

Climate, tectonics and meteoritic impact expressed by clay mineral sedimentation across the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary at Blake Nose, Northwestern Atlantic

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ABSTRACT: The ODP Leg 171B drilled a transect of four sites at Blake Nose in the NW Atlantic providing an excellent record of the K-T boundary. At the deepest, Site 1049, the boundary is marked by a 9–17 cm thick layer formed mostly of green spherules composed of Fe-rich smectite resulting from the diagenetic alteration of tektites and impact glasses. Minor amounts of authigenic zeolites and palygorskite also occur. This association represents a notable break in the clay mineral composition of Cretaceous and Tertiary sequences. The clay mineral assemblages of the Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments are dominated by inherited clays. Aluminium-rich smectite of pedogenic origin is abundant in both Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments, indicating a relatively warm and hydrolysing climate across the K-T boundary. At Hole 1049A, where the oldest sediments of the interval were analysed, an increase in kaolinite and smectite down core suggests tectonic rejuvenation and distal transport of illite and kaolinite, probably accompanied by more hydrolysing conditions during the late Maastrichtian.

KEYWORDS: Blake Nose, smectites, spherules, impact, Chicxulub, diagenesis.

The Cretaceous-Tertiary (K-T) boundary is associated with geochemical and mineralogical anomalies attributed to the Chicxulub impact event at the end of the Cretaceous. In the last two decades, an intense debate has focused on the meaning of these anomalies and their relationship to recent evidence for the occurrence of an impact feature at Chicxulub, in the Yucatan Peninsula of Mexico. Support for a crater at this location seems overwhelming, including impact signatures recognized in sequences from the Gulf of Mexico area, as well as gravity measurements and drill-core data (Hildebrand & Boynton, 1990; Sigurdsson *et al.*,

1991a,b; Smit *et al.*, 1992; Koeberl & Sigurdsson, 1992; Alvarez *et al.*, 1995). Reanalysis of Deep Sea Drilling Project Sites 536 and 540 in the Gulf of Mexico led to the new interpretation that some deposits in this area are part of the ejecta blanketing (Alvarez *et al.*, 1991). More recently, Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Legs 161 and 171 (Norris *et al.*, 1998) attempted to sample K-T boundary deposits in the area of the Blake Nose in order to extend our knowledge of the ejecta blanketing.

A major objective of ODP Leg 171B, the subject of this paper, was to obtain sediment samples from shallow sites along a transect from the Blake Nose area of the Blake Plateau to the edge of the Blake Escarpment (Fig. 1) in order to interpret the vertical structure of the western North Atlantic Ocean during the Cretaceous and Palaeocene. At Blake

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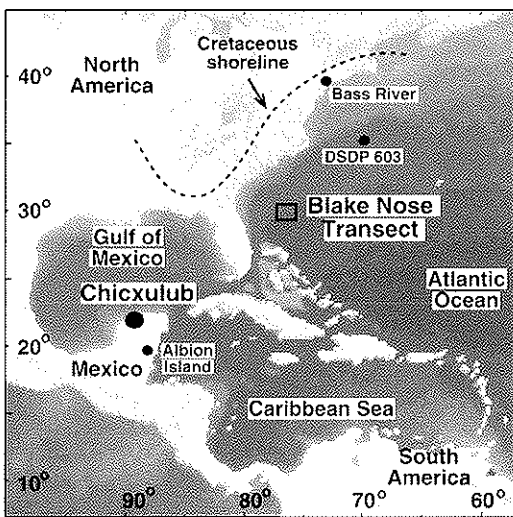


Fig. 1. Location of the Blake Nose transect and some other K-T boundary sections: Bass River, DSDP Site 603 and Albion Island.

Nose, most of the plateau is covered with Mn-phosphorite nodules and pavements that have preserved the underlying sediments from substantial erosion (Norris *et al.*, 1998, 1999; Klaus *et al.*, 2000). The programme provided an excellent opportunity to recover sections through the Cretaceous-Palaeocene boundary (Norris *et al.*, 1998).

Analysis of the boundary deposits should permit ejecta fallout patterns and the settling of the dust cloud to be reconstructed. The mineral composition of the K-T boundary interval may provide information on continental erosion and weathering as well as on depositional mechanisms and authigenic processes. This paper provides the first mineral data on the K-T boundary interval from sites drilled by ODP Leg 171B and uses them to reconstruct sedimentation regimes and constrain depositional conditions, including those of the fallout material.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Samples from the K-T boundary interval at Blake Nose were collected from Holes 1049A, 1049B, 1050C and 1052E. In Holes 1049A and 1049B, a spherule bed occurs at the biostratigraphic boundary between the Cretaceous and Palaeocene (Fig. 2).

