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1 Late Cretaceous changes in oceanic currents and sediment sources in the eastern Tethys:
2 insights from Nd isotopes and clay mineralogy

3

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19

20 Abstract

21

22 The Late Cretaceous is marked by geodynamical changes including Africa-Eurasia
23 convergence that resulted in the narrowing of the Tethys Ocean and in ophiolite obduction
24 along the southern margin of the various continental blocks in eastern Tethys. Geochemical
25 and mineralogical analyses were performed on the Shahneshin section (Zagros Basin - eastern

26 Tethys), to explore the consequences of this evolution on oceanic circulation, and to estimate
27 the role of ophiolite weathering that can impact climate through atmospheric CO₂ drawdown.
28 [Ni] and [Cr] sharply increase in the uppermost Campanian – Maastrichtian interval and are
29 not coeval with an increase in the Nd isotope composition (ϵ_{Nd}) of the detrital fraction of the
30 sediments. This is interpreted as reflecting weathering of the mantellic, ultramafic part of the
31 ophiolite sequence at that time, implying that ophiolites were exposed on the continents as
32 soon as the Coniacian in the vicinity of the Zagros Basin. Hence their weathering could have
33 contributed to the Late Cretaceous climatic cooling. Clay mineralogy reveals an alternation of
34 kaolinite-rich humid periods (Coniacian/Santonian and late early Campanian to latest
35 Campanian) and kaolinite-depleted arid periods (early Campanian and the latest Campanian to
36 late Maastrichtian). The $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of bathyal waters (carbonate leached fraction) appears quite
37 radiogenic, in the range of -3.4 to -5.2 ϵ -units, about 2 to 4 ϵ -units higher than the detrital
38 fraction. Changes in the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of detrital material delivered to the Zagros Basin appear to
39 control the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of the local bottom waters from the Coniacian to the middle Campanian. By
40 contrast, decoupling of detrital $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ from that of the local bottom waters from the middle
41 Campanian to the Maastrichtian points to increasing fluxes of westward flowing Pacific
42 radiogenic water masses into the eastern Tethys at that time. These results support an
43 intensification of the Tethyan Circumglobal Current, likely related to the narrowing of the
44 Tethyan seaway.

45

46 Keywords

47

48 Ocean circulation, Late Cretaceous, continental weathering, climate, Shahneshin section, Iran

49

50 1. Introduction

51

52 The Late Cretaceous was characterized by a long-term global cooling (Huber et al.,
53 1995, 2002, 2018; Pucéat et al., 2003; Friedrich et al. 2012; Linnert et al., 2014) which has
54 been linked to a decrease in atmospheric pCO₂ (Royer et al., 2012; Franks et al., 2014; Wang
55 et al., 2014; Mills et al., 2019). During the last decades, many studies have investigated the
56 processes involved in this atmospheric CO₂ evolution. A reduction in CO₂ mantle degassing,
57 linked to a reduction in seafloor production rates and continental arc magmatism, has been
58 repeatedly invoked to explain a decrease in pCO₂ during the Late Cretaceous (Cogné and
59 Humler, 2006; Van der Meer et al., 2014; McKenzie et al., 2016). Enhanced CO₂ drawdown
60 by continental weathering has also been suggested as a driver of this climate evolution
61 (Jagoutz et al., 2016; Chenot et al., 2018), with a potentially important role of ophiolite
62 obduction and weathering onto the southern Tethyan margin recently pointed out by Jagoutz
63 et al. (2016). Whilst some constraints have been brought on the timing of the initiation of
64 ophiolite obduction, notably using radiometric geochemical dating (Delaloye and Desmons,
65 1980; Lanphere and Pamić, 1983; Shahidi and Nazari, 1997; Tilton et al., 1981; Babaie et al.,
66 2006; Shafaii Moghadam and Stern, 2011; Agard et al., 2011; Ao et al., 2016), information is
67 still largely lacking on the timing of effective subaerial exposure of ophiolitic rocks to
68 weathering processes, that can only be inferred from biostratigraphy of the overlying
69 sediments (Shafaii Moghadam and Stern, 2015). This lack of information impedes our
70 knowledge of the links between climate and obduction during the Late Cretaceous.

71 The ophiolite obduction that affected a large part of the southern Tethyan margin has
72 been related to the dynamics of Africa-Eurasia convergence (Guiraud and Bosworth, 1997;
73 Şengör and Stock, 2014; Jolivet et al., 2016). This convergence also resulted in a narrowing of
74 the Tethys Ocean, with potential implications on oceanic circulation, a major component of
75 the climate system. A major reorganization in the global oceanic circulation has been depicted

76 during the Late Cretaceous, evidenced during the Campanian by a decrease of 2 ϵ -units of the
77 Nd isotope composition of bottom waters, a tracer of modern and ancient ocean circulation, in
78 the Atlantic and Indian oceans (Robinson et al., 2010; Macleod et al., 2011; Murphy and
79 Thomas, 2012, 2013; Robinson and Vance, 2012; Voigt et al., 2013; Moiroud et al., 2016).
80 This 2 ϵ -units decrease could have marked the onset or intensification of deep-water
81 formation in the southern Atlantic (Robinson et al., 2010; Robinson and Vance, 2012;
82 Murphy and Thomas, 2012, 2013; Voigt et al., 2013) or in the northern Atlantic (Macleod et
83 al., 2011). The progressive narrowing of the Tethys during the Late Cretaceous, related to the
84 northward motion of Africa, may have played a role in this reorganization of the oceanic
85 circulation. The Tethys Ocean linked the proto-Indian and Atlantic oceans during the
86 Cretaceous, and formed, along with the open Caribbean seaway linking the Atlantic and
87 Pacific Oceans, a low-latitude seaway where seawater could flow unimpeded throughout the
88 globe. A large circum global current, called the Tethyan Circumglobal Current (TCC), is
89 thought to have flowed westward throughout this seaway (Föllmi et al., 1992; Puc at et al.,
90 2005; Soudry et al., 2006). Like the modern Antarctic Circum global Current that flows
91 unimpeded around Antarctica, the TCC could have played a major role in the global oceanic
92 circulation, impacting the density balance between oceanic water masses through the transport
93 of salty waters. The development of intensive upwelling systems along the southern Tethyan
94 margin during the Campanian and Maastrichtian, which is marked by large phosphorite
95 deposits and high productivity of floro-faunal assemblages (*e.g.* Notholt, 1985; Almogi-Labin
96 et al., 1993; Eshet and Almogi-Labin, 1996; Ashckenazi-Polivoda et al., 2011), points to
97 potentially important modifications in the intensity of the TCC at that time.

98 In this context, we aim in this study at exploring the potential changes in the TCC
99 during the narrowing of the Tethys Ocean in the Late Cretaceous. We present a new dataset of
100 the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of seawater inferred from the acetic acid-leached fraction of sediments collected

101 along the Shahneshin section (Zagros Basin, Iran), following recent development for the
102 acquisition of a seawater signal from different sediment fractions (Wilson et al., 2013). The
103 Shahneshin outcrop is located in the eastern part of the Tethys, close to the eastern entrance
104 into the Tethyan seaway. The $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of seawater at this site has thus the potential to track
105 changes in the TCC intensity. The evolution of clay mineral assemblages, of the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of the
106 insoluble residual fraction of the sediment, and elemental (Ni and Cr) concentrations of the
107 sediments are also determined, to discuss the possible impact of changes in the source of
108 material eroded from the nearby continent on local seawater $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ and to discuss the potential
109 links between weathering and erosion processes in this region, ophiolite obduction, and
110 climate.

111

112 2. Geodynamical framework and palaeogeography

113

114 The Middle East region presents highly deformed sedimentary structures in the
115 orogenic areas (Zagros, Caucasus) and metamorphic rocks around the obducted areas
116 (Cyprus, Northern Turkey, Syria, south of Iran, Oman; Fig. 1). This modern geological
117 framework is linked to the anticlockwise movement of Africa initiated during the Cretaceous,
118 which ultimately led to the closure of the Tethyan Realm and to the subduction of the Neo-
119 Tethys Ocean beneath central Iran (Bosworth et al., 1999; Jolivet et al., 2016). In the eastern
120 part of the Tethys, this tectonic event is expressed by a 5,000 km-long region of relief
121 developed across the north of Africa and the Middle East, called the Ayyubid orogeny. It is
122 associated to the establishment of a widespread ophiolitic belt along the Afro-Arabian passive
123 continental margin during the Turonian to Campanian interval (Agard et al., 2005; Homke et
124 al., 2009; Shafaii Moghadam and Stern, 2011; Şengör and Stock, 2014; Jolivet et al., 2016;
125 Fig. 1). This compressional tectonic regime has induced the development of highly subsiding

126 basins and inversion reliefs (*e.g.* Zagros folded zone; Koop and Stoneley, 1982; Agard et al.,
127 2005; Homke et al., 2009; Şengör and Stock, 2014). Weathering of newly created nearby
128 continental masses most likely provided detrital particles transported and deposited into
129 adjacent highly subsiding basins (Saura et al., 2011).

130

131 2.1. Zagros basin and the “Gurpi” Formation

132

133 The Zagros folded zone encompasses south-eastern Turkey, northern Syria, northern
134 Iraq and western to southern parts of Iran (Alavi, 1980, 1994; Berberian and King, 1981;
135 Dercourt et al., 1986; Fig. 1a). In the west and southwestern parts of Iran, this NW-SE folded
136 structure is composed of four main mountains provinces called Lurestan, Khuzestan, Internals
137 Fars and Coastal Fars at about 26 to 35° N (Agard et al., 2005; Fig. 1a). Palaeogeographical
138 reconstructions suggest a palaeolatitude of 5 to 10° N for the Zagros Basin during the
139 Campanian and Maastrichtian (Philip and Floquet, 2000; Barrier and Vrielynck, 2007; Fig.
140 1b-c). This basin is located within the equatorial Tethyan corridor, bordered to the south by
141 the Arabian Shield, and to the north by an active subduction zone with ophiolitic nappes,
142 possibly above sea-level during the early Campanian and immersed during the late
143 Maastrichtian (Barrier and Vrielynck, 2007; Fig 1b-c). The ages of the sediments overlying
144 the mantellic and crustal rocks, that provide an age range of the sub-aerial exposure of the
145 Iranian Zagros ophiolites, are Triassic to Cretaceous for Kermanshah ophiolites (Lurestan;
146 Saccani et al., 2013; Whitechurch et al., 2013; Shafaii Moghadam and Stern, 2015),
147 Cenomanian-Turonian to early Santonian for Neyriz ophiolites (Babaei et al., 2006; Shafaii
148 Moghadam and Stern, 2011), undifferentiated Late Cretaceous for Haji Abad ophiolites
149 (Ghasemi et al., 2002), and late Turonian to Maastrichtian for Baft ophiolites (Fars Provinces;
150 Shafaii Moghadam and Stern, 2011; Shafaii Moghadam et al., 2013).

