

Review of the mineralogy of the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary clay: evidence supporting a major extraterrestrial catastrophic event

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ABSTRACT: The proposed impact event at the end of the Cretaceous resulted in mass extinctions and subsequently significant variations in the geochemical and mineralogical composition of the sediments marking the K/T boundary. The impact-generated material derived from target rocks produced the ejecta layer deposits around Chicxulub crater, which were subsequently diagenetically altered to mainly smectite in marine sections and to kaolinite in continental sections. The fireball layer represents the cosmic dust dispersed and deposited globally and contains smectite derived from the alteration of microkrystites and the finest fraction. The lowermost Danian clay layer, recognized in marine sections, resulted from the sudden decrease in ocean productivity and represents a reduced sedimentation deposit. Its clay mineral associations depend on local environmental conditions and diagenetic processes. Overall, the diagenetic alteration of the boundary materials resulted in a significant modification of original signatures. The composition of the clay mineral phases can, however, still be evidence of the nature of the precursor materials providing evidence for an extraterrestrial impact event.

KEYWORDS: Chicxulub, K/T, clay minerals, ejecta layer, fireball layer, clay boundary layer, impact glasses, microkrystites, diagenesis, DSDP, ODP.

The Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary (K/T) event remains one of the most controversial subjects in Earth Sciences, due both to the great biological crisis marking the end of the Cretaceous (~65 Ma) and to the geochemical and mineralogical anomalies associated with the sediments of this age. Renewed discussion on the origin of the K/T event arose ~20 years ago with the discovery of Ir anomalies in the sediments marking the K/T boundary at Stevns Klint (Denmark), Gubbio

(Italy) (Alvarez *et al.*, 1980) and Caravaca (Spain) (Smit & Hertogen, 1980).

Since Alvarez *et al.* (1980) proposed the impact theory to explain the mass extinction at the end of the Cretaceous, several lines of evidence have been cited to support their model, including noble metal anomalies (*cf.* Smit & Hertogen, 1980; Kyte *et al.*, 1980, 1985; Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1992), the discovery of shocked minerals (*cf.* Bohor, 1990), Ni-rich spinels (*cf.* Kyte & Smit, 1986; Bohor & Foord, 1987; Izett, 1987; Bohor, 1990; Robin *et al.*, 1991), and the presence of spherules that may be impact-related (Smit & Klaver, 1981; Montanari *et al.*, 1983; Montanari, 1991; Smit *et al.*, 1991).

Pollastro & Bohor, 1993; Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1997). However, this hypothesis has not been universally accepted, and some authors (*cf.* Officer & Drake, 1985; Courtillot *et al.*, 1986, 1988; Courtillot & Cisowski, 1987) proposed that intense volcanic activity at the end of the Cretaceous could have created adverse environmental conditions producing the same effects as those caused by a supposed meteorite impact.

The catastrophic K/T event resulted in major palaeoceanographic changes leading to significant variations in the chemistry of the terminal Cretaceous ocean water as revealed by trace-element composition and significant variations in the isotope composition of C, O and Sr. The carbon isotope surface-to-bottom water gradient, for instance, collapsed to zero or even reversed as a consequence of reduced productivity (Hsü & McKenzie, 1985, 1990). Thus, a large negative anomaly in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values marks the K/T boundary in marine sections worldwide. Variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values have typically been interpreted as the result of initial cooling followed by gradual warming across the K/T boundary (*cf.* Zachos *et al.*, 1989). However, several factors other than temperature can affect the oxygen isotope composition, and there is no general agreement about the magnitude of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variations (*cf.* Perch-Nielsen *et al.*, 1982; Margolis *et al.*, 1987). Ocean fluctuations in $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ resulted in a spike that has been attributed to an increased input of radiogenic Sr produced by acid rain after the impact (Martin & MacDougall, 1991; Martínez-Ruiz, 1994), explosive volcanism (Javoy & Courtillot, 1989) or erosion as a consequence of the transgression (Officer *et al.*, 1987).

The vast literature on this topic (numbering thousands of contributions) prevents our mentioning all the sites and geochemical anomalies reported thus far. In particular, the Deep Sea Drilling Project (for example, DSDP Site 524 in the South Atlantic and Hole 577 in the Pacific) and the Ocean Drilling Program (ODP Sites 689-690 in the Southern Atlantic, ODP Holes 603B and 390A, and ODP Legs 165, 171B and 174AX in the North Atlantic margin) have contributed to our knowledge through the recovery of expanded K/T boundary sequences. Despite all the advances made from numerous studies of this devastating impact and its environmental consequences, more work is undeniably needed for a complete understanding.

With this review article, our aim was to summarize the clay mineralogical data published

on the K/T boundary and demonstrate that the available information supports the extraterrestrial hypothesis.

K/T BOUNDARY LITHOLOGY

Most of the published data provide compelling evidence supporting the extraterrestrial hypothesis first proposed in the 1980s, as well as the location of the impact site at the Chicxulub crater on the Yucatán Peninsula of Mexico. Evidence for the occurrence of the K/T crater at this location is apparently overwhelming, as demonstrated by impact signatures recognized in sequences in the Gulf of Mexico area, as well as in other areas (measurements and drill-core data (Hildebrand *et al.*, 1991; Koeberl & Sigurdsson, 1992; Shigemitsu *et al.*, 1993; Alvarez *et al.*, 1995; Schultz & Schurmann, 1996; Smit, 1999).

The K/T boundary layer deposits are part of an ejecta blanket from this impact crater. The Chicxulub impact produced distinctive extraterrestrial material (*cf.* Alvarez *et al.*, 1995; Pierazzo & Melosh, 1999), mostly derived from the upper part of the front of the melted target rocks deposited in the proximity of the crater site (the ejecta layer), and a vertically expanding hot vapour plume of volcanic origin with entrained melted target rocks that were dispersed and deposited globally (the fireball). Thus, locations proximal to Chicxulub show high contributions of the ejecta blanket derived from melted target rocks, whereas distal sections contain a high component of extraterrestrial material (Fig. 1). The further distance from Chicxulub is, therefore, the more important factor controlling the lithology, thickness and mineralogical and geochemical composition of the K/T boundary deposits.