This bed overlies slumped uppermost Cretaceous materials and is overlain by a lower Palaeocene ooze with a foraminiferal assemblage indicative of the P-alpha Zone (Norris *et al.*, 1999). The spherule bed is 17 cm thick in 1049A and 9 cm thick in 1049B (Fig. 2), but is not well preserved in Holes 1050C or 1052E. However, in the core from 1052E some burrows filled with spherule material have been recognized.

Continuous samples were collected from 1049A intervals from the zones containing the spherule layer in 1049A (125.69–126.23 mbsf) and 1049B (111.00–111.32 mbsf). They were dried, sieved, degassed and ground gently in an agate mortar for mineralogical analyses using the methods described below.

X-ray diffraction (XRD)

A representative fraction of the samples was used for the mineralogical study of the bulk sample and another was used for the extraction and analysis of the clay fraction. The XRD patterns for quantitative mineralogical analyses (bulk sample and <2 µm clay fraction) were obtained using a Philips PW 1710 diffractometer (with a 0.4° divergence slits) at the Department of Mineralogy and Petrology, University of Granada. Smectite minerals were extracted by centrifugation and removing carbonates with acetic acid and washing with distilled water. The mineral intensity was calculated for this equipment and the instrumental conditions are detailed in Ortega Huerfano (1995).

Electron microscopy

Morphological studies were performed using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) with a DSM 950 (at the Centro de Instrumentación Científica, University of Granada). Quantitative microanalyses of clay minerals were obtained using a Philips CM-20 transmission electron microscope (TEM) equipped with an EDAX microanalysis system. The data were collected in scanning TEM mode only from the edges of particles using a 70 Å diameter beam, a 200 × 1000 Å scanning area and a short dwell time to avoid alkali loss (Nieto *et al.*, 1995). Smectite formulae were normalized to 11 oxygen atoms. Beidellite and nontronite were differentiated using the method of Caillière *et al.* (1995).

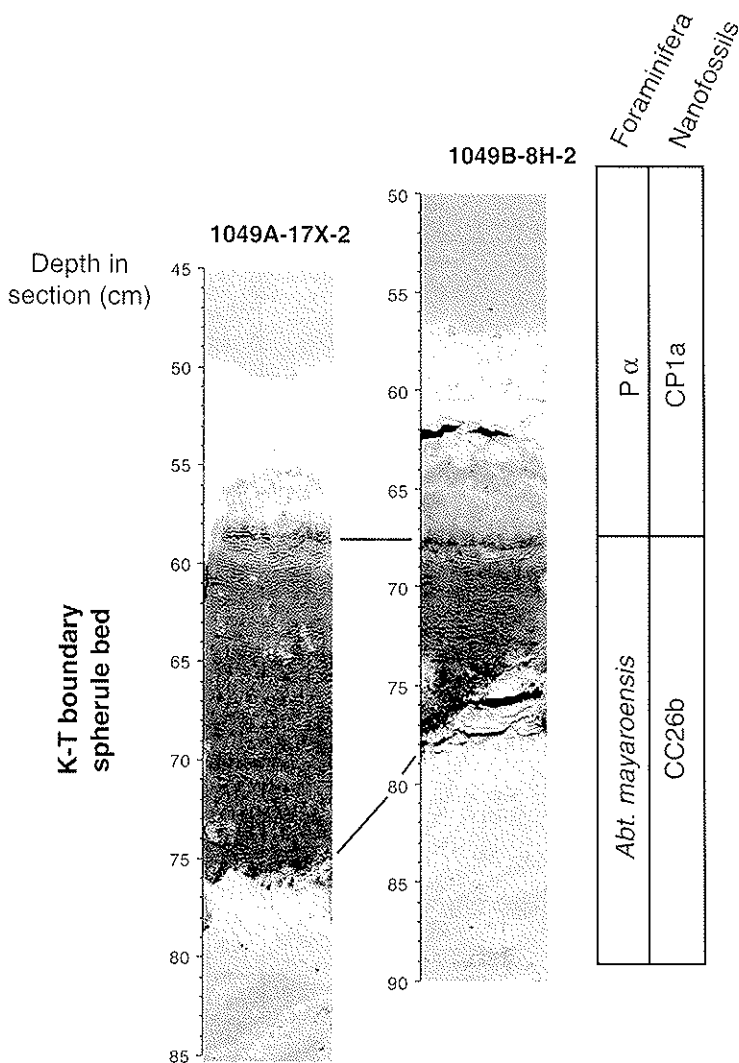


FIG. 2. Core photographs from the K-T boundary layer at Holes 1049A (125.91–126.05 mbsf) and 1049B (111.18–111.24 mbsf) showing the variable thickness of the spherule bed and the presence of some clastic Cretaceous material within this bed.

