

1. LEG 207 SUMMARY¹

Shipboard Scientific Party²

ABSTRACT

A principal objective of Leg 207 was to recover relatively expanded, shallowly buried Cretaceous and Paleogene sediments from Demerara Rise off Suriname, South America, that could be used for paleoceanographic study of the tropical Atlantic. This period of the Earth's history involved episodes of ocean anoxia, rapid climate change, mass extinction, and opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway. Five sites were drilled in a depth transect from 3200 to 1900 meters below sea level (mbsl) (modern water depth), which resulted in recovery of multiple sequences of Cenomanian–Turonian black shales, Campanian–Maastrichtian chalk, and Paleocene, lower Eocene, and middle Eocene chalk. In aggregate, the recovered sections form a continuous record of tropical sedimentation from the late early Cenomanian (~98 Ma) to the Santonian (~83.5 Ma) and from the late Campanian (~76 Ma) to the late middle Eocene (~38 Ma). The oldest sedimentary rocks recovered during Leg 207 are lower and middle Albian claystones (Site 1258) and the youngest are Pliocene–Pleistocene clay-rich nannofossil oozes (Site 1261).

In total, ~650 m of black shales were recovered. Critical intervals recovered include multiple copies of oceanic anoxic events (OAEs) 2 and 3. OAEs result from major shifts in ocean circulation patterns and represent significant perturbations in the global carbon cycle, with massive deposition of organic carbon in marine environments. They are hypothesized to have played a major role in the evolution of Earth's climatic and biotic history. The entire sequence of black shale sediments has a cyclical overprint of organic matter-rich black shale alternating with laminated foraminiferal packstone and occasional glauconitic bioturbated intervals. These alternations reflect varying levels of bottom water dysoxia and surface water productivity and may show Milankovitch periodicities.

¹Examples of how to reference the whole or part of this volume.

²Shipboard Scientific Party addresses.

Interstitial water chemical analyses show that ~90 m.y. after deposition of the black shales these sediments continue to act as a bioreactor that dominates organic matter degradation via sulfate reduction and methanogenesis. The other prominent feature seen in the Leg 207 pore water is the presence of a brine at three sites characterized by chloride concentrations >60% higher than standard seawater. Data suggest that the shales act as an aquifer for the brines at these sites.

Six copies of the Cretaceous/Tertiary (K/T) boundary were recovered from three sites. Each of these cores contains a 1.7- to 1.9-cm-thick graded spherule ejecta layer, presumably resulting from fallout of the meteorite impact and representing the first discrete ejecta layer found on the South American craton. The interval is accompanied by the disappearance of many species of microfossils and a bloom in new species following the event. Strong sediment physical property contrasts around the K/T boundary make this event a prominent reflection horizon in seismic profile that is correlated from site to site and throughout the study area.

The Paleocene/Eocene (P/E) boundary was recovered at all five sites, with 10 cores spanning the boundary interval. The P/E boundary was a period of significant and rapid global warming (5°–7° at the poles), mass extinction in oceanic microorganisms, and widespread shoaling of the carbonate compensation depth. The entire episode of global warming is estimated to have lasted ~84 k.y., whereas noticeably light $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in marine carbonates persisted for ~220 k.y. A dark green clay-rich bed that is in sharp contact with underlying chalk represents the P/E boundary at all the sites. Site 1260 has distinct lamination from just below to ~10 cm above the boundary. Magnetic susceptibility measurements suggest that the clay-rich part of the boundary sequence ranges from 1 to 2 m thick.

All sites display pronounced cyclicity in physical property measurements and sediment color. The pervasive cyclicity in physical property records offers the possibility not only of refining the chronology around critical intervals but also crosschecking results between sites and understanding past climate forcing mechanisms.

