Late Cretaceous topographic doming caused by initial upwelling of Deccan
 magmas: stratigraphic and sedimentological evidence

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Abstract: This study focuses on uppermost Cretaceous sedimentary rocks deposited 15 16 in the Himalayan region and around the core of peninsular India just before the eruption of the Deccan Traps. Detailed stratigraphic and sedimentological analysis of 17 late Cretaceous successions in the Himalayan Range together with literature data from 18 19 the Kirthar fold-thrust belt and central to southeastern India document a marked 20 shallowing-upward depositional trend that took place in the Campanian-Maastrichtian before the Deccan magmatic outburst around the Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary. 21 Topographic uplift of the Indian peninsula began at Campanian time and is held 22 responsible for thick sediment accumulation associated with shorter periods of 23 24 non-deposition in peripheral areas (Himalayan Range, Kirthar Fold belt and 25 Krishna-Godavari Basin) than in the central part of the Deccan Province. Surface uplift preceding Deccan volcanism took place at warm-humid equatorial latitudes, 26 which may have led to an acceleration of silicate weathering, lowered atmospheric 27 pCO_2 , and climate cooling starting in the Campanian-Maastrichtian. The radial 28 29 centrifugal fluvial drainage in India that is still observed today was established at that 30 time.

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Key words: Deccan Traps; Sedimentology; Stratigraphy; Large Igneous Province;
Tethys Himalaya; Kirthar Ranges; Peninsular India.

34

35 **1 Introduction**

Large igneous provinces were emplaced on the Earth's surface during a 36 geologically short time-span (Jerram and Widdowson, 2005; Bryan and Ernst, 2008) 37 38 and were commonly fostered by the ascent of so-called plumes originating either in the shallow or lower mantle (White and MacKenzie, 1989; Anderson, 2013). It has 39 been argued that a rising mantle plume could affect regions as wide as 2000 km, 40 triggering a topographic uplift of the pre-volcanic surface by up to more than 1 km 41 42 (Cox, 1989; Rainbird and Ernst, 2001). Initial doming preceded the main phase of voluminous volcanism by as much as 20 Ma (Campbell and Griffths 1990; Sahu et al., 43 2013). The effects on sedimentary basins surrounding the uplifted region should be 44 considerable and recognizable, thereby providing reliable evidence for locating 45 46 ancient plume-related topographic domes. Such effects include thinning of strata onlapping onto the uplifted area, localized shoaling, occurrence of erosional 47 unconformities, and radial paleocurrent patterns contrasting with those displayed by 48 the underlying strata (Cox, 1989; Rainbird and Ernst, 2001). 49

50 The Deccan Traps, encompassing the Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary (~ 66 Ma; Jay and Widdowson, 2008), is one of the most intensely studied large igneous 51 provinces on Earth, generally considered as a classical example of plume-related 52 uplift (Saunders et al., 2007). This scenario was however challenged by Sheth (2007), 53 54 who emphasized instead post-eruption uplift of the basaltic pile. The timing and magnitude of denudation inferred from fission-track-data modeling are largely 55 dependent on the adopted assumptions (Gunnell et al., 2003), and sedimentary facies 56 changes or unconformities have been ascribed alternatively to diverse autocyclic or 57 allocyclic controls, including drainage diversions, climate changes, sea-level 58 59 fluctuations, or local tectonic activity (Sharma, 2007).

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In this article, we provide a stratigraphic and sedimentological analysis of

sedimentary successions originally deposited during the latest Cretaceous along the 61 Indian passive margin of Neo-Tethys and now preserved in the Tethys Himalayan 62 63 zone of south Tibet in order to reconstruct the paleogeography of the northern Indian continental margin before the onset of the India-Asia continental collision. Combined 64 with literature data from the Kirthar fold-thrust belt of western Pakistan and central 65 and south-eastern peninsular India (Fig.1), we document the occurrence of widespread 66 shallowing-upward depositional trends and of a prolonged stratigraphic hiatus, and 67 68 discuss the regional paleotectonic implications of stratigraphic data, which we relate 69 to Deccan magmatic upwelling.

70 2 Geological setting

71 The Tethys Himalaya, stretching for ~ 1500 km from northwestern India to southern Tibet (Fig. 2), is one of the major tectonic domains of the Himalayan Orogen 72 73 (Gansser, 1964). Its northern boundary coincides with the Indus-Yarlung Suture, 74 whereas the southern boundary is represented by the South Tibetan Detachment 75 System (Searle and Godin, 2003), the tectonic contact with the Greater Himalaya metamorphic unit. The Tethys Himalaya is traditionally subdivided into southern and 76 northern zones separated by the Gyirong-Kangmar thrust (Ratschbacher et al., 1994). 77 The southern zone consists of mostly shelfal carbonate and siliciclastic rocks of 78 Paleozoic to Eocene age (Jadoul et al., 1998; Sciunnach and Garzanti, 2012), whereas 79 80 the northern zone comprises Mesozoic to Paleocene deeper-water sediments.

During the earliest Cretaceous, the northern continental margin of India was 81 situated at middle latitudes in the southern hemisphere (Huang et al., 2015), while the 82 83 Lhasa Block lay at low latitudes in the northern hemisphere. In the Early Cretaceous, India rifted from Gondwana and drifted northward (Garzanti, 1993a; Hu et al., 2010) 84 to collide with the Asian active continental margin in the middle Paleocene (Wu et al., 85 2014; DeCelles et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2016). Our three study areas are located in the 86 southern Tethys Himalaya near the towns of Gamba, Tingri, and Zanda (Fig. 2), where 87 a marine sedimentary succession ranging from the Upper Cretaceous to the Eocene is 88 continuously exposed (Fig. 3). 89

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91 **3 Sampling and methods**

Samples were collected at stratigraphic intervals between 1 and 3 m, in measured
sections of Upper Cretaceous well exposed in the classic areas of Tingri (50 samples
from the Gelamu section, 28.48°N/87.04°E), Gamba (29 samples from the Jiubao
section, 28°16′53.6″N /88°31′10.2″E), and Zanda (58 samples from the Xiala section,
28.28°N/88.52°E (Fig. 2).