151

152 The Late Cretaceous sedimentation of the Zagros Basin (Coniacian to Maastrichtian)
153 consists of organic matter-rich marls and limestones which compose the Gurpi Formation
154 (Fm. - average of 3% of total organic carbon; Ala et al., 1980). This formation is largely
155 outcropping in the four main Zagros mountain provinces (Fig. 1c). Several hiatuses are
156 recorded in the Gurpi Fm., which have been related to maximum flooding surfaces and/or
157 tectonic events (Razmjooei et al., 2014, 2018, 2020a; Zarei and Ghasemi-Nejad, 2015). The
158 dinoflagellate diversity associated to the microfossil assemblages (planktonic and benthic
159 foraminifera) highlight the existence of lateral variability of facies in the Gurpi Fm. The Fars
160 province displays external ramp environments whereas the Lurestan and the Khuzestan
161 Province record shallower environments characterized by two bioturbated and fossiliferous
162 limestones units called the “*Lopha* limestone member” (late Campanian, *Globo truncana*
163 *aegyptica* biozone) and the “Emam Hassan member” (late Campanian to early Maastrichtian,
164 *Gansserina gansseri* biozone; Zarei and Ghasemi-Nejad, 2015). This facies lateral variability
165 recorded in the Gurpi Fm., associated to regional gaps, has been linked to compressive
166 tectonic movements generating different subsidence rates between provinces.

167

168 2.2. Shahneshin section

169

170 The investigated Late Cretaceous deposits of the Gurpi Fm. are located in the central
171 part of the Zagros folded zone, west of the Fars province, to the north east of Kazerun city and
172 the north west of the Shahneshin anticline (N 29° 44' 47" and E 51° 46' 31" for the base and
173 29° 44' 40.69" and E 51° 46' 26.87" for the top of the studied interval at Shahneshin). At
174 Shahneshin, the sediments are composed of dark grey marls and light yellow argillaceous
175 limestones alternations (Fig. 2). The marls and marly limestones of the Gurpi Fm. have been

176 deposited in a deep sedimentary basin (Motiei, 1993). Hemmati-Nasab et al. (2008) and
177 Darabi et al. (2018) respectively suggest rough estimations of 800 to 1200m and 450 to 600m
178 paleo-water depth for the Gurpi Fm. in Lurestan area. Occurrence of a very high abundance of
179 benthic foraminifers in the upper Campanian of Shahneshin suggests a much shallower
180 condition at this time, which could be due to a tectonically-induced regression caused by a
181 phase of uplift (Razmjooei et al., 2018, 2020a).

182 The age-model relies on the integrated stratigraphic study of the Shahneshin section by
183 Razmjooei et al. (2018; Fig. 3). Slight modifications were however proposed later on by
184 Razmjooei et al. (2020a) for the basal part of the section based on carbon-isotope stratigraphy.
185 In particular, the authors applied in Razmjooei et al. (2018) the biostratigraphic concept of the
186 Coniacian/Santonian boundary based on the first occurrence of nannofossil *L. cayeuxii* at
187 20m. In Razmjooei et al. (2020a), the authors argued for the level of the Kingsdown carbon
188 isotope event at 40 m being the best possible marker for the Coniacian/Santonian boundary,
189 assuming some degree of plankton diachronism. This interpretation is kept here.
190 Subsequently, the age-model applied here considers eight anchor points (Table 1; Suppl. Fig.
191 1). Out of these, the base Maastrichtian at 72.15 Ma is at the level identified in Razmjooei et
192 al. (2018) but also accounts immediately for a ca. 2 Myr hiatus truncating the late Campanian
193 (Suppl. Fig. 1). The FO of *G. aegyptiaca*, LO of *M. furcatus* and LO of *D. asymetrica* are
194 given as in Razmjooei et al. (2018) age-model, the Kingsdown event is considered as the level
195 of the Coniacian/Santonian boundary at 86.49 Ma and the basal 40 m of the section are
196 considered to follow a similar sedimentation rate of 2.36cm/kyr as the interval above between
197 40 and 94m, thus giving an age of 88.19 Ma for the base of the section. This well-constrained
198 age model reveals important changes in the sedimentation rate along the section, from
199 approximately 2.4cm/kyr in the upper Coniacian to Santonian, around 0.6cm/kyr in the
200 lowermost Campanian, to 2.5cm/kyr in the remaining of the Campanian. A significant gap,

201 possibly of up to 2 Ma, has been suggested to occur also in the uppermost Campanian to
202 lowermost Maastrichtian, at 280 to 290m (Razmjooei et al., 2018; Suppl. Fig. 1).

203

204 3. Material and methods

205

206 3.1. Clay mineralogy

207

208 For detailed fieldwork and sampling strategy, we refer here to Razmjooei et al. (2018).
209 Our sampling resolution for clay mineralogy varies between 1m and 5m. Mineralogical
210 analyses have been performed at the Biogéosciences Laboratory (University of Bourgogne-
211 Franche Comté, Dijon, France). Clay mineral assemblages of 120 samples have been
212 identified by X-ray diffraction (XRD) on oriented mounts of non-calcareous clay-sized
213 particles (<2 µm). The procedure described by Moore and Reynolds (1997) has been used to
214 prepare the samples. Diffractograms have been obtained using a Bruker D4 Endeavor
215 diffractometer with CuK_α radiations with LynxEye detector and Ni filter, under 40-kV voltage
216 and 25-mA intensity. Three preparations have been analysed, after air-drying, after ethylene-
217 glycol solvation and after heating at 490°C for 2h (Fig. 4). The goniometer scanned from 2.5°
218 to 28.5° for each run. Clay minerals have been identified by the position of their main
219 diffraction peaks on the three XRD runs, while semi-quantitative estimates have been
220 produced in relation to their area (Moore and Reynolds, 1997). Areas have been determined
221 on diffractograms of glycolated runs with MacDiff 4.2.5. Software (Petschick, 2000). Beyond
222 the evaluation of the absolute proportions of the clay minerals, the aim was to identify their
223 relative fluctuations along the section.

224

225 3.2. Rare earth elements concentrations (REE) and neodymium (Nd) isotope analyses

226

227 3.2.1. Sample preparation: carbonate and insoluble fraction extraction

228

229 Eighteen sedimentary bulk rock samples from the Shahneshin section were finely
230 crushed using an agate mortar and pestle. Aliquots of about 1.5g of powdered sediments were
231 leached with 20ml of acetic acid solution (2%) during 30 minutes in Teflon vial (Savillex®).
232 This short leaching time using quite diluted acetic acid aims to dissolve part of the carbonates
233 while limiting extraction of Fe-Mn oxides and/or reactive minerals (Wilson et al., 2013). The
234 solution was filtered (0.45µm, PTFE), evaporated to dryness and then re-dissolved with 4M
235 hydrochloric acid (HCl).

236 Another aliquot of about 2g of each powdered sediment sample went through the 3-
237 step leaching procedure derived from Bayon et al. (2002). Carbonate was removed using 20ml
238 acetic acid (10%, AA) that reacted overnight (about 18h), then Fe-Mn oxides were removed
239 using a 20ml reductive solution (25% acetic acid + 1M Hydroxylammonium Hydrochloride,
240 AA+HH) during 6 hours, and organic matter was removed using a 5% hydrogen peroxide
241 solution (H₂O₂, %wt/v) that reacted overnight (Tessier et al., 1979; Bayon et al., 2002). About
242 100mg of the residue was then digested using alkaline fusion following Bayon et al. (2009)
243 and the precipitated Fe-oxy-hydroxides dissolved in 4M hydrochloric acid (HCl).

244

245 3.2.2. Determination of the REE concentrations

246

247 Trace elements abundances in the carbonate leachates and the residue were determined
248 using an aliquot of the final mother solutions diluted in 10 ml HNO₃ 2% (v/v). The REE
249 concentrations were measured with a quadrupole inductively coupled plasma mass
250 spectrometer (Thermo X-Series II) at the “Pôle Spectrométrie Océan” (IUEM Brest, France),

251 using the Tm addition method (Barrat et al., 1996; Bayon et al., 2009). The REE were
252 measured in low resolution mode, and polyatomic oxide and hydroxide interferences were
253 corrected using oxide formation rates determined by analyzing solutions of ultrapure water,
254 Ba + Ce, Pr + Nd and Sm + Eu + Gd + Tb at the beginning of the measurement cycle. The
255 uncertainty on all measurements was better than 5% for REE. The accuracy of the method
256 was monitored by repeated analyses of two certified reference materials from USGS (BHVO-
257 2 and BCR-2); deviation from the certified values (Jochum et al., 2016) was better than 5%
258 for all replicates.

259

260 3.2.3. Determination of the Nd isotopic composition

261

262 The REE were isolated using common ion exchange chromatography, including a first
263 ion exchange resin to isolate the lanthanides (AG-50W-X8, Bio-Rad) and a second one (Ln
264 resin, Eichrom) to isolate Nd (Bayon et al., 2012). The Nd isotopic compositions of the
265 residues were carried on a Multi-Collector MC-ICP-MS (Neptune, Thermo Scientific) at the
266 “Pôle Spectrométrie Océan” (IFREMER Brest, France) with instrumental bias corrected by a
267 sample-standard bracketing method, using *JNdi-1* (Tanaka et al., 2000). The carbonate
268 leachate Nd isotope compositions were determined at the LGLTPE laboratory in Lyon (Ecole
269 Normale Supérieure de Lyon, France) on a Thermo Scientific Neptune and a Nu Plasma 1700
270 MC-ICP-MS, using the *Rennes in-house* Nd standard (Chauvel and Blichert-Toft, 2001) as
271 internal standard. All $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios were normalized to a value of 0.7219 for $^{146}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$
272 (Table 2). The 2s external reproducibility of our measurements was estimated using repeated
273 analyses of the *JNdi-1* (0.512115 ± 0.000016 ; average $\pm 2s$) and the *Rennes in-house* Nd
274 standard (0.511961 ± 0.000009). The overall reproducibility of the chemistry is estimated by
275 repeated analyses of the BHVO-2 certified reference material. During the course of the study,

276 the measured $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratios of BHVO-2 were 0.512987 ± 0.000005 (average $\pm 2\sigma$; $n=5$)
277 and 0.512988 ± 0.000007 ($n=12$) by using the *JNdi-1* and the *Rennes in-house* Nd as internal
278 standard, respectively. Those values agree well with the reference values for MC-ICP-MS and
279 TIMS measurements (respectively 0.512990 ± 0.000010 and 0.512984 ± 0.000011 ; Weis et
280 al., 2006).

