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1 Origin of the Gypsum Veins Associated with the Diagenetic Dolomite Nodules from the

- 2 Neogene Marls of South-East Spain.
- 3

4 Catherine Pierre¹ and Jean-Marie Rouchy²

5 1 LOCEAN-IPSL, CNRS-IRD-MNHN, Sorbonne Université, 4 Place Jussieu, 75252 Paris
6 Cedex 05, France

7 catherine.pierre@locean.upmc.fr

8 2 Géologie, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, 43 rue Buffon, 75005, Paris, France

9

10 Abstract

11 The late Neogene marls from the Lorca, Murcia and Vera basins in S-E. Spain contain 12 abundant dolomite nodules that were formed due to intense methane-rich fluid migration. The 13 pathways for these fluids are evidenced by dense networks of fractures that are crossing the 14 sedimentary layers and eventually the dolomite nodules. The fractures are generally filled by 15 secondary fibrous gypsum that form veins of a few cm thick.

16 The oxygen and sulfur isotopic compositions of the gypsum veins exhibit wide 17 ranges (-2.2 < δ^{18} O% VSMOW < 6.7 ; -22.3 < δ^{34} S% VCDT < 10.5) that are far away from 18 the average δ values of Tortonian-Messinian gypsum from the basins of Lorca, Fortuna and Sorbas ($\delta^{18}O = 13.8 \pm 2.3\%$; $\delta^{34}S = 21.3 \pm 1.0\%$) precipitated from the late Neogene 19 20 seawater sulfate. These low δ values of the gypsum veins clearly indicate their diagenetic origin that would have resulted from sulfide oxidation with ¹⁸O-depleted water. The isotopic 21 22 compositions of the diagenetic dolomite nodules close to the gypsum veins (-0.7 \leq δ^{18} O% VPDB < 3.7; -11.9 < δ^{13} C% VPDB < 7.3) are indicative of their formation in 23 24 methane-rich fluids. In this context, the formation of sulfide is related to the bacterial sulfate 25 reduction that is associated with the anaerobic oxidation of methane. During this process, 26 pyrite coprecipitated with dolomite, either within the dolomite framework or within conduits 27 where the fluids were seeping. The pyrite oxidation occurred later during diagenesis when 28 more or less oxygenated groundwaters circulated within the fractures during the sealevel

drawdown of the Messinian Salinity Crisis and after the regional uplift of the sedimentarydeposits in relation with the Betic cordillera tectonics.

31 1. Introduction

32 The Tortonian, Messinian and lower Pliocene marls outcropping in S.E. Spain basins 33 are predominantly located in the internal zone of the Betic cordillera (Murcia, Aledo, Lorca, 34 Sorbas, Huercal Overa, Albox, Vera) or at the transition between the internal and external 35 zones (Fortuna) (Fig. 1). They contain abundant authigenic dolomite nodules. Previous 36 studies of these authigenic carbonates (Pierre and Rouchy, 2004; Pierre et al., 2002, 2015, 37 2018) have shown that they were precipitated within the marly sediments due to circulation of 38 fluids of various origin and composition that are recorded by the large variability of the 39 isotopic values (-7.9 < δ^{18} O% VPDB < 6.3; -35.5 < δ^{13} C% VPDB < 9.8). These authigenic 40 carbonates are thus considered as archives of the past history of fluid migration during at least 41 11 Ma. During this long period where major paleoenvironmental and tectonic changes 42 occurred in the Mediterranean domain (the successive tectonic events from the formation of 43 the Neogene basins up to their final uplift, the Messinian salinity crisis), these fluids were 44 largely modified by different processes: gas hydrate formation/dissociation, clay minerals dehydration, evaporitic brines, deep-warm fluids, anaerobic oxidation of methane, 45 46 methanogenesis.

47 In some places the sedimentary series containing the dolomite nodules are intensely 48 faulted and the veins are often infilled with secondary gypsum (Fig. 2A). Secondary gypsum 49 may also occur around and within the dolomite nodules (Figs. 2B, C, D, E). Similar 50 occurrences of dolomite nodules related to diagenesis with methane-rich fluids have also been 51 described in many outcrops, e.g.: the Eocene of North-East Spain (Hoareau et al., 2008), the 52 late Neogene of Northern Apennines and Piedmont in Italy (Dela Pierre et al, 2010; Oppo et 53 al., 2017), the Miocene of New Zealand (Nyman et al., 2010), the Miocene of California 54 (Aiello et al., 2001). These dolomite structures are sometimes associated with secondary veins 55 of celestite, barite and calcite but never with secondary gypsum veins.

In the geological context of the S.E. Spain basins during Neogene, the possible relationship of the secondary gypsum veins with the Tortonian-Messinian evaporites, either by circulation of sulfate-rich solutions issued from dissolution of gypsum deposits or from connate brines, might be questionned. The determination of the origin of the secondary gypsum veins by oxygen and sulfur stable isotopes (δ^{18} O and δ^{34} S) would thus provide the clue to bring a better knowledge of the composition and origin of the fluids that were
circulating either within the fault networks or percolating through the microfractures and
porosity of the sediments.