Biostratigraphic analysis was based on taxonomic determinations of Late 97 Cretaceous planktonic foraminifera according to Premoli-Silva and Verga (2004). 98 99 Despite a poor to moderate preservation of the specimens, key morphological 100 characteristics such as coiling mode, peripheral shape, arrangement and number of the 101 chambers, presence or absence of keels, and sutural properties enabled us to construct 102 a reliable biostratigraphy. Stratigraphic ranges were defined by the PF zonal scheme 103 of BouDagher-Fadel (2013), tied to the time scale of Gradstein et al. (2012) and 104 developed from the calibration of the N-zonal scheme of Blow (1979) and the M-zonal scheme of Berggren (1973) further revised by Wade et al. (2011). 105

Microfacies analysis was performed by examining detrital minerals, macrofossil 106 and microfossil assemblages, and textures as observed in both thin sections and 107 outcrop. Macrofossil groups including gastropods, echinoderms, larger, smaller, and 108 109 agglutinated benthic foraminifera, and calcareous red and green algae were identified using the descriptions and photographs in Flügel (2010) and used to determine the 110 environment of deposition according to Wilson (1975) and Flügel (2010). Carbonate 111 112 and mixed siliciclastic-carbonate rocks were classified based on Dunham (1962), Embry and Klovan (1971), and Mount (1985). 113

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115 **4 Stratigraphy**

116 In the Tingri and Gamba areas of the central southern Tethys Himalaya, the 117 uppermost Cretaceous succession is subdivided into four stratigraphic units (from base to top: Gambacunkou, Jiubao, Zhepure Shanpo, and Jidula Formations) (Hu et al.,

119 2012). Two stratigraphic units (Gucuocun and Bolinxiala Formations) are identified in

120 the western Tethys Himalaya (Zanda area) (Fig. 3).

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122 *3.1 Gamba*

123 In the Gamba area, the Gambacunkou Formation consists of dark gray marl and 124 marly limestone deposited at late Albian to Santonian times (Willems et al., 1993). The overlying 40 m-thick Jiubao Formation comprises mainly thin- to 125 medium-bedded limestone and marly limestone yielding abundant planktonic 126 foraminifera of Santonian to earliest Campanian age (Wan et al., 2002). The 170 127 128 m-thick Zhepure Shanpo Formation – here commonly named with the local synonym Zongshan Fm. - consists of marl and nodular marly limestone with reworked fossils 129 intercalated with storm-surge turbidites in the lower 50 m. Limestones yielding 130 calcareous algae and benthic foraminifera are interbedded with rudist biostromes and 131 132 subordinate marls in the upper part of the unit (Wan et al., 2002). The overlying ~180 m-thick Jidula Formation consists of quartzose sandstones intercalated with black 133 limestones in the middle part; a mudrock bed at the base yielded for a fearly 134 Danian age (Wan et al., 2002). 135

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137 *3.2 Tingri*

In the Tingri area, the 600 m-thick Gambacunkou Formation consists of gray 138 marlstone and marly limestone with abundant planktonic foraminifera of late Albian 139 140 to early Coniacian age (Willems et al., 1996; Wendler et al., 2009). The overlying 80 m-thick Jiubao Formation consists of marly limestone and limestone yielding 141 142 planktonic foraminifera of early Coniacian to latest Santonian age (Wu et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2012). A paraconformity at the top of the unit is followed by the 190 143 m-thick Zhepure Shanpo Formation, which comprises mixed siliciclastic-carbonate 144 rocks. Sandstones are interpreted as storm-surge turbidites and become more frequent 145

and coarser-grained up-section (Willems and Zhang, 1996). Calcareous interbeds 146 yielding reworked planktonic foraminifera of latest Campanian to early Maastrichtian 147 age (Willems et al., 1996) are overlain by calcareous sandstone with gastropods, 148 ostracods and benthic foraminifera, capped in turn by sandstone, sandy limestone and 149 marl yielding planktonic foraminifera of Danian age (Wan et al., 2002). The overlying 150 Jidula Formation (75 m thick) comprises calcareous quartzose sandstone with a shale 151 interval in the middle, interbedded with marly nodular limestone with ferruginous 152 153 nodules at the top yielding gastropods, ostracods, and a few foraminifera of early 154 Danian age (Willems et al., 1996; Wan et al., 2002).

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156 *3.3 Zanda*

The Gucuocun Formation of the Zanda area – with type section near Lanong La 157 in Nyalam Country (Yu et al., 1983) and equivalent to the Wölong Formation of 158 Jadoul et al. (1998) and with the Giumal Formation of the Spiti-Zanskar synclinorium 159 160 (Garzanti, 1993b) - is 400 m-thick and comprises mainly thin- to thick-bedded dark-gray and gray shale interbedded with volcaniclastic sandstone (Hu et al., 2017) 161 (Fig. 3A). Abundant ammonites and bivalves suggest a late Tithonian to Albian age 162 for these prodelta to inner-shelf deposits (Hu et al., 2006). The overlying Bolinxiala 163 Formation – named after the Xiala section in Zanda Country (Guo et al., 1991) and 164 equivalent to the Chikkim Formation of the Spiti-Zanskar synclinorium 165 (Premoli-Silva et al., 1991; Bertle and Suttner, 2005) - is 160 m-thick and dominated 166 by thin-bedded dark gray limestone intercalated with marly limestone in the lower 167 168 part, medium-bedded limestone in the middle part, and thick-bedded limestone intercalated with marly limestone in the upper part (Fig. 3B-3D). This pelagic unit 169 yields abundant planktonic foraminifera together with calcispheres and radiolarians 170 (Li et al., 2009). 171

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173 **5 Biostratigraphy**

The biostratigraphy of the Jiubao and Zhepure Shanpo Formations in the Gelamu (Tingri) and Jiubao sections (Gamba) is described in detail in BouDagher-Fadel et al. (2015). Here we focus specifically on the discomformable Jiubao/Zhepure Shanpo boundary in Tingri and Gamba (Fig. 7, 8; Fig. A1, A2), and on biostratigraphic features of the Bolinxiala Formation in Zanda (Fig. 9, Fig. A3).