281

282 3.2.4. Post-sedimentation decay correction

283

284 The present-day Nd isotopic ratios measured in the samples were corrected for the
285 radioactive decay of ^{147}Sm to ^{143}Nd using the measured Sm and Nd concentrations determined
286 for each sample ($^{147}\text{Sm}/^{144}\text{Nd} = 0.6049 \times [\text{Sm}]/[\text{Nd}]$) and a radioactive decay constant $\lambda =$
287 $6.539 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the Sm-Nd system (Begemann et al., 2001). The absolute ages of the
288 Shahneshin samples were calculated using the age model described in the Part 2.2 above and
289 in Table 1. The age-corrected isotopic ratios are expressed using the standard $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ notation,
290 which corresponds to the relative deviation in part per thousand from the Chondritic Uniform
291 Reservoir (CHUR) values at the deposition age, using the present-day $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratio of
292 0.512630 and $^{147}\text{Sm}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ ratio of 0.1960 for the CHUR (Bouvier et al., 2008). The analytical
293 uncertainties expressed under the $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ notation, estimated by propagating external errors
294 introduced by the $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ (± 0.000016 or ± 0.000009 , $\pm 2\sigma$) and $^{147}\text{Sm}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ (± 0.004 , $\pm 2\sigma$),
295 are ± 0.35 for the insoluble fractions and ± 0.21 for the carbonate leachates (Table 2).

296

297 3.3. Determination of major and trace element concentrations

298

299 Twenty-two bulk sediment samples were additionally analysed for their major (Al)
300 and trace-element (Ni, Cr) concentrations at the Service d'Analyse des Roches et des

301 Minéraux of the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (SARM, Vandœuvre-lès-
302 Nancy, France). Complete analytical procedure developed at the SARM is detailed in
303 Carignan et al. (2001). About 300mg of powdered rock samples are fused in Pt crucibles with
304 ultrapure LiBO₂ at 980°C in an oven for 60 min, and after cooling the fusion glass is
305 dissolved in a HNO₃ (1 mol/l) - H₂O₂ (0.5% v/v) – glycerol (10% v/v) mixture. The samples
306 were analysed on an ICP-OES (Thermo Fisher iCap 6500) and an ICP-MS (Thermo Fisher
307 iCapQ), respectively, at the Service d'Analyse des Roches et des Minéraux of the Centre
308 National de la Recherche Scientifique (SARM, Vandœuvre-lès-Nancy, France). Uncertainties
309 in measurements, based on analyses of international reference standards (BR, AN-G, UB-N,
310 DR-N, and GH; Govindaraju, 1995) and replicates are lower than 15% for Al₂O₃, and 5% for
311 Ni and Cr (Table 2).

312 In order to discriminate changes in nickel (Ni) and chromium (Cr) concentration of the
313 detrital material from variations in detrital supply, trace element concentrations have been
314 normalized to Al, as aluminum is considered as a robust tracer of detrital input, and are
315 expressed as element/Al (X/Al) ratios in this study (Fig. 3).

316

317 4. Results

318

319 4.1. Clay mineralogical assemblages

320

321 Clay mineral assemblages of the Shahneshin section are composed of illite-smectite
322 mixed-layers (I-S R1), illite, kaolinite, chlorite, and likely a mixture of random mixed-layers
323 including chlorite-smectite (C-S) chlorite-vermiculite (C-V) and finally vermiculite whose
324 presence is suggested by the relatively narrow reflection at 14 Å which is not modified after
325 saturation with ethylene-glycol and which decreases sharply after heating (Fig. 4). From the

326 base to 260m, I-S R1 dominates the clay fraction (35 to 40%) and decreases to 20% from
327 260m to the top of the section. Four mineralogical intervals are identified:

328 - Interval 1 (Coniacian-Santonian):

329 From the base to 80m, illite (20 to 30%) is associated to I-S R1 and abundant kaolinite
330 reaching 50% at the base of the section and showing a mixture of C-S and C-V (and
331 vermiculite?; 10%) decreasing proportions upward.

332 - Interval 2 (lowermost Campanian *pars*):

333 From 80 to 130m, the interval is characterized by increasing proportions of illite and I-S R1
334 and by the absence of kaolinite. Chlorite is occasionally abundant (up to 30%).

335 - Interval 3 (lower Campanian *pars* to upper Campanian):

336 From 130m to 250m, illite and I-S R1 decrease up section to 15% and less than 40%
337 respectively. The proportions of chlorite never exceed 10%, while the proportions of kaolinite
338 progressively increase up to 40% from the base to the top of the interval.

339 - Interval 4 (uppermost Campanian and Maastrichtian):

340 From 250m to the top of the section, chlorite and illite increase again (respectively 35% and
341 20%). In the same interval, the mixture of C-S, C-V and vermiculite increases significantly
342 around 30%.

343

344 4.2. REE concentrations and Nd isotopes

345

346 REE concentrations for the insoluble fractions and the acetic acid leachates are
347 reported on Table 2 and are presented on Fig. 5 normalized to PAAS (Post Archean
348 Australian Shale; Taylor and McLennan, 1985). The insoluble fractions all display quite
349 similar REE patterns, characterized by depletion in Middle Rare Earth Element (MREE) and a
350 very small or absent cerium (Ce) anomaly. By contrast, the acid acetic leachates of all

351 samples display a negative Ce anomaly and enrichment in middle and heavy REEs, with
352 lower REEs concentrations compared to the insoluble fraction. The acetic acid leachates yield
353 systematically more radiogenic Nd isotopic values than the corresponding insoluble fractions,
354 of about 3 ϵ -units on average, but up to about 4 ϵ -units (Table 2; Fig. 3). The insoluble
355 fraction $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ ranges from -9.0 to -6.0 ϵ -units and shows a positive excursion encompassing an
356 interval from the Coniacian to the uppermost Santonian, with $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ reaching maximum values
357 of about -6 ϵ -units during the Santonian. Insoluble fraction $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ remains around -8 ϵ -units,
358 within the exception of one sample (ShG E07) that yield a value of -6.8 ϵ -units, until the
359 lower Campanian where $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values increase again by about 2 ϵ -units, from -8.1 to -6.2 ϵ -
360 units in the uppermost lower Campanian. $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values then decrease by about 3 ϵ -units, down
361 to -9 ϵ -units in the upper Maastrichtian at the top of the section. The acetic leachate $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$
362 displays a similar evolution than that of the insoluble fraction, with an offset of about 2-3 ϵ -
363 units toward more radiogenic values, from the Coniacian to the uppermost Santonian. By
364 contrast, acetic leachate $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values remain quite stable, around -4 ϵ -units, until the lower
365 Maastrichtian and then decline slightly from the lower to the upper Maastrichtian down to
366 values of about -4.5 ϵ -units.

367

368 4.3. Major and trace element concentrations

369

370 Analytical results for the twenty-two samples are shown in Table 3 and Fig. 3. The
371 chemical data of trace elements show that the CaO, SiO₂ and Al₂O₃ contents ranges are 36-48
372 wt.%, 7–18 wt.% and 2–7 wt.% respectively, and the chemical data of trace elements show
373 that Ni and Cr contents ranges are 21-83 ppm and 42-101 ppm range. Thus, the bulk rocks of
374 the Shahneshtin section are rich in CaO, SiO₂ and Al₂O₃, while depleted in Fe₂O₃, K₂O, TiO₂,
375 and MgO. An important characteristic of these carbonates is the highest proportions of Ni and

376 Cr from 250m to the top of the section (upper Campanian to upper Maastrichtian), showed by
377 markedly higher ratios of Ni/Al and Cr/Al above 250m (Fig. 3).

378

379 5. Discussion

380

381 5.1. Diagenesis of the clay minerals

382

383 To interpret clay mineral assemblages in terms of palaeoenvironments, we have to
384 ensure that post depositional transformations including burial diagenesis did not modify
385 significantly the clay minerals and that their initial sedimentary signal is preserved. In this
386 relatively thick section from a highly tectonised area, thermal influences may be expected to
387 have played a significant role on clay mineral assemblages. The influence of a thermal
388 diagenesis is even more probable that the clay assemblages are devoid of I-S R0 comparable
389 to smectites (Fig. 3). This absence is surprising because in the Tethyan Realm and even all
390 over the globe, the Late Cretaceous is marked by a clay sedimentation largely dominated by
391 smectites (Chamley, 1989; Chamley et al., 1990; Thiry and Jacquin, 1993; Deconinck and
392 Chamley, 1995; Chenot et al., 2018). Moreover, there is an abundance of I-S R1 and a
393 complex mixture of C-S and C-V mixed-layering which are respectively all intermediate
394 phases of the transformation of smectites into illite and chlorite. However, from the top to the
395 bottom of the section, the proportions of illite, chlorite and mixed-layers do not increase
396 steadily, as would have been expected under a strong influence of burial diagenesis. The
397 preservation of kaolinite, which is also sensitive to burial diagenesis, suggests that maximum
398 burial temperature was not high enough (<150°C, Beaufort et al., 2015) to transform this
399 mineral, whose fluctuations seem to correspond to a primary signal (Fig. 3).

400 To sum up, it is likely that the initial clay sedimentation included a significant

401 proportion of I-S R0 (smectite) but that these minerals under mild thermal influence turned
402 into I-S R1, C-S and C-V mixed-layers. In addition, this is in agreement with the moderate to
403 poor preservation of the nannofossils (Razmjooei et al., 2020b). However, the evolution of the
404 relative proportions of illite, chlorite and kaolinite seem to be mainly a primary signal that can
405 be interpreted in terms of palaeoenvironment and palaeoclimate.

406

407 5.2. Climatic control of the clay assemblages of the Shahneshin section

408

409 The most striking feature of the clay mineralogy of the Shahneshin section is the
410 alternation of kaolinite-rich intervals with intervals devoid of kaolinite (Fig. 6). The formation
411 of kaolinite in soils requires a high level of hydrolysis and consequently a significant
412 humidity and runoff favoring water renewal. A high temperature accelerates the hydrolysis
413 reactions but humidity is the key parameter to form kaolinite in weathering profiles,
414 (Chamley, 1989; Ruffell et al., 2002). Currently, kaolinite is abundant in weathering profiles
415 that developed mainly at low latitudes. Fluctuations in kaolinite proportion in clay
416 assemblages, especially when they are linked to opposite trends in illite and chlorite that
417 derive from weathering and erosion of the basement in more arid environments, is often
418 interpreted in terms of changes in humidity/aridity (*eg.* Vanderaverroet et al., 1999; Adatte et
419 al., 2002; Moiroud et al., 2012). Kaolinite can also be reworked from old non-metamorphosed
420 rocks. In this case, it is generally accompanied by primary minerals (illite and chlorite), often
421 abundant in ancient rocks that underwent significant diagenesis (Chenot et al., 2016). On the
422 Shahneshin section, percentages of illite and chlorite do not show the same trends as kaolinite
423 but rather display opposite trends. This suggests that kaolinite is most likely reworked from
424 pedogenic blankets developed at the time of sedimentation, which points to the existence, at
425 the time of kaolinite deposition, of a relatively warm and humid climate. Such climatic

426 conditions are supported by the occurrence of bauxites on emerged peri-Tethyan continental
427 masses during the Late Cretaceous (Bárdossy and Dercourt, 1990), and by the compilation of
428 lithological and paleontological indicators, including vegetation (Otto-Bliesner and Upchurch,
429 1997; Upchurch et al., 2015). By contrast, the intervals with little or no kaolinite, that present
430 higher proportions of illite and chlorite in the clay mineral assemblages, would then point to a
431 drier climate during these intervals. Interestingly, the locally drier climatic conditions
432 recorded during the late Campanian to Maastrichtian at Shahneshin (mineralogical interval 4,
433 Fig. 3) do not reflect the overall humid conditions (kaolinite up to 60-80%) recorded at other
434 tethyan sites with paleolatitudes comprised between approximately 0 and 25°N (Tunisia, Li et
435 al., 2000; Adatte et al., 2002; Egypt, Tantawy et al., 2001; Keller et al., 2002; Iran, Rostami et
436 al., 2018; Italy; Chenot et al., 2018). This feature may be related to the specific
437 paleogeography of the Zagros region, inducing different local climatic conditions in the
438 Zagros studied area in this interval.

