



1 **Clay mineralogical evidence for mid-latitude terrestrial climate change from the**
2 **latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene in the Songliao Basin, NE China**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 From the latest Cretaceous (late Campanian to Maastrichtian, ~76-66 Ma) through the earliest
18 Paleogene, a fluctuating greenhouse climate prevailed and climatic changes were linked to
19 catastrophic geological events and massive biotic extinction. Paleoclimate reconstructions during this
20 time period primarily rely on marine sediments, with limited high-resolution terrestrial records. Here
21 we present a high-resolution clay mineralogical record from the Sifangtai Formation and the Mingshui
22 Formation of the Songliao Basin, northeast China, which are continuously deposited fluvial to
23 lacustrine strata, and have been tightly age constrained as late Campanian to early Danian. Smectite



24 and illite are the dominant clay species, whereas kaolinite and chlorite are minor components. Clay
25 minerals are derived from the weathering of parent rocks and/or paleosols, and their relative weight
26 percentages are primarily controlled by regional paleoclimate and sedimentary environment. We use
27 three clay mineralogical proxies, including the percentage ratio of smectite and illite, illite chemistry
28 index and the percentage ratio of phyllosilicate clay minerals and quartz in clay fractions, for
29 paleoclimatic reconstruction. We correlate these proxy timeseries with basin-scale and global
30 paleoclimate timeseries. Our results show that from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest
31 Paleogene, values of all three clay mineralogical proxies in the Songliao Basin are generally higher
32 during warming intervals than those during cooling intervals. We interpret this dataset to suggest that
33 warming caused strengthened moisture delivery from the Pacific, increasing precipitation and
34 intensified chemical weathering, whereas cooling was accompanied by increasing dryness and
35 physical weathering. Before the Cretaceous-Paleogene (K-Pg) boundary (approximately 66.4 Ma to
36 66.0 Ma), the warming likely related to Deccan volcanism and the transient cooling afterwards are
37 characterized by paleosol carbonate stable isotopic excursions and changes in the illite chemistry
38 index recorded in the Songliao Basin sediments, reflecting fluctuations in precipitation and weathering
39 intensity. However, changes in clay mineral assemblages are not clear before and at the K-Pg
40 boundary. This is probably due to the relatively long-response time of terrestrial weathering regimes
41 (up to 500 kyrs) to the short duration of the K-Pg boundary impact and the degassing by the preceding
42 Deccan Traps volcanism (~200 kyrs). In the earliest Paleogene, after the K-Pg boundary, all clay
43 mineralogical and stable isotopic proxies indicate a warmer and more humid climate with stronger
44 chemical weathering. Our work demonstrates that terrestrial climate and weathering intensity in the
45 mid-latitude Songliao Basin fluctuated during the latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene and
46 sensitively responded to global climate changes.

47 **Keywords:** clay mineral, terrestrial paleoclimate, weathering, Cretaceous-Paleogene Boundary,
48 Songliao Basin

49



50 **1. Introduction**

51 The Late Cretaceous witnessed a global cooling trend following peak warmth during the mid-
52 Cretaceous, an interval of the warmest greenhouse climate during the past 100 million years (Friedrich
53 et al., 2012; Linnert et al., 2014; O'Brien et al., 2017). From the latest Cretaceous (late Campanian to
54 Maastrichtian, ~76-66 Ma) through the earliest Paleogene, short-term climatic oscillations were
55 superimposed on the long-term trend of decreasing temperatures (Berrera and Savin, 1999; Friedrich
56 et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2015a). Evidence for short-term climate cooling, most prominent in the early
57 Maastrichtian, are inferred primarily from positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in benthic foraminifera in multiple
58 ocean basins, and sedimentary and palynological records suggesting the presence of sea ice in polar
59 regions (Berrera and Savin, 1999; Davies et al., 2009; Friedrich et al., 2012; Bowman et al., 2013).
60 Warming events at hundred-thousand to million-year time scales occurred during the middle
61 Maastrichtian, the latest Maastrichtian and the earliest Paleocene, which are supported by records of
62 the oxygen and clumped isotopes of biogenic carbonates and records of the organic geochemical
63 proxy TEX₈₆ for sea surface temperatures (e.g., Friedrich et al., 2012; Petersen et al., 2016; Woelders
64 et al., 2018; Hull et al., 2020). Understanding the processes and mechanisms of these climatic
65 oscillations are essential for deciphering their cause-and-effect relationships with catastrophic events
66 of the latest Cretaceous, such as the Deccan Traps volcanism and the Chicxulub asteroid impact
67 (Alvarez et al., 1980; Keller et al., 2012; Schoene et al., 2019; Sprain et al., 2019; Hull et al., 2020).
68 Furthermore, it has been debated whether these climatic oscillations are tightly linked to biological
69 evolution from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene, including at the Cretaceous-
70 Paleogene (K-Pg) boundary mass extinction, during the pre-K-Pg-boundary high biologic stress and
71 during the post-K-Pg-boundary biotic recovery (Keller et al., 2012; Petersen et al., 2016; Lyson et al.,
72 2019).

73 Most of the climatic and biological records from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest
74 Paleogene are derived from marine sediments. Continuous terrestrial records during this time interval
75 that have high-resolution age constraints and multiple paleoenvironmental proxies comparable to



76 marine records are still lacking, despite efforts on terrestrial studies during the past two decades
77 (Nordt et al., 2003; Wilf et al., 2003; Tobin et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2015a; Sprain et al., 2015). The
78 Songliao Basin in northeastern China, which was a long-lived lake basin in the Cretaceous Period,
79 preserved up to 10,000 meters of terrestrial sediments (Feng et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Figure
80 1A). An International Continental Scientific Drilling Project in the Songliao Basin, the SK-1 scientific
81 boreholes, recovered 800-meters of nearly complete and continuous cores of terrestrial strata spanning
82 the latest Cretaceous to the earliest Paleogene, namely the Sifangtai Formation and the Mingshui
83 Formation (Feng et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2019). These two geological formations
84 have been precisely age constrained as 76.1 to 65.1 Ma by magnetostratigraphy, biostratigraphy and
85 cyclostratigraphy (Deng et al., 2013; Wan et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014). Previous studies using stable
86 isotopes of fossil ostracods and pedogenic carbonates from the Sifangtai and Mingshui Formations
87 (SMF) of the SK-1 cores demonstrate a punctuated terrestrial climate in response to global climatic
88 oscillations (Chamberlain et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a; Zhang et al., 2018). However, further
89 paleoclimatic and paleoenvironmental proxies are needed to illustrate and elucidate the terrestrial
90 climatic evolution of the Songliao Basin, in particular changes in hydroclimate and weathering
91 intensity, from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene.

