al., 2013). The differential collapse of branches within
646 the frond (Fig. 4b) could be taken to suggest the *in vivo* presence of a hydrostatic skeleton
647 which became punctured and subsequently deflated, but could alternatively simply record
648 relaxation in response to decay (Brasier et al., 2013). Discrimination between the
649 competing hypotheses will remain challenging until further evidence comes to light.

650 Three-dimensional fossils are rare, restricted to occurrences of "Nama-style
651 preservation" (Narbonne, 2005) and within certain carbonate deposits (Xiao et al., 2005;
652 Grazhdankin et al., 2008): most fossils have relief but are essentially two-dimensional (in
653 the sense that only one side, or a composite of both sides, of the organism is captured).
654 This means that, for the vast majority of specimens, there is no evidence for what the
655 other side looked like. There is also little indication of the original volume of the
656 organism, due to both biostratinomic and burial compaction.

657 Explanations for the absence of internal structures in Ediacaran fossils include: 1)
658 decay outpaced their fossilization; 2) the microenvironment created by their decay inside
659 the body cavity was not conducive to fossilization; 3) the extrinsic environment was
660 incompatible with their fossilization, perhaps because of sediment sealing; 4)
661 comparatively low oceanic sulfate concentrations (e.g. Canfield et al., 2008) favored
662 pyritization of the organisms' external surface; or 5) the organisms lacked substantive

663 internal structures. Until sufficient and suitable fossils are available to permit the
664 undertaking of destructive analyses (e.g. Laflamme et al., 2011), resolution of this
665 question may remain elusive.

666

667 **CONCLUSIONS AND QUANDARIES**

668

669 Exciting progress is being made in several fields of Ediacaran endeavour,
670 including paleoecology (Clapham and Narbonne, 2002; Clapham et al., 2003; Darroch et
671 al., 2013), anatomy (e.g. Fedonkin and Waggoner, 1997; Narbonne et al., 2009; Brasier et
672 al., 2012; Vickers-Rich et al., 2013), ontogeny (e.g. Laflamme et al., 2004; Antcliffe and
673 Brasier, 2007) and phylogentic relationships (e.g. Erwin et al., 2011; Laflamme et al.,
674 2013). Taphonomic processes and biases impact all aspects of paleobiology; an
675 understanding of these is therefore paramount if we are to further elucidate the nature of
676 the original organisms and their communities. Great strides are being made, with elegant
677 experimental work (McIlroy et al., 2009; Darroch et al., 2012) enhancing detailed
678 petrographic and field-based studies (e.g. Gehling, 1999; Xiao et al., 2005; Grazhdankin
679 et al., 2008; Laflamme et al., 2011). Taphonomic modes as disparate as moldic
680 preservation, pyritization, carbonaceous compression, clay mineral precipitation, and
681 carbonate mineralization are all observed in Ediacaran sites across the globe, sometimes
682 with multiple modes within a single fossil (Cai et al., 2012). There does appear to be a
683 broad correlation between taphonomic style and depositional environment (e.g.
684 Narbonne, 2005; Grazhdankin et al., 2008), with moldic and death mask preservation
685 most common in siliciclastic and volcanoclastic settings, and carbonaceous compression

686 fossils occurring predominantly in shales and carbonates. Clay mineralization appears to
687 occur in all environments. However, the extent of the influence exerted by
688 paleoenvironment, and of the disparate factors this includes, remains uncertain. Fifteen
689 years on from the proposal of the death mask model (Gehling, 1999), perhaps it is time to
690 consider how the plethora of biotas featuring pyritization relate to this model, and to one
691 another.

692 The location of an organism with respect to the sediment-water interface imparts a
693 significant taphonomic bias, as those structures which were located within the sediment
694 during life were more readily preserved in death. This bias is a likely cause of the greater
695 abundance of holdfasts with respect to fronds (see *Aspidella* section above). Other
696 taphonomic biases are much more poorly understood, with a few rare exceptions (e.g. the
697 scarcity of rangeomorphs in Miaohe-type preservation; Grazhdankin et al., 2008).
698 Elucidation of these biases is of absolute import for paleoecological studies: as they
699 become known, we can begin to appreciate which site-to-site differences in assemblage
700 composition are original (ecological), and which are secondary (taphonomic overprint).