179 In the upper Jiubao Formation, Dicarinella primitiva, Concavatotruncana concavata and Contusotruncana fornicata indicate a Coniacian age (89.8-86.3 Ma), 180 181 and Concavatotruncana asymetrica points to a latest Santonian age for the uppermost Jiubao Formation (86.3-83.6 Ma, Fig. A1, A2). In the lowermost Zhepure Shanpo 182 183 Formation, Globotruncanita stuartiformis and Radotruncana subspinosa suggest a 184 late Campanian age, followed by the appearance of G. stuarti, Globotruncanita conica and Kuglerina rotundata, which indicates an early to middle Maastrichtian age 185 186 (Fig. A1, A2). The lower Zhepure Shanpo Formation is dominated by the assemblage 187 of Globotruncana arca, Globotruncanita stuarti, Abathomphalus mayaroensis, 188 Kuglerina rotundata, Globotruncanita conica and Racemiguembelina intermedia, 189 which indicates a late Maastrichtian age (67-66 Ma, Fig. A1, A2).

190 In the Xiala section (Zanda), the assemblage of Rotalipora appenninica, R. montsalvensis, Thalmanninella micheli and R. cushmani indicates a middle to late 191 192 Cenomanian age for the lowermost Bolinxiala Formation. The assemblage of Marginotruncana and Sigalitruncana biconvexiformis indicates the Turonian, 193 Contusotruncana fornicata indicates the Coniacian, and Concavatotruncana 194 asymetrica indicates a Santonian age for the lower Bolinxiala Formation (Fig. A3). 195 196 The foraminiferal assemblage sharply changes upward to Globotruncanella havanensis, G. aegyptiaca and Gansserina gansseri, indicating the late Campanian 197 198 for the middle part of Bolinxiala Formation, followed by Contusotruncana walfishensis and Plummerita hantkeninoides indicating the earliest Maastrichtian in 199 the upper part of the Bolinxiala Formation (Fig. A3). 200

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202 6 Microfacies analysis

The purpose of microfacies analysis is to integrate sedimentological and paleontological results in order to evaluate the depositional evolution during the latest Cretaceous and specifically across the Jiubao/Zhepure Shanpo boundary. We identified 10 microfacies (MF) types corresponding to outer-ramp to inner-ramp environments (Table 1).

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209 6.1 Outer-ramp to middle-ramp (MF1 to MF5)

MF1 Mudstone. Dark-gray marly limestones of the lowermost Bolinxiala Formation (Fig. 4H) are characterized by locally laminated micritic matrix encasing a few planktonic foraminifera, calcispheres, and pyrite crystals (Fig. 5A). Texture and fossil content indicate deposition below storm wave base in a proximal outer-ramp setting. MF1 is equivalent to the standard microfacies (SMF) 3 or RMF5 of Flügel (2010).

MF2 Small calcisphere wackestone. Dark gray marly limestones common in the lower part of Bolinxiala formation (Fig. 4H) are wackestones including small calcispheres (5-10% of the rock, 30-50 μ m in diameter), minor planktonic foraminifera (Fig. 5B), and thin-shelled bivalves. Micritic matrix and faunal content indicates a low-energy outer-ramp to middle-ramp environment. MF2 is considered equivalent to SMF3 or RMF5 of Flügel (2010).

MF3 Thin-shelled bivalve wackestone. Thin- to medium-bedded gray limestones in the lower part of the Bolinxiala Formation (Fig. 4H) contain abundant thin-shelled bivalves, small calcispheres, planktonic foraminifera (Fig. 5C), and minor ostracods and echinoderm fragments. Micritic matrix is locally recrystallized to microspar. Textural properties and faunal content point to deposition below storm wave-base, in low-energy outer-ramp settings (Flügel, 2010).

MF4 Microbioclastic-planktonic foraminiferal wackestone. Medium- to thick-bedded limestones common in the middle part of Bolinxiala Formation and in the Jiubao Formation at Gamba (Fig. 4E, I) are evenly bedded mudstones and wackestone with abundant microbioclasts and planktonic foraminifera (Fig. 5D), associated with small calcispheres, textulariids, mostly siliceous sponge spicules, thin-shelled bivalves, ostracods, and echinoderm fragments. Micritic matrix is locally recrystallized to microspar. Bioclasts are inferred to have been transported from shallower environments during storms. Deposition in an outer-ramp to middle-ramp environment between fair-weather wave base (FWWB) and storm wave base (SWB) is indicated by texture and faunal content (Flügel, 2010)

MF5 Peloidal grainstone. MF5 is uncommon and only observed in the Jiubao Formation at Gamba, where it is locally intercalated with MF2. Abundant fine to medium sand-sized, well sorted peloids and minor microbioclasts inferred as transported seaward during storms are set in sparitic cement (Fig. 5E). Deposition in an outer-ramp to middle-ramp environment between FWWB and SWB is inferred (Flügel, 2010).

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244 6.2 Middle ramp (MF6 to MF8)

MF6 Intra-bioclastic packstone. Thin-bedded gray limestones found in the lowermost Zhepure Shanpo Formation contain abundant bioclasts (planktonic foraminifera and minor small hyaline benthic foraminifera, echinoderms, and ostracods) and intraclasts (Fig. 5F, G, H). Mixed benthic and planktonic biota and abundant reworked intraclasts suggest storm deposition below the FWWB (microfacies SMF4 or RMF9 of Flügel, 2010).

MF7a Planktonic foraminiferal wackestone. MF7a, occurring in the upper Jiubao Formation at Gamba and in the middle Bolinxiala Formation, is characterized by micritic matrix encasing common planktonic foraminifera and calcispheres, along with minor hyaline benthic foraminifers, ostracods, mollusk fragments, and echinoderms (Fig. 6A). Benthic foraminifera increase up-section, suggesting a shallowing-upward trend. MF7a is inferred to have been deposited between FWWB and SWB in a middle-ramp setting (Flügel, 2010).