92 Sedimentary clay minerals are phyllosilicates finer than 2 μm that are commonly formed in
93 weathering profiles and soils (Chamley, 1989; Thiry, 2000; Liu et al., 2012). These minerals are
94 useful indicators for paleoenvironmental and paleoclimatic evolutions in modern and deep-time
95 sedimentary basins, on the basis that post-depositional processes do not significantly alter the
96 mineralogical composition (Chamley, 1989; Thiry, 2000; Sáez et al., 2003; Dera et al., 2009; Liu et al.,
97 2010; Gao et al., 2018; Deconinck et al., 2019). Efforts have been made to study the clay mineral
98 assemblages through the SMF in the Songliao Basin and specifically on the SK-1 cores (Gao et al.,
99 2013; 2015b). Gao et al. (2015b) studied clay mineral compositions throughout both of the ~2500 m
100 long SK-1 cores at a sampling interval of ~10 m and interpreted paleoenvironmental and post-
101 deposition signals. It was demonstrated that in the latest Cretaceous SMF, authigenic kaolinite and
102 smectite present in sandstones whereas were formed during early diagenesis whereas clay mineral



103 compositions in mudstones were primarily controlled by paleoenvironmental factors. Further, a more
104 detailed study of clay mineralogy of a 60 m thick section of the middle Mingshui Formation in SK-1
105 cores indicates that variations in smectite and illite composition mainly reflect changes on regional
106 paleoclimate and provenance (Gao et al., 2013). In this paper, we present a high-resolution (~1-5 m
107 sampling interval) clay mineralogical sequence throughout SMF in the SK-1 cores, based on 213 new
108 and 91 published data (Gao et al., 2013; 2015b). By correlating clay mineral variations to regional and
109 global paleoclimate timeseries, we interpret the terrestrial paleoclimatic evolution in the Songliao
110 Basin and link these changes to global climate from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest
111 Paleogene.

112

113 **2. Geological setting**

114 The Songliao Basin lies in northeastern margin of the Eurasian continent and covers roughly
115 260,000 km² in the northeastern China (Fig. 1; Feng et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013). It was formed as
116 a rift basin in the late Mesozoic extensional domain of eastern China and eastern Mongolia, as a result
117 of interactions among the Pacific plate, the North China craton and the Siberia craton (Graham et al.,
118 2001; Feng et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016). During the Cretaceous, the Songliao Basin underwent
119 three distinct tectonic episodes, including rifting, thermal subsidence and structural inversion (Feng et
120 al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016). In the Early Cretaceous rifting stage, multiple fault blocks developed
121 along NNE trending and volcanoclastic and sedimentary rocks deposited in isolated basins (Feng et al.,
122 2010; Wang et al., 2016). Continued extension and lithospheric cooling caused regional thermal
123 subsidence from Early Cretaceous through Late Cretaceous, during this time thousands-of-meters of
124 alluvial fan, fluvial and lacustrine sediments were preserved in the basin (Feng et al., 2010; Wang et
125 al., 2013). In the late stage of the basin evolution, subduction of the Pacific Plate beneath the Eurasian
126 continent caused significant regional compression and basin-scale structural inversion, therefore the
127 sedimentary basin shrunk to demise (Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). The “Continental
128 Scientific Drilling Project of Cretaceous Songliao Basin (SK)” is aimed to obtain a complete,



129 continuous, terrestrial sedimentary record of the whole Cretaceous and to study continental climate
130 and environment during the greenhouse period (Feng et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2019).
131 In its first phase, the SK-1 project, two scientific boreholes (SK-1s and SK-1n) have been conducted
132 to recover rock cores of 2,485.89 m in total length with a recovery ratio of 96.46% (Feng et al., 2013;
133 Gao et al., 2019).

134 The Sifangtai and Mingshui Formations (SMF) are the uppermost Cretaceous units in the
135 Songliao Basin deposited during the structural inversion stage of basin development (Feng et al., 2010;
136 Wang et al., 2013). Two regional unconformities, which represent hiatus spanning millions of years as
137 a result of intensified tectonic compression, separate these two formations from underlying and
138 overlying strata, although no obvious unconformities have been detected within the SMF stratigraphy
139 including between the Sifangtai and Mingshui Formations (Feng et al., 2010). The SMF is mainly
140 comprised of grey-green and brown-red colored mudstones, siltstones and fine sandstones, deposited
141 under fluvial to shallow lacustrine environments (Feng et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015). In the SK-1n
142 scientific core, the Sifangtai Formation (depth range of 807.12-1021.60 m) is characterized by reddish
143 to brownish mudstone, siltstone and grayish sandstone of fluvial to environments (Figure 2; Wang et
144 al., 2015). The Mingshui Formation (depth range of 807.12-210.66 m) is subdivided into two
145 members according to lithology and sedimentary facies. The lower member, the lower ~200 m of the
146 formation, is characterized by grey siltstone, sandstone and two sets of grey to black mudstone with
147 fine laminations (Figure 2; Wang et al., 2015). These mudstones were interpreted as shallow to semi-
148 deep lacustrine facies, probably controlled by temporarily intensified extensional stress field (Cheng et
149 al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2015). The upper ~400 m of the Mingshui Formation is
150 characterized by green, brown and red mudstone and grey siltstone and sandstone, mainly deposited
151 under fluvial and shore to shallow lacustrine environments (Figure 2; Cheng et al., 2009; Wang et al.,
152 2015). Paleosols have been identified in the floodplain mudstones and shore lacustrine mudstones
153 throughout the SMF (Huang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a).