64 2. Geological background

65 The Betic Cordillera constitutes the northern arm of the Betic-Rifian arcuate belt, which 66 is the westernmost part of the Alpine orogen issued from the collision of the African and 67 Eurasian plates. It is usually divided into an external zone composed of deformed Mesozoic to 68 Tertiary sediments initially deposited on the southern margin of Iberia and an Internal Zone 69 made of a pile of nappes composed of Paleozoic to Mesozoic rocks affected by different 70 degrees of metamorphism (Fig. 1). The Albox, Vera, Lorca and Murcia basins where the 71 studied samples have been collected, belong to a complex system of interconnected 72 intramontane basins that formed after the cessation of the westward drift of the Internal Zones 73 that occurred towards the end of the middle Miocene, and in relation with the development of 74 SW-NE strike-slip fault zones as the Alhama de Murcia faults which extend from Huercal 75 Overa to Alicante and the Palomares faults located in the Almeria-Vera area (Montenat et al., 76 1987; de Larouzière et al., 1988; Sanz de Galdeano, 1990, 1992) (Fig.1). The most common 77 characteristic of these basins was the intense subsidence with high sedimentation rates during 78 the Tortonian. However, their paleogeography and sedimentary settings evolved differently 79 until the Quaternary under a complex control involving not only the variation of activity of 80 these fault systems under a predominantly compressional regime with episodes of distension 81 (Sanz de Galdeano, 1990; Sanz de Galdeano and Vera, 1992), but also their position within 82 the organisation of the Betic substrate and their proximity to the deep central Mediterranean 83 Basin. Accordingly, the major subsidence and the final uplift ending by the withdrawal of the 84 sea may differ strongly from a basin to another.

85 In the Vera and Murcia basins, which occupied the more proximal position with regard 86 to the deep Mediterranean, marine conditions persisted through the whole Tortonian until the 87 early Pliocene (Fig. 3). The Messinian Salinity Crisis impacted directly these two basins with 88 deposition of gypsum in the eastern part of the Murcia Basin (San Miguel de Salinas area) and 89 in the Vera Basin where it has been removed as a megabreccia during the final drawdown of 90 the Mediterranean sea level responsible, in the two basins, for an important erosional surface at the Messinian/Zanclean transition (Montenat et al., 1976, 1977; Pierre et al., 2006; Corbí et 91 92 al., 2016; Caruso et al., 2020) (Fig. 3). In the Albox basin located at the SW end of the

93 Alhama de Murcia fault system, marine deposition ceased at the end of Tortonian in response 94 to tectonic uplift, the last Messinian marine deposits being known only in the nearby Huercal Overa basin to the east (Guerra-Merchán and Serrano, 1993; [SEP] Meijninger and Vissers, 2006; 95 96 Pedrera et al., 2010). The Lorca basin close to the boundary with the External Zones had a 97 more complex sedimentary evolution. It underwent an earlier marine restriction during late 98 Tortonian/early Messinian responsible for the deposition of a sequence composed of silicified 99 dolostones grading upward into an organic-rich diatomite-bearing unit and finally to an 100 evaporitic (gypsum and salt) unit (Rouchy et al., 1998; Krijgsman et al., 2006; Playà et al., 101 2000), (Figs. 2F, 3).

- 102 2. Material and methods
- 103 2.1 Gypsum veins

104 In the basins of Murcia, Lorca, Vera, Albox, as in most of the other basins, the 105 dolomite nodules are associated to secondary gypsum that exhibits a wide range of size, 106 morphologies and distribution through the marls and the nodules. These gypsum occurrences 107 commonly appear as veins cm to dm in thickness and up to several meters of length that cut 108 the marls perpendicularly, obliquely or more or less conformably to the bedding of the host 109 sediment and making sometimes a dense network (Fig. 2A). The gypsum veins may also cut 110 irregularly the nodules themselves or form an external envelope around them (Figs. 2B, C, D). 111 Locally, a nodule is crossed by a polygonal network of fissures looking like septarian cracks 112 (Fig. 2B). The gypsum may also display micronodular shapes disseminated within the 113 carbonate nodules or aggregates of larger selenitic crystals, several cm in size filling the 114 central part of nodules (Fig. 2E). In the Lorca basin, the stratigraphic interval containing the 115 nodules ends with a succession of well-stratified beds several dm-thick of opal-CT rich 116 dolostones intercalated with gypsum veins associated with alunite [(Na,K) Al₃ (SO₄)₂ (OH)₆] 117 occurences (Fig. 2F).