INTRODUCTION

Overview of Scientific Objectives

The best examples in the geologic record of rapid (1 k.y. to 1 m.y.) wholesale extinctions linked to massive perturbations of the global carbon cycle and extreme changes in Earth's climate come from the Cretaceous and Paleogene periods (e.g., oceanic anoxic events [OAEs] and the Paleocene/Eocene Thermal Maximum [PETM]). Little is known about the underlying causes and effects of these critical events in Earth's history, however. To a significant extent, these gaps in our understanding arise because of a lack of modern high-resolution paleo-oceanographic records from oceanic drill sites, particularly from the tropics, because tropical dynamics are so important in driving global ocean-atmospheric circulation. Drilling at Demerara Rise was targeted to access expanded sections of Cretaceous- and Paleogene-age deep-sea sediments, fulfilling priorities of the Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Extreme Climates Program Planning Group and the Long Range Plan. Demerara Rise represents an ideal drilling target for this purpose because the target sediments (1) are shallowly buried and, in places, crop out on

the seafloor, (2) exist with good stratigraphic control in expanded sections, (3) contain spectacularly well preserved microfossils, and (4) were deposited in the core of the tropics in a proximal location to the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway.

During Leg 207, five sites were cored on the northern margin of Demerara Rise (Figs. F1, F2). The sites are located in a depth transect (present water depths = 1900–3192 m) along a grid of high-resolution single-channel seismic reflection lines supplemented by existing multi-channel industry lines (Fig. F2). The transect of Cretaceous and Paleogene cores will be used to evaluate the following:

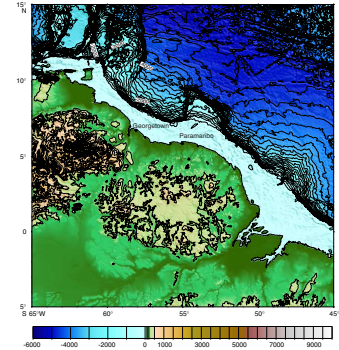
1. The history of Cretaceous anoxia in an equatorial setting and thereby test competing hypotheses for the causes and climatological effects of OAEs (particularly in relation to rapid emission and drawdown of greenhouse gases);
2. The detailed response of oceanic biotic communities across a range of paleowater depths to extreme perturbations in the geochemical carbon cycle and global climate;
3. Short- and long-term changes in greenhouse forcing and tropical sea-surface temperature (SST) response;
4. Key Cretaceous/Tertiary (K/T) events of biotic turnover and/or inferred climate extremes, particularly across the K/T and the Paleocene/Eocene (P/E) boundaries; and
5. The role of Equatorial Atlantic Gateway opening in controlling paleoceanographic circulation patterns, OAEs, and cross-equatorial ocean heat transport into the North Atlantic.

Geologic History of Demerara Rise

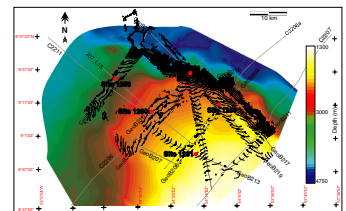
Demerara Rise is a prominent submarine plateau located at ~5°N off the coasts of Suriname and French Guyana (Figs. F1, F2). The rise stretches ~380 km along the coast and is ~220 km wide from the shelf break to the northeastern escarpment, where water depths increase from 1000 to >4500 m. Most of the plateau lies in shallow water (~700 m), but the northwest margin is a gentle ramp that reaches depths of 3000–4000 m. Much of the plateau is covered by 2–3 km of sediment. The sedimentary cover thins near the northeastern escarpment and exposes the lower parts of the sediment column and underlying basement at depths of 3000 to >4500 m. In contrast, the gentle ramp on the northwest margin is covered by a nearly uniform drape of pelagic sediment down to water depths >4000 m.

Demerara Rise is built on rifted continental crust of Precambrian and early Mesozoic age. Tectonic reconstruction of the equatorial Atlantic places Demerara Rise south of Dakar, Senegal, prior to rifting of Africa from South America. The South American margin in the vicinity of Demerara Rise was one of the last areas in contact with West Africa during opening of the equatorial Atlantic. Rifting processes and related transform faulting separated the Guinea and Demerara Plateaus along an east-west–striking fault system during the earliest Cretaceous (Fig. F3). Barremian basaltic volcanics have been recovered in industry wells from the eastern Demerara Rise, suggesting that rifting began in the Early Cretaceous. Early Cretaceous en echelon faulting along the northwestern edge of Demerara Rise was caused by extensional movements and created a gently dipping ramp between present water depths of 1500 and 4000 m (Gouyet et al., 1994; Benkhelil et al., 1995).