154 The ages of the SMF sediments in the SK-1n core are well constrained by multiple
155 geochronological efforts. Paleomagnetic studies indicate that the SMF spans five magnetozones from
156 C33n to C29r in the Geomagnetic Polarity Time Scale (Deng et al., 2013). This is consistent with
157 biostratigraphic studies on ostracods, pollens and spores, and charophytes, which suggest a late
158 Campanian to early Danian age (Li et al., 2011; Wan et al., 2013; Qu et al., 2014; Li et al., 2019).
159 Obvious decameter-to meter-scale sedimentary cycles in thorium logging data in SMF reflect
160 Milankovith cycles, allowing for the establishment of a robust astronomical time scale by tuning
161 filtered 405 kyr eccentricity cycles (Wu et al., 2014). Anchored by the boundary of paleomagnetic
162 chrons C29r/C30n at 342.1 m with an absolute age of 66.3 Ma, this astronomical time scale provides
163 precise age control for the SMF sediments, which is applied for all samples in this study. Furthermore,
164 the astronomical time scale places the Cretaceous-Paleogene Boundary (66.0 Ma) at a depth of ~318
165 m, which is in agreement with constraints generated from other chronological methods (Wan et al.,
166 2013; Wu et al., 2014).

167

168 3. Methods

169 In this study 91 published and 213 new data were used for clay mineralogical analysis in the
170 SMF of the SK-1n core. In general data points are evenly distributed throughout the mudstones in the
171 SMF with a depth resolution of approximately 1 m to 5 m, corresponding to a temporal resolution less
172 than 50 kyrs (Wu et al., 2014). Only mudstone samples were selected and analyzed for paleoclimatic
173 and paleoenvironmental inferences, as based on our previous work clay minerals in siltstones and
174 sandstones may be formed by authigenesis during early diagenetic process (Gao et al., 2013; 2015b),
175 as such, the previously generated datasets were also filtered for mudstone samples only.

176 Clay mineralogy was determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis. Bulk rock samples were
177 slightly ground and reacted with 0.1 N HCl to remove carbonates. They were then deflocculated by
178 successive washing with distilled water, and particles smaller than 2 μm were separated by



179 sedimentation and centrifugation (Liu et al., 2004). Clay-sized minerals (<2 μm) were analyzed using
180 XRD on oriented mounts of non-calcareous clay-sized particles (Liu et al., 2004). XRD was carried
181 out on a PANalytical X'Pert PRO diffractometer with Cu $K\alpha$ radiation and Ni filter, under 40 kV
182 voltage and 25 mA intensity, at the State Key Laboratory of Marine Geology, Tongji University.
183 Three XRD runs were performed on each sample, following air-drying, ethylene-glycol solvation for
184 24 hours, and heating at 490 °C for 2 hours. The goniometer performed a scan from 3° to 30° 2 θ for
185 each run.

186 Identification of clay minerals was based on the positions of the (001) basal reflections on the
187 XRD diffractograms under the three different conditions (Moore and Reynolds, 1997; Figure 3). In the
188 present study, smectite includes randomly ordered mixed-layer illite-smectite, with a diagnostic
189 expanded 17 Å peak upon ethylene-glycol treatment. Semi-quantitative calculations were carried out
190 on the XRD patterns under ethylene glycol-solution conditions, using the MacDiff software (Petschick
191 et al., 1996). The relative abundances of each clay-mineral species were estimated mainly according to
192 the areas of the (001) series of basal reflections, i.e. smectites 17 Å, illite 10 Å, and kaolinite/chlorite 7
193 Å (Liu et al., 2004; Figure 3). Relative proportions of kaolinite and chlorite were determined using the
194 ratios of the 3.57/3.53 Å peak areas (Liu et al., 2004). Ratios of phyllosilicate clay minerals and quartz
195 in clay fractions (clay/quartz ratio) were determined by ratios between a sum of clay peak (17 Å + 10
196 Å + 7 Å) areas and the quartz 4.26 Å peak area (Frank and Ehrmann, 2010).

197 The illite chemistry index was applied to estimate intensity of chemical weathering in the present
198 study. It is based on the area ratio of the 5 Å peak and the 10 Å peak under ethylene glycol-solution
199 conditions (Liu et al., 2012; Figure 3). Values of this index above 0.40 represent Al-rich illites
200 (muscovites) which are products of strong hydrolysis. When Mg and Fe substitute Al in illite's crystal
201 lattice, this index decreases accordingly. Ratios below 0.15 are found in Fe–Mg-rich illites (biotites),
202 which are characteristic of physical erosion (Petschick et al., 1996). Smectite and illite crystallinity
203 indexes, which are half-height widths of 17 Å peak and 10 Å peak under ethylene glycol conditions,
204 are positively correlated to weight percentages of smectite and illite respectively, which are calculated



205 on peak areas (see Supplement). Therefore, given the purpose of this study, we use proxies based on
206 the ratios of different peak areas (e.g., clay/quartz ratio, illite chemistry index) as paleoclimatic and
207 paleoenvironmental indicators in the present study, rather than measures of the peak shape such as
208 smectite and illite crystallinity index.

209

210 **4. Results**

211 Our results indicate that clay minerals in the SMF of the SK-1 cores are dominated by smectite
212 (1-99%) and illite (1-92%), with average weight percentages of 68% and 26% respectively (Figure 2).
213 Kaolinite (0-12%) and chlorite (0-13%) are minor clay species with average abundances of 3% and 4%
214 respectively (Figure 2). Overall smectite shows an increasing trend in relative proportion from bottom
215 to top of the SMF, whereas illite, kaolinite and chlorite show corresponding decreasing trends, which
216 results in an increasing trend of smectite/illite ratio over the SMF. Illite chemistry index increases
217 gradually with decreasing depth. The clay/quartz ratio varies between 0-200 and has higher values in
218 the upper part of the SMF (Figure 2).

219 In addition to these overall trends, short-term fluctuations on relative proportions and ratios of
220 clay species and illite chemistry index are observed at approximately the hundred-meter scale (Figure
221 2). Eight zones are divided according to synchronous or inverse changes among proxies. For example,
222 zones II, V, VIII are characterized by high smectite proportion and low illite proportion (high
223 smectite/illite ratio), high illite chemistry index and high clay/quartz ratio (Figure 2). On the contrary,
224 lower smectite content and higher illite content (lower smectite/illite ratio), lower illite chemistry
225 index and lower clay/quartz ratio are observed in zones I, IV, VI (Figure 2). These features
226 demonstrating the co-evolution of mineralogical composition and crystallinity imply a unified
227 controlling mechanism. Furthermore, zones III and VII show different features from other clay
228 mineralogical zones. Zone III has generally high smectite content and low illite content, but with
229 lower illite chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio, except for the one peak of extremely low



230 smectite/illite ratio in the middle of the zone (Figure 2). Zone VII is characterized by a moderate
231 smectite/illite ratio but increasing values of illite chemistry index and an increase in kaolinite content
232 in clay mineralogical composition (Figure 2).

