

Geological factors controlling clay mineral patterns across the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary in Mediterranean and Atlantic sections

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ABSTRACT: The clay mineral associations in the Cretaceous-Tertiary Boundary (KTB) and in the Danian and Maastrichtian levels of sections from the Mediterranean and the Atlantic Domains have been studied. The Mediterranean sections have a single mineral association consisting of smectite-illite and kaolinite, whereas the Atlantic sections have several associations: illite-chlorite, illite-R1 I-S-kaolinite and illite-R1 I-S-chlorite. Data are presented relating to the influence of K-feldspars and Fe oxide spherules on the clay mineral associations. Study of rare-earth elements shows that regional geological factors affect the clay mineralogy of the KTB, examples showing significant authigenesis in the Mediterranean sections, and important detrital supply in all the Atlantic sections. We propose that the KTB studied in these marine sections is equivalent to the uppermost layer of the two-layered clay unit originating in a cloud of a vapourized bolide. Regional tectonic conditions have been responsible for differences in clay sedimentation in these geological domains and among the stratigraphic sections of the Atlantic Domain.

The palaeoceanographic changes leading to the mass extinction marking the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary (KTB) are recorded in marine sections by a sharp fall in carbonate sedimentation resulting from a decrease in biological productivity, and the concomitant increase in clay mineral content. The clay layer is characterized by large Ir and other platinum group element (PGE) contents and the presence of spherules. Thus, a clayey layer occurs in the studied KTB sections that contain mineralogical and geochemical anomalies providing evidence of the Cretaceous-Tertiary event. Clay mineral assemblages are potentially sensitive to environmental modifications, including climatic change, erosion, tectonic activity, variations in oceanic circulation, diagenetic processes and volcanic activity (Chamley, 1989; Robert & Chamley, 1990) and can, therefore, reflect the

environmental conditions prevailing during deposition of the KTB and surrounding layers.

Clay mineral associations have been used to support hypotheses of terrestrial or extraterrestrial causes for the changes at the KTB. For instance, the Stevns Klint section (Denmark), Kastner *et al.* (1984) found that the KTB was exclusively composed of pure magnesian smectite, while illite, illite-smectite mixed-layers and quartz are present in sediments lying above and below the boundary. On the basis of the high Ir and Au contents, the lack of a negative Ce anomaly and the high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, these authors proposed that these authigenic smectites originated from alteration of glauconitic spherules in a marine environment and in a high water/rock ratio. The spherules are Fe-rich aluminous or aluminosilicate resulting from an impact. An extraterrestrial impact was also suggested

Bohor *et al.* (1984, 1987) from the study of a continental section with palaeosoil development in the Lance Formation at Doggie Creek (Wyoming, USA), where the KTB consists of kaolinite clay with goyacite spherules, and an overlying smectite layer in which the Ir content is 21 ppb. Pollastro & Pillmore (1987) considered that the clay minerals (well crystallized kaolinite and mixed-layer illite-smectite) associated with shocked quartz and the Ir anomaly found in the KTB of the New Mexico and the Raton Basin (Colorado) sections were formed by *in situ* alteration of impact-derived fallout material. The kaolinite is described as the stable diagenetic phase of pulverized radioactive material initially altered to halloysite or allophane microspherules. Pollastro & Bohor (1993) interpreted the clay mineral associations of Western Interior continental deposits (USA) as originating in the weathering and diagenesis of a two-layered clay unit. The lower claystone layer of this KTB unit represents melted siliciclastic target rocks altered mainly to kaolin minerals, while the upper layer mostly consists of mafic vitric dust altered to smectite.

Other authors, however, consider that the different clay mineral associations in the KTB are related to intense, widespread volcanic activity (e.g. Courtillot & Cisowski, 1987; Hallam, 1987). After studying the KTB in European and African sections (Nye Klov in Denmark, Gubbio in Italy, Caravaca in Spain, and El Kef in Tunisia). Rampino & Reynolds (1983) concluded that there were significant differences among the clay minerals in each section. The smectites in the Nye Klov and Stevns Klint sections, which are 300 km apart, resulted from alteration of volcanic material. In the Gubbio section, detrital illite and kaolinite are found in the KTB and as much as 1.73 m beneath it. Several authors (e.g. Wezel *et al.*, 1981; Johnsson & Reynolds, 1986; Jéhanno *et al.*, 1987) have interpreted this assemblage to be the result of an increase in erosion. This change is due to movements of the continental margin, or changes in depositional patterns, climatic variations, fall in sea-level, or the influence of new detrital source areas. Following the same line of argument and in opposition to Bohor *et al.* (1984, 1987), Fastovsky *et al.* (1989) considered that clay minerals in the KTB at the Doggie Creek section (Wyoming) are due to changes in soil conditions and not to an extraterrestrial event. According to Vannuci *et al.* (1990), the presence of a zeolite-rich interval in the

upper part of the Maastrichtian shows the presence of smectite in the KTB of the Caravaca section. The result of the transformation of volcanic material. The wide variation in clay mineral associations found in KTB sections located both the northern and southern hemisphere is interpreted by Robert & Chamley (1990) as indicative of global changes in sea level and tectonic activity. Ortega Huertas *et al.* (1995) examined sequences in the Betic Cordillera and the Basque-Cantabrian Basin, concluding that the clay minerals in the KTB are the products of a regional or local geodynamic event and diagenetic evolution.

This paper reviews the clay mineralogy of the KTB and the associated Maastrichtian and Palaeocene sediments in order to compare the qualitative and quantitative differences in stratigraphic sequences. These data are complemented by new microanalytical data on the clay minerals, consideration of the effect on the clay minerals' characteristics, and the occurrence of differently composed spherules in the KTB and the comparative study of the rare earth element (REE) content in the different stratigraphic sections. This paper is intended to represent a synthesis of most of the Mediterranean and Atlantic sequences, including new mineralogical and geochemical data from the Petriccio and Hendaia sections as well as data partially published by Ortega Huertas *et al.* (1995). This study provides further evidence on the distribution of the clay mineral associations in these sections and helps to clarify the ongoing discussion concerning contrasts vs. similarities in clay mineral composition in the KTB.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The clay mineral associations investigated in the sections of the KTB in both the Mediterranean (Agost and Caravaca in the Betic Cordillera, Spain; Petriccio in Italy; El Kef in Tunisia) and Atlantic Domains (Basque-Cantabrian Basin: Urko, Sopelana and Zumaya in Spain, Hendaia in Biarritz in France, Fig. 1) are the focus of this investigation. The clay minerals in the KTB of some of these sections have been partially investigated by Rampino & Reynolds (1983), Jéhanno *et al.* (1987), Lindinger (1988), Robert & Chamley (1990), Vannuci *et al.* (1990), Martínez de la Cruz (1994), and Ortega Huertas *et al.* (1995). The Caravaca and El Kef provide three of the most continuous records across the KTB known