RESULTS

Table 1 and Figs 3 and 4 summarize the XRD results for Holes 1049A, 1049B, 1050C and 1052E. The lithology of the cored interval is similar at all locations, except that the K-T boundary layer is preserved only in 1049A and 1049B. Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments above and below the boundary layer, as well as at Holes 1050C and 1052E, are a light greenish-grey nanofossil-foram-

iniferal ooze (Norris *et al.*, 1998). The K-T boundary layer consists of green spherical and oval-shaped spherules, the size of which usually ranges from 100 to 1000 μm , and also contains some Cretaceous planktonic foraminifera and clastic material of Cretaceous material.

The boundary layer is mostly composed of clay and minor amounts of calcite (Table 1). Zeolite, quartz and small amounts of rutile, biotite and some lithic fragments are also present. The clays are

TABLE 1. XRD data of the interval analysed at Holes 1049A, 1049B, 1050C and 1052E: Range p (wt.%) of the main mineral components in the bulk sediments (clay minerals, quartz and calcite) minerals in the <2 μm fraction (smectite, illite and kaolinite). n = number of samples.

Core	Depth (mbsf)	Clay minerals	Quartz	Calcite	Smectite	Illite
171B-1049A-16X (Tertiary) ($n = 76$)	115.02–124.05	<5–45	<5–15	43–98	73–97	<5–19
17X (Tertiary) ($n = 226$)	124.25–125.87	9–30	<5–7	65–87	56–90	<5–30
17X (K-T) ($n = 8$)	125.91–126.05	75–95	<5	5–12	96–99	<5
17X (Cretaceous) ($n = 46$)	126.07–128.36	8–31	<5	67–90	<5–98	<5–44
18X (Cretaceous) ($n = 8$)	134.45–139.75	<5–18	<5–9	79–97	<5–15	27–70
171B-1049B-8H (Tertiary) ($n = 30$)	109.05–111.14	<5–42	<5–7	53–98	25–90	7–64
8H (K-T) ($n = 4$)	111.18–111.24	90–87	<5	8–12	95–97	<5
8H (Cretaceous) ($n = 4$)	111.26–111.32	<5–12	<5	85–98	45–83	10–37
171B-1050C-9R (Tertiary) ($n = 68$)	394.50–401.30	<5–48	<5–8	47–98	67–98	<5–21
10R (Tertiary) ($n = 23$)	404.17–405.93	<5–31	<5–8	67–97	47–87	<5–21
10R (Cretaceous) ($n = 8$)	405.97–406.38	<5–16	<5–6	77–97	82–94	<5–8
11R (Cretaceous) ($n = 42$)	408.70–412.80	<5–41	<5–7	54–97	69–94	<5–17
171B-1052E-17R (Tertiary) ($n = 38$)	290.51–300.25	<5–44	<5–15	51–98	22–99	<5–20
18R (Tertiary) ($n = 26$)	300.39–302.41	<5–26	<5–7	53–98	76–96	<5–9
18R (Cretaceous) ($n = 6$)	302.46–302.98	7–13	<5–6	78–94	76–96	<5–12
19R (Cretaceous) ($n = 13$)	309.80–311.60	<5–16	<5–7	79–97	59–80	9–25

mostly smectite (Table 1) derived from the diagenetic alteration of impact spherules (Fig. 5) (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2000) with traces of illite, palygorskite and kaolinite.

The Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments contain carbonates, clay minerals, and quartz, with minor quantities of feldspars and traces of heavy minerals and pyrite. Feldspar recognized using XRD is

always <5 wt.%, while trace minerals identified by using the SEM. Calcite is the dominant carbonate phase, but small quantities of dolomite are occasionally present. On the boundary layer (sample 1049A-02, 60–62 cm), contains 12 wt.% dolomite. Dolomite usually ranges from 50 to 95 wt.% in the bulk sediments and from 65 to almost 100