701 Perhaps the most appropriate way to investigate these biases is through expansive
702 experimental work. Such studies may also help to answer why moldic preservation is so
703 prevalent in the Ediacaran as opposed to the Phanerozoic. The effects of a range of
704 physical and chemical parameters have been tested in various taphonomic experiments
705 (see e.g. Briggs, 2003, and refs. therein; Sansom, this volume). However, such studies
706 have yet to be systematically extended to investigate systems which would be more
707 applicable to the Ediacaran, e.g. those with microbial mats (with the exception of Darroch
708 et al., 2012). Trace metals such as molybdenum, which are limiting nutrients for life (e.g.

709 (Glass et al., 2012), are becoming widely used as tracers of productivity and ocean redox
710 conditions in the Proterozoic (e.g. Scott et al., 2008), but nothing is known about their
711 specific effects on decay-related microbial activity, and therefore on taphonomy.

712 A major caveat to such taphonomic experimentation is the enduring uncertainty
713 surrounding the original biological composition of Ediacaran organisms, which will
714 likely only be resolved upon discovery of an assemblage preserving cellular-level detail.
715 Currently, inferences regarding relative degrees of robustness and rigidity may be made
716 based on biostratigraphic grounds, but these can only tell us so much. Taphonomic
717 experiments sampling a wide variety of tissue and cell types from as many branches of
718 the tree of life as possible may provide our best hope: by comparing the behaviours of
719 different biological compositions to features seen in fossils, it may be possible to relate
720 the two, and consequently to infer the original composition of the organism or its parts.
721 Of course, this must be repeated for the many potential variables already discussed in
722 order for any such inferences to be made with any degree of confidence, rendering the
723 number of experiments required unfeasible.

724 One quandary peculiar to Avalon Assemblage localities is the true nature(s) of
725 “ivesheadiomorphs”. Do all “ivesheadiomorphs” as currently defined (Liu et al., 2011)
726 have the same genesis? Are they all taphomorphs of known taxa? Are they all microbial
727 colonies (Laflamme et al., 2012)? Do any represent discrete macro-organisms (Boynton
728 and Ford, 1979, 1995)? Do some have a different origin? The answers to these questions
729 have great potential impacts for several aspects of paleoecological studies, including
730 living biomass, species diversity and disparity, and spatial distributions: if these
731 structures are dead and decaying organisms, they must inherently have a different effect

732 on the rest of the community than if they were living organisms. Whatever they are, why
733 is their occurrence seemingly restricted to Avalonian, deep-water systems? Is this an
734 environmental signal, or a function of the microbial community present? If they really do
735 include taphomorphs, could different organisms have created distinguishably different
736 forms, and could these be related back to their progenitors (cf. Liu et al., 2011)?

737 Paradigm shifts in understanding will probably depend not on the development of
738 analytical techniques, but rather on the discovery of new, higher-resolution preservational
739 windows.

740

741

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

742 Sincere thanks to Marc Laflamme for inviting this contribution, and to Marc
743 Laflamme, Simon Darroch and James Schiffbauer for comments on this manuscript.
744 Thanks also to Marc Laflamme, Alex Liu, James Schiffbauer and Shuhai Xiao for the use
745 of photographs and figures, and to Elsevier and GSA for permission to republish figures.
746 Thanks to Alex Liu and Jack Matthews for discussions and assistance in the field. CGK
747 and PRW are supported by NERC grant NE/I005927/1.

748

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1080 *Geology*, v. 36, p. 867–870, doi: 10.1130/G25203A.1.
- 1081