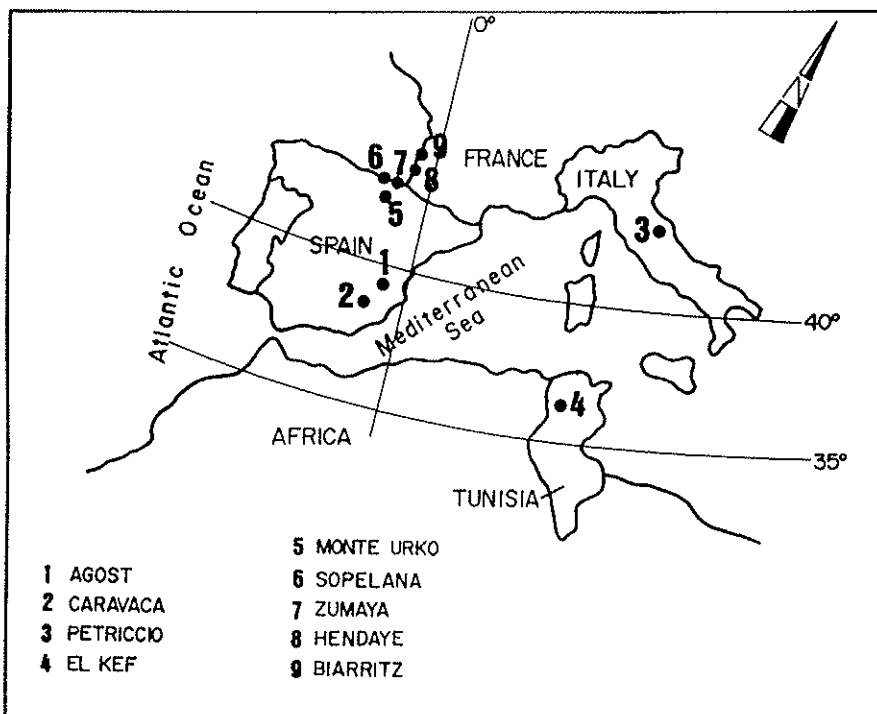


FIG. 1. Geographic location of the stratigraphic sections studied.

Europe and Africa, together with three sections in the Brazos River Valley, Texas (MacLeod & Keller, 1991).

The Betic Cordillera, which is part of the peri-Mediterranean Alpine orogenic belt, is divided on a palaeogeographic and structural basis into External and Internal Zones (Azema *et al.*, 1979). The sequences studied in this paper belong to the realm of the External Zones, which formed part of the continental margin of the Iberian plate. Although the structure of the External Zones is complex in detail, with lateral and local variations, there is a considerable difference in stratigraphic characteristics, particularly in the Jurassic and Cretaceous, between an autochthonous to parautochthonous set, known as the Prebetic Zone, and an allochthonous set, known as the Subbetic Zone. Between these two Zones the 'Intermediate Units' are distinguished, corresponding to realms of 'intermediate' palaeogeographic position. The Agost sequence belongs to the 'Intermediate Units', whereas the Caravaca sequence is located in the Subbetic Zone – the southernmost part of the External Zones – which is characterized by pelagic facies from the

Middle Lias onwards. The sediments were deposited on a continental margin where troughs and swells began to appear from the Jurassic onwards.

The Petriccio sequence is located in the north-eastern Apennines of Italy, where the KTB is found in the middle part of the pelagic Scaglia Rossa formation. The Scaglia Rossa represents Turonian through the Early Eocene interval and can be divided into four members (R1 to R4) (Luterbacher & Premoli Silva, 1964). The KTB defines the boundary between members R2 and R3 and is represented by a thin layer of calcarenite sandwiched between the limestone of the Mayaroensis Zone and the *G. eugubina* Zone (Luterbacher & Premoli Silva, 1964). The upper member of the Scaglia Rossa (R4) is characterized by the renewed appearance of red, nodular calcarenite beds. The Scaglia Rossa shows a clear increase in syndepositional tectonism; slump folding can be seen at several levels and in parts of the basin there are striking occurrences of white calcareous turbidite layers mainly consisting of reworked intraformational planktonic foraminifera (Montanari *et al.*, 1989).

The El Kef sequence is located in northwestern Tunisia and belongs to the El Haria formation, which contains Maastrichtian to Eocene sediments, characterized by marly and clayey units with some limestone intercalations (Buroillet, 1966). The uppermost Maastrichtian is characterized by white-grey marls and the lowermost Danian by 50 cm thick black clay. The KTB is marked by a 1–3 mm rust-coloured ferruginous layer. The uppermost Maastrichtian is characterized by the *P. deformis* planktonic foraminiferal Zone (Keller, 1988), but does not contain the index species *A. mayaroensis*. One explanation for this is that *A. mayaroensis* is a deep swimming species and its absence at El Kef would therefore indicate a shallow environment or a change in lithofacies (Lindinger, 1988).

The Basque-Cantabrian Basin contains Cretaceous sediments with thicknesses up to 10,000 m and environments ranging from fluvial to pelagic. From the palaeogeographic and tectonic points of view, two successive basins can in fact be distinguished: one dating from Triassic to Jurassic and another dating from Late Jurassic–Early Cretaceous to Eocene. The second of these can be considered the true Basque-Cantabrian Basin (Rat, 1988). In the Late Albian-Cenomanian, detrital supply increased and a transgression from the Atlantic increased carbonate deposits during the Late Cenomanian-Coniacian. Siliciclastic flyschs were again deposited during the Campanian–Early Maastrichtian, and the large Orio trough extended from Hendaye to the Vizcaya synclinorium (Mathey, 1988). During the Middle Maastrichtian, the Orio trough narrowed considerably and eventually disappeared in the Late Maastrichtian. A period of calmer sedimentation followed, in which a broad depression ~1500 m deep (Delacotte, 1982) connected with the adjacent platforms across the taluses (Mathey, 1988). Late Maastrichtian sedimentation was marly and during the Danian, pelagic sedimentation gave rise to the so-called ‘pink limestones’ or ‘limestones of the Dane’, which are well known from Hendaye to the Bilbao area. In the area of the flysch trough, therefore, there is continuous sedimentation across the KTB. The stratigraphic record has been most completely preserved in the sequences studied in this paper: Monte Urko, Sopelana, Zumaya, Hendaye and Biarritz, where the KTB has an average thickness of 2 mm of clay.

Some 226 representative samples were used for mineralogical analyses (bulk mineralogy and <2 µm

clay fraction) using X-ray powder diffraction (Philips PW 1710 diffractometer with auto-divergence slit at the Department of Mining and Petrology, University of Granada, Spain). The mineral intensity factors calculated for this study and the instrumental conditions are detailed in Ortega Huertas *et al.* (1995). Clay minerals were extracted by centrifugation after removing carbonates with acetic acid and successive washings. We have adopted the nomenclature of Reynolds (1982) for mixed-layer R1 illite-smectite.

The morphology of the clay minerals and the morphology and composition of the spherules were examined with a Zeiss DSM-950 scanning electron microscope (SEM) equipped with a Link QX microanalysis system at the ‘Centro de Instrumentación Científica’ of the University of Granada (Spain) and a Cambridge S360 scanning electron microscope equipped with a Link AN10000 microanalysis system (University of Bari, Italy).

Quantitative elemental microanalyses of the clay minerals were obtained with a Philips CM20 scanning electron microscope and an X-ray energy dispersive spectrometer (Philips EDAX DX4 in the ‘Centro de Instrumentación Científica’ of the University of Granada). The proportionality factors used were: Al (1.81), Mg (1.25), Si (1.12), K (1.45), Ca (1.45), Mn (1.35) and Fe (1.43). The mineral formulae were calculated as described in Ortega Huertas *et al.* (1995).

The REE were analysed by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) and neutron activation (NA) spectrometry at the University of Pavia (Italy) and X-ray Assay Laboratories in Ontario, Canada. The element microanalyses of the spherules were carried out with a Perkin Elmer 302 laser ablation system coupled to a PE Scier ICP-MS Elan Spectrometer (Uberlingen, Germany). Calibration was done externally, using NBS-612 glass, and internally, using silicon (previously determined by microprobe in the same section) as standards. The detection limit for the Platinum Group Elements (PGE) was ~0.1–0.15 ppm.