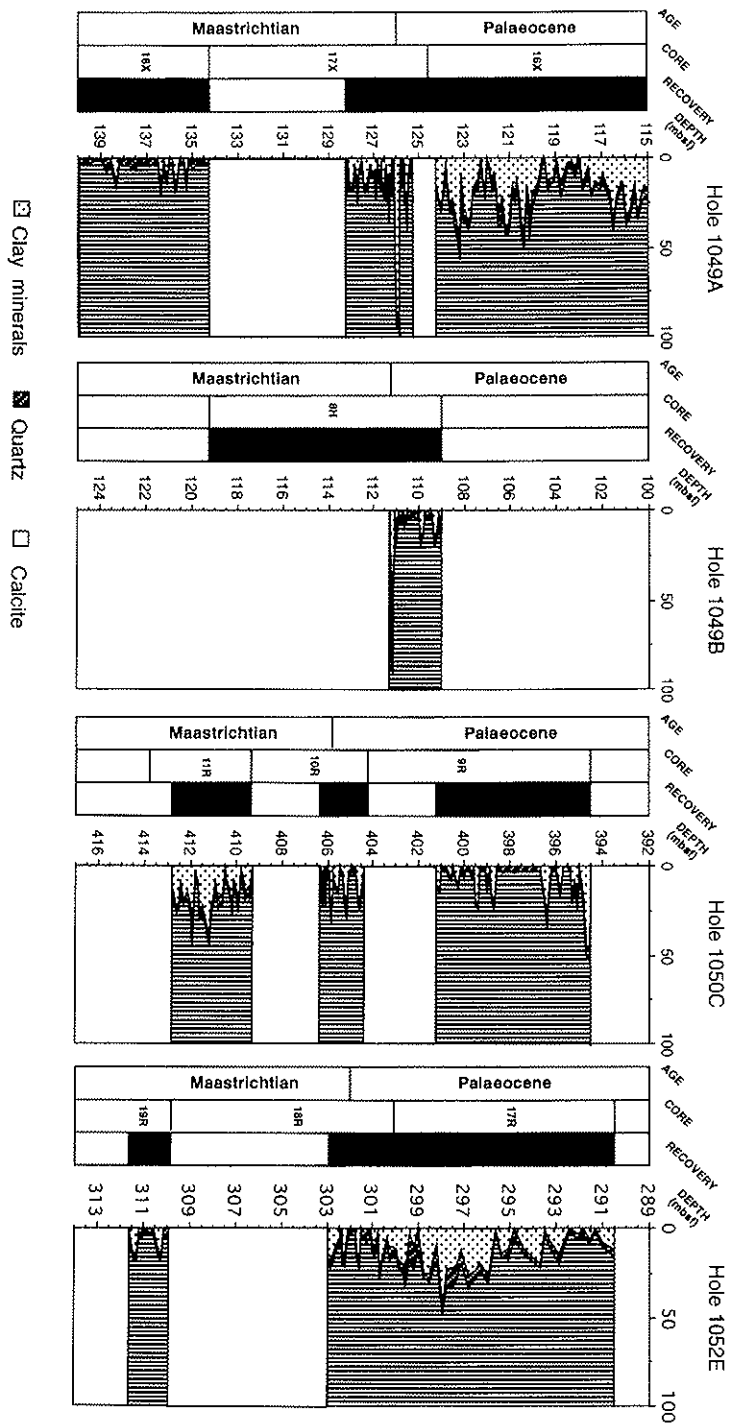


FIG. 3. Bulk mineral composition of the analysed intervals from Holes 1049A, 1049B, 1050C and 1052E. The age of the sediments and core recovery are also shown.