439 It is thus likely that an evolution in local climate could have contributed to the
440 observed changes in clay mineral assemblages (Fig. 6). More humid conditions in intervals 1
441 (Coniacian to latest Santonian) and 3 (middle Campanian to earliest late Campanian) could
442 have favoured kaolinite formation, while more arid environments in intervals 2 (early
443 Campanian) and 4 (late Campanian to late Maastrichtian) rather favoured formation of illite
444 and chlorite. Surface marine temperatures inferred from TEX86 values at a comparable
445 latitude in Israel highlight a cooling of a few degrees from the Coniacian to the early
446 Campanian, but remain relatively stable up to the end of early Maastrichtian and do not show
447 any correspondence with the evolution of clay mineralogy on the remaining of the section
448 (Fig. 6; Alsenz et al., 2013). Yet surface temperatures recorded in Israel (Adheret 1 borehole
449 and PAMA Quarry) are likely affected by the development of a large upwelling system during
450 the Campanian and Maastrichtian, depicted by the occurrence of large phosphorite deposits

451 and floro-faunal assemblages of high productivity (Nothold, 1985; Almogi-Labin et al., 1993;
452 Ashckenazi-Polivoda et al., 2011). At a global scale, climate fluctuations are identified within
453 the Campanian-Maastrichtian interval, with a warming episode evidenced in benthic
454 foraminifera $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, in TEX86, and in planktonic foraminifera during the mid-late Campanian
455 (Friedrich et al., 2012; Linnert et al., 2014; Falzoni et al., 2016: Fig. 6). These climate
456 fluctuations may have modified to some extent the hydrological cycle and changed the local
457 hydrolysing conditions in the vicinity of the Zagros Basin. Such changes in sea-surface
458 temperatures of the central part of the Zagros Basin are also suggested from calcareous
459 nannofossil assemblages (Razmjooei et al., 2020b).

460 Variations in detrital sources are also susceptible to drive changes in clay
461 mineralogical assemblages through time (Fig. 6). The main geodynamical evolution evident in
462 this area is the 5,000 km long obduction-driven orogeny that affected the southern Tethyan
463 margin from Lybia to Oman, linked to Africa-Eurasia convergence during the Late
464 Cretaceous (Agard et al., 2011; Şengör and Stock, 2014). On both sides of the intra-oceanic
465 subduction zone in the Zagros area, two ophiolitic belts were obducted, parallel to the south-
466 western part of Iran. These complete ophiolites sequences contain well-preserved mantellic
467 (harzburgite) and crustal (gabbro and basalt) rocks (Shafaii Moghadam and Stern, 2011).
468 Because of their mineralogical composition, oceanic crust rocks are very sensitive to chemical
469 weathering, and plagioclase feldspar (basalt and gabbro's major components) degradation
470 could provide the aluminum required to form kaolinite, incorporated in lateritic profiles
471 widespread at low latitudes (Schopka et al., 2011; Giorgis et al., 2014). Illite and chlorite are
472 primary minerals deriving from weathering and erosion of felsic, chlorite and mica-rich
473 metamorphic rocks from the basement.

474 However, if the evolution of clay assemblages along the Late Cretaceous Shahneshin
475 section was controlled by changes in the nature and provenance of the weathered and eroded

476 rocks as sediment sources, a co-variation of kaolinite proportions with Ni/Al and Cr/Al ratios
477 would be expected, that is not observed here (Fig. 6). Indeed, mafic and ultramafic rocks are
478 notably concentrated in Ni and Cr (Azizi et al., 2013; MacKay and Ansdell, 2013), and
479 detrital material eroded from such rocks and deposited nearby is expected to be enriched in Ni
480 and Cr compared to material derived from weathering of crystalline basement. On the
481 contrary, bulk rock Cr/Al and Ni/Al evolution along the section appears to be decoupled from
482 the evolution in kaolinite proportions. The Cr/Al and Ni/Al ratios both display a sharp
483 increase in the middle and late Campanian followed by a milder increase in the Maastrichtian,
484 while kaolinite proportions decrease to values close to zero at the end of the late Campanian
485 and remain close to zero afterwards, after the ca. 2Myr hiatus.

486 The evolution of Ni and Cr concentrations in the sediments do not support a change in
487 the source of the detrital material as the main driver of clay mineral assemblage evolution in
488 the studied section, between an ophiolite source generating kaolinite and a crystalline
489 basement source generating illite and chlorite. More likely, evolution of clay mineral
490 assemblages is controlled by changes in hydrolysing conditions in the studied area, with
491 kaolinite-rich intervals reflecting more humid conditions and illite and chlorite-rich intervals
492 reflecting drier conditions. The increase in Ni/Al and Cr/Al ratios from the middle Campanian
493 to the Maastrichtian may either mark the initiation of ophiolite weathering in this region, or of
494 the weathering of the ultramafic, mantellic part of the ophiolite sequence that is over 10 times
495 more enriched in Ni and Cr than the overlying basalt and gabbros (Azizi et al., 2013; Shafaii
496 Moghadam and Stern, 2015; Nouri et al., 2019; Monsef et al., 2018). Weathering of mafic and
497 ultramafic rocks can also provide the high magnesium content required to form chlorite and
498 vermiculitic clays at the expense of smectites.

499

500 5.3. Evolution of the insoluble fraction $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$: insights on ophiolite weathering in Iran?

501

502 Detrital particles derived from the weathering and erosion of the bedrock retain the
503 initial Nd isotope signature of the source rock (Goldstein et al., 1984). The Nd isotope
504 signature of the detrital fraction recovered from marine sediments has thus been widely used
505 to track sediment provenance (*e.g.* Frank et al., 2002; Goldstein and Hemming, 2003; Revel et
506 al., 2010; van der Lubbe et al., 2016). Mantellic material, characterized by high Sm/Nd ratios,
507 yield high ϵ_{Nd} values reflecting a radiogenic composition, while ancient crustal material,
508 characterized by lower Sm/Nd ratios, yield negative ϵ_{Nd} values reflecting an unradiogenic
509 composition.

510 The insoluble fraction analyzed in this work represents the residue obtained after
511 removal of carbonates, Fe-Mn oxides, and organic matter from bulk sediment samples using
512 acetic acid, hydroxyl-ammonium hydrochloride, and hydrogen peroxide respectively (Fig. 6,
513 *see the Material and Method part*). In distal oceanic sites, authigenic clays can in some case
514 contribute significantly to the insoluble fraction of the sediments which in that case may
515 partly integrate the Nd isotope composition of bottom seawater (Chamley and Bonnot-
516 Courtois, 1981; Dubinin, 2004; Karpoff et al., 2007). At Shahneshtin, the sediments have been
517 deposited in a bathyal environment within an oceanic channel during the Late Cretaceous
518 (Fig. 1), relatively close to the continent. This proximity to land masses is also highlighted by
519 the quite high sedimentation rate recorded throughout the section (Razmjooei et al., 2018;
520 Suppl. Fig. 1). Therefore, we think it unlikely for authigenic clays to represent a significant
521 part of the insoluble fraction, and interpret the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of this fraction as mostly reflecting the Nd
522 isotope composition of local detrital inputs (Fig. 6). This view is supported by the REE
523 pattern of the residue that is quite different from that of seawater characterized by a negative
524 Ce anomaly, by depletion in light REE and enrichment in heavy REE (Fig. 5).

525 The decrease in $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of the detrital fraction during the sharp rise in Ni/Al and Cr/Al

526 ratios recorded in the middle Campanian to Maastrichtian interval argues against an initiation
527 of ophiolite weathering at that time, that should rather be associated by a large increase in
528 $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values. The Nd isotope data rather support weathering of the mantellic ultramafic
529 material (mantellic rocks) underlying basalt and gabbro (volcanic and crustal rocks) of the
530 ophiolite sequence as a driver for the observed increase in Ni/Al and Cr/Al ratios. Ultramafic
531 peridotites are much more enriched in Ni and Cr (Azizi et al., 2013; Shafaii Moghadam et al.,
532 2014; Monsef et al., 2018; Nouri et al., 2019) but are not expected to markedly increase the
533 $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ value of detrital material (Blusztajn et al., 1995), compared to that derived from the
534 weathering of the overlying basalt and gabbros of the ophiolite sequence. If this interpretation
535 is correct, our data then imply that ophiolite weathering was already initiated in the vicinity of
536 the Zagros region during the Coniacian, at the base of the section, at least for the upper parts
537 of the ophiolite sequences.

538 The decrease in Nd isotope values of the detrital fraction recorded from the middle
539 Campanian to the Maastrichtian requires however the existence of an increasing input of an
540 additional material with an unradiogenic composition (Fig. 6). The Nd isotope composition of
541 the detrital fraction, in the range of -9 to -6 ϵ -units, actually appears quite unradiogenic all
542 along the section considering the age and nature of the potentially exposed terranes in the
543 vicinity of the Zagros Basin at that time, that are expected to deliver detrital material with a
544 more radiogenic composition. The Nd isotope composition of obducted ophiolites both in the
545 Outer and Inner Zagros Ophiolitic Belts is radiogenic, with $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values at 80 Ma in the range
546 of +4.9 to +9.8 ϵ -units (Shafaii Moghadam et al., 2012; Azizi et al., 2013; Shafaii Moghadam
547 et al., 2014). Granitoid bodies formed prior to the Late Cretaceous and outcropping at present
548 in Iran also tend to present relatively radiogenic ϵ_{Nd} values (*e.g.* -3.5 to -2.9 ϵ -units calculated
549 at 80 Ma for the Tuyeh-Darvar Granitoid, Naderi et al., 2018, Suppl. Table 1; or -4 to +1.2 ϵ -
550 units at 80 Ma for the granitoid body of the Misho region in northwest Iran, although two

551 samples yield more unradiogenic values of -6.4 and -9.7 ϵ -units; Ahankoub et al., 2013, Fig.
552 7; Suppl. Table 1).