CLAY MINERAL ASSOCIATIONS

Figure 2 summarizes the average clay mineral composition of the KTB sections and the Danian and Maastrichtian. The stratigraphic sequences belonging to the Mediterranean Domain are characterized by the association smectite/kaolinite, with smectite as the dominant mineral

MEDITERRANEAN DOMAIN

ATLANTIC DOMAIN

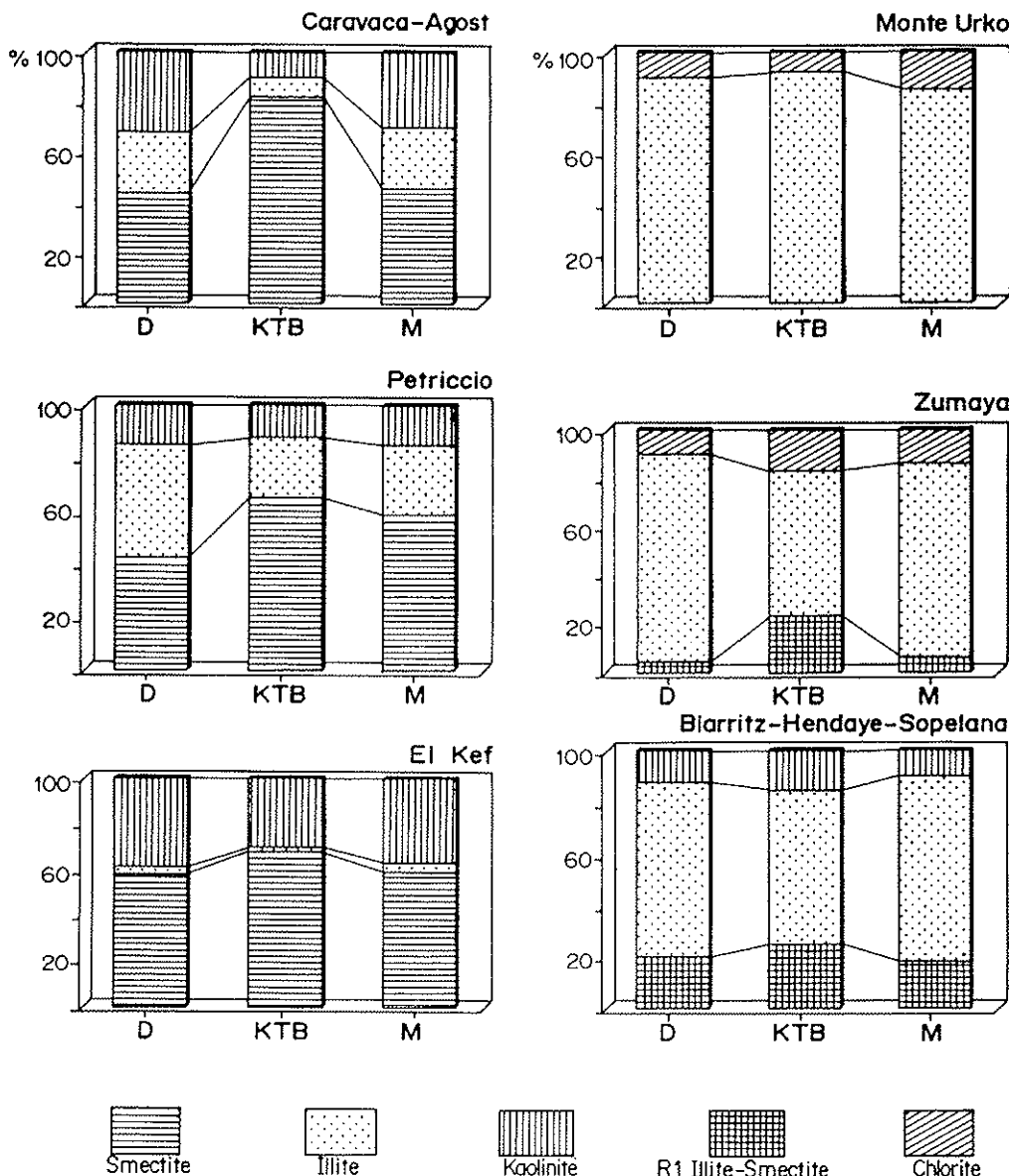


Fig. 2. Clay mineral contents (%) and distribution in the sections studied. D: Danian; KTB: Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary; M: Maastrichtian (Some data of the Betic Cordilleras and Basque-Cantabrian Basin from Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1995).

In the KTB and Danian levels of the Agost and Caravaca sections (Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1995) and at El Kef, trace quantities of chlorite (chamosite

end-member) and palygorskite were detected by transmission electron microscopy. Sand-sized gonite grains were detected in the KTB at Agost

The mean chemical formulae of the smectites in the Mediterranean sections are given in Table 1. The (Al+Fe)/Mg ratio identifies these smectites as being dioctahedral (as shown by the diagram in Fig. 3A). They belong to the beidellite–nontronite series (following the chemical criterion of Caillère *et al.*, 1982: nontronite, $Fe^{3+} > 0.5$; beidellite, $Fe^{3+} < 0.5$). The compositions are homogeneous in the different sections studied, depending on the position they occupy in the AlAl–FeFe–Mg diagram of Güven (1988) (Fig. 3B). This chemical uniformity allows us to establish that there are no significant compositional differences among the smectites of the different stratigraphic sequences nor among the smectites from the KTB or from the Maastrichtian and Danian levels. In fact, 96% of the analysed

particles have representative points within the field of the Al smectites, corresponding to beidellites (field 1, Fig. 3B) and to montmorillonites (field 2, Fig. 3B). The smectite analyses reach the Fe-smectite (field 3, Fig. 3B). Specifically, these several particles from the lowermost Danian Agost, Caravaca and El Kef sections, and from the KTB in the Caravaca and El Kef sections. Smectites with similar composition were identified by Brigatti (1983) as intermediate between nontronites and ‘non-ideal’ Fe-rich montmorillonites following the nomenclature of Schultz (1977). They would, therefore, be equivalent to beidellite-type nontronites according to the chemical criterion of Caillère *et al.* (1982). We can also state

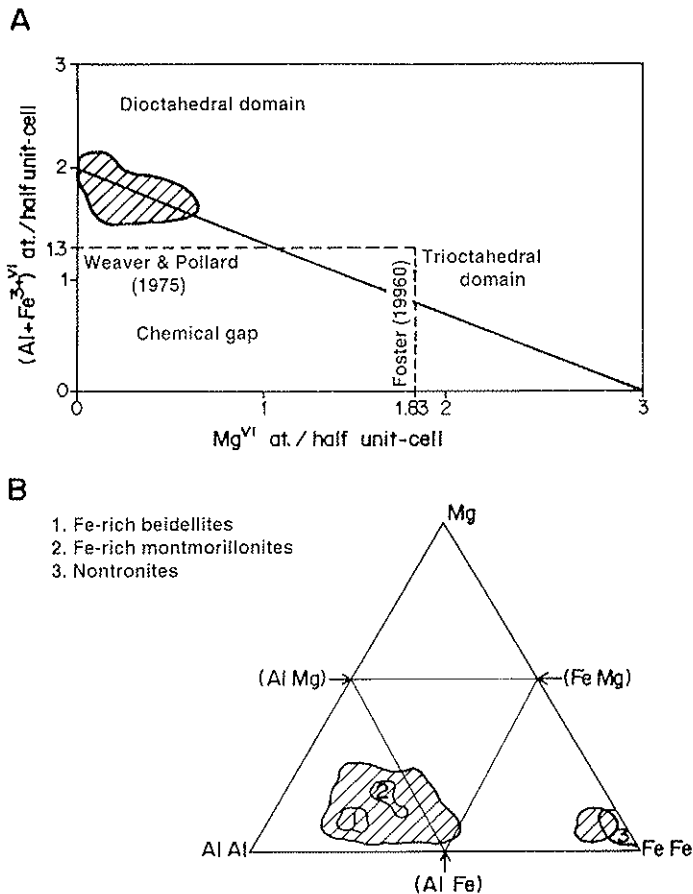


Fig. 3. Smectites in Mediterranean sections: (A) octahedral composition of the studied smectites (dashed line) in the $(Al+Fe^{3+})^{VI}$ vs. Mg^{VI} diagram of Grauby *et al.* (1993); (B) Ternary plot of dioctahedral aluminous smectites (Güven, 1988) indicating the composition of smectites in Mediterranean sections (dashed

TABLE 1. AEM data for smectite formulae normalized to O₁₀(OH)₂; Mediterranean sections.