233

234 **5. Discussion**

235 **5.1 Origin and paleoclimatic significance of clay minerals in the SMF of the SK-1n core**

236 In sedimentary basins, clay mineralogical composition in mudstones are controlled by several
237 factors, including the weathering of parent rocks, differential settling in transportation and deposition
238 processes, pedogenic transformation and neof ormation in paleosols, and diagenesis (Chamley, 1989;
239 Moore and Reynolds, 1997; Wilson, 1999; Thiry, 2000; Gao et al., 2015b; Deconinck et al., 2019). It
240 is therefore important to ensure that clay minerals are primarily detrital in origin without significant
241 influence of diagenesis, before they are used for paleoenvironmental reconstructions.

242 Gao et al. (2015b) examined clay minerals in all geological formations of the SK-1 cores at a
243 sampling interval of ~10 m, and suggested that burial diagenesis could cause the decreasing trend of
244 smectite, increasing trend of illite, and ordered smectite-illite mixed layers and chlorite with depth
245 from ~1000 m through ~2000 m. However, given the absence of ordered smectite-illite mixed layers
246 and oscillating depth-dependent variations of smectite and illite, burial diagenesis appears to be
247 negligibly influencing clay minerals of the SMF at depths shallower than 1000 m (Gao et al., 2015b).
248 A high content of smectite in rose-like shape was detected in sandstones of the SMF, likely as a result
249 of authigenesis during early diagenesis (Gao et al., 2013; 2015b). On the contrary, in the mudstone
250 unites the dominance of smectite and illite, and their platy shapes under electron microscope, indicate
251 a detrital origin likely linked to changes in weathering regime and paleoclimatic changes (Gao et al.,
252 2015b).



253 The most abundant clay mineral in the SMF is smectite, in which randomly ordered smectite-
254 illite mixed layers are included because of their similar origin and paleoclimatic significance (Figures
255 2 and 3). Two main origins of sedimentary smectite are chemical weathering of volcanic rocks and
256 transformation and neof ormation during pedogenesis in soil profiles (Deconinck and Chamley, 1995;
257 Wilson, 1999; Liu et al., 2009). During the Campanian and Maastrichtian, the main sources of
258 sediments in the Songliao Basin were the Zhangguangcai Range and the Lesser Xing'an Range to the
259 east of the basin, in response to uplift caused by subduction of the Pacific plate (Feng et al., 2010;
260 Zhang et al., 2017; Figure 1B). Today these mountain ranges primarily expose granitic rocks, but a
261 large suite of geochemical provenance data indicates that during the Cretaceous period mafic volcanic
262 rocks were present and provided sedimentary sources (Gao et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2013; Meng et al.,
263 2014). Thus, the weathering of volcanic rocks in the Lesser Xing'an – Zhangguangcai ranges could be
264 a potential source for smectite in SMF of the Songliao Basin. Reworking or in-situ formation of
265 smectitic soils may be another source. Smectite tends to form in soils of low-lying topography, poor
266 drainage and base-rich parent material, such as Vertisols and Alfisols, through the neof ormation or
267 transformation by mica minerals (Wilson, 1999). It has been reported that multiple layers of paleosols
268 occurred in the SMF of the SK-1n core, whereas widespread floodplains across the basin could have
269 favored paleosol development under a temperate, semi-humid to semi-arid climate in the latest
270 Cretaceous (Huang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a).

271 Illites are usually physical weathering products of crystalline rocks (Chamley, 1989). In soils
272 illites are commonly inherited from parent rocks and do not typically form during pedogenesis
273 (Wilson, 1999). We propose that the illites in the SMF of the SK-1n core are primarily derived from
274 the physical weathering of granitoids in the Lesser Xing'an – Zhangguangcai ranges (Gao et al., 2013).
275 The chemical index of illite, which represents chemical composition of illitic minerals, is therefore a
276 useful indicator for weathering intensity in the source area, where higher values indicate stronger
277 hydrolysis whereas lower values indicate stronger physical erosion (Petschick et al., 1996; Liu et al.,
278 2012). Furthermore, as smectite fractions are usually finer and lighter than other clay minerals, they



279 tend to be transported further and deposited at distal lacustrine environment, whereas illite and
280 kaolinite could be preferentially deposited at proximal lacustrine and fluvial environments (Thiry,
281 2000). Differentially settling during sedimentary processes may also influence the composition of clay
282 minerals in mudstones such as those in the SMF.

283 Although we cannot fully distinguish the influences of parent rock weathering, pedogenic
284 formation and differential settling on origins and relative proportions of smectites and illites, we argue
285 that these factors drive the ratio of smectites and illites in the same direction during hydroclimate
286 changes. For example, in a wetter hydroclimate, with an intensified hydrologic cycle, increased
287 chemical weathering on parent rocks and higher rates of transformation and neof ormation in soil
288 profiles are expected to generate more smectite versus illite. Expanded lakes may also preserve more
289 differentially deposited smectite in lacustrine sediments. On the contrary, drier hydroclimate
290 conditions would favor stronger physical weathering, decreased smectite formation in soils, and more
291 illite deposition in fluvial sediments. The ratio of smectite/illite contents is therefore applied as a
292 paleoclimatic proxy, where higher ratios indicate more humid climate.

293 Kaolinite is commonly formed under stronger hydrolysis which is typical in tropical regions,
294 whereas chlorite is typically considered a clay species derived from physical weathering of crystalline
295 rocks (Chamley, 1989). Both minerals are minor in the SMF but kaolinite increases slightly in some
296 intervals, indicating increased hydrolysis (Figure 2). The ratio between clay minerals and clay-sized
297 quartz can be used as a paleoclimatic indicator because stronger chemical weathering under more
298 humid climate would produce more clays compared to quartz (Chamley, 1989).

299 To summarize our interpretation, clay minerals in the SMF are mainly originated from
300 weathering of parent rocks and/or pedogenesis and are useful for making inferences about terrestrial
301 climate changes in the Songliao Basin. As such, we utilize three paleoclimatic proxy timeseries,
302 sensitive to hydroclimate change, from our clay mineralogical records, the smectite/illite ratio, the
303 illite chemistry index and the clay/quartz ratio, where higher (lower) values of these proxies indicate
304 stronger (weaker) chemical weathering conditions and more (less) humid climate.