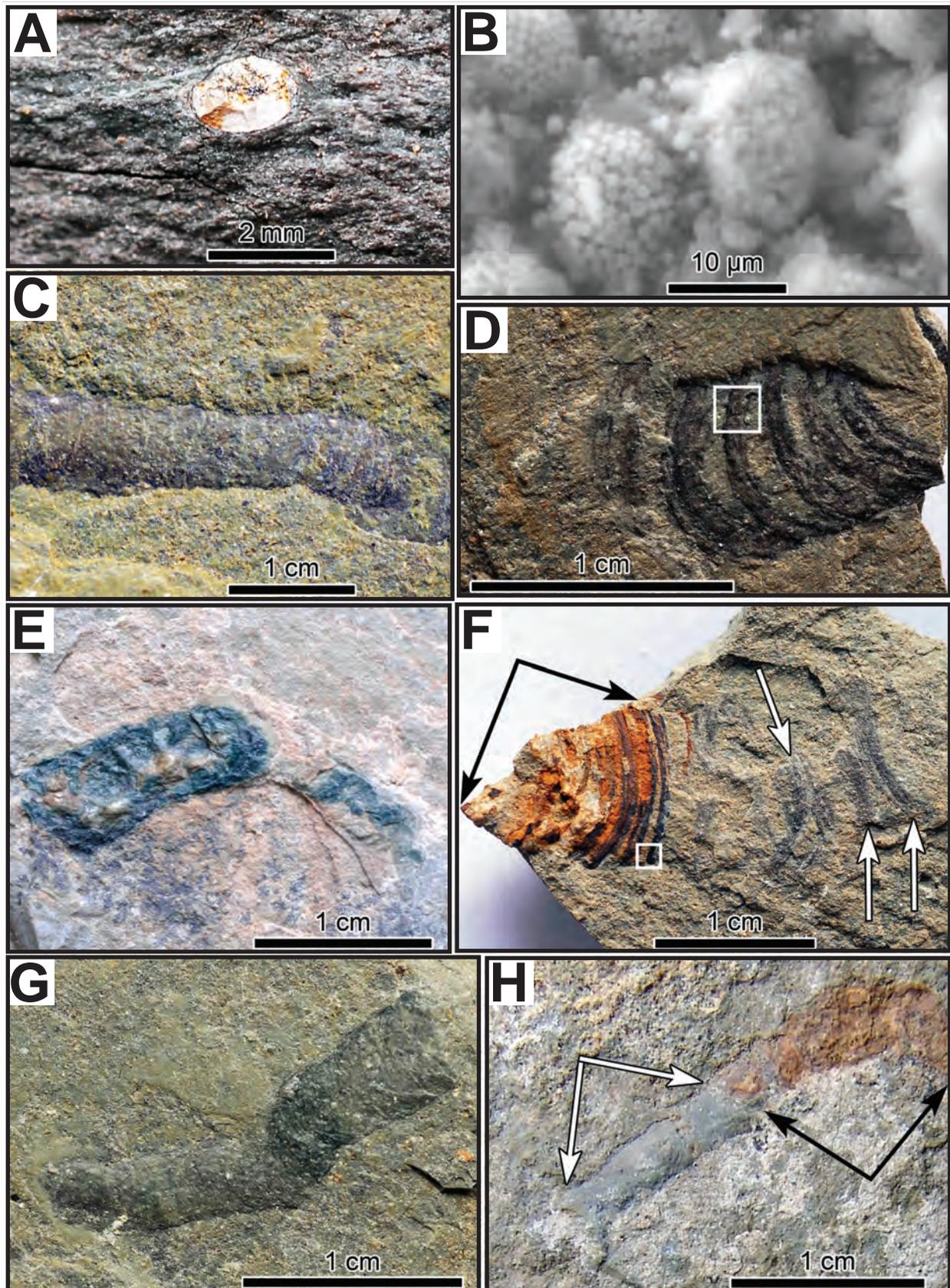


FIGURE 1.—Preservation of single fossils from the Gaojiashan biota in multiple taphonomic styles, reproduced from Cai et al., 2012 with the permission of Elsevier. All reflected light photographs except b (SEM photomicrograph). a) Cross-section through a pyritized *Conotubus hemiannulatus* specimen; b) pyrite framboids on the exterior of the specimen in a); c, d) carbonaceous compression fossils; e) replication by green-coloured aluminosilicate minerals; f) specimen exhibiting both pyritization (rust-coloured area, black arrows) and carbonaceous compression (grey parts, white arrows); g) specimen preserved in both carbonaceous compression and greenish aluminosilicate minerals (central part of the tube); h) specimen exhibiting all three preservational styles (pyritization between black arrows, carbonaceous compression and aluminosilicate mineral replication between white arrows). Rectangles in c, d, and f indicate areas analyzed via ESEM EDS.