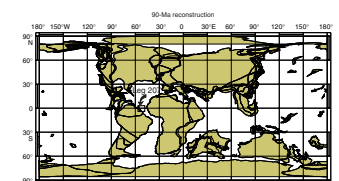
F1. Regional location map, p. 58.



F2. Seismic survey track lines over bathymetry, p. 59.

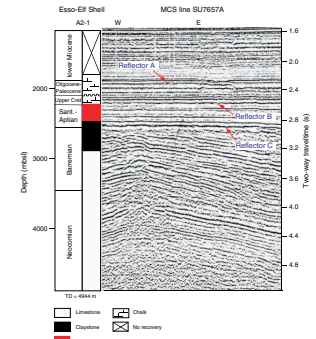


F3. Paleogeographic reconstruction of the Late Cretaceous, p. 60.



Late Jurassic sandstones have been dredged from a water depth of 4400 m at the foot of the northern slope (Fox et al., 1972). The first known marine sediments on Demerara Rise are Neocomian in age (Fig. F4), and the northern edge of the plateau is thought to have subsided rapidly and reached water depths of nearly 2 km by late Cenomanian time (Arthur and Natland, 1979). A striking angular unconformity is present across Demerara Rise, separating pre-Albian synrift sequences from Albian to present-age sediments. Upper Albian sediments are mostly green clayey carbonate siltstones. The Cenomanian–Santonian sequence consists almost exclusively of laminated black shale, with occasional stringers of limestone and chert. The black shale is a principal source rock for oil production in coastal French Guyana and Suriname and has total organic carbon (TOC) contents of ~6–8 wt%, shown in industry wells near the middle of the plateau. Laterally equivalent shales are important source rocks in basins west of Demerara Rise, and they are known as the Canje Formation (Guyana), Naparima Hill Formation (Trinidad), and La Luna Formation (Venezuela and Colombia). Campanian–Paleogene sediments are calcareous to siliceous oozes and chalks. A prominent submarine channel system and erosional surface developed during the late Oligocene–early Miocene. This surface can be traced across the entire northwestern plateau. The channels carried sediment east to west over the flank of the plateau and into feeder channels for a submarine fan that formed northwest of Demerara Rise. The channel system was short lived, and most of the Neogene sedimentary sequence (hemipelagic and pelagic deposits) is thin or absent from the distal portions of the plateau.

F4. Stratigraphy of line A2-1 vs. line SU7657A, p. 61.



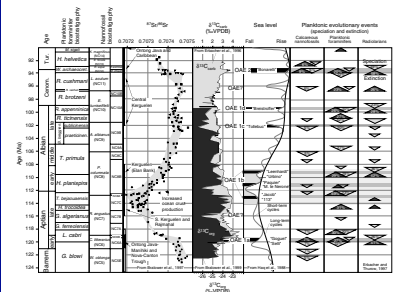
DETAILED SCIENTIFIC OBJECTIVES

Oceanic Anoxic Events

OAEs represent major disruptions to the ocean system defined by massive deposition of organic carbon in marine environments (Schlanger and Jenkyns, 1976; Jenkyns, 1980; Herbert and Fischer, 1986; Arthur et al., 1990). Despite the fundamental role that OAEs are widely hypothesized to have played in the evolution of Earth’s climatic and biotic history, very little is really known about the causes and effects of these events. Arguably, between two and six OAEs occurred during the mid–Late Cretaceous (OAEs 1a–1d, 2, and 3) (Jenkyns, 1980; Arthur et al., 1990; Erbacher et al., 1996) (Fig. F5), and these are particularly important because they have left records, not merely in shallow seas but also in the deep oceans.

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records from the Western Interior, English Chalk, and Italian Scaglia appear to confirm the initial designation of OAE 3 for the late Coniacian, but current resolution of Atlantic records is insufficient to determine the existence of additional events in the late Turonian–Santonian (Jenkyns, 1980; Jenkyns et al., 1994). Likewise, comparatively little was known about the Albian OAEs (OAEs 1b–1d), but two new studies demonstrate the potential to improve constraints on the origin of different OAEs when diagenetically uncompromised microfossils become available from modern ocean drilling. Data from Site 1049 suggest that pronounced water column stratification instigated OAE 1b (Erbacher et al., 2001), whereas records from nearby Site 1052 indicate that OAE 1d was triggered by the total collapse of upper ocean stratification, intense vertical mixing, and high oceanic productivity (Wilson

F5. Major evolutionary events, p. 62.



and Norris, 2001). These antipodal hypotheses for the proximal causes of two OAEs in the same Cretaceous stage emphasize the utility of targeting sections that we know to contain records of multiple OAEs.