Section	Age	n	Si	Al ^{IV}	Al ^{VI}	Fe	Mg	Ti	Σoct	K	Ca	Σint
Agost	D	22	3.57(.01)	0.43(.02)	1.30(.04)	0.52(.02)	0.30(.10)	0.05(.09)	2.17	0.33(.01)	0.01(.02)	0.34
	KTB	43	3.60(.01)	0.40(.01)	1.40(.03)	0.48(.02)	0.20(.05)	-	2.08	0.35(.02)	0.05(.02)	0.40
Caravaca	M	20	3.65(.03)	0.35(.02)	1.40(.03)	0.50(.02)	0.12(.05)	0.01(.09)	2.03	0.39(.01)	0.02(.02)	0.41
	D	23	3.69(.06)	0.31(.03)	1.39(.03)	0.50(.02)	0.19(.09)	0.05(.09)	2.13	0.20(.01)	0.03(.02)	0.23
	KTB	49	3.66(.06)	0.34(.03)	1.50(.03)	0.38(.02)	0.21(.04)	0.03(.09)	2.12	0.23(.02)	--	0.23
	M	15	3.63(.06)	0.37(.02)	1.38(.03)	0.42(.03)	0.22(.09)	0.06(.09)	2.08	0.27(.02)	0.06(.02)	0.33
Petriccio	D	15	3.61(.03)	0.39(.01)	1.57(.03)	0.42(.02)	0.21(.04)	--	2.20	0.11(.01)	0.11(.02)	0.22
	KTB	29	3.64(.04)	0.36(.02)	1.38(.03)	0.54(.02)	0.31(.02)	0.03(.01)	2.26	0.27(.01)	0.12(.02)	0.39
El Kef	M	10	3.63(.03)	0.37(.02)	1.59(.04)	0.41(.02)	0.21(.02)	0.03(.02)	2.24	0.13(.01)	0.11(.01)	0.24
	D	17	3.66(.03)	0.34(.03)	1.54(.04)	0.44(.03)	0.19(.02)	--	2.17	0.10(.02)	0.09(.03)	0.19
	KTB	31	3.63(.06)	0.37(.02)	1.57(.03)	0.35(.03)	0.19(.03)	0.03(.02)	2.14	0.11(.01)	0.13(.02)	0.24
	M	16	3.63(.03)	0.37(.03)	1.59(.02)	0.36(.04)	0.21(.01)	0.02(.02)	2.18	0.11(.03)	0.10(.03)	0.21

n = number of analyses; D = Danian; KTB = Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary; M = Maastrichtian.
Standard deviation in parentheses.

generally speaking, the smectites belonging to the Maastrichtian and the Danian levels present a respective trend to smaller and larger Fe contents, whereas those of the KTB have an Fe content intermediate between these two.

The data from high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) of the fine fraction data (Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1995) coincide with those obtained by XRD and show that these are smectites with a moderate proportion of illite layers (<30%), following the method of Reynolds & Hower (1970).

Table 2 summarizes the mean chemical composition of the illites, showing clear homogeneity in all the stratigraphic sections, irrespective of the age of the sediment. All micas show a phengitic trend according to the criteria of Velde (1985). The highest ranges of chemical variation correspond to the $3R^{2+}$ (Mg + Fe²⁺) cations, whose variation coefficient V ranges from 29 to 45, depending on the stratigraphic section. In short, the micaceous minerals in uppermost Maastrichtian, KTB and lowermost Danian sediments in the Mediterranean sections correspond to phengite, illite or mica with a glauconite trend.

The clay minerals in the KTB in the Mediterranean Domain are accompanied in the bulk sample by quartz (5%) and calcite (10%), as well as the following minor (<5%) minerals, mainly detected using TEM: gypsum, baryte and celestite originated from diagenetic alteration; and apatite, monazite, ilmenite, rutile and zircon originated mainly as detrital phases.

In the Mediterranean sections, in both sequences in the Caravaca-Agost and the Petriccio and El Kef, there are no drastic qualitative changes in the clay mineral associations between the KTB, Maastrichtian and Danian levels. This fact suggests non-changing sources and/or sedimentary and diagenetic processes, unlike the proposal advanced by other authors for other stratigraphic sections (e.g. Kastner *et al.*, 1984; Bohor *et al.*, 1984). The similarity also suggests the same palaeogeographical context for those sections and that there are no depositional changes in the clay assemblage across the KTB that can be related to the boundary event. The lithological change from the uppermost Maastrichtian to the lowermost Danian is clearly related to the decrease in the carbonate content as a consequence of the fall in biological productivity. However, from a quantitative point of view, the KTB layer with a much higher smectite content in these sections (Fig. 4A) clearly differs from the clay fraction of Danian and Maastrichtian levels. In the case of Caravaca, the KTB level is almost pure smectite.

Two hypotheses are proposed to explain the abundance of smectite although we shall not consider the possible influence of the species found in the KTB. The first hypothesis, suggested by Ortega Huertas *et al.* (1995) for the Agost and Caravaca sections, is the alteration of volcanic rocks – probably calc-alkaline andesites and Triassic ofites (Sebastián Pardo *et al.*, 1995) – and basaltic rocks (López Galindo, 1986) – and the similarity of chemical composition

TABLE 2. AEM data for dioctahedral micas in Mediterranean sections normalized to $O_{10}(OH)_2$.

Section	Age	n	Si	Al ^{IV}	Al ^{VI}	Mg	Fe	Ti	Σoct
Agost	D	25	3.44(.05)	0.56(.06)	1.18(.04)	0.26(.06)	0.44(.09)	0.10(.09)	1.98
	KTB	27	3.44(.05)	0.56(.06)	0.88(.04)	0.25(.05)	0.90(.09)	–	2.03
	M	29	3.26(.06)	0.74(.06)	1.47(.02)	0.05(.05)	0.63(.04)	–	2.15
Caravaca	D	20	3.50(.07)	0.50(.05)	1.56(.04)	0.17(.05)	0.17(.10)	0.13(.09)	2.03
	KTB	29	3.47(.07)	0.53(.05)	1.35(.04)	0.10(.04)	0.10(.09)	–	1.55
	M	25	3.26(.07)	0.74(.05)	1.68(.02)	0.09(.02)	0.18(.04)	–	1.95
Petriccio	D	15	3.31(.08)	0.69(.05)	1.69(.01)	0.21(.02)	0.21(.06)	–	2.11
	KTB	20	3.23(.08)	0.77(.04)	1.21(.02)	0.28(.04)	0.53(.03)	–	2.02
	M	15	3.26(.04)	0.74(.04)	1.71(.04)	0.22(.02)	0.09(.07)	–	2.20
El Kef	D	20	3.26(.06)	0.74(.03)	1.47(.03)	0.05(.02)	0.63(.04)	–	2.15
	KTB	21	3.26(.07)	0.74(.07)	1.71(.03)	0.22(.04)	0.09(.04)	–	2.02
	M	20	3.28(.06)	0.72(.04)	1.75(.03)	0.03(.04)	0.20(.04)	–	1.98

n = number of analyses; D = Danian; KTB = Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary; M = Maastrichtian. Standard deviation in parentheses.