305 **5.2 Terrestrial paleoclimate evolution of the Songliao Basin in the latest Cretaceous**
306 **inferred from clay mineralogical proxies**

307 During the last ten million years of the Cretaceous Period, records derived from marine
308 sediments suggest an overall cooling trend of global climate that was punctuated by several short-term
309 cooling and warming events (Barrera and Savin, 1999; Friedrich et al., 2012; O'Brien et al., 2017).
310 However, very few terrestrial records on these short-term (sub-Myr) climatic events in the latest
311 Cretaceous have been reported (Nordt et al., 2003; Salazar-Jaramillo et al., 2016), due to both
312 difficulties in age control and the discontinuous nature of the terrestrial sedimentary record. The SMF
313 of the SK-1n core in the Songliao Basin provides one of the best-preserved terrestrial records spanning
314 latest Cretaceous through earliest Paleogene in the world (Wang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a; Zhang
315 et al., 2018). Previous stable isotopic and paleontological studies indicate paleoclimate changes are
316 consistent with global trends (Gao et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a; Zhang et al.,
317 2018). In the following section we discuss clay mineralogical evidences for changes of terrestrial
318 climate over the entire interval and around the K-Pg boundary, especially as they relate to
319 hydroclimate and weathering intensity changes, and correlate these observations with regional and
320 global records (Figures 4 and 5).

321 The most prominent cooling event in the latest Cretaceous occurred at ~71-70 Ma, when oxygen
322 isotopes of benthic foraminifera increased by about 1‰ (Barrera and Savin, 1999; Miller et al., 2005;
323 Friedrich et al., 2012; Figure 4). Although two different processes, buildup of Antarctic glaciation and
324 invasion of high-latitude cold water to tropical and subtropical oceans, have been used to interpret
325 these isotopic excursions (Miller et al., 2005; Jung et al., 2013), there is a consensus that global
326 climate cooled in the early Maastrichtian, which is also supported by sedimentary and palynological
327 evidences for sea ice in polar regions (Davies et al., 2009; Bowman et al., 2013). In the Songliao
328 Basin a striking negative excursion of oxygen isotopes in pedogenic carbonates and a
329 contemporaneous positive excursion of carbon isotopes can be observed at ~70.5 Ma, which are
330 interpreted as responses to terrestrial cooling and/or drying with more westerly-sourced precipitation



331 (Gao et al., 2015a). Our clay mineralogical records in the SMF of SK-1n core show that smectite/illite
332 ratio, illite chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio all have lower values during this time interval (Zone
333 IV in Figures 2 and 4). These indicate drier climate and stronger physical weathering that favor
334 fragmentation of parent rocks and generation of illitic clay minerals. Climate cooling in early
335 Maastrichtian may have strengthened the westerlies in northern mid-latitude regions and weakened the
336 Pacific-sourced air masses, which would have resulted in a more arid condition over the Songliao
337 Basin (Gao et al., 2015a) and its provenance regions (i.e., basin-wide weathering zones forming clay
338 minerals). Similar mechanisms may have controlled the cooler and drier terrestrial climate from ~68.5
339 Ma to ~66.5 Ma, when marine oxygen isotopes were as high as ~0.5-1.0 ‰ (Barrera and Savin, 1999;
340 Jung et al., 2013; Figure 4). All clay mineralogical indexes have decreasing trends during this 2-myr
341 time period, indicating a more arid climate and stronger physical weathering (Zone VI in Figure 4).

342 Global climatic warming events occurred at ~69.5-68.5 Ma and ~66.4-66.1 Ma, both supported
343 by negative excursions of oxygen isotopes in benthic foraminifera (Barrera and Savin, 1999; Jung et
344 al., 2013; Figure 4), which are also known as the Mid-Maastrichtian Event (MME) and Late
345 Maastrichtian Event (LME). The LME will be further discussed in the following section as its
346 potential linkage to Deccan Traps volcanism and the mass extinction at the K-Pg boundary (Hull et al.,
347 2020). The MME is characterized by increasing temperatures and perturbations in the carbon cycle in
348 both marine and terrestrial realms, probably related to the Ninety East Ridge volcanism erupted ~69.5
349 million years ago in the Indian Ocean (Nordt et al., 2003; Salazar-Jaramillo et al., 2016; Mateo et al.,
350 2017). A positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ excursion and a contemporaneous negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion in pedogenic
351 carbonates in the Songliao Basin during MME are interpreted as increasing temperature, precipitation
352 and moisture delivery from Pacific, following an opposite mechanism to climate cooling (Gao et al.,
353 2015a). Higher values of smectite/illite ratio, illite chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio presented
354 here in the SMF indicate more humid climate and stronger chemical weathering (Zone V in Figures 2
355 and 4). Our clay mineralogical records further outline another potential warming period, ~74-72 Ma,
356 when illite chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio have higher values (Zone II in Figure 4).



357 Smectite/Illite ratio is elevated during ~74-72 Ma compared with that of ~76-74 Ma. A slight decrease
358 in marine $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and pedogenic carbonate $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and the increasing trend of pedogenic carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
359 further support climate warming and wetting, although not as strongly as during the MME (Figure 4).

360 It is noteworthy that two intervals do not follow the trends of clay mineralogical changes as
361 described above. During ~72-70.5 Ma, two sets of grey to black mudstones of semi-deep lacustrine
362 facies deposited in the lower part of the Mingshui Formation, which are separated by an interval of
363 grey sandstone and red mudstone of fluvial channel and floodplain facies (Zone III in Figures 2; Wang
364 et al., 2015). Episodically intensified extensional and compressional stress fields have been applied to
365 interpret the sudden changes in sedimentary environments. This is supported by evidence from
366 regional seismic analysis, paleontological data and the discovery of mafic dykes (Zhang et al., 2009;
367 Cheng et al., 2018). The lacustrine grey mudstones have higher smectite/illite ratio but lower
368 clay/quartz ratio, whereas the floodplain red mudstones have lower values of smectite/illite ratio, illite
369 chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio (Zone III in Figures 2 and 4). We tentatively interpret that
370 stronger tectonism induced physical weathering and therefore lead to higher illite and quartz
371 production, low illite chemistry index and low clay/quartz ratio, although lake expansions, as a result
372 of tectonic extension, may have caused preferential deposition of smectite versus illite in semi-deep
373 lacustrine environments (Figures 2 and 4; see also previous discussion).