Eight gypsum samples were collected in the marly deposits that contain also abundant authigenic dolomite nodules, from the late Neogene (Late Tortonian to early Pliocene) of the basins of Lorca, Albox, Murcia and Vera (Table 1). In the Murcia Basin, two sets of samples were collected in the early/middle Tortonian (ES 16.125, ES 16.126, ES 16.127) and near the Tortonian/Messinian transition (ES 17.45, ES 17.46, ES 17.64) along the road between Cabezo de la Plata and Los Ginovinos (Fig. 3). In the Vera basin, the samples come from the early Pliocene (Zanclean) marls located near the Vera graveyard, and at Albox from Tortonian levels in the Olleres oucrops (Fig. 3). In the Lorca Basin, the samples were taken into interval of dolomitic nodules and cherty dolostones and in the overlying organic-rich deposits of the diatomite-bearing unit that crop out in the La Serrata section at the transition between the Tortonian marine marls and the massive gypsum unit (Fig. 3). The gypsum samples generally exhibit fibrous satin-spar lithofacies where the gypsum crystals are oriented perpendicular to the walls of the veins (Rouchy et al., 1994). This facies is characteristic of secondary precipitation of gypsum from circulation of saturated solutions in open fractures.

132 Prior to stable isotope analyses, gypsum was converted to BaSO₄ following the 133 classical procedure described by Longinelli and Craig (1967). Gypsum was dissolved in 134 acidified dionized water; the resulting solution was then filtered (0.8 μ m), heated and barium 135 sulfate was precipitated by adding a 1N-BaCl₂ solution. The BaSO₄ precipitate was finally 136 filtered, rinced with deionized water and dried in an oven at 90°C. Oxygen isotope analyses 137 were conducted on a ThermoScientific Delta V Advantage IRMS at LOCEAN, Sorbonne 138 Université, Paris. The IRMS is coupled with a Conflo IV interface and Flash-EA2000 139 (Thermal Conversion Elemental Analyzer Unit) where pyrolysis (at 1400°C) and combustion 140 (at 1050°C) produce CO and SO₂ for oxygen and sulfur isotopic analyses, respectively. For 141 pyrolysis, about 150µg of BaSO₄ plus 1 mg of AgCl (Boschetti and Iacumin, 2005) are 142 weighted and pressed in a silver capsule. For combustion, about 250µg of BaSO₄ plus 1 mg 143 of V_2O_5 are weighted and pressed in a tin capsule.

144 The δ^{18} O and δ^{34} S values were calibrated using the IAEA international references 145 [(NBS 127 : δ^{18} O = +8.5±0.2‰ VSMOW, Boschetti and Iacumin, 2005; δ^{34} S = +21.2 146 ±0.2‰ VCDT, Halas and Szaran, 2001), (S1 : δ^{34} S = -0.3‰ VCDT), (S2 : δ^{34} S = +22.7‰ 147 VCDT), (S3 : δ^{34} S = -32.3‰ VCDT)].

148 The oxygen and sulfur isotopic compositions are expressed in the δ notation :

149 $\delta = (R \text{ sample/R reference} - 1) \times 1000$

where $R = {}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ or ${}^{34}S/{}^{32}S$ in the sample and in the reference, using the international reference VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water) and VCDT (Vienna Cañon Diablo Troilite) for $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{34}S$ measurements respectively. The analytical precision is $\pm 0.2\%$ for $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{34}S$ measurements.

154 2.2 Dolomite nodules

The dolomite nodules associated to the gypsum veins exhibit the common facies of rounded to elongated massive compact bodies, which diameter generally of a few decimeters may reach up to more than one meter (Figs. 2 B, C, D, E). The bulk mineralogy of the nodules was determined by XRD and was completed by SEM observations of the morphology and composition of the crystals (Fig. 4).

160 The oxygen and carbon isotopic compositions of dolomites were determined on the 161 bulk powdered samples. A fraction of about 100 to 200 µg was reacted at 90°C with 162 orthophosphoric acid using a multicarb system coupled with a dual inlet isotopic ratio mass 163 spectrometer (DI IRMS) VG Isoprime. The δ^{18} O values reported in Table 1 were corrected for 164 the phosphoric acid fractionation at 90°C (Rosenbaum and Shepard (1986). The analytical 165 precision 2σ is 0.01% and the reproducibility is $\pm 0.2\%$ for both δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values.

166 The oxygen and carbon isotopic compositions are expressed in the δ notation where R = 167 ${}^{18}\text{O}/{}^{16}\text{O}$ or ${}^{13}\text{C}/{}^{12}\text{C}$ in the sample and in the reference, using the international reference VPDB 168 (Vienna Peedee Belemnitella) defined by Craig (1957) and revised by Gonfiantini et al. 169 (1995).