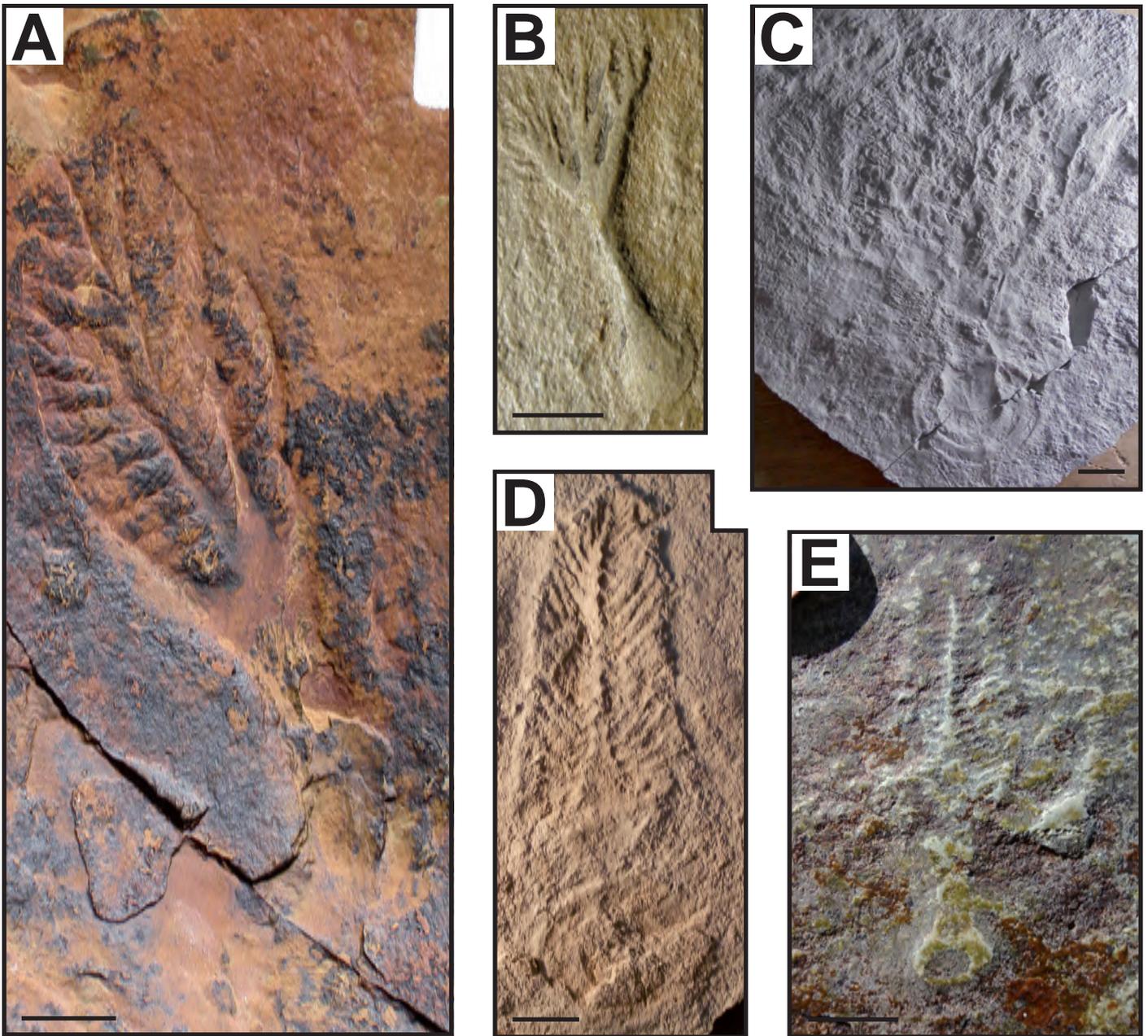


FIGURE 2.—a) Exceptional preservation in the Avalon Assemblage - a *Culmofrons* specimen from the Bonavista Peninsula, Newfoundland. Note that the frondose portion of the fossil is preserved in negative epirelief, and the stalk is preserved in positive relief. Photo courtesy of Alex Liu. b) Small *Primocandelabrum* specimen from the Bonavista Peninsula, with holdfast, stalk and branch axes preserved in positive epirelief. The frondose portions are not evident in this fossil. c) A *Primocandelabrum* specimen from Charnwood Forest, UK. Note that in contrast to b, the stalk and holdfast are preserved in negative epirelief, indicating a difference in the relative timings of collapse and lithification of the beds in the two sites. Plaster cast of GSM 105969; d) *Charniodiscus* specimen from Charnwood Forest, with central and branch axes preserved in low positive epirelief, and the holdfast in negative epirelief. Plaster cast of GSM 106069; e) *Charniodiscus* specimen from the Bonavista Peninsula, Newfoundland, with central and branch axes and the holdfast all preserved in positive epirelief. Scale bars are 2 cm (a, c, d) and 1 cm (b, e).