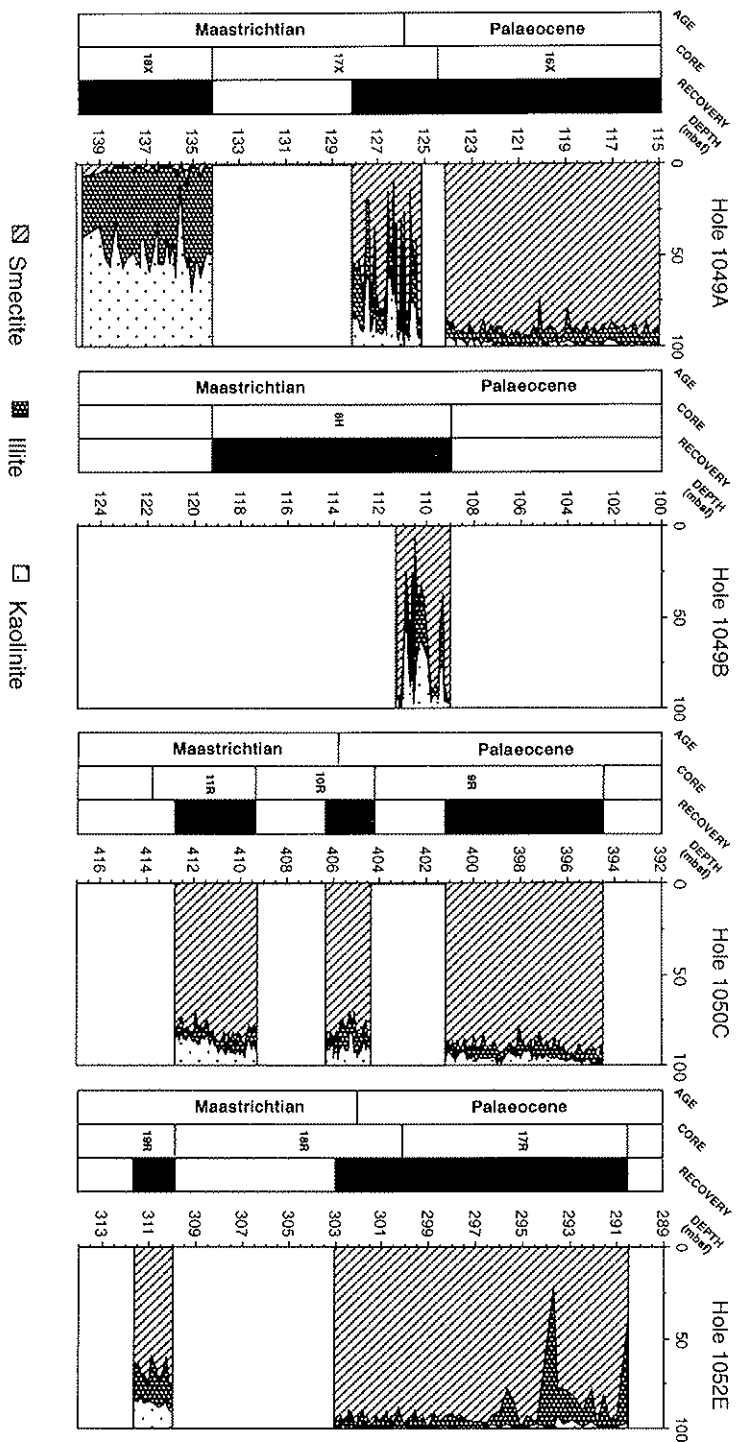


Fig. 4. Clay mineral composition of the analysed intervals from Holes 1049A, 1049B, 1050C and 1052E of the sediments and core recovery are also shown.

Cretaceous samples. Quartz is usually <5 wt.% in Cretaceous samples and its proportions range from <5 up to 15 wt.% in Tertiary samples. Clay minerals are also more abundant in Tertiary samples (<5 up to 50 wt.%) and some cyclic variations in abundance are observed in the early Palaeocene (Fig. 3). In Cretaceous samples, clay proportions range from <5 up to 30 wt.%.

The relative proportions of clay minerals are also given in Table 1 and Fig. 4. Smectite is dominant in most of the samples except for the lowermost part of the Cretaceous interval analysed in 1049A, where kaolinite and illite are more abundant (Fig. 4). In samples from 1052E, a down core increase in illite and kaolinite is also observed (Table 1, Fig. 4).

In most of the Tertiary clay-sized fraction samples, the smectite contents reach ~90 wt.%, illite is ~10 wt.%, and kaolinite is usually <5 wt.%, with the exception of one interval in 1049A (125.39–125.66 mbsf), where illite and kaolinite increase and smectite decreases to ~50–60 wt.%. Minor amounts of chlorite (<5 wt.%) were found in occasional samples, appearing to be more common in Cretaceous samples, but not abundant enough to be quantified by XRD.

Stereomicroscope and SEM observations revealed different types of spherules: pale yellow, light green and dark green spherules with smooth, rough or nodular surfaces (Fig. 5). The original material has been altered to smectite (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2000). The TEM microchemical analyses revealed the smectites to be Al-beidellites in Cretaceous and Tertiary samples (Table 2, Fig. 6).

DISCUSSION

Blake-Nose clay mineralogy across the K-T boundary

The variable thickness of the spherule bed at Blake Nose suggests reworking of the original material and therefore precludes any possible interpretation of the original stratigraphy. However, its presence indicates that a large volume of ejecta material reached the plateau during the Chicxulub impact. The various morphologies (Fig. 5) and the composition (Fig. 6a) of the spherules (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2000) support their origin from the alteration of a variety of impact glasses and tektites such as those reported in the Gulf of Mexico area. They are also similar to those

from other locations on the North American margin such as near Bass River (Olsson *et al.*, 1997) and DSDP Hole 603 B (Fig. 1) (Klaver *et al.*, 1987). A number of them represent impact ejecta from the Chicxulub crater altered by diagenetic processes.

The presence of palygorskite and zeolites in the boundary layer also suggests that its composition was affected by diagenetic alteration. The TEM observations revealed palygorskite forming from a smectite precursor. The occurrence of authigenic palygorskite indicates a high-silica source and alkaline conditions, which favour the precipitation of chain structure silicates (Beck & Weaver, 1978; Singhal *et al.*, 1979). Abundant dolomite and calcite (Pope *et al.*, 1999) in unaltered ejecta material similar to that found on Albion Island (Fig. 1) suggest that dolomite may also be involved in the origin of palygorskite as described in other sedimentary environments (Jones & Galán, 1988).

Zeolites are typical of the low-temperature alteration processes of volcanic material, and in this case from the glassy material produced during impact. They formed after neutralization of the large volumes of acid generated during the impact (e.g. Retallack, 1996) from the impact ejecta. The parent materials for these alteration products represent a notable break in the mineral composition of the Cretaceous and Tertiary sequences and confirm the rapid deposition of 'exotic' material at the Blake Nose Plateau.