MF7b Sandy planktonic foraminiferal packstone. Thin- to medium-bedded gray 258 sandy limestones of the lower Zhepure Shanpo Formation at Tingri have the same 259 faunal composition and content of M7a, but much greater amounts and coarser size of 260 terrigenous quartz grains (Fig. 6D, E). Abundant planktonic foraminifera with 261 chambers commonly filled with ferriferous minerals (most probably pyrite) are 262 associated with small hyaline and agglutinated benthic foraminifera, minor 263 calcispheres, ostracods, and echinoderm fragments. MF7b is inferred to indicate 264 265 deposition below FWWB, in low-energy settings with sporadic siliciclastic supply (Flügel, 2010). 266

MF8a Calcisphere grainstone-packstone. Thin-bedded gray limestones in the upper 267 268 Bolinxiala Formation mostly include calcispheres and planktonic foraminifera ($\leq 90\%$ of the rock), associated with small benthic foraminifera, echinoderm fragments, and 269 other bioclasts. Micrite or locally sparitic cement occur (Fig. 6B). Planktonic 270 271 foraminifera decrease up-section in abundance. Calcispheres, larger than in MF2 and 272 mostly representing dinoflagellates, suggest offshore deposition from suspension in 273 high-productivity and nutrient-rich conditions (Wendler et al., 2002). A middle-ramp 274 environment below FWWB and slightly shallower than for MF7a is indicated (Flügel, 2010). 275

MF8b Sandy calcisphere packstone. Thin- to medium-bedded gray limestones found in the lower Zongshan Formation mostly contain calcispheres and planktonic foraminifera (Fig. 6C), together with minor ostracods, small benthic foraminifera, and echinoderm fragments set in micritic matrix. Silt-sized quartz grains reaching 5% in abundance characterize MF8b, which was deposited on a middle ramp with sporadic siliciclastic supply (Flügel, 2010).

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283 6.3 Inner ramp (MF9-MF10)

MF9a Bioclastic packstone. Gray bioclastic packstone in the upper Zhepure Shanpo
 Formation at Tingri contains abundant macrofossils and microfossils set in micritic

matrix (Fig. 6F). Highly diversified, large hyaline benthic foraminifera include 286 Lepidorbitoides, Siderolites, and Rotalia. Abundant uncoiled agglutinated benthic 287 foraminifera and coralline algae are associated with echinoderm plates and spines, 288 bivalves, and rare planktonic foraminifera. Intraclasts of calcisphere packstone eroded 289 from underlying strata and quartz grains are common. Rock-forming large benthic 290 foraminifera and calcareous red algae typical of the photic zone and platform-margin 291 settings indicate inner-ramp environments above the FWWB and restricted to 292 293 open-marine conditions for MF9a (equivalent to SMF18-FOR and RMF 13 of Flügel, 294 2010).

MF9b Sandy bioclastic floatstone / bioclastic sandstone. The uppermost Zhepure Shanpo Formation at Tingri is rich in silt-sized quartz grains set in micritic matrix. Abundant agglutinated or larger benthic foraminifera and calcareous red algae are associated with planktonic foraminifera and echinoderm spines (Fig. 6H). Common detrital quartz indicates a slightly shallower depositional environment than for MF9a (Flügel, 2010).

MF10 Quartzose sandstone. Fine to medium sand-sized, well-sorted, subrounded, and quartz-cemented quartz grains are associated with minor lithic fragments and detrital zircon in sandstones of the Zhepure Shanpo Formation (Fig. 6G). Sedimentary structures, including erosional base, graded bedding, and planar oblique or parallel lamination (Fig. 5C, D) suggest deposition on the inner shelf by hyperpychal flows or storm-surge turbidites.

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308 6 Late Cretaceous sedimentary evolution in the Tethys Himalaya

Facies and microfacies analysis indicate that the Indian passive margin facing
Neotethys evolved from outer ramp, to middle ramp, and inner ramp environments
during the Late Cretaceous (Fig. 7-10).

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313 *6.1 Gamba*

The boundary between the upper Jiubao and lower Zhepure Shanpo (Zongshan) 314 Formations documents a sharp change from pelagic to shelfal and platform-margin 315 316 conditions (Fig. 7). Microfacies in the uppermost Jiubao Formation (microbioclastic-planktonic foraminiferal wackestone MF4 and minor small 317 calcisphere wackestone MF2, peloidal grainstone MF5, and thin-shelled bivalve 318 wackestone MF3) document deposition in an outer-ramp environment, whereas 319 planktonic foraminiferal wackestone MF7a and sandy calcisphere packstone MF8b 320 321 mark the abrupt transition to much shallower middle-ramp environments in the lowermost Zhepure Shanpo Formation. Microfacies analysis allows us to estimate a 322 corresponding major change in paleowater depth, from 300-400 m for the topmost 323 Jiubao Formation to 200-300 m for the base of the Zhepure Shanpo Formation 324 325 (Leckie, 1987; Premoli Silva and Sliter, 1999).

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327 6.2 Tingri

The same paleoenvironmental changes observed in the Gamba area are documented at Tingri (Fig. 8). Deposition of microbioclastic-planktonic foraminiferal wackestone MF4 in an outer-ramp environment at the top of the Jiubao Formation was abruptly replaced by intra-bioclastic packstone MF6 documenting a shallower middle-ramp environment at the base of the Zhepure Shanpo Formation.

The overlying sedimentary succession also documents similar 333 а palaeoenvironmental trend. Sandy calcisphere packstones MF8b accumulated on a 334 335 middle ramp are overlain by bioclastic packstones MF9a deposited in open marine conditions on an inner ramp, capped in turn by quartzose sandstones MF10. The 336 337 second succession starts with planktonic foraminiferal packstones including quartz grains MF7b deposited on a middle ramp, passing upward to calcisphere packstones 338 MF8a suggesting shallower shelf environments, and then to quartzose sandstones 339 MF10 and sandy bioclastic floatstones MF9b deposited on an inner ramp in 340 open-marine conditions. Increasing terrigenous supply and progressive shallowing 341 through time is indicated (Fig. 7). 342

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344 *6.3 Zanda*

Carbonate microfacies indicate a transition from outer-ramp to middle-ramp environments throughout the Bolinxiala Formation, documenting a shallowing-upward trend (Fig. 9). Unlike the Tingri and Gamba areas, terrigenous detritus is lacking.