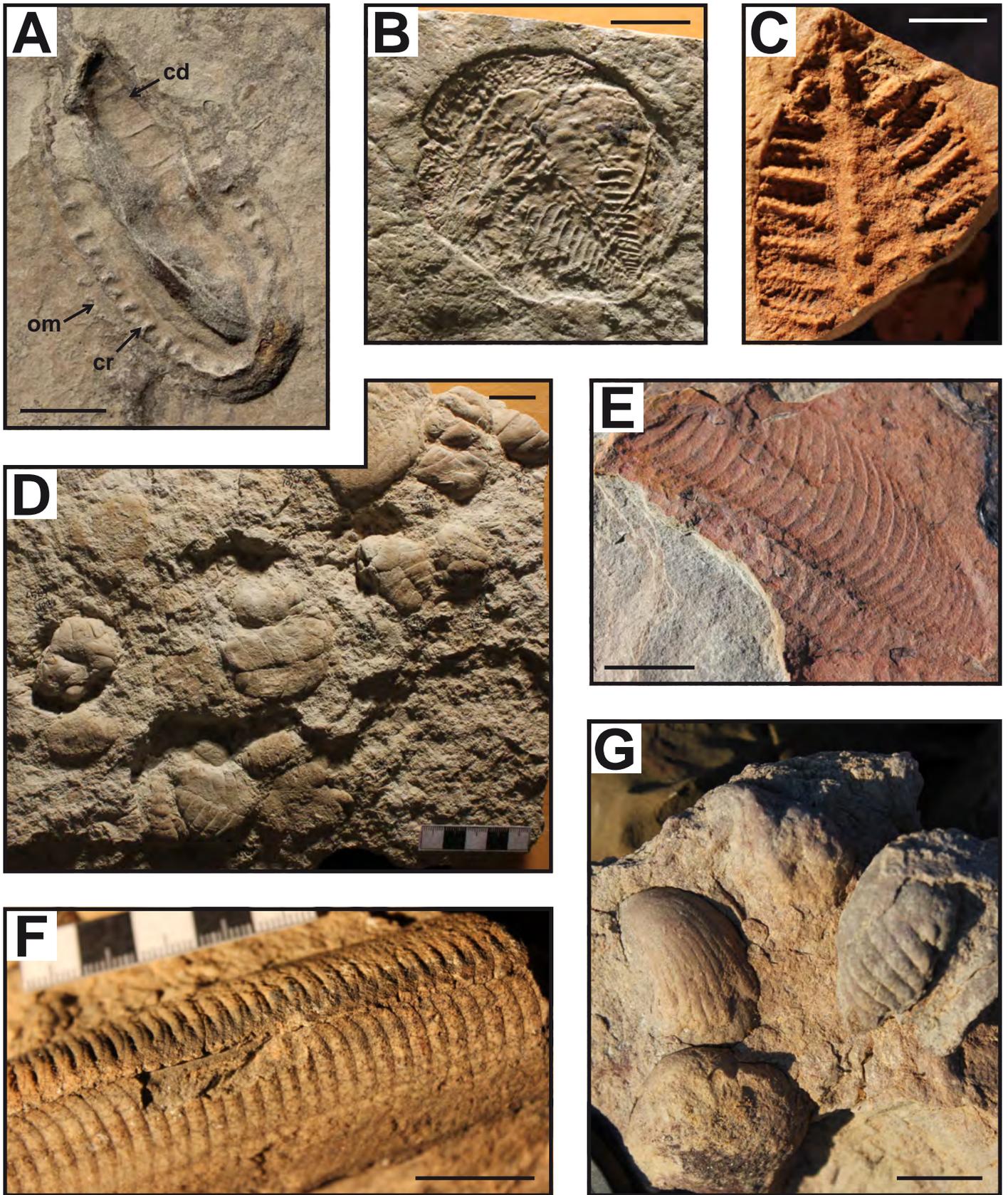


FIGURE 3.—Examples of mouldic preservation from the White Sea (a, b, d) and Namibia (c, e, f, g). a) *Kimberella* displaying three distinct zones (om = outer margin; cr = crenellated part; cd = central depression); b) *Yorgia* with a disturbed proximal region (upper left); c) *Rangea* with clear rangeomorph branching; d) death assemblage of *Ventogyrus*; e) *Pteridinium* specimen with prominent red staining on the bed surface; f) *Pteridinium*; g) *Ernietta*. Scale bars are 1 cm (a, b) and 2 cm (c – g). All images courtesy of Marc Laflamme.