Variations in the bulk mineral composition (Fig. 3) and clay mineralogy (Fig. 4) of the normal sediment supplied to the area can be interpreted in terms of palaeoenvironmental conditions. Previous work by Chamley *et al.* (1988) revealed that the clay mineral changes mainly reflect events on the American continent as well as the alteration of the impact-generated material (Debrabant *et al.*, 1999). Diagenetic processes had only a very slight effect on Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments, and no changes in smectite abundance can be linked to the depth of burial. In contrast with the boundary layer, the clay mineral assemblages do not represent authigenic material but rather inherited material derived from the nearby continent.

The smectite in the Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments is Al rich and supports a pedogenic origin. Warm climate conditions and tectonic stability during the Cretaceous favoured the development of thick continental soils which led to the abundance of Al-Fe smectites in Cretaceous sediments from Atlantic and Tethyan domains.

TABLE 2. Representative analytical electron microscopy data from smectites of the Cretaceous and sediments normalized to $O_{10}(OH)_2$. (See Fig. 2 for location of samples).

Samples	Si	Al ^{IV}	Al ^{VI}	Mg	Fe	Ti	Σ^{VI}	K	Ca
171B-1049A-									
17X-2 54-56	3.36	0.64	1.72	0.20	0.19	0.00	2.11	0.24	0.00
	3.79	0.21	1.45	0.19	0.39	0.00	2.03	0.09	0.07
	3.74	0.26	1.29	0.39	0.46	0.00	2.14	0.06	0.10
	3.75	0.25	1.18	0.49	0.46	0.00	2.13	0.08	0.08
	3.88	0.12	1.28	0.40	0.43	0.00	2.11	0.16	0.05
17X-2 68-70 (K-T)	3.63	0.37	1.31	0.84	0.17	0.00	2.32	0.08	0.06
	3.94	0.06	1.64	0.38	0.11	0.00	2.13	0.02	0.01
	3.95	0.05	1.52	0.35	0.16	0.06	2.09	0.07	0.01
	3.75	0.25	1.44	0.53	0.20	0.03	2.20	0.09	0.06
17X-2 78-80	3.76	0.24	1.37	0.46	0.34	0.00	2.17	0.03	0.10
	3.73	0.27	1.34	0.34	0.42	0.00	2.10	0.05	0.15
17X-2 90-92	3.58	0.42	1.28	0.46	0.48	0.00	2.22	0.02	0.08
	3.39	0.61	1.62	0.32	0.32	0.00	2.26	0.10	0.30
	3.61	0.39	1.37	0.45	0.36	0.00	2.18	0.12	0.02
	3.50	0.50	1.15	0.51	0.47	0.00	2.13	0.14	0.12
	3.58	0.42	1.24	0.36	0.47	0.00	2.07	0.11	0.00
	3.68	0.32	1.38	0.39	0.37	0.00	2.14	0.07	0.02
171B-1049B-									
8H-2 54-56	3.38	0.62	1.85	0.23	0.10	0.00	2.18	0.16	0.06
	3.75	0.25	1.05	0.35	0.57	0.00	1.97	0.16	0.17
	3.69	0.31	1.39	0.30	0.35	0.00	2.04	0.11	0.20
	3.78	0.22	1.38	0.30	0.41	0.00	2.09	0.10	0.08
	3.73	0.27	1.43	0.36	0.31	0.00	2.10	0.10	0.13
	3.43	0.57	1.86	0.17	0.14	0.00	2.17	0.02	0.06
	3.59	0.41	1.43	0.36	0.36	0.00	2.15	0.17	0.09
	3.78	0.22	1.03	0.35	0.63	0.00	2.01	0.27	0.12
	3.54	0.46	1.20	0.50	0.36	0.00	2.06	0.16	0.14
8H-2 70-72 (K-T)	3.84	0.16	1.87	0.14	0.06	0.00	2.07	0.01	0.03
	3.83	0.17	1.70	0.39	0.06	0.00	2.15	0.01	0.04
	3.77	0.23	1.72	0.32	0.03	0.00	2.07	0.02	0.11
	3.73	0.27	1.43	0.52	0.22	0.05	2.22	0.03	0.02
8H-2 78-80	3.95	0.25	1.55	0.27	0.23	0.00	2.05	0.06	0.04
	3.71	0.29	1.38	0.42	0.37	0.00	2.17	0.14	0.04
	3.66	0.34	1.18	0.53	0.42	0.00	2.13	0.23	0.11
	3.64	0.36	1.44	0.48	0.28	0.00	2.20	0.14	0.04
	3.68	0.32	1.16	0.48	0.55	0.00	2.19	0.17	0.03
	3.61	0.39	1.41	0.41	0.33	0.00	2.15	0.16	0.08

(Chamley, 1979; Chamley & Robert, 1982). The abundance of smectite in Lower Cretaceous sediments led these authors to suggest that extensive vertisols had formed in poorly drained coastal areas as a result of tectonic stability, low continental relief and warm climate conditions. Such conditions seem

to have dominated during most of the Cretaceous and according to the data reported here, also during the lowermost Palaeocene. Hence, the abundance of smectite in both Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments indicates a relatively warm and hydrolysi-competent climate across the K-T boundary.