170 3. Results

171 3.1 Gypsum veins

172 The microscopic SEM observations of gypsum veins show their internal fabrics where 173 the gypsum crystals exhibit generally platy and fibrous habits (Figs. 4A, B) and include 174 numerous sedimentary particles (detrital silicates, coccolites, calcite and dolomite aggregates) 175 that were cemented during gypsum precipitation. The sedimentary inclusions also contain 176 previous pyrite structures of framboids and octahedra, that are still present but as oxidized Fe-177 products (Figs. 4C, D, E, F). These occurrences confirm that bacterial sulfate reduction was 178 responsible for pyrite formation during early diagenesis when methane-rich fluids circulated 179 within the sedimentary matrix. Further circulation of oxygenated waters through the 180 sedimentary deposits led to pyrite oxidation that was converted to Fe-oxy-hydroxides and 181 produced sulfate-rich acid solutions from which carbonates were dissolved and gypsum was 182 precipitated. Calcite and dolomite dissolution is evidenced by numerous holes within the 183 crystals (Fig. 4F)

The δ¹⁸O and δ³⁴S values of the gypsum veins (Table 1; Fig. 5) vary in large ranges (-2.2< δ¹⁸O‰ VSMOW< 6.7; -22.3 < δ³⁴S‰ VCDT< 10.5). The highest δ³⁴S value is measured in the gypsum of Lorca that is associated with alunite. However, all these values are much lower than those of the Tortonian-Messinian marine gypsum from the SE Spain basins of Sorbas, Lorca and Fortuna (δ¹⁸O = 13.8 ± 2.3‰ VSMOW; δ³⁴S = 21.3 ± 1.0‰VCDT; Evans et al., 2015; Garcia-Veigas et al., 2019).

190 3.2 Dolomite nodules

The SEM observations (Figs. 6A, B, C, D) reveal that the dolomite rhombs are always associated with pyrite (mostly as framboids) that may be preserved or oxidized. In some cases, dolomite rhombs show numerous cavities that correspond probably to dissolved pyrite that was included within the dolomite crystals (Fig. 6B).

195 The δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of the dolomite nodules (Table 1, Fig. 7) vary also in wide 196 ranges (-0.7 < δ^{18} O‰ VPDB < 3.7 ; -11.9 < δ^{13} C‰ VPDB < 7.3) that display distinct groups 197 between Vera (with the lowest δ^{13} C values), Murcia and Lorca (with the lowest δ^{18} O values 198 and the highest δ^{13} C values) and Albox (with the highest δ^{18} O values).

199 4. Discussion

The precipitation of the authigenic minerals (dolomite, pyrite, secondary gypsum, alunite, silica) was controlled by biogeochemical reactions related to complex processes where reducing and oxidizing conditions were occuring at different stages of diagenesis (Fig. 8). The isotopic compositions recorded by dolomite and gypsum are indicative of important variations of the composition of the diagenetic fluids that were involved during their precipitation.

- 206 4.1 The biogeochemical reactions under anoxic conditions
- 207 4.1.1 Dolomite diagenesis

The production of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in pore fluids occurs when anoxic conditions in organic-rich sediments enhance microbial activity, which controls also the cycling of other elements as sulfur and iron (Konhauser, 2007). Because organic matter is depleted in ¹³C (δ^{13} C~-25%₀), the products of its degradation (biogenic and thermogenic) are also depleted in ¹³C, especially the most common gas product, CH₄, which has δ^{13} C values

213 varying between -110 and -30% (Claypool and Threlkeld, 1983; Whiticar, 1999). During 214 methanogenesis, there is a large isotopic fractionation between the two by-products CH₄ and 215 CO₂, which gives ¹³C-poor CH₄ and ¹³C-rich CO₂ (Whiticar and Faber, 1986; Alperin et al., 216 1988). In such context, ¹³C-depleted DIC is released during microbial reduction of sulfate 217 with methane (or heavier hydrocarbons), whereas ¹³C-rich DIC is produced during 218 methanogenesis (Fig. 8). The recent review by Meister and Reves (2019) of the carbon 219 isotope variations in marine environments summarizes the current knowledge of authigenic 220 carbonate precipitation in relation with the microbial processes related to sulfate reduction, 221 AOM and methanogenesis. Moreover, Torres et al. (2020) add complementary information on 222 the major role of silicate weathering for authigenic carbonate precipitation in anoxic 223 environments.

224 The δ^{13} C values of the authigenic dolomites associated with the gypsum veins from the Neogene of Spain range between -11.9 and 7.3%, and they thus display these typical 225 characteristics of ¹³C-poor /¹³C-rich methane-related carbonates. Moreover, as shown by 226 227 Chatterjee et al (2011), at the Sulfate Methane Transition Zone (SMTZ) where authigenic 228 dolomite precipitates, the upward flux of ¹³C-rich DIC issued from the methanogenesis zone modulates the relative contribution of ¹³C-poor DIC derived from Anaerobic Oxidation of 229 Methane (AOM), thus supporting the large spatial and temporal variability of $\delta^{13}C$ values of 230 231 the authigenic dolomites in these environments.