Proximal sites (*cf.* Yucatán, Belize, Sonora, NE Mexico, Central Mexico, Guatemala, Sonora, USA, Haiti, DSDP/ODP sites; Fig. 1a) contain 1–11 m thick complex clastic deposits transported by gravity flows, landslides and tsunamis. The sequence of proximal ejecta can be divided into three subzones: (1) a continuous ejecta blanket extending radially up to some 600 km on the Yucatán peninsula consisting of polymictic megabreccias and microbreccias composed of moderately to highly angular clasts of extremely variable size; (2) a subarea extending south of the crater to ~100 km, characterized by carbonate megabreccias; and (3) a third subarea occurring around the Gulf of Mexico and in the Caribbean characterized by thick

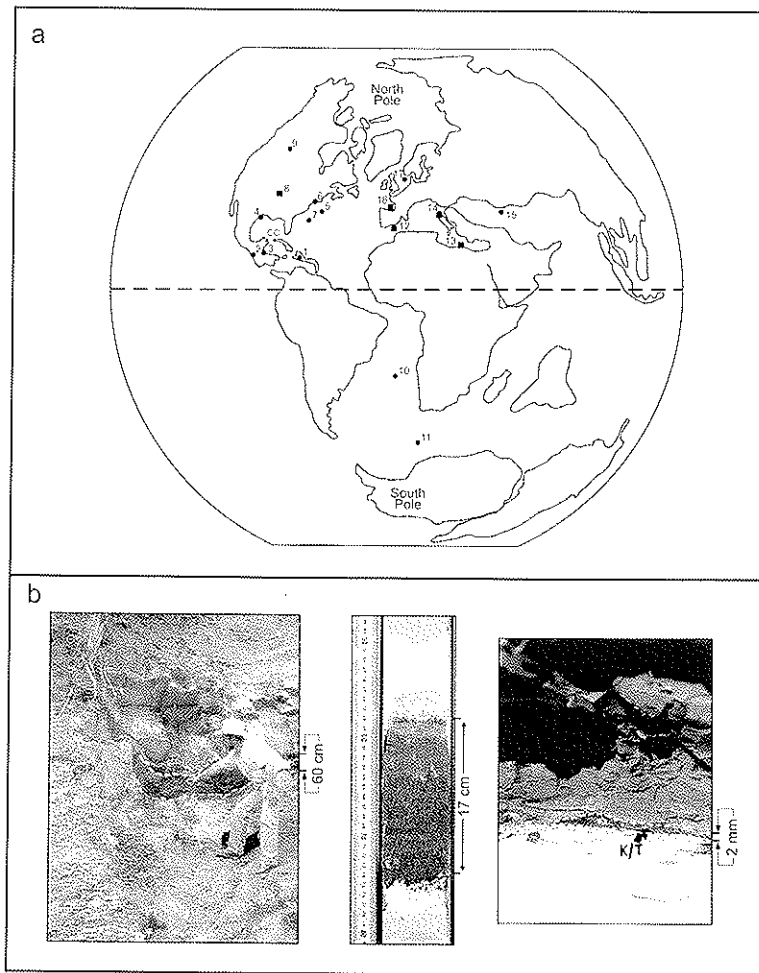


Fig. 1. (a) Palaeogeographical map of the Late Cretaceous (modified from Stanley, 1986) showing the location of the K/T revised sections. 1. Haiti, 2. Guatemala, 3. Belize, 4. El Tecolote, 5. DSDP 603B, 6. Bass River, 7. Blake Nose, 8. Western Interior of North America sections, 9. Frenchman river, 10. Walvis Ridge, 11. Maud Ridge, 12. Agost and Caravaca sections, 13. Tunisian sections, 14. Italian sections, 15. Koshak, 16. Basque-Cantabria sections, 17. Stevns Klint. CC: Chicxulub crater. (b): Photographs showing the thickness of the K/T boundary layer in El Ceibo section (left), Blake Nose-ODP Leg 171B Hole 1049A (centre) and Agost section (right).

deposits overlain by ballistically transported debris and melt spherules (*cf.* Pope *et al.*, 1996; Claeys *et al.*, 1998; Smit, 1999).

Further away, ~ 2000 km to the northeast on the North American margin, the K/T boundary is marked by an ejecta layer from 9 cm up to 17 cm thick (Fig. 1b), mainly consisting of spherical and oval-shaped spherules (*cf.* ODP Leg 171B, Bass River ODP Leg 174AX, and DSDP Leg 603B; Fig. 1a). At the Blake Nose Site 1049, the ejecta is capped by a 3 mm thick orange Fe oxide deposit

that initially appeared to be the fireball layer (Norris *et al.*, 1998) equivalent to the uppermost layer found in the K/T boundary sequence in the Western Interior of North America (Pollastro & Bohor, 1993). A geochemical and mineralogical study of this orange layer revealed, however, that it resulted from the diagenetic remobilization of Fe with a non-enhanced extraterrestrial-element flux (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2001b). Moreover, the spherule bed also contains some lithic fragments of Cretaceous foraminifera and clasts of Cretaceous

material, which indicate reworking of the spherule bed material. This observation is further supported by the variable thickness of the spherule bed in the three holes drilled at Site 1049 in the Blake Nose Plateau (Klaus *et al.*, 2000).

At locations 2500–4000 km from the Chicxulub crater in the Western Interior of North America (*cf.* Madrid, Starkville, Sugarite, Raton; Fig. 1a), the K/T boundary interval consists of a 3 cm thick, two-layered, clay-rich unit commonly overlain by a thin (10–20 cm) bed of lignite. Mineralogical, textural and chemical evidence support the interpretation that this K/T boundary sequence represents the altered fallout ejecta from the Chicxulub impact. Its dual nature also supports different ejection and dispersal mechanisms of the ejecta material (*cf.* Pollastro & Pillmore, 1987; Pollastro & Bohor, 1993).

The most distal sites (>4000 km, Fig. 1a), such as those from the Mediterranean (*cf.* Agost and Caravaca in Spain, El Kef and Elles II in Tunisia, Petriccio and Gubbio in Italy) and NE Atlantic regions (Zumaya, Monte Urko, Sopelana and Biarritz in the Basque-Cantabrian Basin, and Stevns Klint in Denmark) are characterized by 2–3 mm thick laminae diagenetically altered and enriched in Platinum Group Elements (PGE), microkrystites and shocked minerals (Fig. 1b). In some Mediterranean sections, such as Agost, Caravaca (*cf.* Martínez Ruiz *et al.*, 1997; Smit, 1999) and El Kef, the K/T boundary layer is very well preserved (Lindinger, 1988; Adatte *et al.*, 2002; Bensalem, 2002) and the spherules are very abundant. In contrast, in the Basque-Cantabrian basin, spherules are not as abundant and the K/T boundary layer is poorly preserved mainly due to local tectonic processes (Ortega-Huertas *et al.*, 1995, 1998). At Stevns Klint (Denmark), the K/T boundary is marked by a red rust basal layer overlain by a black marl layer (*cf.* Schmitz, 1985; Elliott, 1993). In all these distal sections, this red layer is equivalent to the uppermost layer of the two-layered clay unit described for the Western Interior of North America sections (Pollastro & Bohor, 1993).

K/T BOUNDARY CLAY-MINERAL ASSOCIATIONS

The deposition of the material ballistically ejected from the Chicxulub crater resulted in a layer, commonly named the ejecta layer, which separates

Cretaceous from Tertiary sediments. This contains a major contribution of target material and is deposited in sections around the Chicxulub crater (*cf.* Gulf of Mexico). Overlying the ejecta layer is an ~3 mm thick layer, known as the fireball layer, which represents the coarse-grained material that was widely dispersed and deposited globally. It is well preserved at distal sections. Above the fireball layer, the sudden decrease in ocean productivity is a consequence of the catastrophic event at the end of the Cretaceous, resulted in the deposition of the lowermost Danian clay layer, which also marks the K/T boundary in most of the sections. Most authors commonly use the term clay boundary layer to refer to one or all of the aforementioned layers. In this paper, we use the term clay boundary layer to refer to the lowermost Danian clay layer in the studied sequences. The main clay-mineral associations characteristic of representative K/T sections are given in Table 1.