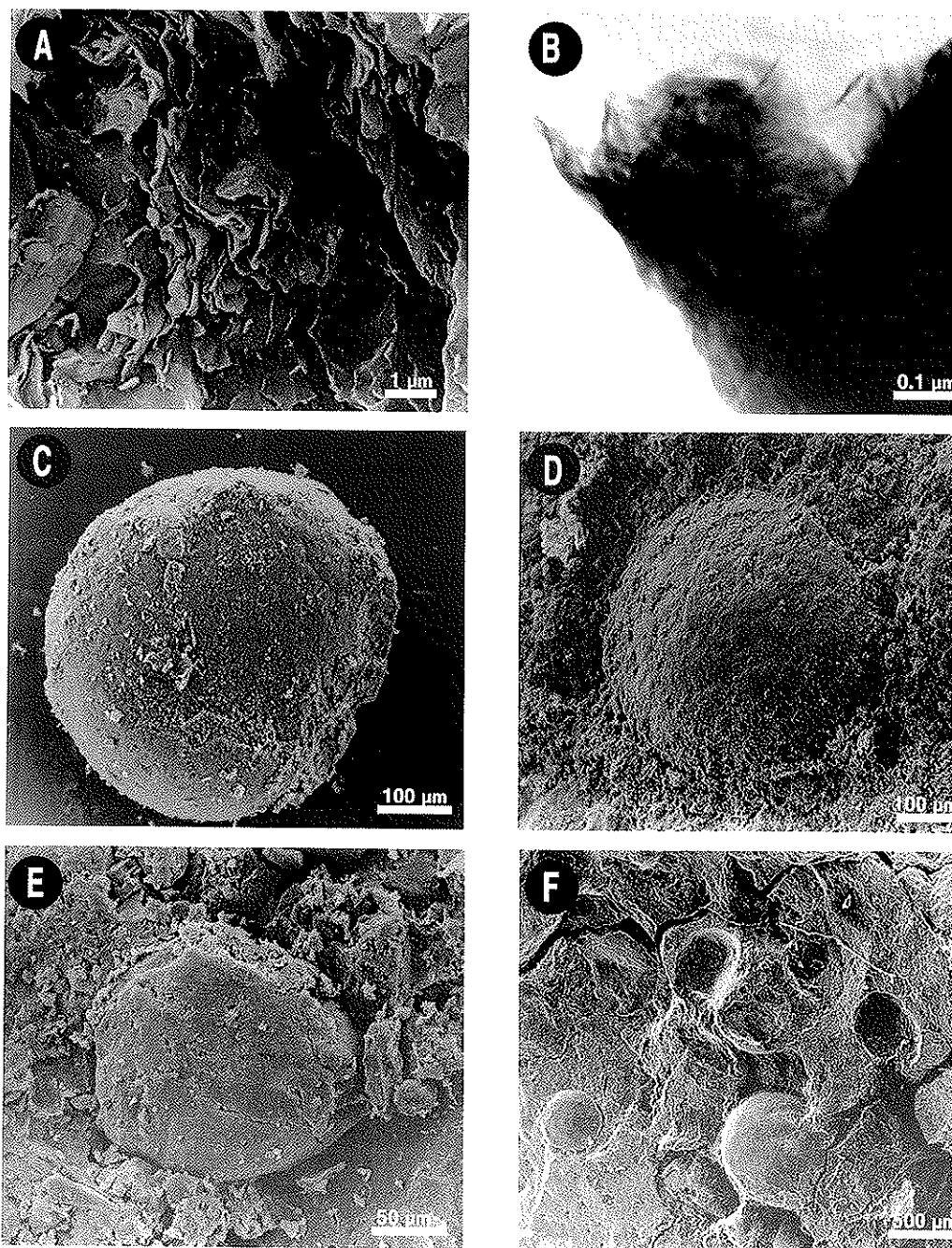


FIG. 4. SEM and TEM micrographs from the KTB. (A) Smectite, El Kef; (B) fleecy-type morphology of smectite, Caravaca; (C) K-feldspar spherule, Petriccio; (D) pyrite spherule, Zumaya; (E) nontronite spherule, Biarritz; (F) relationship between K-feldspar and Fe oxide spherules and the clay matrix at Agost.

smectites of this origin from other locations (Kastner *et al.*, 1984; López Galindo, 1986; Münch *et al.*, 1996) and their lath-like micro-morphology, which makes them compatible with this suggestion (Chamley *et al.*, 1985; Holtzappel & Chamley, 1986). Two suggestions have been made for the origin of these rocks. The first is that they were deposited on a communication zone between the proto-Atlantic and Mesogea during a period of significant creation of oceanic crust in the North Atlantic (Thiry & Jacquin, 1993) whereas López Aguayo *et al.* (1985) suggested the influence of closer volcanic rocks during the extensive stage occurring on the southern margin of the Iberian plate in the Cretaceous. The second hypothesis is that these are detrital smectites inherited from the erosion of soils developed on surrounding areas in warm-humid conditions, as suggested by the presence of Al-rich beidellites (Table 1), their compositional similarity with smectites from recent soils (Paquet, 1970; Duplay, 1982) and their fleecy-type morphology (Fig. 4B). In the Agost and Caravaca sections, the Prebetic part of the External Zones of the Betic Cordillera could have acted as source area. In the Petriccio section, the significant proportion of illite suggests that, in addition to inheritance of soil smectite and kaolinite, there was also erosion involving the crystalline rocks of the source area. In the El Kef section, the large smectite and kaolinite contents and the extreme scarcity of illite can be interpreted as evidence that derivation from soil predominated over inheritance from crystalline rocks. The assemblage also records a tectonic stability on the continental margin of Tunisia from late Mesozoic to early Cenozoic. The smaller amount of kaolinite in the KTB compared with the Maastrichtian and Danian levels in all the Mediterranean sections (Fig. 2) is probably not due to climatic change, since this mineral basically originated in the soil, but rather to the increased supply of minerals eroded from rocky substrata (illite and, less extensively, chlorite in some stratigraphic sections).

As regards the presence of palygorskite in the KTB of the Betic Cordillera, we consider that it may be related to pH oscillations due to compartments in the basin where the sediments were deposited and/or to diagenetic transformation from dioctahedral smectites. In this process the biogenic opal widely found in Cretaceous sediments would have provided Si and Mg, as reported by López Galindo (1987) from the Betic Cretaceous bentonite deposits.

In the Atlantic Domain (Basque-Cantabrian Basin) there are several clay mineral associations whose qualitative and quantitative composition is summarized in Fig. 2: illite-chlorite in the Monte Urko section; illite-R1 illite-smectite-kaolinite in the Sopelana, Biarritz and Hendaye sections; illite-R1 illite-smectite-chlorite in the Zumaya section. The chemical composition of the dioctahedral minerals was studied in part by Ortega Hué *et al.* (1995) using TEM, and new results are presented herein. Table 3 summarizes the chemical composition of dioctahedral micas representative of the three clay mineral associations mentioned above.

Illite is the predominant mineral in all the stratigraphic sections (Fig. 2). The following characteristics are common: (a) there is a predominance of compositions corresponding to detrital illite close to or in some cases coinciding with muscovite (Hendaye section); (b) the phengitic trend is not clear in the Zumaya and Sopelana sections and is clear at Monte Urko and Biarritz; (c) the phengitic character is a minor component, except for some samples from the Hendaye section; (d) cationic variability is not significant in the illite (Na+K+2Ca) cation group, whose coefficient of variation (V) ranges from 3 to 15, but is important in the $3R^2$ ($Mg+Fe^{2+}$) ($V = 16-57$) and $2R^3$ ($Al+Fe^{3+} - MR^3$) ($V = 17-57$) cation groups.