232 The oxygen isotopic fractionation factor between dolomite and water depends on temperature (1000 ln α^{18} O dolomite-water = 2.73 x 10⁶ T⁻² + 0.26; Vasconcelos et al., 2005). 233 234 This equation is used to estimate the temperature range of 15.6 to 40.3°C (Table 1) for the 235 authigenic dolomites that would have precipitated at equilibrium with seawater-derived fluids 236 characterized by δ^{18} O values ranging from 0.8 to 1.6%, which are the values measured in the 237 present-day Western Mediterranean (Pierre, 1999). The estimated equilibrium temperatures of 238 dolomites differ in the studied basins: they are the lowest in Albox (15.6 to 24.4°C), 239 intermediate in Vera (19.6 to 28.5°C) and the highest in Murcia and Lorca (25.6 to 40.3°C). 240 Compared to the present-day Mediterranean bottom water temperature (~13°C), most of the 241 temperature estimations are much warmer, thus indicating that the diagenetic fluids were 242 issued from moderate to relatively great burial depths (up to 1 km for a normal geothermal 243 gradient).

244 4.1.2 Bacterial sulfate reduction

245 The production of hydrogen sulphide during bacterial sulfate reduction promotes the 246 precipitation of sulfide minerals, generally as pyrite, which explains the close association of 247 authigenic dolomite and pyrite that is observed in the dolomite nodules. During the sulfate 248 reduction reaction, there is a large sulfur isotopic fractionation between the produced sulfide 249 and the remaining sulfate that ranges from -46 to -77% in natural environments (Brunner and 250 Bernasconi, 2005; Canfield et al., 2010; Meister et al., 2019; Rees, 1973; Rudnicki et al., 251 2001; Sim et al. 2011; Wortmann et al., 2001). As a result, if the initial source of dissolved sulfate is from seawater, the produced sulfide would have very negative δ^{34} S values whereas 252 the residual sulfate would exhibit δ^{34} S values higher than the seawater source. The rate of the 253 254 sulfate reduction reaction has a critical importance in controlling the ratio of the enrichment factors ϵ^{34} S/ ϵ^{18} O in the residual sulfate; it is generally close to 2.5 (Mizutani and Rafter, 255 256 1973) but it may reach 4 when the amount of remaining sulfate becomes very low (Böttcher et 257 al., 1998; Brunner et al., 2005).

The δ^{34} S values of the gypsum veins from the Neogene marls of Spain are depleted by 10.5 to 43.3% relative to evaporitic gypsum precipitated from the Cenozoic seawater sulfate (Evans et al., 2015; Garcia-Veigas et al., 2019); they are thus clearly issued from sulfide that was produced by the bacterial reduction of the initial source of seawater sulfate. Sulfide was probably precipitated as pyrite both within the dolomite framework and in conduits and fractures where fluids circulated in the sediments.

264 4.2 The biogeochemical reactions under oxic conditions

265 Under oxic conditions, pyrite is rapidly oxidized as iron oxy-hydroxides and sulfuric 266 acid that reacts with the carbonate and clay minerals of the sedimentary matrix to produce 267 authigenic sulfate and silica minerals (Fig. 8). Gypsum is the most important product of this 268 oxidation process and it may be associated with alunite and silica. The association of 269 authigenic natroalunite, anhydrite and silica was previously discovered in the middle Miocene 270 evaporites from the Gulf of Suez (Rouchy and Pierre, 1987). Authigenic gypsum was also described in active methane seeps of the West African margin and of the Sea of Marmara 271 272 where it occurred as euhedral crystals disseminated in the organic-rich sediment in association 273 with methane-derived authigenic carbonates (Crémière et al., 2012; Pierre, 2017).

The sulfur isotope fractionation during pyrite oxidation is close to zero (Nakai and Jensen, 1964; Mizutani and Rafter, 1969), so that the δ^{34} S values of gypsum are quite similar to those of the pyrite from which they are derived.

The oxidation of pyrite occurs either during early diagenesis with oxygen-rich seawater, or later when the deposits are uplifted and flushed by groundwaters and surficial meteoric waters. Because the oxidation of pyrite uses both oxygen of water and molecular dissolved oxygen to produce aqueous sulfate, the relative contribution of these two sources control the oxygen isotopic composition of sulfate. Van Everdingen and Krouse (1965) have defined the following equation that relies the different parameters of the reaction.

283 $\delta^{18}O_{SO4-ox} = f (\delta^{18}O_{water} + \epsilon_{water}) + (1-f) (\delta^{18}O_{O2} + \epsilon_{O2})$

The enrichment factors during this process ($\varepsilon_{water} = 4.1\%_0$, $\varepsilon_{O2} = -11.2\%_0$) were estimated by Lloyd (1967) and Mizutani and Rafter (1969), later revised by Taylor et al (1987). Most experiments have shown that water was the main source of oxygen during the oxidation of sulfide (about 66% for Taylor et al, 1987; from 85 to 92% for Balci et al, 2007). These results indicate that the value of f would range between 1 and ~0.7.