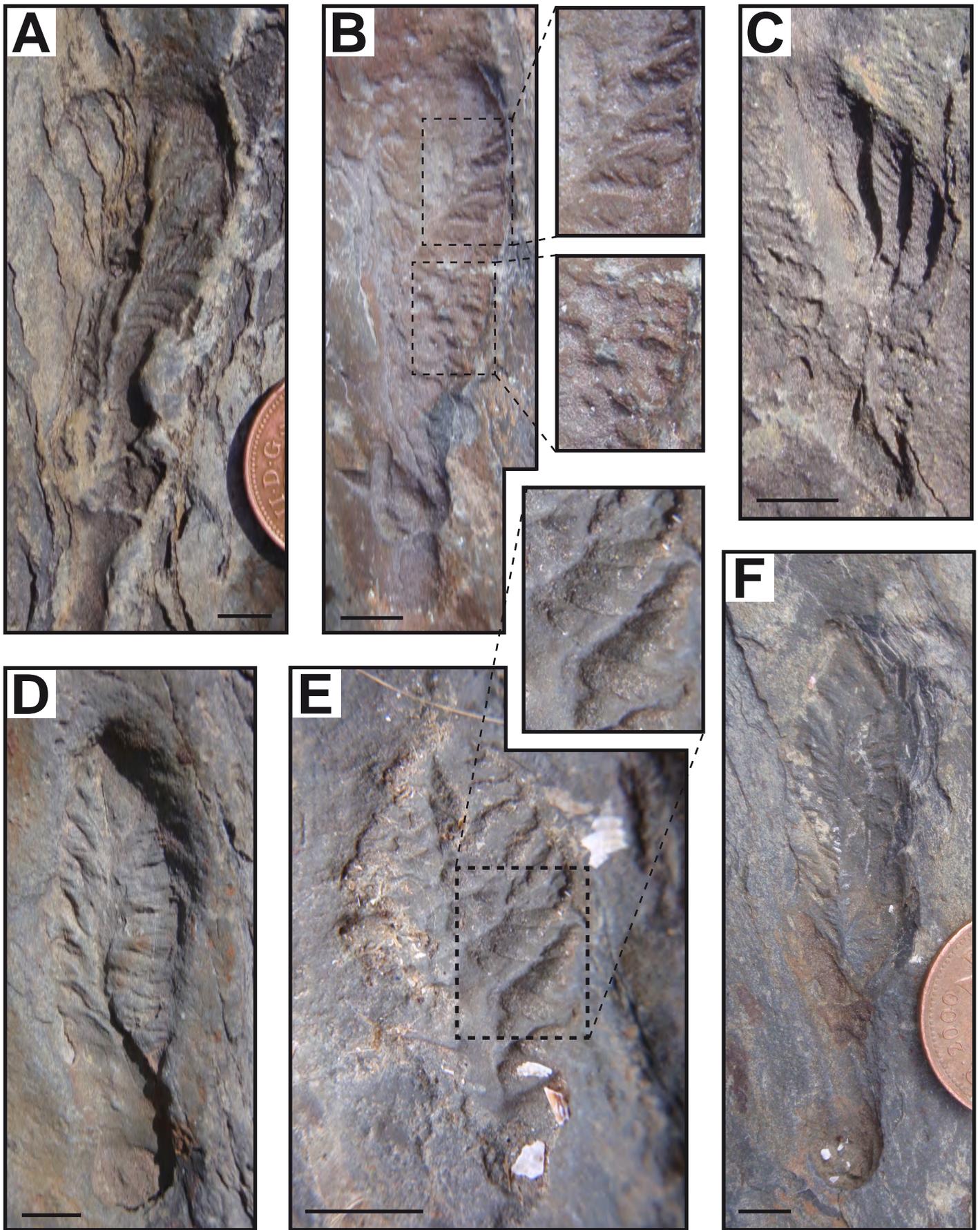


FIGURE 4.—Specimens from Spaniard's Bay, Newfoundland. a) *Bradgatia* with exquisite preservation down one side only; b) *Beothukis* with good, negative epirelief, distal (upper insert) and poorer, positive epirelief, proximal preservation (lower insert); c) unidentified frond with relatively high relief on the right, and lower relief on the left; d) *Beothukis* with a prominent disc structure at the base and either a basal sheath or current scour (smooth area); e) *Charnia* with negative epirelief preservation; f) *Trepassia* with exquisite preservation and a basal sheath/ current scour. All scale bars: 5 mm.