The two most prominent mid- to Late Cretaceous black shale events are the late early Aptian “Selli Event” (OAE 1a; ~120 Ma) and the Cenomanian/Turonian boundary (“Bonarelli Event”) (OAE 2; ~93.5 Ma) (Fig. F5). Both OAEs 1a and 2 have sedimentary records in all ocean basins (Arthur et al., 1985, 1988, 1990; Bralower et al., 1994; Thurnrow et al., 1992), and the Aptian event is now known to have been truly cosmopolitan; its sedimentary expression extends even to the extremely shallow waters of mid-Pacific atolls (Jenkyns and Wilson, 1999). These findings and recent improvements to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records from land sections (both in outcrop and drill core) and the mid-Cretaceous seawater $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ curve reveal two important factors concerning the possible origin of OAE 1a (Bralower et al., 1997; Menegatti et al., 1998; Erba et al., 1999; Jahren et al., 2001; Jones and Jenkyns, 2001):

1. The onset of black shale deposition is associated with an extreme, short-lived negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion in marine and terrestrial records and a carbonate dissolution “spike” that were triggered by a rapid greenhouse gas release (possibly methane, as is hypothesized for the P/E boundary).
2. The foregoing events are associated with the onset of a pronounced decline in global seawater $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ to its least radiogenic value in the past 125 m.y. (a second post-Jurassic minimum occurs around the time of OAE 2), suggesting a link between OAEs and oceanic plateau emplacement (Jones et al., 1994; Sinton and Duncan, 1997; Kerr, 1998) (Fig. F5).

The global presence of laminated sediments and a variety of geochemical records demonstrate that the response of the carbon cycle during OAE 2 was somehow related to dysoxic–euxinic conditions at the sediment/water interface (e.g., Sinninghe Damsté and Koster, 1998). However, the cause and dimensions of O_2 deficiency remain unclear and controversial. The substantial positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion of seawater at the time of OAE 2 (Scholle and Arthur, 1980; Schlanger et al., 1987; Jenkyns et al., 1994) is widely attributed to increased global oceanic productivity and increased rates of organic carbon burial, but recent treatment of the problem using a simple model of the global carbon cycle indicates that this paradigm view requires more thorough investigation (Kump and Arthur, 1999). The process of sedimentary sequestration of organic carbon is hypothesized to act as a rapid negative feedback mechanism for global warming via drawdown of atmospheric carbon dioxide (Arthur et al., 1988; Kuypers et al., 1999).

The following scientific questions can be addressed using the sediments recovered from the Demerara Rise transect:

1. What is the history of OAEs in the tropical Atlantic as recorded on Demerara Rise?
2. What were the duration, cyclostratigraphy, and vertical extent of specific OAEs in the tropical Atlantic? Results from Demerara Rise will be used in conjunction with high-resolution records for OAE 2 from the shallow-water Tarfaya Basin (Kuhnt et al., 2001) to test (a) the predictions of the oxygen minimum zone model and (b) the role played by equatorial divergence in forcing the