For the gypsum veins of SE Spain, the δ^{18} O values of water used during pyrite 289 290 oxidation were estimated using the δ^{18} O value of molecular oxygen (23.5% VSMOW; 291 Kroopnick and Craig, 1972) and the fraction f of oxygen of water that would range between 1 292 and 0.66. Moreover, it is necessary to consider the isotopic fractionation between the aqueous 293 and solid sulfate (ϵ^{18} O = 3.5%, Lloyd, 1968; ϵ^{34} S = 1.7%, Thode and Monster, 1965), which 294 is the case when gypsum precipitation occurs from gypsum-saturated solutions in open system 295 conditions. These fractionation factors measured by Van Driessche et al. (2016) from gypsum 296 precipitation experiments display significant variations above 20°C and at low salinities, but 297 they are close to those proposed by Lloyd and Thode and Monster below 20°C both in low 298 and high salinities. The results of these estimations are reported in Table 1 and Fig. 9. The 299 δ^{18} O values of water assumed for pyrite oxidation range between -9.8 to -0.9 when oxygen is 300 issued only from water, and from -19.1 to -5.6 when oxygen is issued both from water and 301 dissolved oxygen. Such ¹⁸O-depleted values are characteristic of meteoric waters. However 302 only some of them would be compatible with the regional hydroclimatic context from SE 303 Spain where the average present-day δ^{18} O values of the local meteoric waters vary in the range ~ -6.0% in Murcia to ~-4% in Almeria (Araguas-Araguas and Diaz Teijeiro, 2005). 304

Lower δ^{18} O values of meteoric waters would have been recorded during glacial times due the global decrease of temperatures. Using the Dansgaard equation (1964) for an average 5°C decrease of temperature during glacial times, the δ^{18} O values of meteoric waters can be estimated to have ranged from -10.5 to -8.5%. Finally the few δ^{18} O values of water that are higher than the present-day meteoric waters but lower than the present-day seawater, could correspond to mixtures between these two water sources.

311 Overall, these results exclude any relationship of the gypsum veins with the Tortonian-312 Messinian evaporites. They also prove that the gypsum veins were not produced during early 313 diagenetic pyrite oxidation with seawater, but they clearly indicate late diagenetic oxidation 314 with waters of meteoric origin. The pyrite oxidation process was following the final tectonic 315 uplift of the sedimentary deposits that occurred differently according to the different basins 316 but was completed in the late Pliocene. These deposits were drained with groundwaters more 317 or less oxygenated leading to the precipitation of the gypsum veins along circulation 318 pathways of gypsum-saturated solutions.

319 5. Conclusion

320 Secondary gypsum veins in sedimentary deposits led often to questioning about their 321 origin. They might be related to circulation of gypsum-saturated solutions issued from 322 connate evaporitic brines, dissolution of sulfate evaporite deposits, or oxidation of sulfide ore 323 deposits (Dogramaci et al., 2017). In the present study the oxygen and sulfur isotopic 324 compositions of gypsum were used to characterize the source of sulfate and to replace the 325 diagenetic processes in the sedimentary and tectonic context during the Neogene in SE Spain. 326 The gypsum veins present in the Tortonian, Messinian and Pliocene marls are the ultimate 327 products of the complex history of these basins during this period. This history was marked 328 by the important restriction of the marine environment that caused the deposition of organic-329 rich sediments, with high sedimentation rates, leading further to intense methanogenesis, 330 responsible of the formation of methane-derived dolomites associated with sulfide minerals 331 (pyrite). The circulation of oxygenated groundwaters in the sedimentary series was 332 responsible for the oxidation of pyrite that was precipitating gypsum in veins networks. This 333 occurred in a first stage of the sea-level drawdown during the Messinian salinity crisis and 334 later after the MSC due to the progressive uplift of the Betic cordillera.

335

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- 341 Conflict of interest
- 342 The authors declare that there is no conflict interest with third parties.
- 343
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- 532
- 533 Figure captions

534 Figure 1 : Schematic geological map of the SE Spain. Location of the sampling sites.

535 Figure 2 : Field views of the dolomite nodules and gypsum veins from the Neogene marls of 536 SE Spain. A : Dense network of gypsum veins crossing the lower Pliocene deposits in the 537 Vera Basin. B : dolomite nodule with internal veins of microcrystalline gypsum, Vera Basin ; 538 C: Dolomite nodule surrounded by fibrous gypsum layer, Vera Basin. D: Group of dolomite 539 nodules surrounded by fibrous gypsum layer and within marls crossed by gypsum veins, 540 Albox Basin. E: mega-nodules of dolomite crossed by veins of fibrous gypsum with 541 aggregates of and large selenitic crystals filling a central cavity (arrow), Murcia Basin. F : 542 View of the lower part of the diatomite-bearing unit composed of alternating diatomites, 543 siltstones, and dolomitic carbonate layers with gypsum veins (arrows), and containing alunite 544 nodules, Lorca Basin.