Clay ejecta layer and/or fireball layer

Gulf of Mexico. The ejecta layer (i.e. the material that was melted and vaporized rock ejected ballistically from an impact crater) at proximal sites in the Gulf of Mexico area comprises materials of quite diverse composition, ranging from pure carbonate to silicate-rich melt and mixtures of these two end-members. This diversity indicates that the melt zone during impact was quite deep in the crystalline basement but was not completely homogenized (*cf.* Ketrup *et al.*, 1999). At the various Gulf of Mexico sites, the diversity of clay-mineral associations result from the alteration of variable silicate/carbonate mixtures. Thus, in the Guatemala sections (El Caribe, El Ceibo) the ejecta layer is composed of glass spherules altered to partially crystallized Ca-Mg-(Na)-rich smectite (Debrincat *et al.*, 1999). At the Belize site (Albion Island) the ejecta layer derives from the outer portion of a continuous ejecta blanket of the Chicxulub impact. The smectite, which is present in the brecciated and clay-forming spheroids, results from the alteration of impact-generated material (Pollastro, 1999). These authors report that the glass spheroids are compositionally similar to the palagonites formed from K/T boundary layer spherules. In the Haiti section, the ejecta layer consists of a basal layer very rich in smectite spherules, overlain by a unit consisting of a mixture of smectite spherules in a carbonate/smectite matrix. Spherical to ellipsoidal smectite bodies der-

TABLE 1. Main clay mineral associations.

Location	Section	Type of layer	Clay mineral associations	Reference	
Gulf of Mexico	Haiti	EL	S	1, 2, 3	
	Guatemala	EL	S - (K)	4, 5	
	Belize	EL	S	6	
	El Tecolote	EL	Ch - (I - I-S - Ch-C)	7	
	DSDP 603B	EL	S	8	
	Bass River	EL	S	9	
	Blake Nose ODP Leg 171B	EL	S	10	
	Madrid, Starkville, Sugarite, Raton,	EL	K	11, 12, 13	
	Madrid, Starkville, Sugarite, Raton,	FL	S	11, 12, 13	
	Frenchman River	FL	S - (K)	14	
Western Interior of North America	Walvis Ridge Sites 525-529	CBL	S - I - Ch - (I-S - K)	15	
	Walvis Ridge Site 524 Leg 73	CBL	S - (I - K)	16	
	Maad Ridge Sites 689-690	CBL	S - I - Ch - (I-S - K)	15	
	Agost, Caravaca	FL	S	17, 18	
	Agost, Caravaca	CBL	S - K - I	17, 18	
	El Kef	FL	S - (K - I - Ch)	18	
	El Kef	CBL	S - K - (I)	18	
	Elles II	FL	S - (K - I - Ch)	19	
	Elles II	CBL	K - (S - Ch - I)	20	
	Gubbio	FL? - CBL?	I - K - (I-S)	21	
Boreal Paratethys NE Atlantic	Gubbio	CBL	K - S - Ch - I - I-S	15	
	Petriccio	FL	S - (I - K)	18	
	Petriccio	CBL	I - S - (K)	18	
	Koshak	CBL	I - (S - K - Ch)	22	
	Basque-Cantabrian Basin	FL	I - (I-S - K - Ch)	18	
	Basque-Cantabrian Basin	CBL	I - Ch; I - I-S - K; I - I-S - Ch	17, 18	
	Stevens Klint	FL	S	23, 24, 25, 26	
	Stevens Klint	CBL	S - I-S - (I)	24, 25	
	S = smectite I = illite I-S = illite-smectite mixed layer Ch = chlorite K = kaolinite Ch-C = chlorite-corrensite mixed	EL = Ejecia Layer	5. Debrabant <i>et al.</i> (1999)	13. Pollastro & Bohor (1993)	21. Rappino & Reynolds (1983)
		FL = Fireball Layer	6. Pope <i>et al.</i> (1999)	14. Lerbekmo <i>et al.</i> (1987)	22. Pardo <i>et al.</i> (1999)
CBL = Clay Boundary Layer		7. Mata <i>et al.</i> (2001)	15. Robert & Chamley (1990)	23. Kastner <i>et al.</i> (1984)	
		8. Klaver <i>et al.</i> (1987)	16. Hsu <i>et al.</i> (1982)	24. Elliott <i>et al.</i> (1989)	
1. Izett <i>et al.</i> (1991)		9. Ohsson <i>et al.</i> (1997)	17. Ortega-Huertás <i>et al.</i> (1995)	25. Elliott (1993)	
2. Kring & Boynton (1991)		10. Martínez-Ruiz <i>et al.</i> (2001a)	18. Ortega-Huertás <i>et al.</i> (1998)	26. Bauluz <i>et al.</i> (2000)	