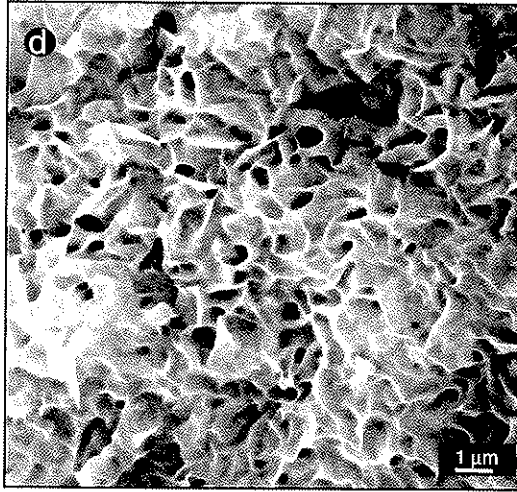
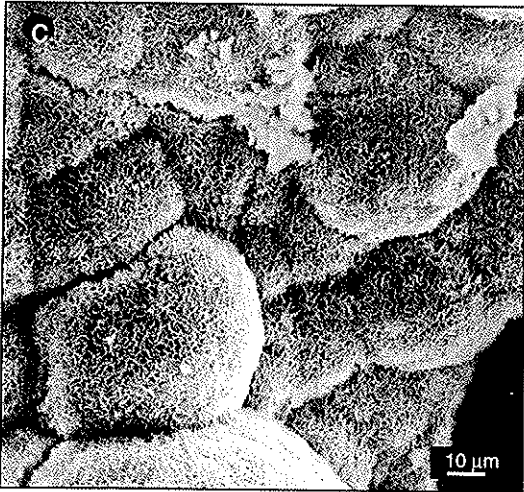
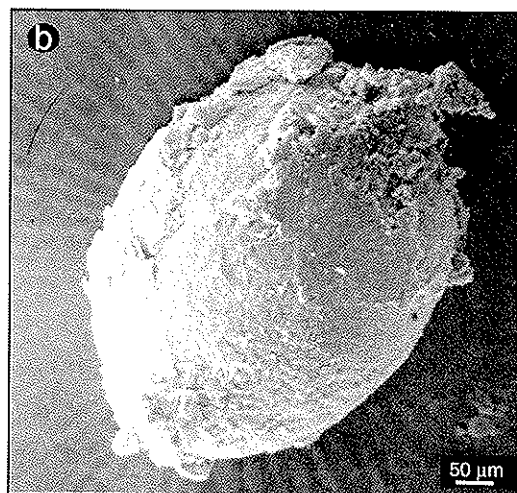
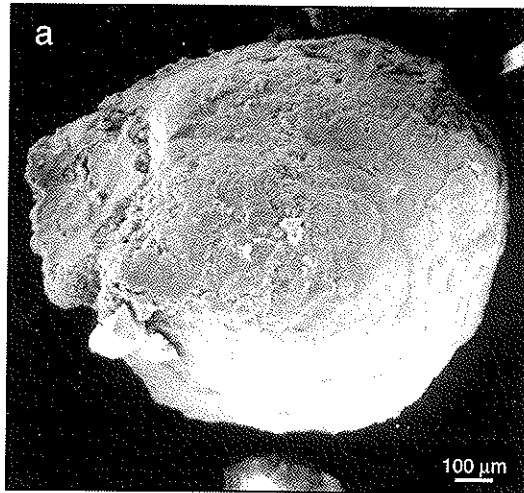


FIG. 5. Scanning electron micrographs of smectite spherules from Blake Nose at Site 1049. View of spherical (a) and oval (b) smectite spherules. (c) Surface detail of a nodular spherule. (d) Smectite morphology produced by alteration of the K-T boundary spherules.