553 The relatively low ϵ_{Nd} values of the insoluble fraction, down to -9 ϵ -units, thus require
554 mixing with an additional, unradiogenic source, with inputs that could have varied along the
555 section. In a recent study, Nouri et al. (2019) has shown that some parts of the Harsin-Sahneh
556 serpentinized peridotites in the mantle sequence of the Zagros ophiolite complex, exposed
557 along the Zagros suture zone in western Iran, yield more unradiogenic values, down to -7.8 ϵ -
558 units at 80 Ma (Fig. 7; Suppl. Table 1). These low values have been interpreted by these
559 authors as reflecting interaction of peridotites with seawater during metasomatism in a supra-
560 subduction zone system. Alteration of serpentinized peridotites may have partly contributed to
561 the relatively low $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values observed in the insoluble fraction of Shahneshin. Other sources
562 of unradiogenic material, farther away from the studied area, are the Khida terrane within the
563 Arabian Shield, or the East Saharan Craton on the other side of the modern Red Sea. The
564 Arabian-Nubian Shield, that represents the closest area with unradiogenic material, is
565 composed of amalgamated juvenile oceanic arc terranes and ophiolite remnants, and of
566 reworked older crust and metasediments in the flanks of the shield, that formed the suture
567 between East and West Gondwana (Stern, 1994; Stein and Goldstein, 1996; Whitehouse et al.,
568 1998, 2001; Stern, 2002; Kusky and Li., 2003). The juvenile oceanic arc terranes and
569 ophiolite remnants, that compose the largest part of the shield, have ϵ_{Nd} values calculated at
570 80Ma typically between -5 to +18 ϵ -units (Duyverman et al., 1982; Johnson and
571 Woldehaimanot, 2003; Stoesser and Frost, 2006; Fig. 7; Suppl. Table 1). On the western flank
572 of the shield, a mix of juvenile and more ancient crust yield more variable and less radiogenic
573 ϵ_{Nd} values, down to -35 ϵ -unit at 80Ma (Harms et al., 1990, 1994; Stern, 1994; Johnson and
574 Woldehaimanot, 2003). The Khida terrane, that represents a small portion of a more ancient
575 continental crust, outcrops at present in the eastern part of the shield and yields the most

576 unradiogenic Nd isotope values of the Arabian Shield (ϵ_{Nd} values calculated at 80Ma ranging
577 between -23.8 and -6.3 ϵ -units; Fig. 7; Suppl. Table 1). Although quite far away from the
578 studied section, detrital material derived from these unradiogenic parts of the Arabian-Nubian
579 Shield may have been brought by rivers, in proportions that could have evolved in the context
580 of Africa-Eurasia convergence and associated tectonic movements, susceptible to modify
581 river catchment areas.

582 Interestingly, variations in detrital fraction $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ present a striking temporal
583 coincidence with the evolution of clay mineralogical assemblages. More radiogenic $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$
584 values are recorded in the intervals rich in kaolinite while unradiogenic values are recorded
585 during intervals devoid of kaolinite and rich in chlorite and illite (Fig. 6). Wind-blown dust
586 can contribute significantly to the Nd isotope composition of the detrital material deposited in
587 oceanic basins (Grousset et al., 1988; Grousset and Biscaye, 2005). Along the western African
588 margin, markedly lower ϵ_{Nd} values (by up to +4 ϵ -units) have been recorded in the detrital
589 fraction of deep-sea core sediments deposited during the drier last glacial maximum,
590 compared to present-day values measured in core-tops at the same sites (Grousset et al.,
591 1988). These authors have interpreted these more unradiogenic values as deriving from
592 increasing inputs of Saharan wind-blown dust at these off-shore sites during the overall drier
593 climate interval corresponding to the Last Glacial Maximum. Similarly, the relatively
594 unradiogenic ϵ_{Nd} values recorded in the detrital fraction at Shahneshin may reflect to some
595 extent the presence of unradiogenic wind-blown dust mixed with radiogenic detrital material
596 derived from the weathering of nearby ophiolites and granitoids. The origin of this
597 unradiogenic dust would be difficult to determine, as it would be dependent of both
598 atmospheric circulation and of the location of deserts on ancient continental crust, but it may
599 have come from the East Saharan Craton, the Khida terrane, or, given the likely position of
600 the site relative to the trade-winds, from the Eurasian craton as much of south-east Asia is

601 thought to have been very dry during the late Cretaceous (Hasegawa et al., 2012). If this
602 interpretation is correct, then the co-variations of kaolinite proportions in clay mineral
603 assemblages with the ϵ_{Nd} values of the insoluble fraction would derive from significant
604 variations in the contribution of this unradiogenic dust material. This contribution would have
605 been higher in drier intervals marked by higher proportions of illite and chlorite, and lower in
606 more humid intervals marked by higher proportions of kaolinite. The marked decrease in Nd
607 isotope values of the insoluble fraction from the middle Campanian to the Maastrichtian,
608 associated with high proportions of illite and chlorite, could thus reflect drier climatic
609 conditions and an increased contribution of wind-blown unradiogenic material to the
610 sediments of the section at that time.

611

612 5.4. An oceanic signal partially preserved?

613

614 The carbonate leachates all present a REE pattern typical of non-skeletal marine
615 carbonates formed in shallow oxic seawater, with a negative Ce anomaly, a positive La
616 anomaly, and an enrichment in heavy rare earth elements (Webb and Kamber, 2000; Tostevin
617 et al., 2016). These REE patterns along with the significant difference, from 2 to over 4 ϵ -
618 units recorded between the carbonate leachate and the residues ϵ_{Nd} , strongly suggest that the
619 carbonate leachates record the ϵ_{Nd} of the local bottom seawater at Shahneshin.

620 It has been shown that on continental margins and proximal settings, local bottom
621 seawater ϵ_{Nd} can be impacted by local detrital inputs, through processes called boundary
622 exchanges (Lacan and Jeandel, 2001; Jeandel, 2016). Therefore, in such settings, the
623 evolution of local seawater ϵ_{Nd} can be governed by changes in the source of the material
624 eroded nearby. At Shahneshin, variations in local bottom seawater ϵ_{Nd} mirror that of the
625 detrital fraction from the Coniacian to the middle Campanian. This co-variation strongly

626 suggests that changes in the Nd isotope composition of the sediments transported to the
627 Zagros Basin have likely driven the Nd isotope composition of the local seawater during this
628 interval. By contrast, a decoupling of both isotopic signals is depicted from the late
629 Campanian onward, highlighted by the increasing difference recorded between $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)\text{bottom}}$
630 seawater and $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)\text{insoluble residue}}$ from about 2 to over 4 ϵ -units ($\Delta\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)\text{ boot. Sweater - insol resi}}$; Fig. 6).
631 While the $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ of the residue displays a marked decrease of about 3 ϵ -units from the middle
632 Campanian to the late Maastrichtian, the $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ of the local bottom waters only shows a mild
633 decrease of less than 1 ϵ -unit on average. This difference points to increasing inputs of a
634 radiogenic water mass in the Zagros Basin during this interval, driving the Nd isotope
635 composition of the local seawater further away from the unradiogenic composition of the
636 nearby detrital supply. At that time, the only deep or intermediate water masses reported in
637 the literature with radiogenic compositions above -5 ϵ -units are water masses from the Pacific
638 Ocean ($\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ ranging between -7 and -3 ϵ -units during the Late Cretaceous; Thomas, 2004;
639 Hague et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2014; Moiroud et al., 2016; Haynes et al., 2020).

640 During the Late Cretaceous, the large wind-driven westward flowing TCC flowed all
641 around the globe at low latitudes, from the Indian and Pacific Oceans into the Atlantic Ocean
642 through the Tethys, and then back to the Pacific through the Caribbean seaway (Winterer,
643 1991; Föllmi and Delamette, 1991; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2002; Donnadieu et al., 2006). The
644 development of upwellings along the southern Tethyan margin during the Campanian and
645 Maastrichtian, inferred from high productivity assemblages as radiolarites or organic-matter
646 layers, and the occurrence of large phosphorite deposits (Salaj and Nairn, 1987 ; Föllmi et al.,
647 1992 ; Almogi-Labin et al., 1993 ; Pufahl et al., 2003 ; Lüning et al., 1998 ; Meilijson et al.,
648 2014 ; El-Shafeiy et al., 2014 ; Bou Daher et al., 2014, 2015), has been linked to an
649 intensification of the TCC at that time (Pucéat et al., 2005; Soudry et al., 2004, 2006). Our
650 new results thus support a more intense TCC in the late Campanian to Maastrichtian interval,

651 that would have resulted in enhanced inputs of radiogenic Pacific waters into the Zagros
652 Basin, driving the $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ of the local seawater further away from that of the more unradiogenic
653 detrital inputs. Our work additionally suggests that the TCC could have extended to bathyal
654 depths during the Late Cretaceous, at least within the Zagros Basin.

655 Our results also highlight the quite radiogenic composition of bathyal waters in the
656 Zagros Basin, that display $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ values in the range of -3.5 to -5.5 ϵ -units, about 2 to 3 ϵ -units
657 above the $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ values of shallow waters of the Negev (Soudry et al., 2004, 2006). If such a
658 radiogenic composition is confirmed as a feature of bathyal waters in the eastern Tethys, the
659 development of an intense upwelling system could then have contributed to the increase in
660 shallow water $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ values recorded in the Negev from the Turonian to the Campanian
661 (Soudry et al., 2004; 2006), along with the intensification of the TCC. More data from other
662 bathyal sites in the Tethys are however required to confirm the latter hypothesis.

663

664 6. Conclusions

665

666 Our new clay mineralogical data coupled to sediment Ni/Al and Cr/Al ratios suggest
667 that the clay sedimentation of the eastern Tethys Shahneshtin section was mainly driven by
668 changes in local hydrolysing conditions, potentially linked to global climatic change as
669 suggested by global records in benthic foraminifer $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Humid intervals in the Coniacian to
670 Santonian and middle Campanian to early late Campanian periods could have favoured
671 kaolinite formation while more arid intervals (early Campanian and latest Campanian to late
672 Maastrichtian) would have inhibited kaolinite formation and promoted a higher proportion of
673 illite and chlorite in clay mineral assemblages.

674 The large increase recorded in sediment Ni/Al and Cr/Al from the upper Campanian
675 onward, that is not associated to a concomitant increase in the $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}(t)}$ of the detrital fraction, is

676 interpreted as reflecting the alteration and erosion of the mantellic ultramafic material of the
677 ophiolite sequence, that underlies basalt and gabbro. Following this interpretation, our data set
678 imply that the ophiolite sequence was exposed to continental alteration and erosion in this
679 area as soon as the Coniacian. Our results thus support a possible role of ophiolite obduction
680 along the southern Tethyan margin in the Late Cretaceous long-term cooling through
681 weathering of the exposed material, a process that draws down atmospheric CO₂.

682 The increasing difference recorded between the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of the local bottom seawater and
683 of the residue from the middle Campanian to the Maastrichtian points to a growing influence
684 of a radiogenic water mass entering the Zagros Basin during this period. These results support
685 an intensification of the westward flowing TCC during the Campanian and Maastrichtian that
686 would have brought larger fluxes of radiogenic Pacific waters into the eastern Tethys. Our
687 new data suggest that the TCC would have extended down to bathyal depth at that time, at
688 least in the Zagros Basin. They also provide the first $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values of intermediate to deep
689 waters within the Tethyan area revealing quite radiogenic values in this part of the eastern
690 Tethys, in the range of -3.5 to -5.5 ϵ -units. Upwelling of such radiogenic waters onto the
691 Negev platform during the Campanian and Maastrichtian could have partly contributed to the
692 recorded increase in local seawater $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values at that time.