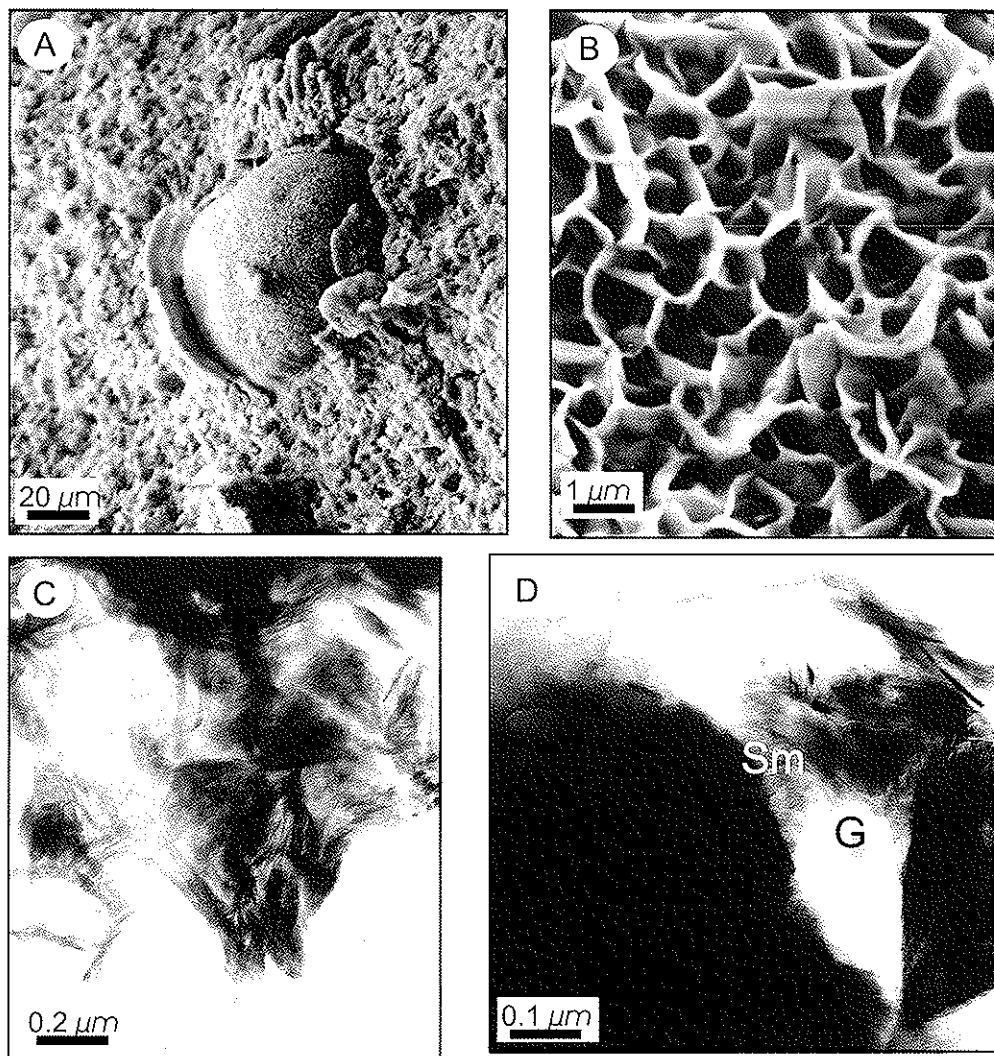


Fig. 2. Electron micrographs from Blake Nose (Site 1049) spherule bed. (a) SEM image of smectite spherule. (b) SEM higher-resolution micrograph of the smectite. (c) TEM micrograph of smectite. (d) TEM image of glass (G) altering to smectite (S).

impact-glass alteration (Izett *et al.*, 1991; Kring & Boynton, 1991; Koeberl & Sigurdsson, 1992). Soria *et al.* (2001) and Mata *et al.* (2001) have analysed the clay mineralogy of the ejecta layer in the El Tecolote section (NE Mexico) and report that chlorite is the main phyllosilicate, resulting from spherule alteration. Illite, illite-smectite mixed layers (I-S) and chlorite-corrensite mixed layers are also present in the matrix of the spherule layer. Chlorite in the spherules occurs as radial aggregates with individual defect-free crystals.

North American Margin. On the North American margin, the ejecta layer mostly consists of spherules composed of smectite (Fig. 2a,b,c). This smectite is derived from the diagenetic alteration of impact glass. At Blake Nose, different smectite compositions result from the alteration of dark-grey to pale-yellow spherules derived from different precursor glass types, which are richer in Fe and Ca, respectively. The alteration of Si-rich glass produces smectites richer in Fe, whereas the alteration of Ca-rich glass results in smectites richer in Ca. Trans-

electron microscope (TEM) analyses normalized to $O_{10}(OH)_2$, reported by Martínez-Ruiz *et al.* (2001a), revealed that smectite compositions are also variable within the same spherule. In dark green spherules, the composition is Si: 3.57–3.77; Al^{IV} : 0.23–0.43; Al^{VI} : 1.71–1.91; Mg: 0.41–0.53; Fe: 0.64–0.81; Ti: 0.03–0.04; K: 0.22–0.49; Ca: 0.00–0.03; and Na: 0.08–0.27. In pale yellow spherules, the composition is Si: 3.56–3.76; Al^{IV} : 0.24–0.44; Al^{VI} : 1.04–1.35; Mg: 0.39–0.50; Fe: 0.37–0.48; Ti: 0.00–0.03; K: 0.05–0.21; Ca: 0.00–0.11; and Na: 0.07–0.48. These authors report that smectite morphologies are similar to those of smectites originating from the alteration of volcanic glass, such as hair-like smectites. The mineralogy and morphologies of the Blake Nose spherules are similar to those reported by Klaver *et al.* (1987) from DSDP Hole 603B and by Olsson *et al.* (1997) from Bass River sections. All of these spherules represent the same diagenetically altered impact ejecta from the Chicxulub crater.

Western Interior of North America. In the non-marine sections of the Western Interior of North America, a two-layered clay unit (ejecta layer + fireball layer) recording mineralogical and textural evidence of a catastrophic event, is preserved. The lower claystone layer ('melt ejecta' – ejecta layer) is mainly kaolin minerals, derived from silicic glass formed from melted target rocks. Pollastro & Bohor (1993) noted the presence of submicrometer-sized spherules or spherulitic aggregates of halloysite in Raton Basin, Brownie Butte and Morgan Creek sections. The original vitric framework of the lower claystone layer at these sites has been completely altered to microspherulitic kaolin (Pollastro & Bohor, 1993). Larger spherules are often abundant in the lower claystone layer. Most of these are altered to kaolin minerals, but some are altered to the hydrated aluminophosphate minerals goyazite or florencite (Triplehorn & Bohor, 1983). The upper laminated layer (fireball layer) consists mostly of altered vitric dust and abundant shocked minerals. The fireball layer is mostly altered to smectite from a mafic glass condensed from the vaporized chondritic bolide, along with some kaolinite formed from blebs of melted silicic target material entrained in the vapour plume cloud during ejection (Pollastro & Bohor, 1993).

Mediterranean Domain. In the Agost, Caravaca, Petriccio, El Kef and Elles II sections in the Mediterranean Domain, the fireball layer consists of almost pure smectite with minor amounts of illite,

kaolinite and chlorite (Table 1). The smectite derives from the alteration of distal ejecta material (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1997; Smit, 1999). Orteg Huertas *et al.* (1998) reported the following fireball layer smectite composition normalized to $O_{10}(OH)_2$ obtained by TEM (standard deviation in parentheses): Agost section (average formula based on microanalyses) Si: 3.60 (0.01), Al^{IV} : 0.40 (0.0), Al^{VI} : 1.40 (0.03), Mg: 0.20 (0.05), Fe: 0.48 (0.0), Ti: 0.00, K: 0.35 (0.02), Ca: 0.05 (0.02); Caravaca section (average formula based on 49 analyses) Si: 3.66 (0.06), Al^{IV} : 0.34 (0.3), Al^{VI} : 1.50 (0.03), Mg: 0.21 (0.04), Fe: 0.38 (0.02), Ti: 0.03 (0.09), K: 0.0 (0.02), Ca: 0.00; Petriccio section (average formula based on 29 analyses) Si: 3.64 (0.04), Al^{IV} : 0.0 (0.02), Al^{VI} : 1.38 (0.03), Mg: 0.31 (0.02), Fe: 0.0 (0.02), Ti: 0.03 (0.01), K: 0.27 (0.01), Ca: 0.0 (0.02); and El Kef section (average formula based on 31 analyses) Si: 3.63 (0.06), Al^{IV} : 0.37 (0.0), Al^{VI} : 1.57 (0.03), Mg: 0.19 (0.03), Fe: 0.35 (0.0), Ti: 0.03 (0.02), K: 0.11 (0.01), Ca: 0.13 (0.02). The $(Al+Fe)/Mg$ ratio identifies these smectites as beidellite, belonging to the beidellite-nontronite series (following the chemical criterion of Cailliet *et al.* (1982): nontronite, $Fe^{3+} > 0.5$; beidellite, $Fe^{3+} < 0.5$). The smectite layer also contains abundant spherules ($200\text{--}400\text{ cm}^3$) diagenetically altered to K-feldspar or Fe oxide (mostly goethite) (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1997). The alteration of these spherules contributed to the increase in smectite in the fireball layer. In fact, the lower proportion of spherules in the Caravaca section relative to the Agost section indicates that the former has been almost totally altered, which would explain the greater proportion of smectite in the fireball layer of the Caravaca section. Smectite also derives from the alteration of the finest cosmic dust, which is the major contribution to distal ejecta deposits. In the Gubbio section, the boundary-layer clays contain fewer expandable minerals and have a composition apparently dominated by detrital illite and kaolinite (Rampino & Reynolds, 1983).