The lower to middle Bolinxiala Formation of middle Cenomanian to Santonian age consists of mudstone MF1, small calcisphere packstone MF2, and minor thin-shelled bivalve wackestone MF3, indicating deposition on an outer ramp. The sharply overlying intra-bioclastic packstone MF6 indicates a sudden shift to middle-ramp environments dominated by planktonic foraminiferal wackestone MF7a and finally by calcisphere packstone MF8a.

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356 7 Sedimentation and drainage patterns around Deccan-related domal uplift

Advocates of mantle plumes have considered the Deccan province as a classical example of plume-related uplift, and ascribed the response of adjacent sedimentary basins and catchment areas to dynamic uplift caused by mantle upwelling (Saunders et al., 2007). In this part of the article, we shall briefly describe the stratigraphic successions deposited around the core of peninsular India in order to investigate the potential effects of Deccan-related magmatic upwelling on sedimentation patterns.

363 7.1 Tethys Himalaya

The top of the Jiubao Formation is dated as the latest Santonian D. asymetrica 364 Zone (~ 84 Ma, Fig. A1, A2), whereas planktonic foraminifera at the base of the 365 366 Zhepure Shanpo Formation indicate the latest Campanian (~ 72 Ma, Fig. A1, A2; Wu et al., 2011). Therefore, most of the Campanian is missing and the disconformity 367 between these two formations represents a hiatus of up to 12 Ma. The Campanian 368 unconformity, well documented also in the Zanskar Range of the northwestern 369 370 Himalaya (Premoli Silva et al., 1991), testifies to a major, widespread, broadly synchronous event along the Tethys Himalaya, interpreted as possibly related to the 371

dynamic impact of magmatic upwelling at the base of the lithosphere (Hu et al., 2012;
Garzanti and Hu, 2015). The marked decrease in water depth inferred between the top
of the Jiubao Formation and the base of the Zhepure Shanpo Formation does not
correspond to any significant sea-level fall in the global eustatic curve (Haq et al.,
2014). This suggests a surface uplift of the order of ~ 100 m, which is compatible
with the amount of topographic uplift usually observed in large continental igneous
provinces (Saunders et al., 2007).

379 The Maastrichtian succession of the Zanskar Range testifies to the rapid transition from deep-water strata rich in deeper-dwelling planktonic foraminifera to 380 shelfal faunas becoming more abundant up-section in the Kangi La Formation 381 (Premoli Silva et al., 1991) (Fig. 2). The shallowing-upward trend with progressive 382 increase in siliciclastic supply and accumulation rates during the Maastrichtian was 383 followed by the progradation of a shallow-water carbonate ramp capped by shoreline 384 quartzose sandstones in the Danian (Nicora et al., 1987). Felsitic volcanic rock 385 fragments and detrital Cr-spinels with geochemical fingerprint similar to Deccan 386 387 spinels occur throughout Maastrichtian to Danian Tethys Himalayan sandstones. Notwithstanding the combined effect of subequatorial weathering and subsequent 388 diagenesis, they testify that detritus from Deccan continental flood basalts reached 389 well into the Indian passive margin (Garzanti and Hu, 2015). 390

391 7.2 Kirthar fold-thrust belt

The uppermost Cretaceous succession originally deposited along the western 392 passive margin of India and presently exposed in the Kirthar range of western 393 394 Pakistan (Fig. 1; Smewing et al., 2002; Kassi et al., 2009) is represented by the lower Campanian pelagic Parh Limestone, deposited at water depths exceeding 200 m and 395 abruptly replaced by upper Campanian to Maastrichtian shelfal sandstones of the 396 Mughal Kot and Pab Formations (Fig. 11; Kazmi and Abbasi, 2008; Umar et al., 397 2011). The marked decrease in water depth from the Parh Formation to the Mughal 398 Kot and Pab Formations does not correspond to any significant sea-level fall in the 399 global eustatic curve (Haq et al., 2014), and thus suggests surface uplift. In the central 400

401 Kirthar sub-basin, the shelfal succession of testifies to a clear shoaling trend from the Mughal Kot to the Pab Formation, documented by sand bodies increasing up-section 402 in grain size, bed thickness, and frequency of hummocky bedforms. In the southern 403 Kirthar sub-basin, the Mughal Kot Formation comprises basin-floor lobes, 404 channel-fill sand bodies, and base-of-slope mud-rich lobes, whereas the overlying Pab 405 406 Formation is dominated by slope-fan lobes and channel-levee deposits. The marked increase in siliciclastic influx from the Mughal Kot to the Pab Formation took place in 407 408 the Campanian, and has been related to uplift of the Indian shield as it passed over the Reunion hot spot (Smewing et al., 2002; Kassi et al., 2009; Umar et al., 2011). The 409 petrographic and geochemical composition of Pab sediments testifies to volcaniclastic 410 supply from the Deccan Traps and intense chemical weathering in warm humid source 411 412 areas located in continental India (Umar et al., 2014).

413 7.3 Central India (main Deccan Province)

In central India, the most late Cretaceous sedimentary units resting either on 414 415 Precambrian basement or Paleozoic Gondwanan strata and overlain by the Deccan Traps are mostly exposed as discontinuous patches of a few to tens square kilometers 416 (Tandon., 2002). In the western Narmada valley (Bagh area), the Lower Cretaceous 417 Nimar Sandstone is overlain by nodular or coralline limestones of Albian-Turonian 418 age (Tripathi, 2006) (Fig. 11). After a distinct hiatus spanning the Santonian and 419 Campanian, sedimentation resumed during the Maastrichtian with deposition of 420 glauconitic sandstone (Lameta Formation, Bansal et al., 2018). This hiatus 421 corresponded to a period of global sea-level rise, indicating that NW India was 422 423 undergoing significant tectonic uplift at this time. In the eastern Narmada valley (Jabalpur area), the Lower Cretaceous fluvial Jabalpur Sandstone is overlain by 424 ephemeral braided-stream deposits of Maastrichtian age, passing upward to palustrine 425 carbonates with multiple calcrete profiles capped in turn by locally channelized 426 sheet-flood deposits (Tandon, 2002; Srivastava and Mankar, 2015). In the Nagpur area 427 (Dongargaon basin), lacustrine sediments rest non conformably onto Precambrian 428 basement, and are overlain by dominant floodplain deposits encasing sparse fluvial 429

430 channels (Tandon, 2000).