693

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695

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1181 Figures and Tables

1182

1183 Figure 1: Structural map of the western Iranian domain (modified from Homke et al., 2009)
1184 replaced on a google earth picture (A), palaeogeographical maps of the eastern Tethyan
1185 Realm during the early Campanian (B) and late Maastrichtian (C; modified from Barrier and
1186 Vrielynck, 2007). Abbreviations: TCC = Tethyan Circum global Current; *Zag. Bas.* = Zagros
1187 Basin.

1188 Figure 2: Field view of the Shahneshin section (Zagros Basin, Iran) (A) uppermost Santonian
1189 to lowmost Campanian stratigraphic succession and (B) upper Campanian stratigraphic
1190 succession.

1191 Figure 3: Clay mineralogy of the Shahneshin section compared with the $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of the acetic
1192 acid leachates and of the insoluble fractions, and with the Ni/Al [(Ni(ppm)/Al(%))x10 000]
1193 and Cr/Al [(Cr(ppm)/Al(%))x10 000] ratios. These data have been replaced along the
1194 lithological succession, the calcareous nannofossils and planktonic foraminifera
1195 biostratigraphy and the $\delta^{13}C$ bulk rock curve of Razmjooei et al. (2018). The 2σ error are 0.35
1196 ϵ -units for the insoluble fraction and 0.21 ϵ -units for the acetic acid leachate fraction.

1197 Abbreviations: C = Coniacian ; Maast. = Maastrichtian ; Sa = Santonian

1198 Figure 4: X-ray diffractograms of the clay fraction of some samples from the Shahneshin
1199 section, at 81m, 234m and 313m. The comparison of the X-ray diffractograms below 250 m
1200 (at 81m and 234m) and above 250 m (at 313m) highly suggests the presence of vermiculite
1201 with high and narrow 14\AA peak in the upper part of the section. This difference reflects the
1202 probable occurrence of vermiculite.

1203 Figure 5: PAAS-normalized REE patterns for acetic acid leachates (at the top) and insoluble
1204 fractions (at the bottom) of the Shahneshin samples.

1205 Figure 6: Evolution of the proportions of illite, chlorite and kaolinite compared with $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of

1206 the local bottom seawater and of the insoluble fraction at Shahneshin, and the Ni/Al and Cr/Al
1207 ratios, during the Late Cretaceous. The relative ages have been calculated using the new age-
1208 model established for the Shahneshin section (see Table 1 and Suppl. Fig. 1., modified from
1209 Razmjooei et al., 2018, based on GTS 2016 from Ogg et al., 2016). The 2σ error are 0.35 ϵ -
1210 units for the insoluble fraction and 0.21 ϵ -units for the local bottom seawater. $\Delta\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ represent
1211 the difference between $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ of the seawater and the insoluble fraction. TEX86
1212 palaeotemperature data are from Pama quarry (Israel), Adrehet 1 borehole (Israel; Alsenz et
1213 al., 2013) and Shulqualak-Evans borehole (Linnert et al., 2014) and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{planktonic foraminifera}}$
1214 palaeotemperature data from ODP Site 1259 (Bornemann et al., 2008), ODP Site 1050 (Huber
1215 et al., 2002; O'Brien et al., 2017) and ODP Site 762 (Falzoni et al., 2016). These palaeo sea
1216 surface temperature are replaced along age model from O'Brien et al. (2017), based on GTS
1217 2012 (Gradstein et al., 2012)

1218 Figure 7: Nd isotopic composition (ϵ_{Nd}) calculated at 80Ma (references and calculation in
1219 Suppl. Table 1) of different magmatic complexes outcropping in the general area of the
1220 Zagros Basin. Present-day extension of the Arabian-Nubian Shield (dark grey), terrane
1221 delimitation, and Precambrian deposition basins (dashed outline) from Johnson and
1222 Woldehaimanot (2003).

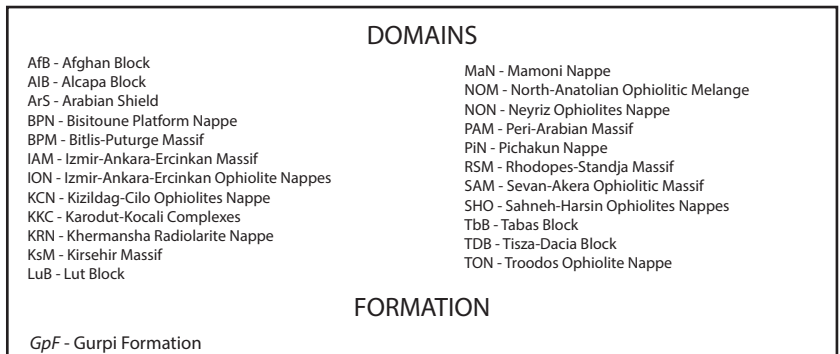
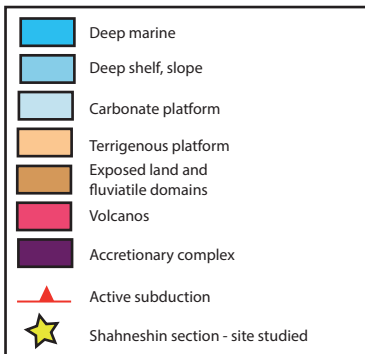
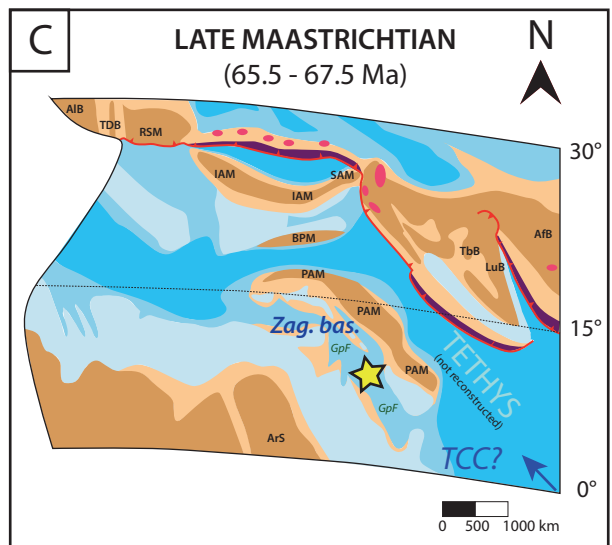
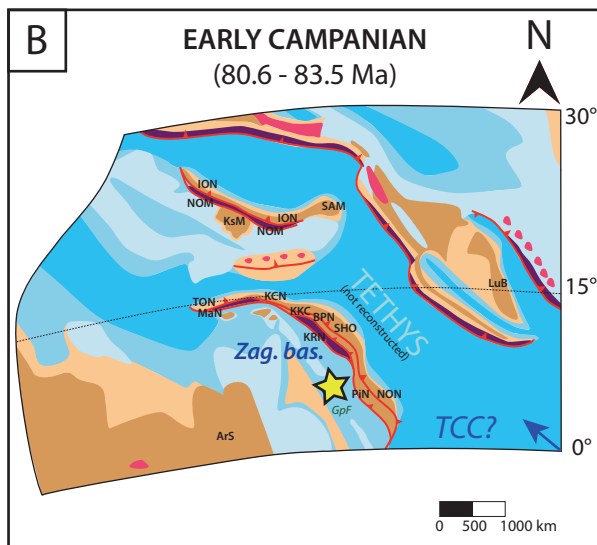
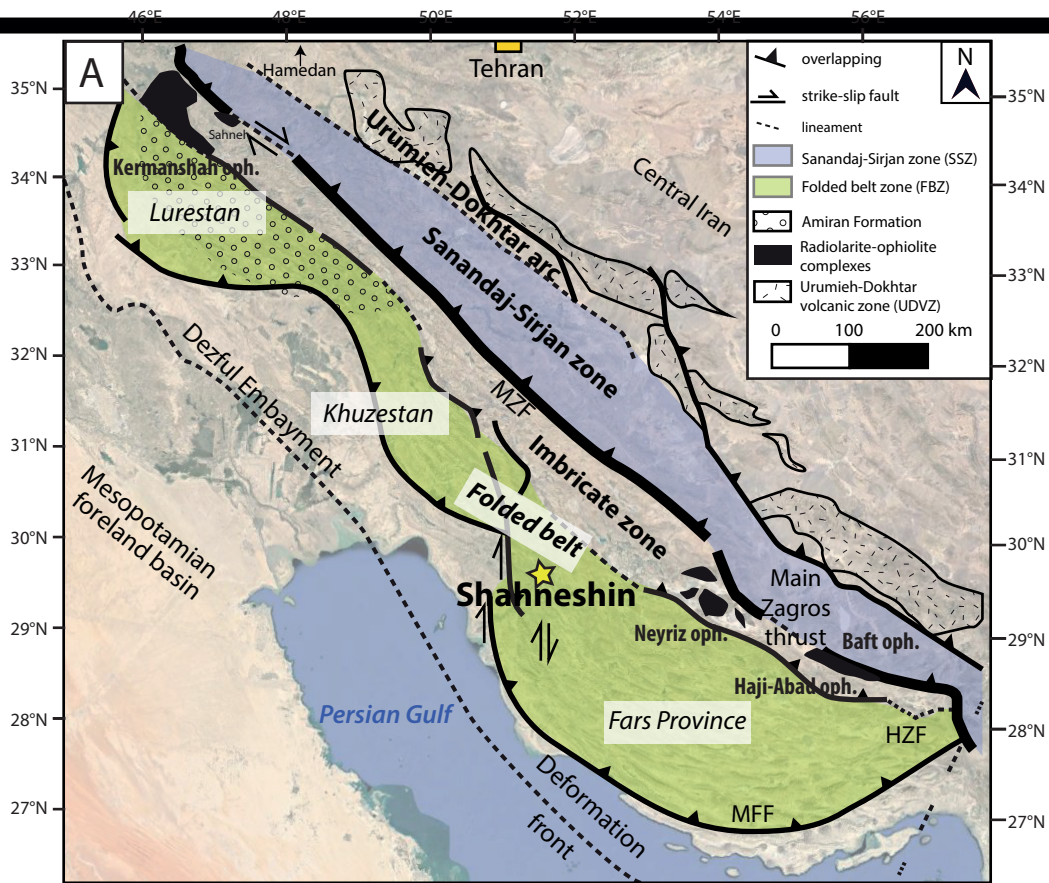
1223 Abbreviations: EG = Eastern Gulf Basin; F = Fahud Basin; G = Ghudun Basin; Gh = Ghaba
1224 Basin; SO = South Oman Basin; WG = Western Gulf Basin. The hatched area corresponds to
1225 the western oceanic arc, and the dotted area to the eastern oceanic arc, as defined in Stoesser
1226 and Frost (2006).