NE Atlantic. In the Basque-Cantabrian Basin, spherules are less abundant ($5\text{--}20\text{ cm}^3$) because the fireball layer is not as well preserved as in the Mediterranean sections due to tectonic deformation. Furthermore, the fact that smectite is not detected in the fireball layer of any of the Basque-Cantabrian sections may be a consequence of the extensive diagenetic evolution undergone by these sequences, as indicated by the presence of R1 I-S mixed-layer clays and even authigenic chlorite. However, the occurrence

sional presence of nontronite spherules in the Monte Urko and Biarritz sections could be proof of the existence of authigenic smectites originating from the submarine alteration of spherules (Ortega-Huertas *et al.*, 1998). Thus, the alteration of these spherules must have followed the same general pattern as in the Mediterranean Domain. At Stevens Klint (Denmark), Kastner *et al.* (1984) found that the fireball layer was made up exclusively of pure magnesian smectite ($(\text{Si}_{3.96}\text{Al}_{0.04})(\text{Al}_{1.29}\text{Fe}_{0.24}\text{Mg}_{0.69})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{n.d.}\text{Na}_{n.d.}\text{Ca}_{0.15})$ (n.d.: not determined), whereas illite, illite-smectite mixed layers and quartz are present in the sediments above and below the fireball layer. These authors proposed that the authigenic smectites originated from the alteration of glass spherules in a marine environment and at a low water/rock ratio. Elliott (1993) found Mg-smectite ($(\text{Si}_{4.01})(\text{Al}_{1.31}\text{Fe}_{0.13}\text{Mg}_{0.64})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.03}\text{Na}_{0.26}\text{Ca}_{0.11})$) in the FL (layer IIIa) at Stevens Klint, Nye Klov and Karlstrup Quarry. He suggests that the anomalous concentrations of siderophile elements in the Mg-smectite of the fireball layer could have been incorporated in the smectite by exchange with sea water enriched in these elements or with trace fine-grained minerals. The TEM studies by Bauluz *et al.* (2000) indicate that the smectite composition ($(\text{Si}_{3.86}\text{Al}_{0.14})(\text{Al}_{1.19}\text{Fe}_{0.17}\text{Mg}_{0.70})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.07}\text{Na}_{0.06}\text{Ca}_{0.35})$) of Stevens Klint is unusual in that it has been enriched in both octahedral Al and Mg. They also point out the existence of abundant 10–20 nm diameter Fe oxides with 10% Ni and minor Zn intergrown with smectite. They interpret these domains as altered meteorite fragments, which formed when impact glass was transformed to smectite (Bauluz *et al.*, 2000).

Clay boundary layer

At distal Mediterranean Domain and NE Atlantic marine sections, the K/T boundary is clearly marked by a lowermost Danian clay boundary layer, which resulted from the significant decrease in ocean productivity and was deposited above the fireball layer. The clay boundary layer represents a reduced sedimentation deposit and records the faunal crisis resulting from the impact event. It may also contain some extraterrestrial contamination (*cf.* fine glass particles, platinum group elements). As clay mineral associations are potentially sensitive to environmental modifications, including climatic change, erosion, tectonic activity,

variations in oceanic circulation, and diagenetic processes, (Chamley, 1989), they can, therefore, reflect the environmental conditions prevailing during deposition of the clay boundary layer.

Mediterranean Domain. The Mediterranean Domain sections are characterized by a smectite-kaolinite-illite association (Table 1), with smectite being the dominant mineral. Ortega-Huertas *et al.* (1998) reported the following average Danian smectite (up) and illite (down) compositions obtained by TEM:

Agost	$(\text{Si}_{3.57}\text{Al}_{0.43})(\text{Al}_{1.30}\text{Fe}_{0.52}\text{Mg}_{0.30})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.15})$ $(\text{Si}_{3.44}\text{Al}_{0.56})(\text{Al}_{1.18}\text{Fe}_{0.44}\text{Mg}_{0.26})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
Caravaca	$(\text{Si}_{3.69}\text{Al}_{0.31})(\text{Al}_{1.34}\text{Fe}_{0.50}\text{Mg}_{0.19})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.2})$ $(\text{Si}_{3.50}\text{Al}_{0.50})(\text{Al}_{1.56}\text{Fe}_{0.17}\text{Mg}_{0.17})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
Petriccio	$(\text{Si}_{3.61}\text{Al}_{0.39})(\text{Al}_{1.57}\text{Fe}_{0.42}\text{Mg}_{0.21})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.1})$ $(\text{Si}_{3.31}\text{Al}_{0.69})(\text{Al}_{1.69}\text{Fe}_{0.21}\text{Mg}_{0.21})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
El Kef	$(\text{Si}_{3.66}\text{Al}_{0.34})(\text{Al}_{1.54}\text{Fe}_{0.44}\text{Mg}_{0.19})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.1})$ $(\text{Si}_{3.26}\text{Al}_{0.74})(\text{Al}_{1.47}\text{Fe}_{0.63}\text{Mg}_{0.05})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$

From a mineralogical and chemical composition point of view, the clay mineral associations in the Mediterranean Domain sections is the same as in the uppermost Maastrichtian and lowermost Danian deposits (clay boundary layer). In the Agost and Caravaca sections (Betic Cordillera), the clay boundary layer smectites are detrital, inherited from the erosion of soils developed in surrounding areas. The source was most likely the Pre-Tertiary of the External Zones of the Betic Cordillera, under warm humid conditions, as indicated by the presence of Al-rich beidellite, their compositional similarity with smectites from recent soils and their fleecy-type morphology (Ortega-Huertas *et al.*, 1998). In addition, these smectites could be derived from the alteration of volcanic rocks, as indicated by the similarity in chemical composition with the smectites of this origin from other localities from this geological context (López Galindo *et al.*, 1998) and their lath-like micromorphology, which is not compatible with this interpretation (C

et al., 1985). Kaiho *et al.* (1999) reported an increase in the kaolinite/illite ratio in the lower part of the clay boundary layer in the Caravaca section and suggested a gradual increase in atmospheric temperature and rainfall in the low latitude Northern Hemisphere beginning between 0 and ~0.4 kyr after the boundary and lasting for >~3 kyr afterwards.