The chemical composition of the R1 illite-smectite mixed-layers is relatively homogeneous, as can be inferred from the graphic representation of Si/Al^{total} vs. $(K+Ca)$ (Fig. 5), in which compositional differences can be detected according to stratigraphic section or age. The content of formula unit (pfu) in octahedral cations are: Al^{VI} from 1.95 to 1.65, Mg from 0.14 to 0.19, Fe from 0.19 to 0.81. In the samples from

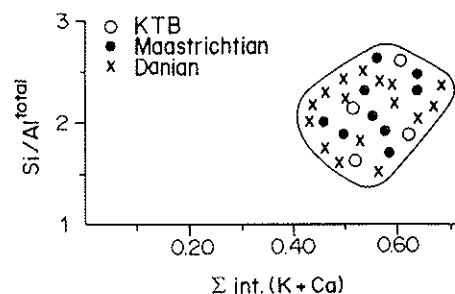


Fig. 5. AEM data for R1 illite-smectite mixed-layers normalized to $O_{10}(OH)_2$, Atlantic section.

TABLE 3. AEM data for dioctahedral micas in Atlantic sections normalized to $O_{10}(OH)_2$.

Section	Age	<i>n</i>	Si	Al ^{IV}	Al ^{VI}	Mg	Fe	Ti	Σoct	F
Monte Urko	D	30	3.31(.05)	0.69(.04)	1.63(.04)	0.20(.09)	0.21(.06)	—	2.04	0.98
	KTB	29	3.12(.07)	0.88(.04)	1.24(.04)	0.20(.09)	0.33(.07)	0.21(.02)	1.98	0.84
	M	30	3.27(.05)	0.73(.04)	1.74(.04)	0.15(.04)	0.15(.07)	—	2.04	0.92
Zumaya	D	30	3.34(.05)	0.66(.03)	1.74(.04)	0.17(.09)	0.30(.07)	0.02(.01)	2.23	0.96
	KTB	30	3.19(.04)	0.81(.07)	1.56(.04)	0.04(.07)	0.33(.04)	0.02(.01)	1.95	0.98
	M	25	3.51(.04)	0.49(.04)	1.66(.05)	0.04(.09)	0.17(.07)	—	1.87	0.79
Biarritz	D	20	3.31(.05)	0.69(.04)	1.71(.03)	0.20(.09)	0.22(.03)	0.02(.01)	2.15	0.99
	KTB	29	3.19(.07)	0.81(.04)	1.63(.04)	0.20(.08)	0.30(.01)	0.10(.01)	2.23	0.96
	M	22	3.22(.04)	0.78(.03)	1.80(.04)	0.06(.08)	0.16(.01)	—	2.02	0.99
Hendaye	D	30	3.20(.03)	0.80(.04)	1.76(.05)	—	0.22(.02)	—	1.98	1.00
	KTB	30	3.15(.04)	0.85(.04)	1.79(.05)	—	0.20(.02)	—	1.99	0.99
	M	30	3.22(.05)	0.78(.04)	1.82(.04)	—	0.16(.04)	—	1.98	0.99
Sopelana	D	20	3.26(.04)	0.74(.03)	1.27(.05)	0.69(.07)	0.15(.02)	0.15(.01)	2.26	0.93
	KTB	25	3.33(.07)	0.67(.07)	1.62(.05)	0.22(.04)	0.06(.02)	0.02(.01)	1.92	0.90
	M	22	3.57(.04)	0.33(.04)	1.66(.03)	0.31(.04)	0.15(.04)	0.09(.01)	2.21	0.98

n = number of analyses; D = Danian; KTB = Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary; M = Maastrichtian. Standard deviation in parentheses.

Sopelana section, the R1 I-S contains Ti (0.10–0.24 pfu) and Mn (0.01–0.02 pfu). These cations appear in similar proportions in the KTB samples from the Zumaya and Biarritz sections.

Chlorite is found in the clay mineral assemblages from Monte Urko and Zumaya. It has also been detected as a minor mineral in the Sopelana section. In any case, chlorite is not a very abundant mineral in the sediments of the Basque-Cantabrian Basin. With the exception of a sample from Monte Urko in which clinocllore was detected (Mg = 2.08, Fe = 1.04 pfu), the AEM data from all the other samples confirm that their composition corresponds to that of chamosite (Fe = 1.87–2.56 pfu; Mg = 0.95–1.57 pfu). Our opinion is that these are detrital chlorites showing the chemical characteristics described by Shau *et al.* (1991) as representative of contamination by corrensite or smectite interlayers, high Si content (2.50–3.05 pfu), an Al^{VI} content (1.73–2.42 pfu) much higher than Al^{IV} content (0.95–1.50 pfu), and total octahedral population much lower than 6 cations pfu (5.24–5.71). However, chlorites have been detected in the Monte Urko section whose chemical composition close to ideal chlorite formulae means that they may be authigenic chlorites (Σ_{oct.} = 5.93 pfu; Fe/Fe+Mg = 0.67). These data agree with those of Nieto *et al.* (1996), who studied the Mesozoic-Cenozoic sediments of the Basque-Cantabrian Basin using HRTEM-AEM.

The clay minerals in the KTB of the Atlantic sections are qualitatively similar to those of the Maastrichtian and Danian levels (Figs. 2 and 5, Table 3). This is the same general association described for the Mediterranean sections. In the Atlantic Domain, the micas and chlorite are derived from the erosion of rock substrata, while kaolinite is inherited from soils developed under a warm and humid climate that prevailed in the Atlantic domains during the Cretaceous and into the Tertiary (e.g. Miller *et al.*, 1987; Charrier *et al.*, 1989). The abundance of kaolinite in the Sopelana, Biarritz and Hendaye sections (Fig. 2) is the consequence of the relative proximity of these areas exposed to erosion which, according to Mathey (1988), could have been located north of the eastern and western platforms of the Cantabrian Sea. In general, as proposed by Oyarzun Huertas *et al.* (1995), clay sedimentation in the Basque-Cantabrian Basin was controlled by tectonic processes occurring during the Maastrichtian and Danian that were responsible for the supply of detrital and chlorite and the absence of detrital smectite. The presence of significant amounts of R1 I-S in the Sopelana and Zumaya sections and, to a lesser extent, at Biarritz and Hendaye (Fig. 2) could be the result of burial diagenesis, which would explain the absence of smectite as an independent mineral phase in the sections of the Atlantic Domain. This interpretation agrees with that of Aróstegui

(1991) and Nieto *et al.* (1996) for other sequences of the Basque-Cantabrian Basin, where the smectite developed in the surface Miocene levels disappears with depth before becoming R3 I-S in Lower Cretaceous deposits. These data are also consistent with the presence of some crystals attributed to authigenic chlorite, as mentioned above. In addition to the influence of diagenesis, other geological factors may have affected the distribution of the clay mineral assemblages. The abundance of kaolinite in the Biarritz, Hendaye and Sopelane sections suggests relative proximity to emerged areas. Indeed, in other sectors of the Basque-Cantabrian basin this is particularly evident during the Palaeocene, which is represented by continental facies deposited under a regressive regime (Ramírez del Pozo, 1973) when the kaolinite content was greatest.

INFLUENCE OF SPHERULES ON THE CLAY MINERAL COMPOSITION OF THE KTB LAYER

In the most of the known KTB sequences, spherules are completely or partially altered. One of the common results of diagenetic alteration is the formation of smectites (e.g. Smit *et al.*, 1992). We cannot dismiss, therefore, the fact that the smectites in the KTB layer may be partially related to the alteration of the precursor material of the spherules, which may also explain the significant increase in smectites in this layer.