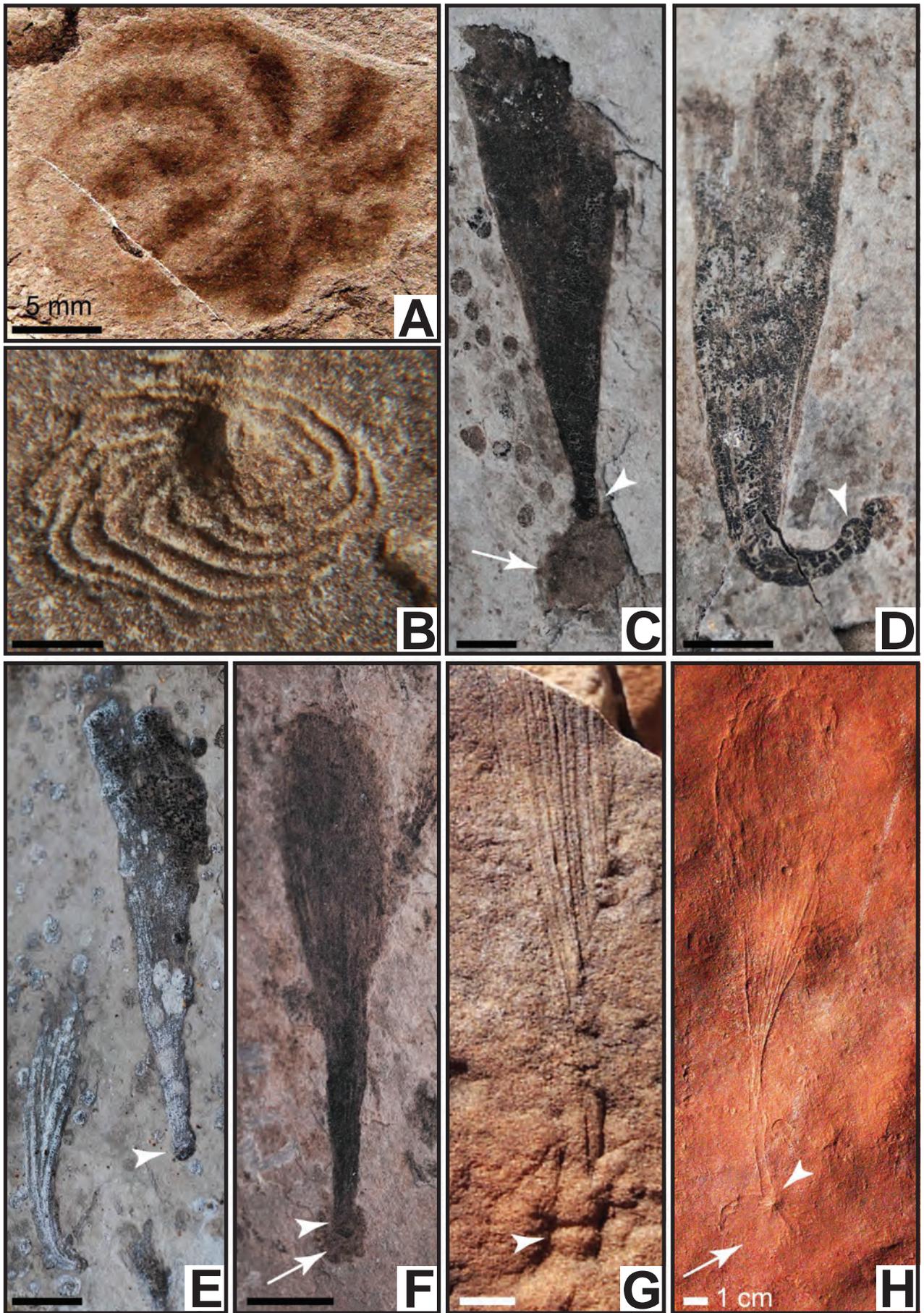


FIGURE 5.— One species preserved in multiple taphonomic modes. Reproduced from Xiao et al., 2013 with permission from GSA. a) *Eoandromeda octobrachiata* preserved in black shale, from the uppermost Doushantuo Formation at Wenghui (China); b) *E. octobrachiata* preserved as a siliclastic mold from the Ediacara Member sandstone (South Australia); c–f): *Flabelophyton lantianensis* preserved in black shales of the lower Lantian Formation (South China); g, h) similar forms from the Ediacara Member sandstone (Australia). Arrowheads point to globose holdfasts, and arrows point to organic mass at base. Black scale bars = 5 mm, white scale bars = 1 cm.