In the El Kef section, the large smectite and kaolinite contents and the extreme scarcity of illite and chlorite can be interpreted as evidence that soil derivation dominated over inheritance from crystalline rocks (Robert & Chamley, 1990; Ortega-Huertas *et al.*, 1998). Robert & Chamley (1990) reported a relative increase in kaolinite/smectite and illite/smectite ratios in the lower part of the clay boundary layer in this section, which can be explained by increased humidity, a sea-level fall, an uplift of the continental margin, or a rejuvenation of distant continental areas. Recently, Adatte *et al.* (2002) reported on the clay mineral assemblages of the clay boundary layer in different sections from Tunisia (El Kef, Elles I, Elles II, Seldja, El Melah, Ain Settara), with kaolinite being the most abundant clay mineral. Smectite, chlorite and illite are minor components in all sections, except in El Melah where smectite is absent probably due to post-depositional burial linked with increased tectonic activity. The kaolinite/smectite ratio increases in the clay boundary layer of the El Kef and Elles sections, indicating alternations between warm humid and seasonal temperate climate.

In the Petriccio section of Central Italy, the significant proportion of illite implies that, in addition to the inheritance of soil smectite and kaolinite, there was also erosion involving the crystalline rocks of the source area (Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1998). The clay mineral association in the clay boundary layer of the Gubbio section is characterized by detrital illite, kaolinite and small amounts of I-S mixed layers (Table 1), which could represent a minor volcanogenic component converted to smectite-illite by diagenesis, or it could be a terrigenous weathering product (Rampino & Reynolds, 1983). Robert & Chamley (1990) noted a clay mineral association of kaolinite-smectite-chlorite-illite-I-S mixed layers in this section. The increase in kaolinite contents together with rock-derived minerals just below the K/T boundary or in the K/T boundary layer itself is interpreted by these authors as resulting from active erosion due to either tectonic rejuvenation or sea-level drop.

NE Atlantic. In the clay boundary layer of the Basque-Cantabrian Basin sections, Ortega-Huertas *et al.* (1995, 1998) reported diverse clay-mineral associations [(illite-chlorite in the Monte Urko section; illite-R1 I-S mixed-layer-kaolinite in the Sopelana, Biarritz and Hendaye sections; and illite-R1 I-S mixed-layer-chlorite in the Zumaya section (Table 1)] and the following chemical compositions for illite:

Monte Urko	$(\text{Si}_{3.31}\text{Al}_{0.69})(\text{Al}_{1.63}\text{Fe}_{0.21}\text{Mg}_{0.20})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.9}\text{Ti}_{0.1})$
Sopelana	$(\text{Si}_{3.26}\text{Al}_{0.74})(\text{Al}_{1.27}\text{Fe}_{0.15}\text{Mg}_{0.69}\text{Ti}_{0.15})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.9}\text{Ti}_{0.1})$
Biarritz	$(\text{Si}_{3.31}\text{Al}_{0.69})(\text{Al}_{1.71}\text{Fe}_{0.22}\text{Mg}_{0.20}\text{Ti}_{0.02})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.9}\text{Ti}_{0.1})$
Hendaye	$(\text{Si}_{3.20}\text{Al}_{0.80})(\text{Al}_{1.76}\text{Fe}_{0.22})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{1.1}\text{Ti}_{0.1})$
Zumaya	$(\text{Si}_{3.34}\text{Al}_{0.66})(\text{Al}_{1.74}\text{Fe}_{0.30}\text{Mg}_{0.17}\text{Ti}_{0.02})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.9}\text{Ti}_{0.1})$

These compositions correspond to detrital mica close to or in some cases coinciding with muscovite (Hendaye section), with a significant phengite trend in the Zumaya and Sopelana sections. With regard to the R1 I-S mixed layers, an homogeneous chemical composition can be inferred from the $\text{Si}^{\text{tet}}/\text{Al}^{\text{tet}}$ vs. (K+Ca) varying from 1.5 to 2.5 and 0.3 to 0.66, respectively. Where present, detrital chlorite is not a very abundant mineral in the clay boundary layer of these sections. Its composition mostly corresponds to chamosite (Fe: 1.87–2.2 a.p.f.u.; Mg: 0.95–1.57 a.p.f.u.) showing chemical characteristics representative of contamination by corrensite or smectite interlayers, high Si content (2.50–3.05 a.p.f.u.), and Al^{VI} contents (1.73–2.2 a.p.f.u.) much higher than Al^{IV} contents (0.95–1.1 a.p.f.u.), and a total octahedral population much lower than 6 cations a.p.f.u. (5.24–5.71) (Ortega Huertas *et al.*, 1998). These authors proposed that the micas and chlorite in the Basque-Cantabrian Basin are detrital, derived from the erosion of rock substrata, whereas kaolinite is inherited from soil that developed in the warm and humid climate that prevailed in peri-Atlantic domains during the Cretaceous and most of the Tertiary (Chamley *et al.*, 1989). The abundance of kaolinite in the Sopelana, Biarritz and Hendaye sections is a consequence of the relative proximity of emergent areas exposed to erosion which, according to Mathey (1988), could have been located nearby on the eastern and western platforms of the Cantabrian Sea. In general, as proposed by Ortega-Huertas *et al.*

(1995), clay sedimentation in the Basque-Cantabrian Basin was controlled by tectonic processes occurring during the Maastrichtian and basal Danian that were responsible for the supply of illite (with a clear increasing trend in the basal clay boundary layer) and chlorite and the absence of detrital smectites. The presence of significant amounts of R1 I-S mixed layers in the Sopelana and Zumaya sections and, to a lesser extent, at Biarritz and Hendaye could be the result of burial diagenesis, which would explain the absence of smectite as an independent mineral phase in these sections. This interpretation agrees with that of Aróstegui *et al.* (1991) and Nieto *et al.* (1996) for other sequences of the Basque-Cantabrian Basin.

The clay mineralogy of the clay boundary layer (layer IIIb, Schmitz, 1985) at Stevns Klint is dominated by Mg-smectite. It was deposited above the red-rust layer referred to as the 'impact layer' (fireball layer). Its composition is similar to the Danian marl from the Dania Quarry (Mg-smectite-I-S mixed-layer-illite) and to the clay mineralogy reported for Maastrichtian marl at Kjolby Gaard (Rampino & Reynolds, 1983).

Boreal Paratethys. According to Pardo *et al.* (1999), at the time of the K/T boundary, the Koshak section (Fig. 1a) was located on a relatively shallow open marine platform. The most common clay mineral is illite, which varies between 50 and 85%. Just above the K/T boundary, smectite and kaolinite show a slight increase. The overall high illite contents are consistent with a generally cool high-latitude climate for the Koshak region, with low humidity but high physical erosion. The increase in the smectite or kaolinite/chlorite + illite ratio suggests short warm periods at or just above the K/T boundary.