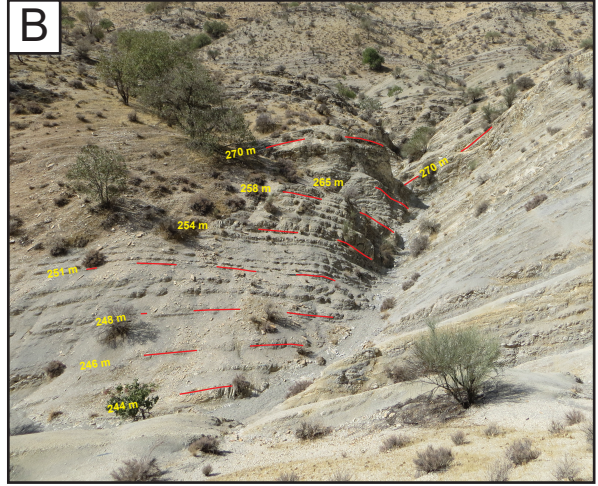
1227 Table 1: Eight anchor points used to build the age-model for the Shahneshin section (updated
1228 from Razmjooei et al., 2018 taking into account the new results on Bowan section presented
1229 in Razmjooei et al., 2020a).

1230 Table 2: REE concentrations and Nd isotopic data of the insoluble fraction, the acetic acid

1231 leachate of the Shahneshin section and the certified reference material used in the analytic
1232 series. $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ values of the Shahneshin section's samples have been calculated using the age-
1233 model of Table 1.

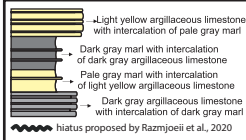
1234 Table 2: Bulk rock major and trace element concentrations of the samples from the
1235 Shahneshin section.



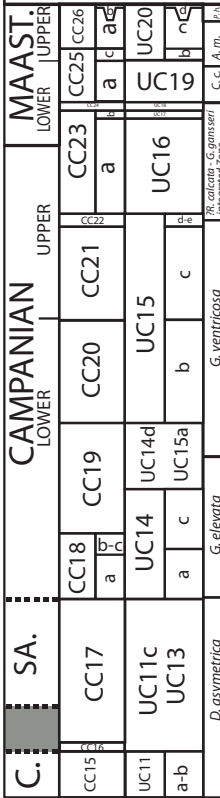


SHAHNESHIN section (Zagros Basin)

palaeolatitude
~5°N



Stage Biostratigraphy



Scale (m)

Samples for clay, major & trace

Samples for Nd and REE

Lithology

$\delta^{13}C_{bulk\ rock}$ (‰ VPDB)

I-S R1

C-5, C-V, VERMICULITE

ILLITE

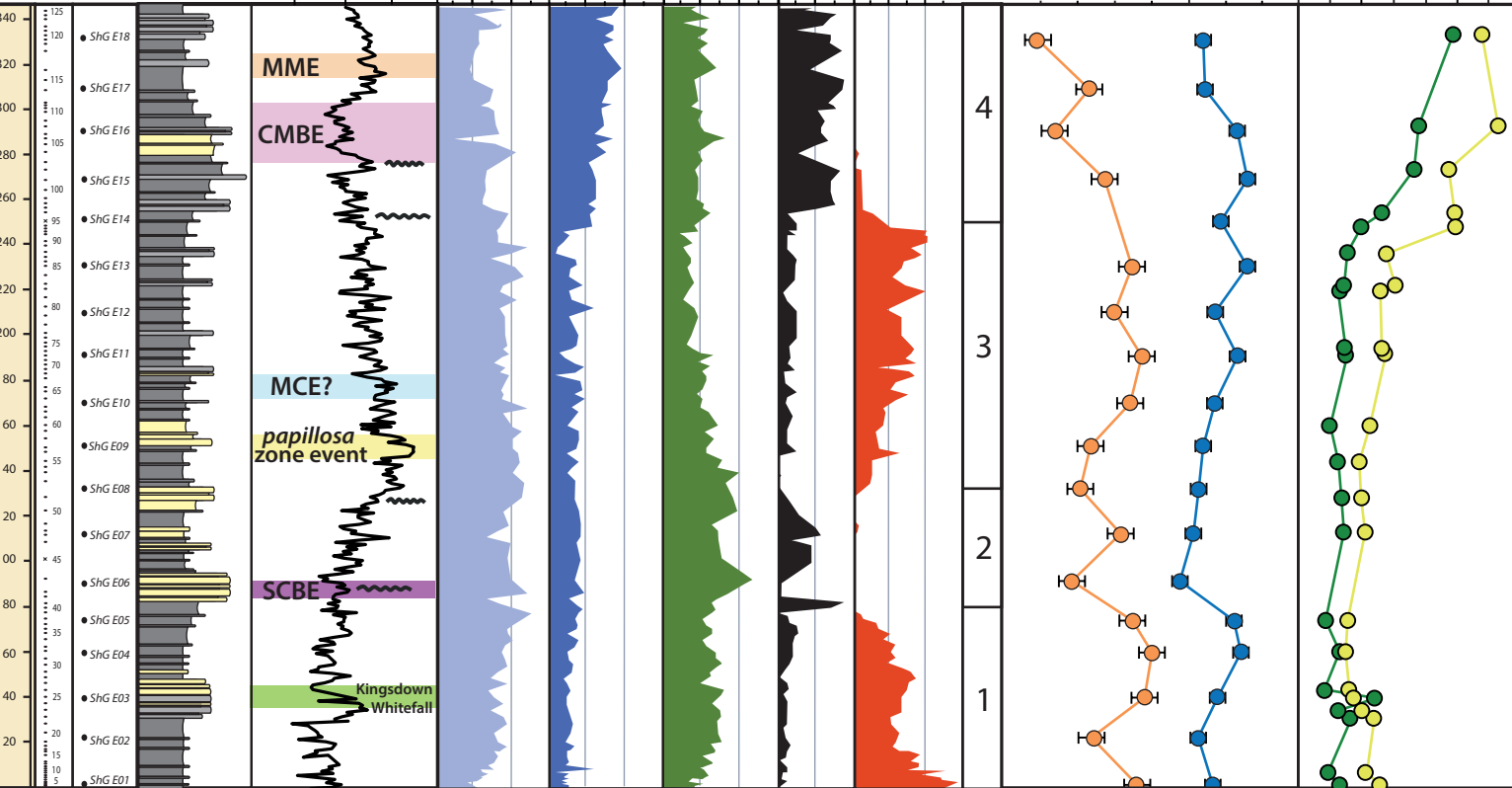
CHLORITE

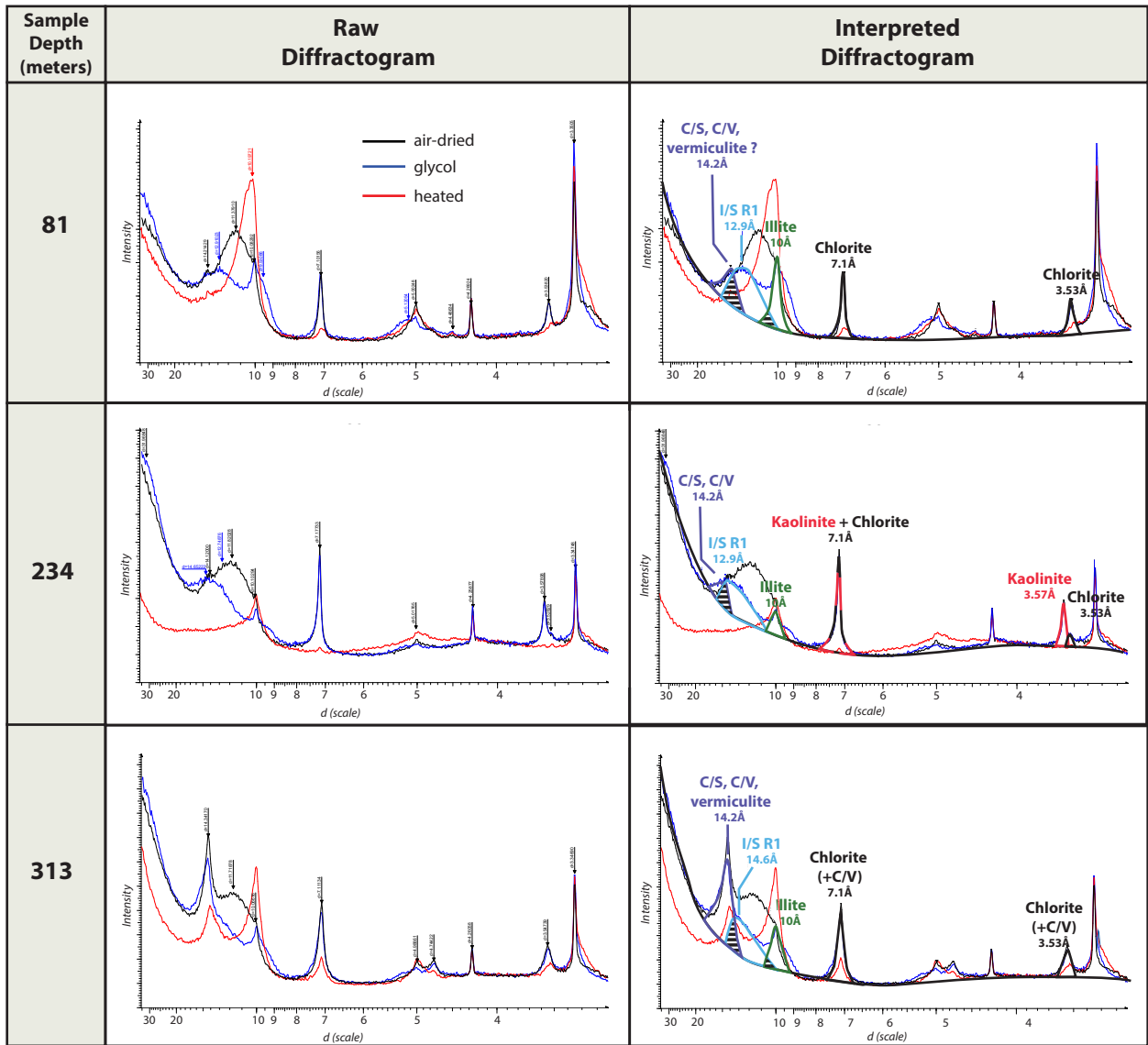
KAOLINITE

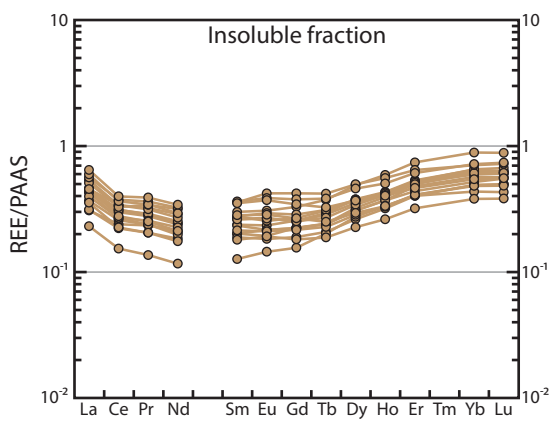
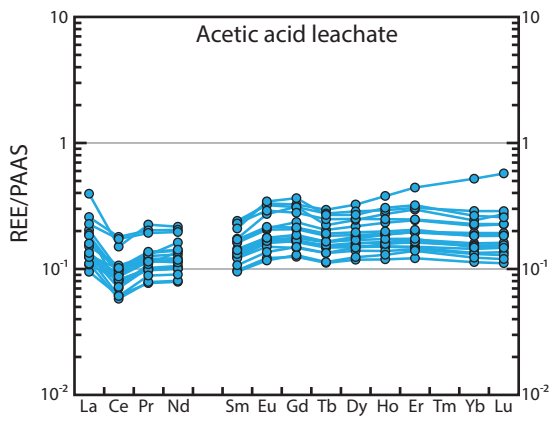
Mineralogical intervals