Figure 3 : Simplified lithological successions of the Neogene basins of Murcia, Vera, Alboxand Lorca in SE Spain where the studied samples have been collected.

547 Figure 4 : Scanning Electron Microscope observations of the microfacies of the gypsum veins 548 from the Neogene marls of SE Spain. A - Sample ES16-127 (Murcia Basin) : Fibrous layers 549 of gypsum with various sedimentary particles cemented and intercalated between the gypsum 550 layers. B - Sample ES16-36 (Vera Basin) : Palisadic layers of gypsum with intercalations of 551 layers of sedimentary particles. C - Sample ES16-22 (Vera Basin): Group of pyrite (now 552 oxidized) framboids enveloped by silicate particles. D - Sample ES16-36 (Vera Basin): 553 Inclusion of sediment with pyrite (now oxidized) framboids and octahedrons cemented by 554 gypsum. E - Sample ES16-36 (Vera Basin): close-up of a group of pyrite octahedrons. F -555 Sample ES16-63 (Albox Basin): Pyrite (now oxidized) framboids and calcite crystals with 556 numerous holes of dissolution.

557 Figure 5 : Oxygen and sulfur isotope composition of the gypsum veins from the Neogene 558 marls of SE Spain. The range of the δ values of Tortonian-Messinian evaporitic gypsum from 559 the Lorca, Sorbas and Fortuna basins (Evans et al., 2015; Garcia-Veigas et al., 2019).

Figure 6 : Scanning Electron Microscope observations of the microfacies of the dolomite nodules associated with the gypsum veins. A - Sample ES17-58 (Murcia Basin): Group of framboids of pyrite (mostly preserved) within the microcrystalline dolomite matrix containing large silicate particles. B - Sample ES16-13 (Vera Basin): Dolomite rhombs with numerous dissolution holes; small isolated pyrite crystals and one framboid are disseminated within the matrix. C - Sample ES16-58 (Albox Basin): Group of framboids and isolated crystals of
pyrite (mostly preserved) within the microcristalline dolomite matrix. D - Sample ES62 (Albox Basin): Microcrystalline dolomite matrix containing numerous silicate particles
and crossed by a vein filled with framboids of pyrite (now mostly oxidized).

Figure 7 : Oxygen and carbon isotope composition of the dolomite of the nodules associatedwith the gypsum veins from the Neogene marls of SE Spain.

571 Figure 8 : Sequence of the biogeochemical reactions leading to the diagenetic minerals572 formation.

Figure 9 : Estimation of the δ^{18} O value of the water of oxidation of pyrite deduced from the δ^{18} O value of gypsum. The calculation assumes gypsum precipitation in open system conditions, and pyrite oxidation with only water oxygen (f = 1) and with water oxygen (f = 0.66) and molecular oxygen. The ranges of δ^{18} O values of local meteoric waters from SE Spain are indicated for the present-day and extrapolated for glacial periods. The present-day range of δ^{18} O values of the West Mediterranean seawater is also given for information.

579

580 Table caption

Table 1 : Short description and location of the gypsum veins close to the dolomite nodules sampled in the Vera, Albox, Murcia and Lorca Basins. The δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of dolomite and δ^{18} O and δ^{34} S values of gypsum are reported in this table. The equilibrium temperatures of dolomite have been estimated for two δ^{18} O values of seawater (0.8 and 1.6%). The δ^{18} O values of the water assumed for pyrite oxidation are estimated for open system conditions with two values of the fraction f of water (1 and 0.66).





MURCIA











1) Bacterial reduction of sulfate coupled to Anaerobic Oxidation of Methane (AOM)

 $CH_4 + SO_4^{2-} \longrightarrow HS^- + HCO_3^- + H_2O$

2) Methanogenesis

 $CH_{3}COO^{-} + H^{+} \longrightarrow CH_{4} + CO_{2}$

3) Methanogenesis - CO₂ reduction

 $CO_2 + 4H_2 \longrightarrow CH_4 + 2 H_2O$

4) Silicate weathering (with CO₂ produced during methanogenesis)

silicates + $CO_2 \longrightarrow clays + cations + silica + HCO_3^-$

5) Oxidation of pyrite : sulfuric acid production

 $FeS_2 + 2O_2 + 2H_2O \implies 2H_2SO_4 + Fe-oxy-hydroxides$

6a) Sulfuric acid weathering of carbonates : diagenetic gypsum formation

 $CaCO_3 + 2H_2SO_4 + H_2O \longrightarrow CaSO_4, 2(H_2O) + CO_2 + H_2O$

6b) Sulfuric acid weathering of clay minerals : diagenetic alunite and silica formation