Southeastern Atlantic (Walvis Ridge) and Southern Ocean (Maud Ridge). Hsü *et al.* (1982) and Robert & Chamley (1990) report on the clay mineral associations across the K/T boundary in the Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 1). On the Walvis Ridge, the boundary occurs in a background of active tectonics. In contrast, no significant tectonic activity was recorded in the Maud Rise area. At both Walvis Ridge (DSDP Leg 73 Site 524) and Maud Ridge (ODP Leg 113 Sites 689-690), the clay fraction just above the K/T boundary (clay boundary layer) is characterized by an important increase in smectite. At both of these areas, no significant influence of extraterrestrial material has been reported. On Walvis Ridge (DSDP Leg 73 Site

524) the boundary occurs in marly turbidite characterized by an abrupt decrease in Fe content. The clay composition of the clay boundary layer is mainly Fe-smectite. There is no significant change in the clay association below and above the clay boundary layer (Hsü *et al.*, 1982). On Maud Ridge (DSDP Leg 74 Sites 525-529), an increase in kaolinite is also observed in the clay boundary layer, which could indicate a period of increased temperature and humidity (Robert & Chamley, 1990). These authors, however, consider that kaolinite is essentially derived from the erosion of a rocky substrate on the basis of its association with illite and chlorite. The increase in smectite percentage just above the K/T boundary represents the higher supply of volcanic smectite from nearby subaerially exposed volcanics. The presence of broken particles of volcanic smectite, mixed with smectite from other sources, suggests that the increase in volcanogenic material at the clay boundary layer is not directly related to increased volcanic activity, but rather results from reworking. Tectonic instability at Maud Rise (ODP Leg 113 Sites 689 and 690) could not explain the increased erosion of volcanic smectite, which could account for the increase in soil-derived minerals (illite, kaolinite).

North American Margin. In the Black Sea section, the lowermost Danian deposits are characterized by high calcite contents (85%) and a clay boundary layer, such as that recognized in the most distal marine sections. In the interval just above the K/T boundary, the clay mineral associations are dominated by inherited smectite (70-85%) and minor quantities of illite (~5%) and kaolinite (~5-10%). The TEM analysis of Martínez-Ruiz *et al.* (2001c) revealed the following compositional range for this smectite: $(\text{S}_{0.10-0.12-0.64})(\text{Al}_{1.18-1.72}\text{Fe}_{0.19-0.46}\text{Mg}_{0.01-0.10}\text{OH})_2(\text{K}_{0.06-0.24}\text{Ca}_{0.00-0.10}\text{Na}_{n.d.})$ (n.d.: not determined). Its beidellite nature is conclusive, indicating a pedogenic origin and, therefore, indicates relatively warm and hydrolysing continental conditions just above the K/T boundary.

DIAGENETIC ALTERATION AND PRESERVATION OF PRECURSOR MATERIAL

The sedimented impact-generated material (target-rock derived and cosmic dust, as well as Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments, has been subjected to significant diagenetic alteration

may have led, in many cases, to a severe modification of the original geochemical signatures and indicators of palaeo-depositional conditions at 65 Ma. Nonetheless, when carefully evaluated, distinctive proxies can be inferred for palaeoenvironmental reconstructions for that period. For this purpose, an evaluation of the diagenetic processes and alteration of original phases is required to determine the precursor minerals. In the K/T boundary sediments, the classic indicators for extraterrestrial contamination, such as impact glasses and microkrystites, are usually altered and the original material has been replaced by secondary diagenetic phases. Original trace-element concentrations, such as those of the platinum group elements (PGE) or rare earth elements (*REE*), have also been modified as a result of diagenetic alteration. The discrimination of original *vs.* diagenetic signatures, therefore, needs to be addressed to establish if the geochemical evidence supporting an extraterrestrial event exists.

Alteration of impact glasses and microkrystites.

The K/T boundary spherules are restricted to the ejecta layer and fireball layer. Two main types of impact spherules have been reported, which occur in different strewn fields (*cf.* Bohor & Betterton, 1990; Smit *et al.*, 1992; Bohor & Glass, 1995).

One type, restricted to the ejecta layer, is interpreted as originally being composed of target-rock melt glass, with a radial distribution around the impact crater in the Caribbean area (*cf.* Smit *et al.*, 1992). Although several authors have referred to these glass spherules as 'tektites' or 'microtektites', some of them may differ from 'tektites', which are generally chemically homogeneous on a 10–100 µm scale, are almost water-free and may show signs of glass flow (*cf.* Koeberl, 1990). In this paper, we use the term impact glass, according to Koeberl & Sigurdson (1992), in reference to spherules from the ejecta layer. The original impact-generated glass is expected to be compositionally variable since it was only briefly molten and there was not enough time for mixing and homogenization of the composition (*cf.* Alvarez *et al.*, 1992). This resulted in different compositions of impact glasses (*cf.* black andesitic glass and honey-coloured CaO-rich glass from Haiti, Sigurdsson *et al.*, 1991; Koeberl & Sigurdsson, 1992), and also in different smectite compositions within the ejecta layer of some sections, *cf.* Blake Nose (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2001a). However, the end-mineral phase product of alteration of the original glass mostly

depends on local diagenetic conditions and differs from place to place, i.e. smectite or chlorite (Gulf of Mexico, North American Margin), or kaolinite (Western Interior of North America) (Table 1).

At Blake Nose ODP Site 1049 (North American Margin), TEM observations show glass relict smectite spherules (Fig. 2d) and Martínez-Ruiz *et al.* (2001a) reported smectite growing from the Si-rich glass. These observations also reveal palygorskite forming from a smectite precursor. Zeolites (clinoptilolite) originate from the diagenetic reaction involving glass alteration. Both minerals indicate a high-silica source and alkaline conditions which favour the precipitation of chain-structured silicates. A Ca-rich glass precursor is also implied by the composition of yellow spherules from this section, which agrees with the geochemistry of the above-mentioned Haitian impact glasses and the pre-impact stratigraphy at the Chicxulub region (Kring & Boynton, 1991). Despite alteration, the composition of clays derived from the original glass is still informative and provides evidence of the precursor material. In the El Tecolote section, Martínez-Ruiz *et al.* (2001) suggested that the high diagenetic grade resulted in the complete alteration of Si-rich glass to chloritic. In contrast, in the Western Interior of North America, Pollastro & Bohor (1993) reported that silicic impact glasses were probably altered to kaolinite in the acidic, organic carbon-rich waters of ancient peat swamps.