Different types of spherules are found in the KTB of the Mediterranean sections. At Agost and Caravaca, K-feldspar and Fe oxide (goethite) spherule morphology, texture and chemical composition have been studied (e.g. Smit & Klaver, 1981; Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, 1992; Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1992; Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, in press). In this paper we describe the K-feldspar spherules occurring in the Petriccio section (Italy) (Fig. 4C) and K-feldspar and Fe oxide spherules from the El Kef section (Tunisia), although Montanari (1991) first reported both types of spherules in these stratigraphic sections. The K-feldspar spherules consist of orthoclase (the trilinearity index was calculated following the formula of Goldsmith & Laves, 1954) ($\text{SiO}_2 = 65.10\text{--}65.99\%$; $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 = 17.94\text{--}18.75\%$; $\text{K}_2\text{O} = 14.55\text{--}15.90\%$; $\text{Na}_2\text{O} = 0.04\text{--}0.18\%$). The goethite spherules consist of a mixture of Fe-oxides and hydroxides ($\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 = 83.88\text{--}94.19\%$).

In the KTB of the Atlantic domain, Martínez Ruiz (1994) reported K-feldspar spherules in the Sopelana section, pyrite in the Zumaya section (Fig. 4D), and of Fe oxides and nontronite in the Monte Urko and Biarritz sections (Fig. 4E). The chemical compositions of the feldspar spherules and the Fe oxyhydroxide spherules are similar to those described for the KTB in the Mediterranean domain. In all cases these are microkrystites in the sense of Smit *et al.* (1992). The chemical composition of the spherules is similar to the differences in the diagenetic evolution of the sediment (Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, 1992).

In the Mediterranean domain, the KTB spherules are well preserved and the spherules are very abundant (200–400/cm³). They have a clear influence on the KTB clay sedimentation, in particular the Fe spherules (Fig. 4F). In our opinion, the increase in smectite in the KTB of these sections may have been influenced by the alteration products that have undergone by the spherules. In fact, the proportion of spherules in the Caravaca section compared to the Agost section suggests that the spherules have been almost totally altered, which may explain the greater proportion of smectites in the KTB of the former stratigraphic section. There is also chemical evidence that could suggest a relation between the spherules and the presence of smectites. The AEM microanalyses of the spherules show the existence of Ni as a trace element (mean value of ~100 ppm). The cores of the K-feldspar spherules are rich in carbon and iron, containing up to 3000 ppm Ni (Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, in press). Other authors have observed this type of alteration in other stratigraphic sequences (e.g. Klaver *et al.*, 1986, in DSDP Leg 93 Hole 603B in the northwestern Atlantic; Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, 1992, in Core 12 of DSDP Leg 86 Hole 603 in the northwestern Pacific and in the Beloc section in Haiti). In the Agost and Caravaca sections, the ablation system analyses show that, apart from the cores of these spherules also contain significant amounts of PGE (Ir = 0.59 ppm, Pt = 2.89 ppm, Ni = 15.70 ppm); these values could suggest that the microkrystites may have been derived from an expanding vapour plume with a significant contribution of extraterrestrial material.

In the Atlantic domain, spherules are not so abundant (5–20/cm³), since the KTB layer is not as well preserved as in the Mediterranean domain due to microtectonic deformations. Alteration of these spherules must have followed the

general pattern described for the Mediterranean domain. However, the fact that smectite is not detected in the KTB of any of the Atlantic sections must be a consequence of the important diagenetic evolution undergone by these sequences, as shown in Fig. 2 by the presence of RI 1-S and even authigenic chlorite. In addition, the important contribution of detrital clay minerals (illite, chlorite, kaolinite) has masked the presence of authigenic smectite, although the presence of scarce nontronite spherules in the Monte Urko and Biarritz sections would be proof of the existence of authigenic smectites originating in the submarine alteration of spherules of mafic composition.

SIGNIFICANCE OF REE ELEMENTS

In the study of detrital sediments, the REE provide information concerning the source area of the sediments, as they are not fractionated during sedimentation processes and their secondary remobilization is not highly significant (Condi, 1991). In this case, the sedimentary particles conserve the chemical record of the source area (Condi, 1991). Most of the REE are concentrated in the clay fraction, while the silt and sand fractions present lower contents, mainly due to the dilution effect of quartz with a low REE content (Cullers *et al.*, 1988). For neofomed minerals in a marine sedimentary environment, the REE content depends on the behaviour of these elements in seawater where their concentration is very low (approximately $10\text{--}70 \times 10^{-12}$ mol.kg⁻¹ for La-Nd, 0.5×10^{12} mol.kg⁻¹ for Eu and $3\text{--}8 \times 10^{-12}$ mol.kg⁻¹ for Sm-Yb, Elderfield & Greaves, 1982). In oxygenated marine environments, the oxidation of Ce³⁺ and its incorporation into Mn nodules causes a negative Ce anomaly, so that in oceanic accretion zones the sediments display this anomaly (Elderfield & Greaves, 1982), whereas in areas further from this influence, such as continental platforms, it is not displayed (Piper, 1974). Adsorption onto sedimentary particles is the main extraction mechanism of REE dissolved in seawater. Their total content in the sediment, as well as the development of Ce anomalies, depends on the environment and on the depositional conditions (Murray *et al.*, 1990).

Figure 6 shows the results of the normalization of REE contents to NASC (Haskin *et al.*, 1968) in the stratigraphic sections studied here. In the Atlantic sections (Fig. 6A) the pattern is the same for all the stratigraphic sequences. On the other hand, in the

Mediterranean domain a pattern is observed that is common to the Agost, Caravaca (Fig. 6B) and El Kef (Fig. 6C) sections, but different from the Petriccio section (Fig. 6D).

In the Atlantic sections, the KTB layer has an average REE content (151 ppm) similar to that of the Maastrichtian (135 ppm) and Danian (142 ppm) levels (Fig. 6A). The curves of normalization to chondrites, with enrichment in light REE and a basically flat pattern for heavy REE, agree with those of sediments from the upper continental shelf (acid rocks), according to McLennan (1989). The accumulation of sediments from emerged continental areas on passive margins, which is the case for the sections studied here, would consist mainly of the recycling of sedimentary, plutonic and metamorphic rocks mixtures with small contributions from contemporary volcanoes. The REE patterns agree with an initially detrital origin of the clay minerals resulting from erosion of Palaeozoic rocks, as well as the surrounding Mesozoic sedimentary blankets. The fact that the boundary layer is impoverished in REE indicates that detrital supply predominated over possible neofomation of clay minerals in the KTB.