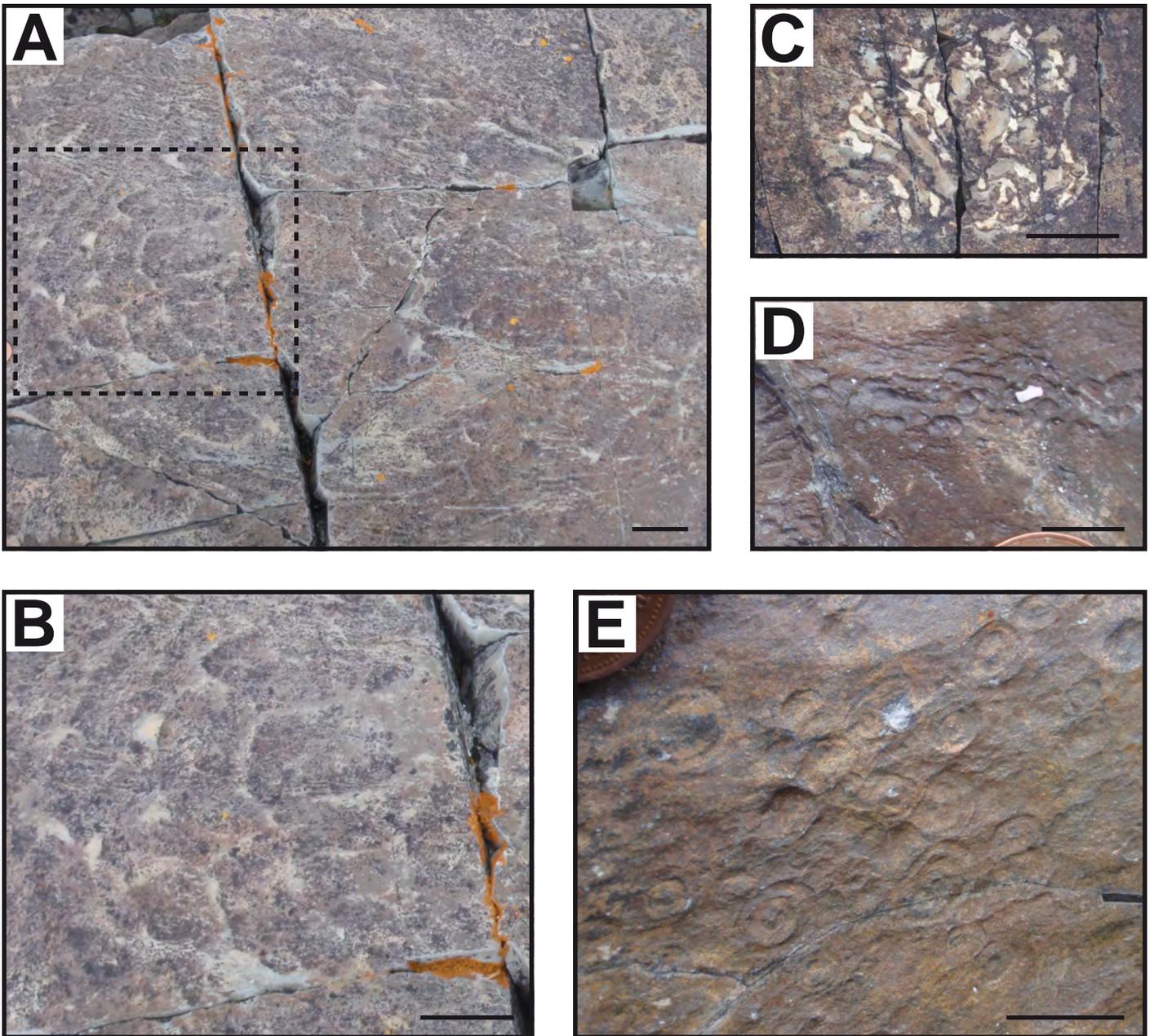


FIGURE 6.—a) Large iveshediomorph from Bonavista Peninsula, Newfoundland; b) inset of a) showing reticulate network texture; c) “pizza disc” *sensu* Narbonne 2001 from the Mistaken Point Ecological Reserve, Newfoundland; d) “bubble strip” *sensu* Laflamme et al. 2012 from Spaniard’s Bay, Newfoundland; e) numerous small *Aspidella* holdfasts from Ferryland, Newfoundland. Scale bars are 5 cm (a, b, c) and 1 cm (d, e).