374 During the time interval of ~76-74 Ma, warmer and drier climate in the Songliao Basin is
375 recorded by lower values of all clay proxies, high temperatures derived by clumped isotopes of
376 pedogenic carbonates, high $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in pedogenic carbonate and predominant dry taxa in the pollen
377 and spore assemblages (Zone I in Figure 4; Gao et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a;
378 Zhang et al., 2018). A contemporaneous decreasing trend in marine $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ seems to support a warmer
379 period (Jung et al., 2013). The reason for a warmer but drier climate state over the Songliao Basin in
380 the late Campanian is not clear yet. One possible explanation could be that high coastal mountains
381 along the eastern margin of the East Asia continent blocked Pacific moisture and caused rain shadow
382 effect in the Songliao Basin and other East China basins (Zhang et al., 2016). The elevation of the



383 coastal mountains could be reduced during the Maastrichtian, probably due to continuous weathering
384 and erosion, allowing Pacific moisture to invade into the Songliao Basin region during subsequent
385 warming intervals.

386 **5.3 Terrestrial paleoclimate changes in the Songliao Basin across the K-Pg boundary and** 387 **correlations with global records**

388 The massive extinction at K-Pg boundary is the last of the five largest Phanerozoic massive
389 extinction events (Raup and Sepkoski, 1982; Petersen et al., 2016; Hull et al., 2020). Debates remain
390 on causes of this mass extinction event, with the Chicxulub asteroid impact and the Deccan Trap
391 volcanism as two most cited candidates, both of which would have caused dramatic environmental
392 changes on earth (Schulte et al., 2010; Keller, 2014; Schoene et al., 2019; Sprain et al., 2019). A
393 recent study using carbon cycle modeling and global paleotemperature compilations supports the
394 hypothesis that outgassing of Deccan Trap volcanism caused climatic warming before and after the K-
395 Pg boundary, although the after-boundary warming is limited by extinction-related carbon cycle
396 perturbations (Hull et al., 2020).

397 The clay mineralogical and stable isotopic records of the SMF in Songliao Basin further support
398 climatic perturbations on land across the K-Pg boundary (Figure 5). Globally, the late Maastrichtian
399 warming event, featured by an elevation of ~2 to 4 °C in both marine and terrestrial temperatures
400 within ~300 thousand years, was followed by a transient cooling to pre-LME temperatures right
401 before the K-Pg boundary (Nordt et al., 2003; Wilf et al., 2003; Petersen et al., 2016; Barnet et al.,
402 2018; Woelders et al., 2018; Hull et al., 2020; Figure 5). In the Songliao Basin, clumped isotopes of
403 pedogenic carbonates indicate a carbonate formation temperature (likely summer soil temperature)
404 rise in LME and a drop after LME but before the K-Pg boundary (Zhang et al., 2018; Figure 5).
405 Besides, positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursions in pedogenic carbonates inside of the LME
406 support increasing temperature, humidity and delivery of Pacific moisture (Gao et al., 2015a; Figure
407 5). An increase in illite chemistry index together with a slight increase in clay/quartz ratio suggests
408 that a more humid climate and stronger chemical weathering was due to warming and wetting (pink



409 band of Zone VII in Figure 5). However, we observe no significant changes in smectite/illite ratios
410 during the LME. After the LME but before the K-Pg boundary, smectite/illite ratio, illite chemistry
411 index, clay/quartz ratio and land temperature all decrease likely as a response to the transient cooling
412 event (blue band of Zone VII in Figure 5).

413 In the earliest Danian, global temperatures gradually increased by >1 °C higher than the pre-
414 LME level in about 600 thousand years, probably due to combined effects of post-boundary CO₂
415 outgassing by Deccan Traps volcanism and extinction related carbon cycle perturbation (Hull et al.,
416 2020). In the Songliao Basin we observe rising summer temperature, increasing $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ but decreasing
417 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in pedogenic carbonate, increasing illite chemistry index, suggesting warmer and more humid
418 climate with more intensive chemical weathering (Zone VIII in Figure 5). Increases in smectite/illite
419 ratio and clay/quartz ratio are observed during this period, possibly because of a combination of
420 “lagged” clay formation caused by enhanced weathering during the LME (i.e., Deccan Volcanism)
421 and new formation during the post K-Pg warming period.

422 It is notable that there is an apparently dampened response to the LME and the K-Pg boundary in
423 our clay mineralogy proxies (Figure 5). We propose that this is probably due to the relatively long
424 response time of terrestrial weathering regimes to an enhanced hydrologic cycle and increased
425 temperatures (up to 500 kyrs; Walker et al., 1981; Archer et al., 2005). Given the immediate nature of
426 the K-Pg impact and the short duration of the preceding Deccan Traps volcanism (~200 kyrs; Barnet
427 et al., 2018; Schoene et al., 2019; Sprain et al., 2019), we do not expect weathering systems such as
428 the Songliao Basin to react temporally in sync with short term perturbations to the carbon cycle,
429 though clearly further work on other terrestrial sections is required to confirm this hypothesis.

430

431 **6. Conclusions**

432 High-resolution clay mineralogical analysis has been conducted on mudstones of the Sifangtai
433 Formation and the Mingshui Formation in the SK-1n scientific core of the Songliao Basin, NE China



434 to study terrestrial paleoclimatic changes from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene.
435 The clay mineralogy is dominated by smectite and illite, with minor contributions from kaolinite and
436 chlorite. As these clay species originate from the weathering of parent rocks and/or paleosols, three
437 clay mineralogical indicators (smectite/illite ratio, illite chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio) were
438 used to reconstruct paleoclimate and paleoenvironment and were correlated with global paleoclimatic
439 records. During warming intervals from the latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene, values of
440 smectite/illite ratio, illite chemistry index and clay/quartz ratio all increase, representing a more humid
441 climate and stronger chemical weathering. Opposite trends in these clay mineralogical proxies were
442 observed during cooling intervals, corresponding to less humid and weaker chemical weathering.
443 Across the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary, climatic warming and cooling events related to Deccan
444 Traps volcanism and massive biologic extinction were recorded in the Songliao Basin by changes in
445 clay mineralogical composition, illite chemistry index and isotopic composition of pedogenic
446 carbonates, which indicate fluctuations in precipitation and weathering intensity. Our work
447 demonstrates that terrestrial hydroclimate and weathering regimes in the mid-latitude Songliao Basin
448 fluctuated during the latest Cretaceous through the earliest Paleogene and sensitively responded to
449 global climate changes.