illite + $2H_2SO_4 \rightarrow 3 SiO_2 + KAl_3(SO_4)_2(OH)_6$



Sample	Age	Basin	Section	Description	δ ¹⁸ O ‰ VPDB dolomite	δ ¹³ C ‰ VPDB dolomite	Equilibrium temperature °C δ^{18} O w =1.6‰	Equilibrium temperature °C δ^{18} O w = 0.8‰	δ ³⁴ S ‰ VCDT gypsum	δ ¹⁸ O ‰ VSMOW gypsum	estimated δ ¹⁸ Ow with f=1	estimated δ ¹⁸ Ow with f=0.66
ES 16.16	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Nodule 1-external envelope	1.06	-7.01	30.5	26.5				
ES 16.17	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Nodule 1-internal part	1.73	-7.15	27.3	23.5				
ES 16.18	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Nodule 1-marly intercalation	1.5	-8.77	28.5	24.6				
ES 16.19	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Nodule 1-internal part	2,15	-7,12	25.3	21.5				
ES 16.20	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Nodule 1-lower internal part	2.56	-7.81	23.3	19.6				
ES 16.22	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Gypsum veins around nodule 1					-7.6	1.5	-6.1	-13.5
ES 16.30	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Group of nodules- core of nodule a	2.31	-11.29	24.5	20.7				
ES 16.31	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Group of nodules- core of nodule b	2.32	-9.94	24.5	20.7				
ES 16.32	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Group of nodules- core of nodule c	2.30	-7.20	24.5	20.7				
ES 16.33	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Group of nodules- core of nodule d	2.41	-9.92	24.0	20.3				
ES 16.34	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Group of nodules- core of nodule e	2.07	-11.93	25.7	21.9				
ES 16.36	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Gypsum veins					-7.4	5.2	-2.4	-7.8
ES 16.37	Pliocene	Vera	graveyard	Conduit with gypsum veins					-6.5	6.7	-0.9	-5.6
ES 16.57	Tortonien	Albox	between Albox and Saliente	Group of nodules- core of nodule 1	2.34	1.11	24.4	20.6				
ES 16.58	Tortonien	Albox	between Albox and Saliente	Group of nodules- core of nodule 2	3.41	-0.32	19.4	15.8				
ES 16.59	Tortonien	Albox	between Albox and Saliente	Group of nodules- core of nodule 3	2.73	2.85	22.5	18.8				
ES 16.61	Tortonien	Albox	between Albox and Saliente	Group of nodules- core of nodule 4	3.68	6.07	18.1	14.6				

Sample	Age	Basin	Section	Description	δ ¹⁸ O ‰ VPDB dolomite	δ ¹³ C ‰ VPDB dolomite	Equilibrium temperature °C δ^{18} O w =1.6%	Equilibrium temperature °C δ^{18} O w = 0.8‰	δ ³⁴ S ‰ VCDT gypsum	δ ¹⁸ O ‰ VSMOW gypsum	estimated δ ¹⁸ Ow with f=1	estimated δ ¹⁸ Ow with f=0.66
ES 16.62	Tortonien	Albox	between Albox and Saliente	Group of nodules- core of nodule 5	2.60	4.91	23.1	19.4				
ES 16.63	Tortonien	Albox	between Albox and Saliente	Gypsum veins					-4.5	5.5	-2.1	-7.4
ES 16.125	Tortonien II	Murcia	Camino de los Gonzalez	Group of nodules- core of nodule 1	1.29	7.26	29.6	25.6				
ES 16.126	Tortonien II	Murcia	Camino de los Gonzalez	Group of nodules- conduit intra nodules	-0.72	1.25	40.3	35.9				
ES 16.127	Tortonien II	Murcia	Camino de los Gonzalez	Gypsum vein					-21.3	2.5	-5.1	-11.9
ES 17-45	Tortonien	Murcia	Ginovinos, road RF- M 56	Nodule 2-central part	0.13	5.78	35.6	31.4				
ES 17-46	Tortonien	Murcia	Ginovinos, road RF- M 56	Gypsum vein around Nodule 2					-22.3	0.4	-7.2	-15.1
ES 17-64	Tortonian	Murcia	Ginovinos, road RF- M 56	Gypsum veins					-13.2	4.4	-3.2	-9.1
ES-94-5	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	0.14	6.08	35.6	31.3				
ES-94-49	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	0.08	4.59	35.9	31.7				
ES-94-46	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0 ,06	3.64	32.4	28.3				
ES-94-39	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	0.30	4.46	34.7	30.5				
ES-98.2-116	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0.34	4.32	38.2	33.9				
ES-98.2-114	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0.61	3.42	39.7	35.3				
ES-98-4	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0.55	4.40	39.3	35.0				
ES-98.2 -80	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0.07	4.79	36.7	32.4				
ES- 98 -2	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0.39	4.39	38.4	34.1				
ES-98.2 -101	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	-0.31	4.31	38.0	33.7				
ES-98 -3	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	layered dolomite	0.05	5.20	36.0	31.8				
ES-97-84	Tortonian	Lorca	median part	Gypsum veins					10.5	-2.2	-9.8	-19.1