There are some intervals characterized by an increased illite and kaolinite supply. Slumping in late Cretaceous sediments (Klaus *et al.*, 2000) and the poor recovery of this time interval (Figs 3, 4) do not allow precise correlation of mineralogical changes among the different sites. At Hole 1049A, where a thicker sediment interval was sampled, a change from a smectite-rich clay association to an (illite+kaolinite)-rich association is observed down core (Fig. 4). The abundance of illite and kaolinite

in these late Maastrichtian sediments suggests that this interval corresponds to an "illite event", as proposed by Chamley *et al.* (1983). An "illite event" can be related to temporary tectonic rejuvenation occurring on a stable continent with a warm and episodically humid climate. They are reported to occur throughout the Atlantic Ocean between the Campanian and the early Palaeocene (Chamley *et al.*, 1979). The late Maastrichtian event followed the major spreading stage responsible for the

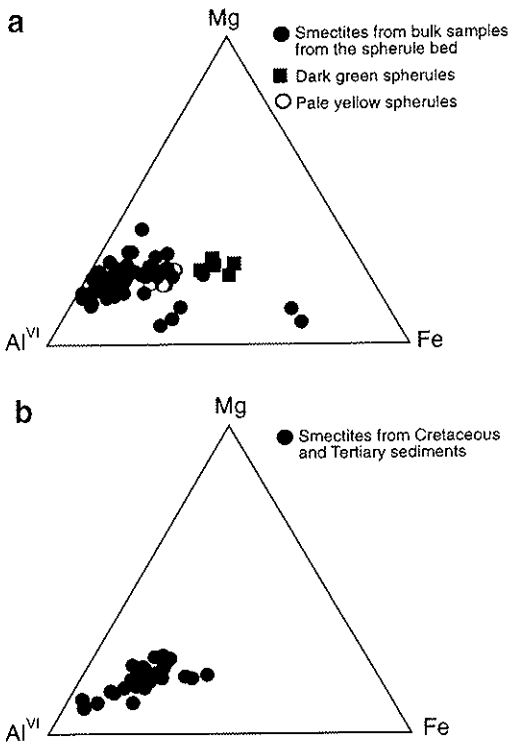


FIG. 6. Al-Fe-Mg diagrams (based on Güven, 1988) showing the smectite composition of spherule bed samples from Holes 1049A and 1049B (a) (Martinez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2000), and smectite composition from Cretaceous and Tertiary samples (b).

definitive communication between the North and South Atlantic and the development of deep-water circulation (Chamley *et al.*, 1983).

Changes in clay mineral abundance are not associated with changes in the relative abundance of minerals associated with coarser grain-size fractions. There are no significant increases in quartz or feldspar abundance in the late Cretaceous sediments during the 'illite event', thus suggesting a distal source for kaolinite and illite. The long-distance transport of kaolinite at Blake Nose implies the morphological maturation of a river basin system and/or tectonic rejuvenation (Chamley *et al.*, 1983). Although the general kaolinite+illite enrichment observed in Core 18X and the lowermost samples from Core 17X (Hole 1049A) resulted from strong tectonic rejuvenation, it was probably accompanied by increasing hydrolysis due

to the climate that reinforced the tectonic factor. Alternatively, climate could have been a factor.

Although slumping affected the Cretaceous sediments, the mineral changes are recognized just below the boundary related to climate variations as well. The latest Cretaceous warming occurred at the base of Chron 29 (e.g. Li & Keller, 1998) could be correlated with increased kaolinite at 126.21–126.55 mbsf interval. The warming at the end of the Cretaceous was followed by a cooling interval (Stott & Kennett, 1998; Keller, 1998). Warmer, wetter conditions could increase in hydrolysis processes could produce more kaolinite from smectite and reinforce tectonic signal.

CONCLUSIONS

(1) The K-T boundary layer at Blake Nose represents the impact ejecta of the Chesapeake crater. The impact-generated material was altered to smectite and the alteration processes led to the formation of minor amounts of zeolite and palygorskite.

(2) The morphology and composition of smectite-spherules support their origin as the alteration of impact glasses. This spherule morphology confirms that large volumes of ejecta reached the Blake Nose Plateau.

(3) In contrast with the authigenic clay assemblages in the spherule bed, the clay assemblages in Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments are dominated by detrital clays inherited from the Blake Nose margin. No changes linked to the depth of the margin have been observed in these Cretaceous and Tertiary assemblages, indicating the clay assemblages in these sediments reflect processes taking place on the American continent.

(4) Smectite dominates the clay mineral assemblages, being very abundant in sediments near the boundary. Its beidellitic nature and pedogenic origin and therefore indicates warm and hydrolysing conditions across the Blake Nose boundary.

(5) An increase in kaolinite and illite was recognized down core at the three Holes. Cretaceous sediments were analysed. The increase in (kaolinite+illite) probably corresponds to 'illite events' reported by Chamley *et al.* in this area, and suggests the late Maastrichtian

also characterized by episodes of tectonic rejuvenation and long-distance transport of these minerals. The abundance of kaolinite suggests this tectonic rejuvenation could also have been accompanied by more severe hydrolysing conditions.

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