450

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455

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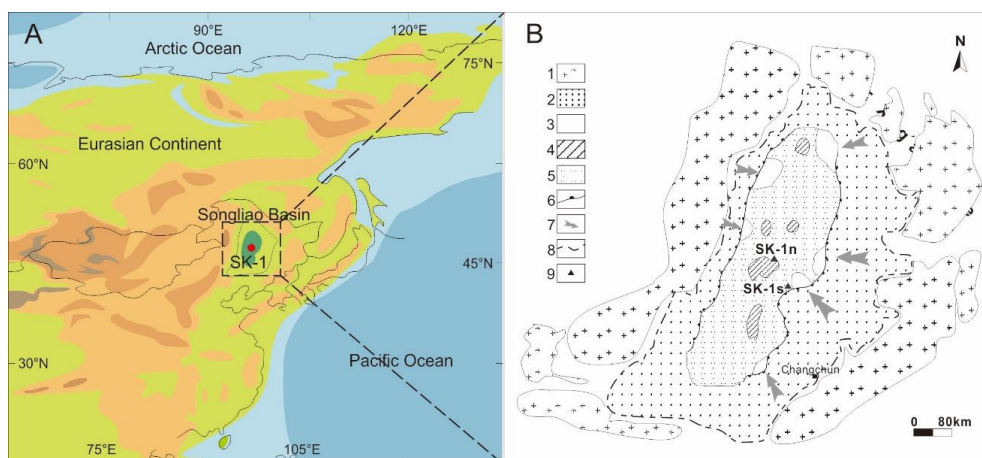
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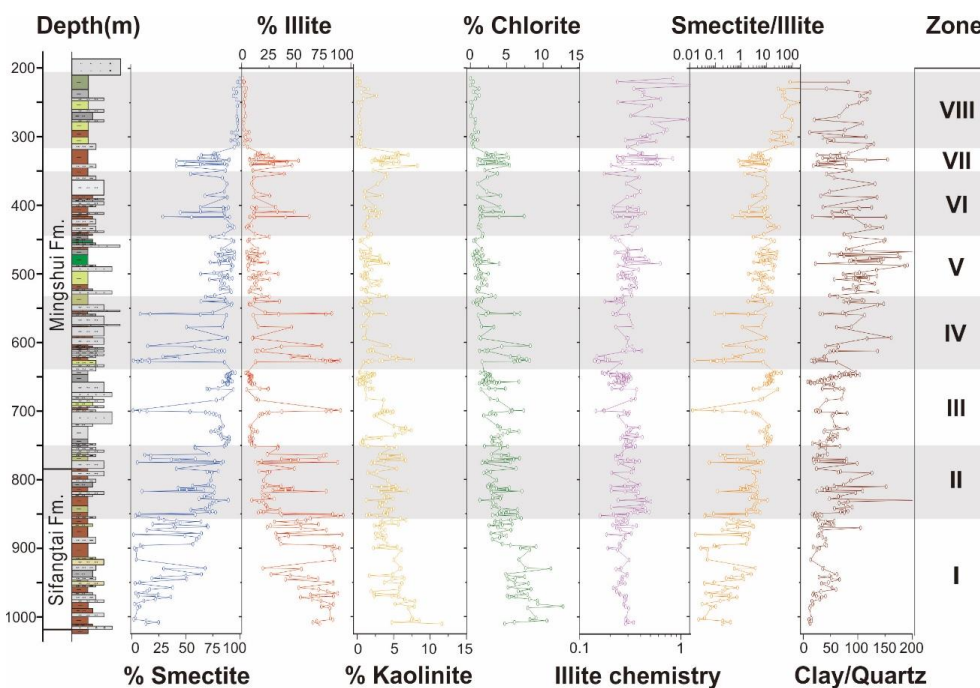
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671 **Figure 1.** A: Paleogeographic setting of the Songliao Basin (dashed line) and the SK-1 scientific
672 drilling site (red dot) at ~70 Ma. Dark green area approximates depositional limits of SMF. Black
673 solid lines are approximate country boundaries. Modified after Gao et al. (2015a). B: Geological
674 setting on the Songliao Basin and the border mountain ranges during the deposition of SMF, which
675 shows sedimentary environments, provenance directions and drilling sites of the SK-1 boreholes.
676 Labels are: 1—Phanerozoic granitoids; 2—Sediments deposited before Mingshui Formation; 3—
677 Alluvial fan deposits; 4—Lacustrine deposits; 5—Alluvial plain deposits; 6—Erosion
678 boundary at Mingshui Formation deposition time; 7—Provenance and sediment transportation
679 direction; 8—Basin boundary; 9—SK-1n and SK-1s drilling sites. Modified from Wu et al. (2011) and
680 Gao et al. (2013).

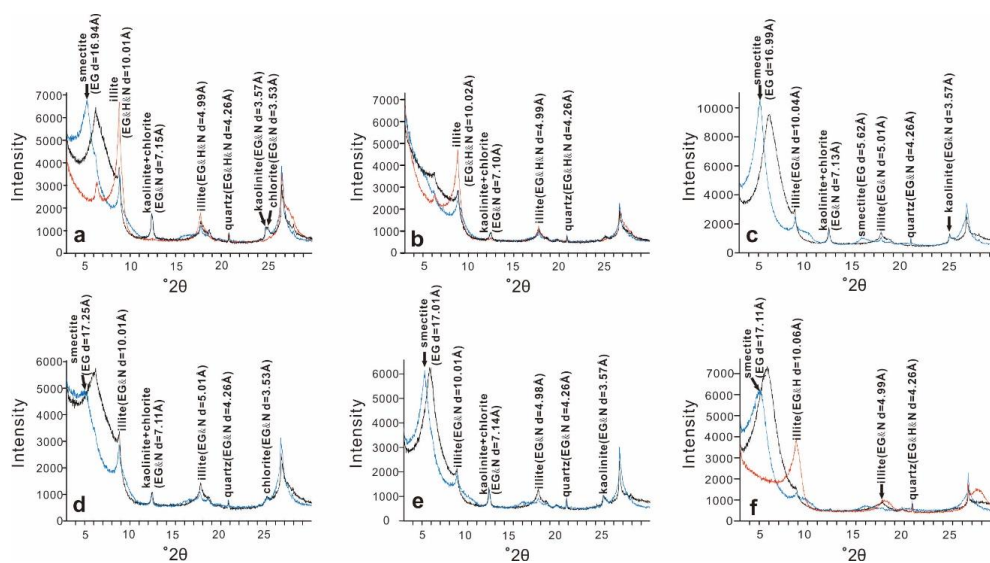
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683 **Figure 2.** Clay mineralogical indexes in the SMF of the SK-1n core. Illite chemistry – illite chemistry
684 index, Smectite/Illite – ratios of relative proportions between smectite and illite, Clay/Quartz – ratios
685 of relative proportions between phyllosilicate clay minerals and quartz in clay fractions.