431 7.4 Southeastern India

432 During Early Cretaceous rifting of India from Antarctica, the Krishna-Godavari basin was tilted eastward and southeastward as part of the eastern passive margin of 433 India (Gupta, 2006). The Cenomanian to lower Maastrichtian Raghavapuram Shale, 434 435 deposited in a low-energy shallow sea (Rao, 2001; Gupta, 2006), is unconformably 436 overlain by coarse fluvial sediments of the Tirupati Formation, deposited at early to late Maastrichtian times (Manmohan et al., 2003; Gupta, 2006) (Fig. 11). Major 437 terrigenous supply and a three-fold to five-fold increase in accumulation rates, 438 together with subsidence analysis of well-log data, suggest several hundred meters of 439 440 transient surface uplift at late Campanian to early Maastrichtian times (Halkett et al., 441 2001). This is consistent with the pulse of exhumation revealed by thermal-history models based on apatite fission-tracks in the Krishna and Godavari drainage basins, 442 indicating accelerated cooling in the Campanian (Sahu et al., 2013). 443

444 Oblique lamination in the Tirupati Formation indicates southeastward paleocurrent directions (Rao, 2001), documenting a prominent provenance change 445 with respect to the underlying Paleozoic and Lower Cretaceous strata when sediment 446 transport was towards the northwest. Sediment transport from uplifted basement in the 447 448 northwest has persisted until today in the modern Krishna and Godavari river systems 449 (Manmohan et al., 2003). Relatively rapid establishment of southeastward sediment transport with sudden influx of coarse detritus and transition from marine to fluvial 450 451 deposition strongly supports the notion that radial drainage pattern in the Indian 452 peninsula initiated by topographic doming preceding the outburst of Deccan lavas, as advocated by Cox (1989). 453

Topographic doming related to mantle upwelling causes shoaling and thinning of strata lapping onto the uplifted area, development of erosional unconformities, and radial paleoflow directions recorded in sedimentary rocks (Cox, 1989; Rainbird and Ernst, 2001). The stratigraphic successions exposed in the Tethys Himalaya, in the Kirthar fold-thrust belt, and in central to southeastern India document a marked

shallowing-upward depositional trend that characterizes Maastrichtian strata all 459 around the core of peninsular India, just before the Deccan magmatic outburst around 460 the Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary. Most of the Campanian is missing in the Tethys 461 Himalaya, and a disconformity separates Santonian and Campanian strata in the 462 Kirthar Fold belt, and Campanian and Maastrichtian strata in the Krishna-Godavari 463 Basin (Fig. 3, 11). In the region closer to the central uplift, stratigraphic sections 464 exhibit more extensive and prolonged hiatus, which span from the Coniacian to the 465 466 early Maastrichtian in the Bagh area and from the Cenomanian to the early Maastrichtian in the Jabalpur and Nagpur areas (Fig. 3 and 11). Thicker sediment 467 accumulation and shorter periods of non-deposition in peripheral areas than in the 468 central region, together with widespread shallowing-upward depositional trends 469 470 represent robust evidence of topographic uplift associated with Deccan magmatism.

471

472 7.5 Campanian cooling triggered by surface uplift?

473 There is general consensus that late Cenomanian to early Turonian times were characterized by the warmest climate of the last hundred m.y., with ice-free polar 474 regions and tropical sea-surface temperatures higher than 35 °C. This warm period 475 was followed by global cooling in the Campanian-Maastrichtian (Fig. 12), which 476 coincided with declining atmospheric pCO_2 levels from ~ 1975 to ~ 450 ppm (Linnert 477 et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014). Silicate weathering on continents consumes and 478 stabilizes the Earth's atmospheric CO_2 , providing a negative feedback to maintain the 479 homeostatic balance of the long-term ($\geq 10^5$ a) carbon cycle (Gaillardet et al., 1999). 480 481 Surface uplift associated with magmatic upwelling before the outburst of Deccan flood basalts, and consequently increased weathering rates, thus represents a viable 482 483 causal mechanism for Campanian cooling. Surface uplift preceding major Deccan volcanism may have affected an area as large as 2000-2500 km in diameter situated in 484 the warm-humid subequatorial belt (Umar et al., 2014). The present average CO₂ 485 consumption rate is estimated at ~ 5.7×10^5 mol km⁻²yr⁻¹ based on geochemical data 486 on Narmada, Godavari, and Cauveri river waters (Gaillardet et al., 1999). Such 487

estimated CO_2 -consumption rates by weathering of continental crust over an area as vast as that affected by surface uplift before Deccan volcanism must have contributed significantly to the global decline in atmospheric pCO_2 and consequent climate cooling at Campanian-Maastrichtian times.

492

493 8. Conclusions

The stratigraphic and microfacies analysis of marine carbonate successions exposed in the Tethys Himalaya of southern Tibet has revealed the existence of a major hiatus testifying to a prolonged phase of non-deposition and surface uplift by about 100 m during Campanian times. Santonian strata documenting deep-marine outer-ramp environments are disconformably overlain by Maastrichtian middle-ramp to inner-ramp sediments documenting abrupt shallowing. Sediment bypass and starvation persisted for as much as 10 Ma.