The second type of spherules which have a quench-crystal texture, are confined to the fireball layer, are globally distributed, and are referred to as microkrystites (Glass & Burns, 1987; Smit *et al.*, 1992). These microkrystites may or may not be altered; in most cases, they are altered to authigenic phases whose composition varies from section to section. For instance, in sections from the Italian Apennines, they are altered to K-feldspar, smectite, glauconite and goethite (Montanari, 1991). In the Zumaya (Basque-Cantabrian Basin), they are altered to pyrite, in Agost (Betic Cordillera) to Fe oxides and K-feldspar, and in Caravaca (Betic Cordillera) to K-feldspar (*cf.* Smit *et al.*, 1992; Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1997). When altered, the mineral composition of such authigenic phases does not represent direct evidence of the precursor material, since the local Eh and pH conditions seem to be the main factor controlling the diagenetic product. However, quench/fibroradial textures and morphologies provide evidence of their extraterrestrial origin. Moreover, K-feldspar

spherules from the Agost and Caravaca sections contain C-rich cores enriched in Ir, Pt, Pd and Ni that could represent a relict of the extraterrestrial material (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1997). Unaltered clinopyroxene microkrystites were recovered at Shastky Rise in the Pacific (Smit *et al.*, 1992). Based on the mafic composition of the C-rich cores of K-feldspar spherules, Martínez-Ruiz *et al.* (1997) suggest that the original precursor must have had a mafic composition. In any case, the composition of the microkrystites may depend on the place where they originated in the ejected vapour cloud and oxygen fugacity (*cf.* Smit *et al.*, 1992). A mafic composition for the fireball layer precursor material has also been proposed by Pollastro & Bohor (1993) for the Western Interior of North America sections. Here, the fireball layer was mostly altered to smectite, in contrast to the ejecta layer, which was altered to kaolinite. Acidic and organic carbon-rich waters in these peat swamps would have favoured the alteration to kaolinite. Thus, the compositional differences for material deposited in similar environments may reflect a silicic *vs.* mafic precursor. The smectite composition of the fireball layer in the most distal sections, such as those from Tunisia, Agost and Caravaca, also indicate that an original mafic composition may have influenced the end diagenetic product. In these sections, smectite resulted from the alteration of the finest cosmic dust and probably from the progressive alteration of microkrystites.

Alteration of primary geochemical signatures.

The diagenetic processes involving the alteration of the impact-generated material also led to a severe modification of the original chemical composition. Since Ir and other PGE have traditionally been used to support the extraterrestrial contribution theory, PGE concentrations should be considered on the basis of an accurate evaluation of diagenetic processes. In fact, differences in PGE concentrations in sections, such as Agost and Caravaca (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1992, 1999), located at a short distance from each other and assumed to have had similar contributions of the impact-generated material, may have resulted from different diagenetic evolutions of the original ejecta layer material. Different proxies such as extensive pyrite formation or elevated authigenic uranium concentrations indicate very strong reducing conditions at the Agost section, which may have resulted in Ir remobilization and, therefore, lower Ir content at the Agost than in the Caravaca section.

Furthermore, the elevated PGE and other elements in the clay boundary layer from Agost and Caravaca may also have resulted from partial diagenetic remobilization (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1999).

Another important effect of the diagenetic alteration of the impact-generated material is the significant *REE* depletion in the ejecta layer and fireball layer relative to overlying and underlying sediments. Initially, the low *REE* content in the boundary materials was explained as a result of impact in oceanic crust (*cf.* Smit & ten Kate, 1987; Hildebrand & Boynton, 1987). Nevertheless, remobilization during diagenesis has been proposed (*cf.* Taylor & McLennan, 1988). Izett *et al.* (1992) demonstrated, comparing impact glass cores and smectite alteration rims, that *REE* remobilization could explain the low *REE* abundances. Blake *et al.* (1999) suggested that *REE* may not reflect the composition of the precursor material. However, certain *REE* patterns could be informative. Thus, at the Blake Nose, *REE* patterns are similar to those from upper crustal rocks and to those from Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1999) and, despite alteration and depleted concentrations, the *Cl*-normalized patterns are indicative of a mafic rock origin. Koeberl & Sigurdsson (1998) reported *REE* *Cl*-normalized patterns from microkrystites derived from Haitian impact glasses, which are almost flat. Such patterns are not recognized at the Blake Nose, where *REE* *Cl*-normalized patterns still indicate the target-rock derivation of the fireball layer.

At the most distal sections, the *REE* *Cl*-normalized patterns from the fireball material indicate significant *REE* depletion (Fig. 10; Ortega-Huertas *et al.*, 1998). At the Agost and Caravaca sections, the *REE* *Cl*-normalized patterns of individual microkrystites are essentially flat and do not differ significantly from those of the surrounding Cretaceous and Tertiary sediments (Fig. 10; Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 1999). Although diagenetic processes may have been an important controlling factor, the *REE* concentrations, variable patterns and depletion support the suggestion of a different nature of the original material, and are consistent with the probable mafic composition of the fireball layer precursor.

In summary, a proper evaluation of the composition of the boundary materials is essential to assess the extraterrestrial contribution, as well as to discriminate original and secondary signatures. Non-

tion of extraterrestrial fluxes should be based solely on altered geochemical records.

CONCLUSIONS

The detailed analysis of the K/T boundary clay-mineral associations permits differentiation between: (1) the ejecta layer, with a major contribution of target-rock material deposited around the Chicxulub crater; (2) the fireball layer, which is well preserved at more distal sections and represents the cosmic dust dispersed and deposited globally; and (3) the lowermost Danian clay layer, which was deposited under a decrease in ocean productivity after the impact event.

Smectite is the main clay mineral in the ejecta layer in the Gulf of Mexico, except in the El Tecolote section where chlorite is the predominant phyllosilicate, and in the North American Margin sections. In the Western Interior of North America, kaolinite is the main clay mineral. All of these clay minerals were produced by the diagenetic alteration of target-rock-derived materials. At Blake Nose, the alteration of Si-rich glass produced smectites richer in Fe, whereas alteration of Ca-rich glass resulted in smectites richer in Ca.

The fireball layer mainly consists of smectite derived from the alteration of microkrystites and the finest fraction, which contains a major contribution of extraterrestrial material. In the Mediterranean Domain, the smectite belongs to the beidellite-nontronite series. At Stevens Klint section, the fireball layer was exclusively made up of pure magnesian smectite. Anomalous concentrations of typical extraterrestrial elements in the smectitic fireball layer support the cosmic contribution. In the Basque-Cantabrian Basin, smectite is not preserved as a consequence of the considerable diagenetic evolution. The main clay mineral association is dominated by illite with minor quantities of RI I-S mixed-layer-kaolinite-chlorite.

The clay boundary layer represents a reduced sedimentation deposit and the clay mineral associations depend on the local environmental conditions such as climatic change, erosion, tectonic activity and diagenetic processes. In the Betic Cordillera, Tunisian and Denmark sections, this layer is mainly composed of smectite inherited from the erosion of soils developed in surrounding areas and/or derived from the alteration of volcanic rocks. The increase of kaolinite content in the clay boundary layer from the Caravaca and Tunisian sections could indicate

enhanced temperature and rainfall at this time. In the Italian Apennines and in the Basque-Cantabrian Basin sections, diverse clay mineral associations are present, mostly dominated by illite.

The alteration of impact-generated materials (impact glasses, microkrystites and fine fraction) to clay minerals involved a significant modification of original signatures. However, the mineral and chemical compositions of the alteration products can still provide information on the nature of the precursors. For example, the smectite composition of the fireball layer has been cited as evidence of the mafic character of the progenitor. The composition of the smectite at Blake Nose can also be related to different types of glass precursors. In addition, the REE Cl-normalized patterns support the terrestrial nature of the parent rocks. Moreover, the enrichment in extraterrestrial elements, such as Ni, in smectites from the fireball layer provides further evidence for the extraterrestrial contribution in this layer.

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