The REE content and distribution patterns are similar in the Maastrichtian and Danian levels of Agost, Caravaca (Fig. 6B) and El Kef (Fig. 6C), where it is conditioned by the inherited clay minerals (illite, kaolinite and part of the smectite). The normalization to NASC curves is also similar. However, in these sections, the KTB is clearly impoverished in REE compared with the underlying and overlying layers (Fig. 6B,C). The depletion suggests an authigenic origin for most of the smectite and little influence from detrital clay minerals. This hypothesis is confirmed by the results in Fig. 7, showing normalization to chondrites. The REE contents in the clay fraction of the KTB in these sections, where it can be seen that the REE content correlates inversely with smectite content (more abundant smectites in Caravaca than in Agost and in Agost than in El Kef, see Fig. 2). In addition, the abundant K-feldspar and Fe spherules in the KTB have not provided REE enrichment, as they are authigenic phases derived from impact-related mafic precursors poor in REE (Elderfield & Ten Kate, 1982; Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, 1994; Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1994; Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, 1997). The REE content in the Petriccio section is different from the other Mediterranean sections, but does, however, show certain similarity with

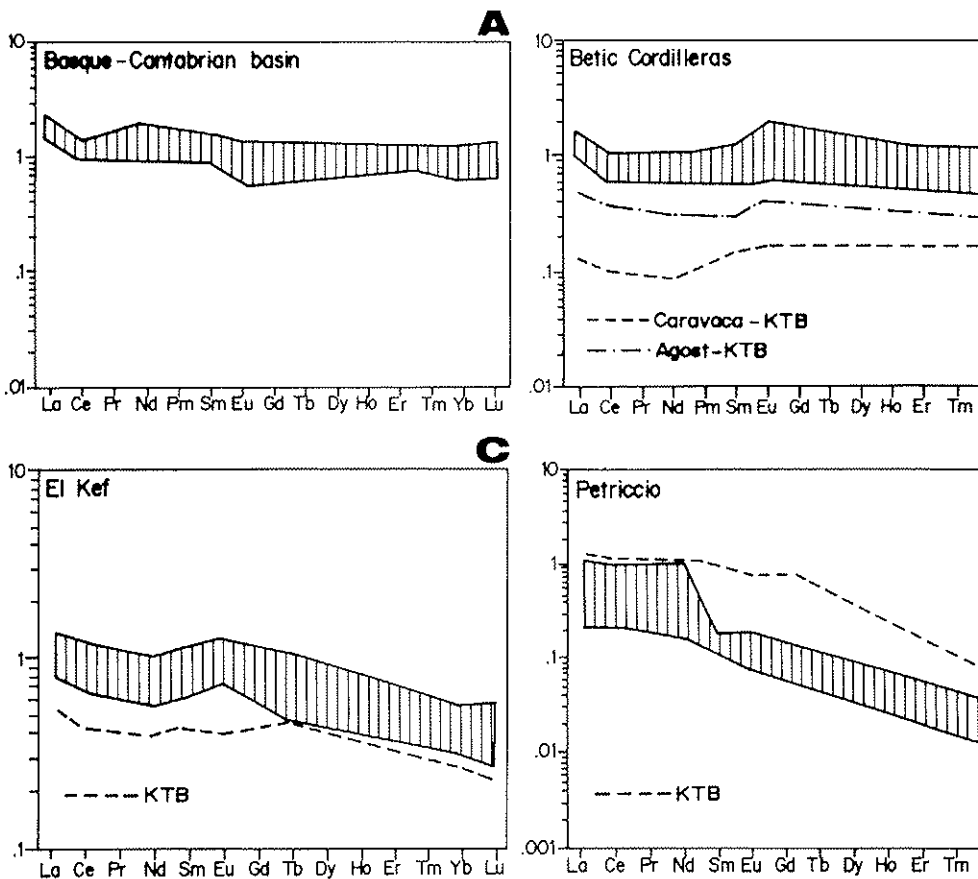


FIG. 6. REE content in studied sections normalized to NASC (Haskin *et al.*, 1968). The shaded zone corresponds to REE normalized values in Maastrichtian and Danian levels. (A) Atlantic sections. (B) Agost and Caravaca sections. (C) El Kef section. (D) Petriccio section. (Data of figures A and B from Ortega Huertas *et al.*

Atlantic sequences, although the KTB layer is slightly enriched in REE compared with the Danian and Maastrichtian levels (Fig. 6D). This can be interpreted as being due to the fact that most of the smectites in the KTB are of detrital origin, while those of the underlying and overlying levels are derived, in part at least, from the alteration of volcanic rocks, thus indicating a change in the sedimentation of this stratigraphic section.

CONCLUSIONS

Source areas, sediment supply and diagenetic processes are the main factors controlling the clay mineral associations in Mediterranean and Atlantic domains at the KTB levels. The Mediterranean

Domain is characterized by a simple clay association (smectite-illite-kaolinite), with smectite as the predominant mineral. In the Atlantic domain the KTB has several clay mineral associations: smectite-illite-chlorite, illite-R1 I-S mixed-layer-kaolinite, illite-R1 I-S mixed-layer-chlorite. In both domains the qualitative composition of clays in the KTB layer is identical to that of the Danian and Maastrichtian levels. The TEM analysis of the clay minerals do not reveal any compositional differences between the KTB and the samples from the overlying and underlying levels which indicate similar sources and/or sedimentary and diagenetic processes through the KTB.

The chemical composition and micromorphology of the smectites in the Agost and Caravaca

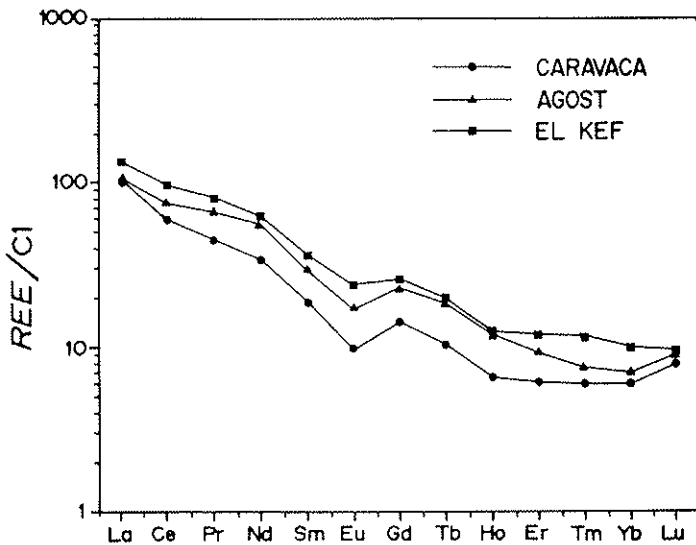


FIG. 7. REE content normalized to chondrites CI (Anders & Ebihara, 1982) in the Agost, Caravaca and El Kef sections.

confirm partial derivation from alteration of volcanic rocks and erosion of soils developed on emerged areas of the Prebetic of the External Zones of the Betic Cordilleras. In the El Kef section, soil processes also affected the erosion products derived from a stable continental margin, whereas in the Petriccio section the mineralogical composition of the KTB basically reflects the erosion of crystalline rocks in the source area. In the Mediterranean domain an additional factor to take into account is the role of the KTB spherules. The abundant K-feldspar and Fe oxide spherules in the Agost, Caravaca and El Kef sections can be related to the drastic increase of smectite in the KTB.

In the Atlantic Domain, clay sedimentation was controlled by the degree of burial diagenesis (responsible for the lack of smectite and the presence of R1 mixed-layer I-S and part of the chlorite), by Maastrichtian and Danian tectonic processes and by the erosion of emergent areas on the eastern and western platforms of the Cantabrian Sea, according to Mathey (1988).

The REE data provide evidence for the important influence of authigenic phenomena in the KTB of the Agost, Caravaca and El Kef sections; the strong detrital character and change of clay sedimentation in the KTB compared with the Danian and Maastrichtian levels in the Petriccio section; masking of authigenic phases caused by detrital

ones in the Atlantic sequences, which would explain the existence of a single REE pattern. However, the presence of minor nontronite spherules in the Monte Urko and Biarritz sections would be evidence for authigenic smectites originating from submarine alteration of mafic spherules.

The condensed mafic dust produced as a consequence of the extraterrestrial impact could have been altered to smectite. However, diagenetic conditions and local detrital supplies controlled the composition of the KTB layer, causing differences in the clay sedimentation of geological Domains studied and in the stratigraphic sections of the Atlantic Domain.

In the studied sections, all of which are marine, the KTB layer is equivalent to the uppermost part of the two-layered clay unit described in the Western Interior Basin of North America (Pollastro & Bohor (1993). This layer originated from a cloud of a vapourized bolide and entrained target rock materials ejected above the atmosphere.

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