The very same sedimentation pattern characterizes the Zanskar Range of the 501 502 northwestern Himalaya, and coeval hiatus and similar shallowing-upward trends are documented by sedimentary successions exposed in the Kirthar fold-thrust belt of 503 western Pakistan and in peninsular India. These strata deposited all around the core of 504 peninsular India record thicker sediment accumulation and shorter periods of 505 506 non-deposition than in the main Deccan Province closer to the center of the topographic dome. This represents evidence of surface uplift associated with 507 magmatic upwelling at the base of the Indian lithosphere, which began at early 508 Campanian times and eventually led to the outburst of Deccan continental flood 509 basalts around the Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary. Topographic doming in the 510 warm-humid subequatorial belt and associated silicate weathering may have 511 contributed to lowered levels of global atmospheric pCO_2 and climate cooling during 512 the Campanian-Maastrichtian. This climatic event may have set the scene for the 513 514 major faunal extinction that took place contemporaneously with the climax of Deccan 515 volcanism at the end of the Mesozoic Era.

516

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742 Figures and tables

743

Fig. 1. Map of peninsular India (modified after Garzanti and Hu, 2015) showing the
Deccan flood-basalt province, localities discussed in text, and drainage pattern
(blue arrows) inferred to have been originated at latest Cretaceous time (Cox,
1989). Red dots indicate locations of the stratigraphic logs shown in Fig.3 and
yellow dots indicate locations of the stratigraphic logs shown in Fig.11. The inset
shows the location of the Indo-Tibetan region in the latest Cretaceous (after
Stampfli and Borel, 2002).

Fig. 2. Geology and location of measured stratigraphic sections in southern Tibet. A) Sketch map of the Himalayan Range (after Pan et al., 2004); B) Gamba; C) Tingri; D) Zanda.

Fig. 3. Correlation chart for Upper Cretaceous stratigraphic units of the Tethys
Himalaya. Location of the three sections measured in southern Tibet is indicated
in Fig. 2. Stratigraphic logs from the Zanskar Range in the western Tethys
Himalaya are modified from Premoli-Silva et al. (1991 and Garzanti, 1993b).

758 Fig. 4. Outcrop photographs. Unconformable contact between the Jiubao and 759 Zongshan (Zhepure Shanpo) Formation in the Gamba (A) and Tingri (B,E) areas. Parallel lamination (C) and graded bedding (D) in Zhepure Shanpo sandstones. G: 760 depositional contact between the Gucuocun and overlying Bolinxiala Formations. 761 762 H: alternating thin-bedded and marly limestones (lower Bolinxiala Formation). I: medium- to thick-bedded limestones (middle Bolinxiala Formation). J: medium-763 to thick-bedded limestones intercalated with marly limestones (upper Bolinxiala 764 Formation); H: thin- to thick-bedded limestones (uppermost of Bolinxiala 765 766 Formation).

Fig. 5. Microfacies MF1-MF6. A: mudstone with small planktonic foraminifera and
pyrite (MF1); B: small calcisphere wackestone (MF2); C: thin-shelled bivalve
wackestone (MF3); D: microbioclastic-planktonic foraminiferal wackestone

(MF4). E: peloidal grainstone (MF5); F: bio-intraclastic packstone (MF6); G:
erosive contact (MF6); H: bioturbation (MF6). Abbreviations: b: bivalve; bf:
benthic foraminifer; ca: calcisphere; e: echinoid; ic: intraclast; p: planktonic
foraminifer; py: pyrite; q: quartz; ra: red alga; z: zircon.

- Fig. 6. Microfacies MF7a-MF10. A: planktonic foraminiferal wackestone (MF7a); B:
 sandy planktonic foraminiferal packstone (MF7b); C: bioturbation (MF7b); D:
 calcisphere packstone (MF8a); E: sandy calcisphere packstone (MF8b); F:
 bioclastic packstone (MF9a); G: sandy bioclastic floatstone (MF9b); H:
 quartzose sandstone (MF10). Abbreviations as in Fig. 5.
- Fig. 7. Lithological log of the Gelamu section (Tingri area) showing the distribution
 of planktonic foraminifera, carbonate microfacies, interpreted palaeowater
 depths, and sedimentary environments for the upper Jiubao to lower Zhepure
 Shanpo Formations. FWWB = fair-weather wave base; SWB = storm wave base.
- Fig. 8. Lithological log of the Jiubao section (Gamba area) showing the distribution of
 planktonic foraminifera, carbonate microfacies, interpreted palaeowater depths,
 and sedimentary environments for the upper Jiubao to lower Zhepure Shanpo
 Formations. FWWB = fair-weather wave base; SWB = storm wave base.
- Fig. 9. Lithological log of the Bolinxiala Formation, showing the distribution of
 planktonic foraminifera, carbonate microfacies, interpreted palaeowater depths,
 and sedimentary environments. FWWB = fair-weather wave base; SWB = storm
 wave base.
- Fig. 10. Sedimentary model for the Tethys Himalaya during the Late Cretaceous,
 indicating the relative paleogeographic position of microfacies types identified
 according to the depositional model of Flügel (2010).
- Fig. 11. Stratigraphic correlation chart for Upper Cretaceous successions deposited in
 western Pakistan and peninsular India. Location of the sections studied is
 indicated in yellow dots Fig. 1. Stratigraphic logs: Kirthar belt (mod. from
 Smewing et al., 2002); Bagh, Jabalpur, and Nagpur areas in central India (mod.
 from Tandon, 2000 and Tripathi, 2006); Krishna-Godavari in eastern India (mod.
 from Gupta, 2006).

Fig. 12. Water temperature (Cramer et al., 2011), 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ratio (McArthur et al., 2001), and atmospheric *p*CO₂ estimated from various proxies (Royer, 2010; Beerling and Royer, 2011; Zhang et al., 2018). CTM = Cretaceous thermal maximum; EECO = early Eocene climatic optimum; MMCO = middle Miocene climatic optimum.

Table 1. Average composition, sedimentary structures, corresponding standard
microfacies, and inferred water depth for each microfacies type. Numbers are
percentages; grain size in millimeters.