$\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ acid acetic leachate
 $\epsilon_{Nd(t)}$ insoluble fraction

Ni/Al
Cr/Al

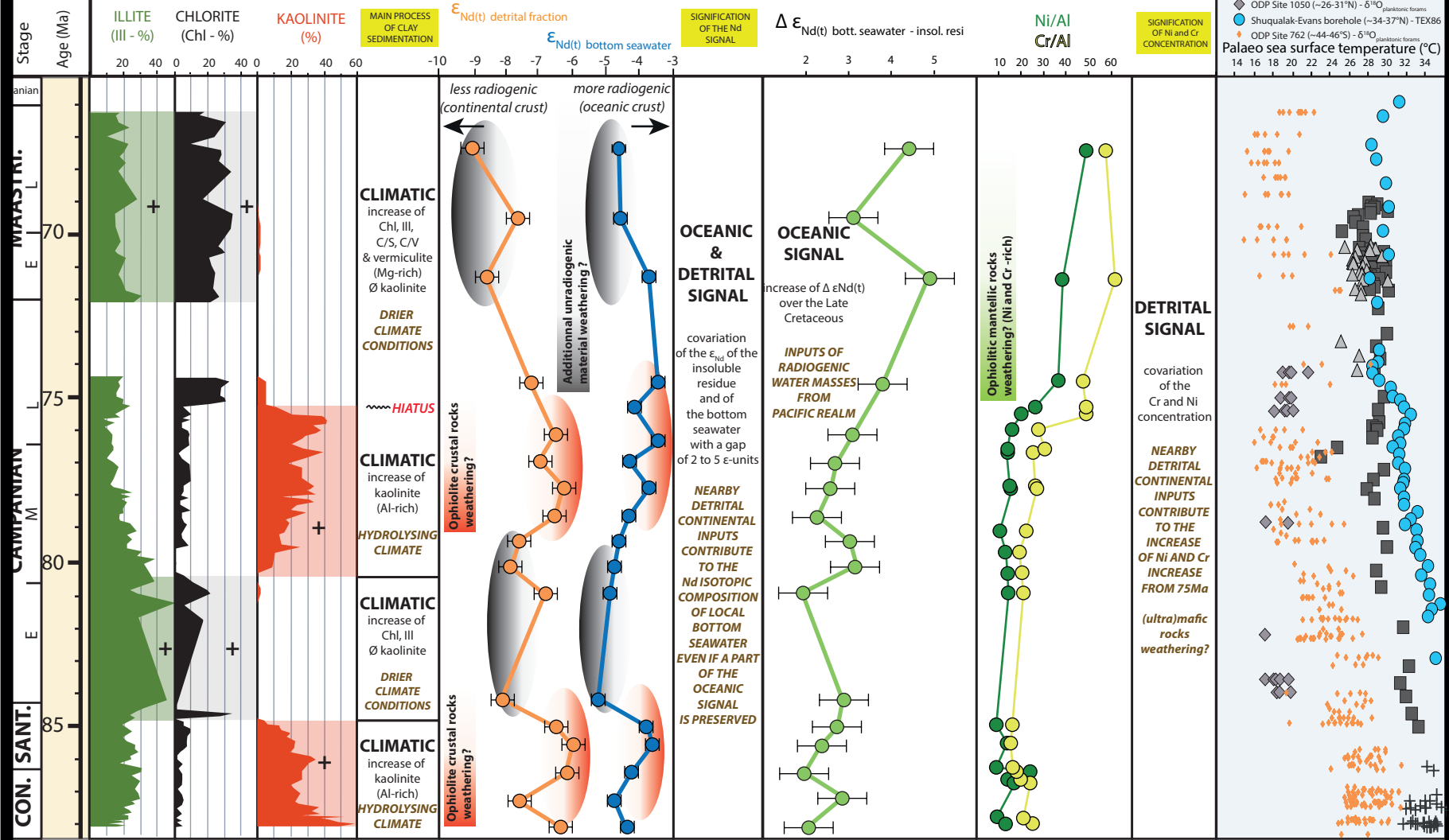




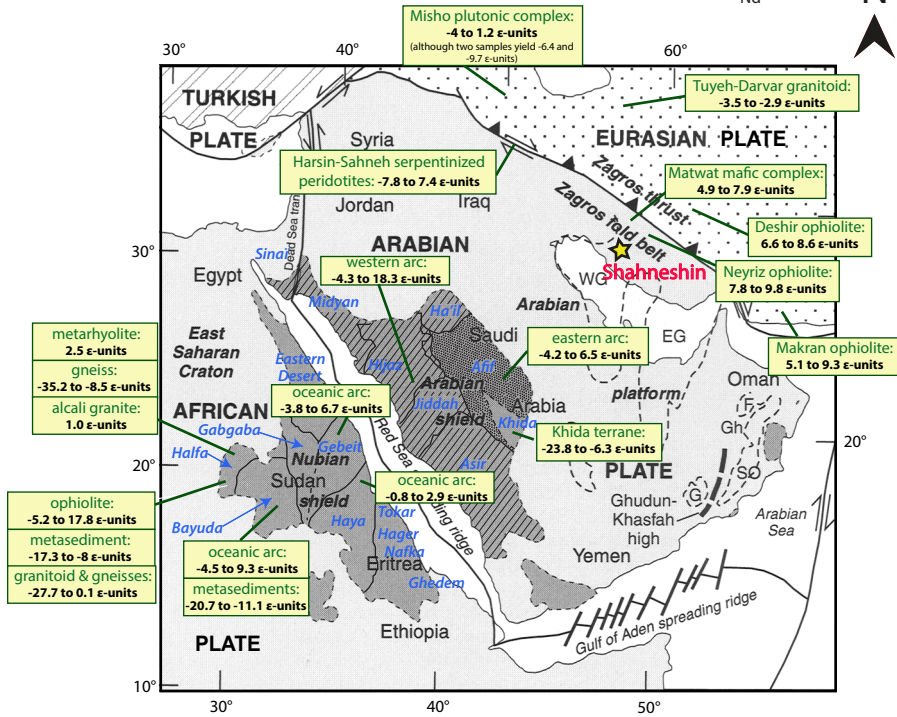


SHAHNESHIN section (Zagros Basin)

palaeolatitude
~5°N



PRESENT DAY - Nd isotopic composition (ϵ_{Nd})



Stratigraphic anchors	Height (m)	Age (Ma)	Sedimentation rate
K-Pg Boundary	345,85	66,04	-
Base Maastrichtian	283,8	72,15	1,02
Base hiatus in Razmjooei agetmodel	283,8	74,01	0,00
FO <i>G. aegytiaca</i>	274	74,42	2,39
LO <i>M. furcatus</i>	113	81,00	2,45
LO <i>D. asymetrica</i> /Base Campanian	94	84,20	0,59
Kingsdown event/Base Santonian	40	86,49	2,36
Base section with constant sedimentation rate	0	88,19	2,36

FO = First Occurrence; LO = Last Occurrence

Sample ID	SiO ₂ (%)	Al ₂ O ₃ (%)	Fe ₂ O ₃ (%)	MnO (%)	MgO (%)	CaO (%)	Na ₂ O (%)	K ₂ O (%)	TiO ₂ (%)	P ₂ O ₅ (%)	Ni (ppm)	Cr (ppm)
G3	9.43	4.72	1.56	< D.L.	0.39	44.57	0.04	0.60	0.18	< D.L.	33.2	63.4
G10	15.39	6.95	2.44	< D.L.	0.51	38.77	0.05	1.02	0.31	< D.L.	33.6	76.6
G22	10.80	3.63	1.42	< D.L.	0.44	44.62	0.05	0.82	0.17	0.12	31.3	45.6
G23	12.21	4.39	1.65	< D.L.	0.46	43.14	0.03	0.94	0.20	0.12	29.9	45.9
G25	13.84	5.15	2.10	0.037	0.49	41.22	0.04	1.09	0.23	0.11	65.6	47.5
G26	13.65	5.06	1.68	< D.L.	0.47	41.73	0.04	1.08	0.23	0.13	22.9	42.4
G32	18.36	6.65	2.26	0.016	0.58	36.61	0.07	1.58	0.31	0.11	46.9	53.4
G38	15.00	4.92	1.76	< D.L.	0.57	40.84	0.06	1.44	0.23	0.12	22.6	40.3
G48	15.25	3.86	1.52	< D.L.	0.57	41.53	0.08	1.14	0.17	0.10	29.2	42.4
G51	12.57	3.18	1.31	< D.L.	0.45	44.02	0.06	0.90	0.14	< D.L.	22.6	33.6
G55	16.27	4.91	1.86	< D.L.	0.64	39.89	0.04	1.17	0.23	< D.L.	32.3	49.7
G60	12.45	4.03	1.52	< D.L.	0.53	43.48	0.03	0.82	0.19	< D.L.	21.1	48.0
G73	10.08	3.32	1.38	< D.L.	0.41	45.88	0.03	0.51	0.15	< D.L.	26.4	47.6
G74	11.23	4.17	1.59	< D.L.	0.44	44.31	0.04	0.55	0.19	< D.L.	32.5	56.9
G82	11.88	4.32	1.70	< D.L.	0.43	43.65	0.05	0.55	0.20	0.10	29.8	58.4
G83	10.99	3.81	1.68	< D.L.	0.45	44.52	0.05	0.51	0.18	0.11	29.0	61.5
G88	11.70	4.52	1.62	< D.L.	0.44	43.81	0.03	0.54	0.21	< D.L.	37.3	66.1
G94	11.44	3.87	1.66	< D.L.	0.54	44.03	0.10	0.61	0.18	0.19	40.8	101
G96	11.30	3.47	1.59	< D.L.	0.54	44.30	0.07	0.60	0.17	< D.L.	48.5	89.8
G102	8.73	2.14	1.14	0.018	0.51	47.89	0.11	0.43	0.11	< D.L.	41.3	53.3
G108	7.63	1.99	1.06	< D.L.	0.52	48.27	0.07	0.40	0.10	< D.L.	40.0	65.7
G120	12.41	3.24	2.29	0.025	1.06	43.59	0.10	0.69	0.18	0.11	83.4	98.5

D.L. : detection limit