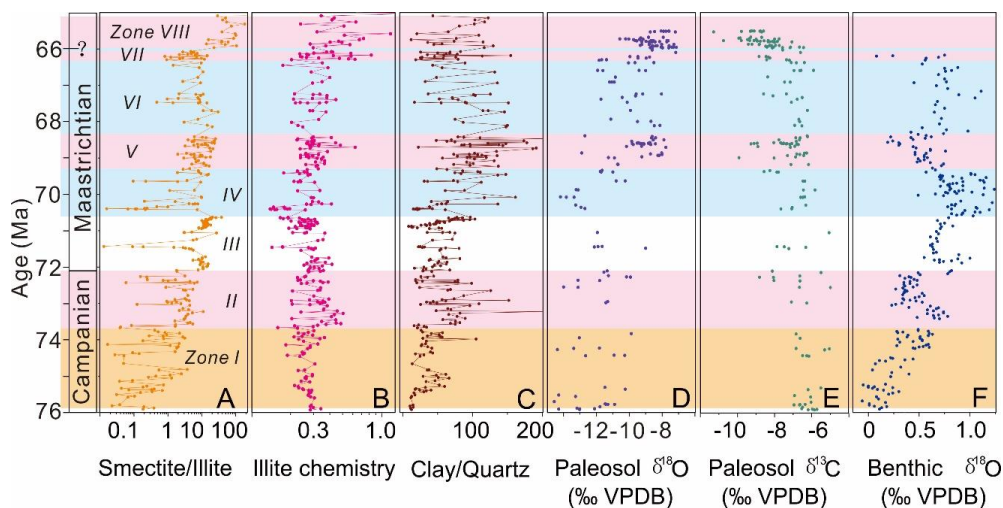
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688 **Figure 3.** Typical X-ray diffraction diagrams of the SMF sediments in the SK-1n core. (a) green
 689 mudstone at 801.0 m (smectite 73%, illite 19%, kaolinite 4%, chlorite 4%). (b) brown mudstone at
 690 558.0 m (smectite 8%, illite 82%, kaolinite 4%, chlorite 7%). (c) brown mudstone at 494.0 m
 691 (smectite 92%, illite 5%, kaolinite 2%, chlorite 1%). (d) brown mudstone at 409.0 m (smectite 64%,
 692 illite 32%, kaolinite 2%, chlorite 3%). (e) brown mudstone at 341.0 m (smectite 88%, illite 7%,
 693 kaolinite 3%, chlorite 1%). (f) green mudstone at 298.0 m (smectite 97%, illite 3%, kaolinite 0%,
 694 chlorite 0%).

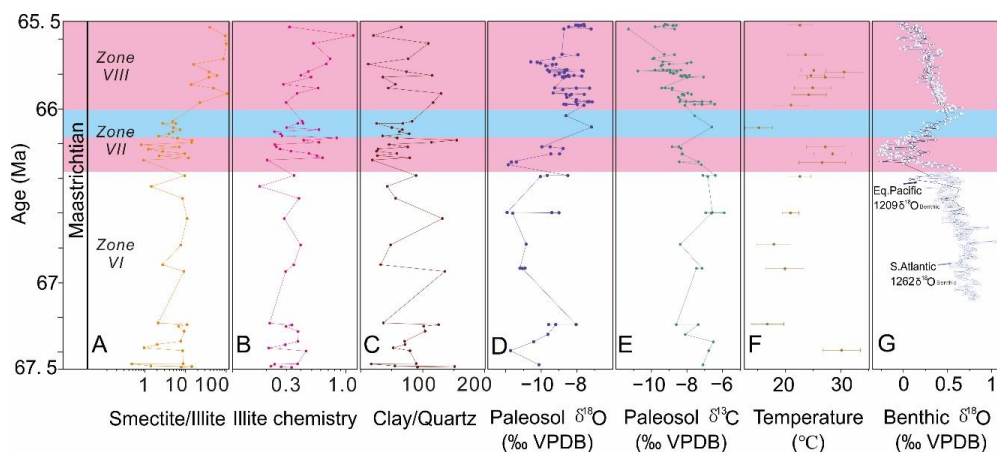
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697 **Figure 4.** Latest Cretaceous terrestrial paleoclimatic records of the SMF in the Songliao Basin and
698 correlations to marine records. A-C. clay mineralogical indicators of paleoclimate in the SMF. Zones I
699 to VIII refer to clay mineralogical zones in Figure 2. D-E. compiled stable oxygen and carbon isotopes
700 of pedogenic carbonates in the SMF (data sources are Huang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a; Zhang et
701 al., 2018). F. stable oxygen isotopes of benthic foraminifera in Oceanic Drilling Program site 1210,
702 central Pacific (Jung et al., 2013). Pink, blue and yellow bands indicate warmer-wetter, cooler-drier
703 and warmer-drier climate intervals respectively.

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706 **Figure 5.** Terrestrial paleoclimatic records of the Songliao Basin and correlation with marine records
707 across the Cretaceous-Paleogene Boundary. A-D. clay mineralogical indicators of paleoclimate in the
708 Songliao Basin. See Figure 2 for abbreviations. E-F. compiled stable oxygen and carbon isotopes of
709 pedogenic carbonates in the SMF (data sources are Huang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015a; Zhang et al.,
710 2018). G. formation temperature of pedogenic carbonate in the Songliao Basin (Zhang et al., 2018). H.
711 stable oxygen isotopes of benthic foraminifera in Oceanic Drilling Program sites 1209 (central Pacific)
712 and site 1262 (south Atlantic) (data from Barnet et al., 2018). Pink and blue bands indicate warmer-
713 wetter and cooler-drier climate intervals respectively.

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