808

809 Appendix figures

810

811 Fig. A1 Planktonic foraminifera in the upper Jiubao Formation to lower Zhepure Shanpo Formation (Gelamu section, Tingri area). 1) Contusotruncana fornicata 812 (Plummer), 09ZS01; 2) Globotruncana linneiana (d'Orbigny), 09ZS04; 3) 813 Concavatotruncana concavata (Brotzen), 09ZS03; 4) Helvetoglobotruncana 814 815 helvetica (Bolli), 09ZS03; 5) A: Globotruncanella havanensis (Voorwijk), B: Archaeoglobigerina cretacea (d'Orbigny), C: Globotruncana 816 linneiana (d'Orbigny), 09ZS06; 6) Pseudotextularia nuttalli (Voorwijk), 09ZS16; 7) A: 817 Globotruncanita angulata (Tilev), B: Contusotruncana contusa (Cushman), C: 818 Globotruncana linneiana (d'Orbigny), 09ZS54; 8) Reworked Cretaceous 819 foraminifera, A: Globotruncanita angulata (Tilev), B: echinoid sp., C 820 Heterohelix globulosa (Ehrenberg) 09ZS59. 821

Fig. A2 Planktonic foraminifera in the upper Jiubao Formation to lower Zhepure 822 823 Shanpo Formation (Jiubao section, Gamba area). 1) Marginotruncana pseudolinneiana Pessagno, 10GUB8; 2) Concavatotruncana asymetrica (Sigal), 824 10GUB8. Fig. 3) Globotruncana lapparenti Bolli, 10GUB10; 4) Globotruncana 825 linneiana (d'Orbigny), 10GUB10; 5) Ventilabrella austinana Cushman, 826 10GUB10; 6) A: Concavatotruncana concavata (Brotzen), B: Sigalitruncana 827 schneegansi (Sigal), C: Archaeoglobigerina blowi Pessagno, 10GUB11; 7) A: 828 Globotruncana linneiana (d'Orbigny), B: Ventilabrella sp., 10GUB11; 8) 829

Globotruncana linneiana (d'Orbigny), 10GUB11; 9) *Globotruncana bulloides*Vogler.10GUB19; 10) *Contusotruncana contusa* (Cushman), 10GUB21; 11)
Orbitoides sp., 10GUB27; 12) *Daviesina intermedia Smout and Haque*,
10GUB13.

Fig. A3 Planktonic foraminifera in the Bolinxiala Formation (Xiala section, Zanda 834 area). 1) Praeglobotruncana stephani (Gandolfi), 06XL38; 2) Favusella 835 washitensis (Carsey), 06XL38; 3) Rotalipora montsalvensis 06XL52. 4) 836 Marginotruncana marginata Reuss, 06XL53; 5) Contusotruncana fornicata 837 (Plummer), 06XL66; 6) Globotruncana bulloides Vogler, 06XL72. 7) 838 Globotruncana arca (Cushman); 06XL74; 8) Gansserina gansseri (Bolli), 839 06XL74; 9) Ventilabrella glabrata (Cushman), 06XL76; 10) Radotruncana 840 calcarata (Cushman), 06XL76; 11) Globotruncana ventricosa White, 06XL92; 841 12) Planoglobulina acervulinoides Egger, 06XL100; 13) Abathomphalus 842 intermedius 06XL92; 14) Globotruncanita stuarti (De Lapparent), 06XL100; 15) 843 Rugotruncana subcircumnodifer (Gandolfi), 06XL100; 16). Contusotruncana 844 845 contusa (Cushman), 06XL103.









79°30′

Fig.2

79°20′







Fig.4



Fig.5





Figure 1-12













Fig. 11



Fig. 12

Table 1

Description and environmental interpretation of the 10 identified microfacies

Microfacies		Carbonate grains						Groundmass		Terrigenous		Standard	
		Planktonic foraminifera	Calcisphere (percentage, diameter)	Peloids	Bioclasts	Bivalves	Intraclasts	Matrix	Cement	grains (percentage, size range)	Sealmentary structures	microfacies (Flügel, 2010)	Depositional environment
MF1	Mudstone	3	1	_	_	_	_	96	_	_	Planar lamination	RMF5	Low-energy outer ramp, below SWB
MF2	Small calcisphere wackestone	2	10 (0.03-0.05 mm)	_	_	1	_	87	_	_	_	RMF6	Low-energy outer ramp, below SWB
MF3	Thin-shelled bivalve wackestone	3	5	_	—	15	_	77	_	—	_	RMF5	Low-energy outer ramp, below SWB
MF4	Microbioclastic-planktonic foraminiferal wackestone	3	2	2	25	1	_	70	_	—	Burrows	RMF3	Low-energy outer-middle ramp, influenced by SWB
MF5	Peloidal grainstone	—	—	30	3	_	_	10	57	_	—	RMF4	Low-energy outer ramp, storm deposits
MF6	Intra-bioclastic packstone	10		—	45	_	15	27	_	3	Bioturbation	RMF9	Middle ramp, between FWWB and SWB
MF7a	Planktonic foraminiferal wackestone	15	_	_	5	_	_	80	_	_	_	RMF5	Middle ramp, between FWWB and SWB
MF7b	Sandy planktonic foraminiferal wackestone	25	_	_	10	_	_	65	_	4	Bioturbation	RMF5	Middle ramp influenced by terrigenous, between FWWB and SWB
MF8a	Calcisphere grainstone-packstone	5	75 (0.1-0.15 mm)	_	_	_	_	20	_	_	_	RMF27	Middle ramp, between FWWB and SWB
MF8b	Sandy calcisphere packstone	5	20 (0.1-0.15 mm)	_	25	_	_	45	_	5 (0.02-0.05 mm)	_	RMF27	Middle ramp influenced by terrigenous, between EWWB and SWB
MF9a	Bioclastic packstone	—	—	_	60	_	10	5	15	5 (0.1-0.2 mm)	_	RMF13	Inner ramp, open marine above FWWB
MF9b	Sandy bioclastic floatstone/bioclastic sandstone	_	_	_	25	_	15	35	_	15 (0.1-0.3 mm)	_	RMF13	Inner ramp, open marine above FWWB
MF10	Quartzose sandstone	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	11	89 (0.1-0.4 mm)	Graded bedding, parallel lamination		Inner ramp, high-energy storm deposits, above FWWB