- deposition of organic carbon-rich sediment (Handoh et al., 1999).
3. How does the type of organic carbon differ between (a) different OAE intervals and (b) these and non-OAE intervals? The sediments recovered from the Demerara Rise transect will provide an opportunity to examine the constraints that can be applied using modern geomicrobiological techniques.
 4. What were the proximal and underlying causes of Cretaceous OAEs? In particular, it is important to determine whether carbon cycle perturbations are the instigators or merely the consequence of OAEs. What role was played by sedimentation rate, clay content, and sea level change (Leckie et al., 2002)? The location of Demerara Rise will also allow the competing roles of gateway opening, plateau emplacement, and the hydrological cycle to be evaluated.
 5. Are hypothesized increases in productivity during Cretaceous OAEs real? Current models of OAEs rely heavily on bulk carbonate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records from land sections, where preservation of microfossils is generally poor. Well-preserved microfossils from Demerara Rise will provide a way to test these records and their conventional interpretations by allowing the production of new types of data.
 6. Are the lead, lag, and fractionation effects observed in existing records between the timing of organic carbon burial and the geochemical response (increase in inorganic and organic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) reproducible in the core of the tropics at Demerara Rise? What mechanisms are responsible for these lead, lag, and fractionation effects?
 7. What evidence (e.g., negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursions and depth-transect records of changes in the carbonate compensation depth [CCD]) exists to support the hypothesis that OAEs were driven by the sudden release of greenhouse gases (e.g., methane, as hypothesized for the P/E boundary)?
 8. What was the impact of OAEs on chemical cycling in the oceans? High-resolution geochemical (e.g., trace element, strontium, and sulfur isotope) analysis of OAE 2 sediments can be used to test (a) the hypothesized link between large-scale hydrothermal activity and ocean anoxia (Brumsack, 1980) and (b) the impact of organic carbon and pyrite burial on the global sulfur, iron, and oxygen cycles (Brumsack and Lew, 1982; Ohkouchi et al., 1999).

Currently, a wide range of hypotheses invoke changes in ocean circulation and/or stratification to explain OAEs, but virtually no reliable geochemical data exist to constrain changes in the basic physical properties (temperature and salinity) of the water masses involved. These competing hypotheses can be tested using $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, trace element, and biomarker records using well-preserved microfossils and organic carbon from Demerara Rise.

Biotic Turnover

The tropics are widely viewed as an environment in which physicochemical factors and thus biotic compositions are inherently stable. Yet many low-latitude species have low environmental tolerances, thereby suggesting that relatively small climate changes may result in a substan-

tial biological response (Stanley, 1984). The so-called Cretaceous and Paleogene greenhouse was characterized by a series of significant marine and terrestrial biotic turnovers. Most of these events seem to be linked to major changes in Earth's climate (Eocene–Oligocene transition and P/E boundary), paleoceanography, and/or the geochemical carbon cycle (Cretaceous OAEs and mid-Maastrichtian Event). Many of these events also produced synchronous turnovers in both terrestrial and marine biotas. The causes of most of these turnovers are poorly known because of the absence of expanded sections in the deep sea, where paleontological and isotopic studies can be carried out at high temporal resolution.

Widespread and presumably related isotopic, sedimentological, and paleontological changes are concentrated in the middle portions of the Maastrichtian (e.g., Barrera and Savin, 1999; Frank and Arthur, 1999; MacLeod and Huber, 2001). However, there are currently no established criteria for defining this interval. Some associated changes are gradational over millions of years (e.g., high-latitude cooling), others are markedly diachronous (e.g., the last occurrence of bathyal inoceramids), others are not expressed in all areas (e.g., carbon isotopic excursion among benthic foraminifers), and still others are poorly dated (e.g., the collapse of rudist reefs). These uncertainties notwithstanding, in the subtropical North Atlantic and Tethys the decline in abundance among inoceramids can be first resolved in the upper portion of Chron 31r and their disappearance (except *Tenuipteria*) occurs in Chron 31n. This interval coincides with diversification among Tethyan planktonic foraminifers, with increased isotopic gradients among planktonic foraminifers on Blake Nose, an increase in the intensity of bioturbation at Site 1052 and the Basque region, and proposed changes in the North Atlantic CCD. Thus, during Leg 207, mid-Maastrichtian changes are expected in the upper portion of Chron 31r, in Zone CC25, and near the first occurrence datum of the planktonic foraminifer *Abathomphalus mayaroensis*.

The biotic turnovers of the mid-Cretaceous OAEs (OAEs 1b, 1d, and 2) are broadly comparable to one another even if the detailed causal factors are thought to have been different (Leckie, 1987; Erbacher and Thurow, 1997; Premoli Silva et al., 1999). A faunal crisis in nannoconids is well documented in the Aptian (Erba, 1994). Similarly, the early Albian OAE 1b strongly influenced the evolution of both planktonic foraminifers and radiolarians, as did the other OAEs. Some events not only influenced planktonic groups but also benthic foraminifers, ammonites, bivalves, and even angiosperms. OAE 2 ranks as the eighth largest mass extinction in Phanerozoic Earth history (Sepkoski, 1986). Extension of the oxygen minimum zone (OMZ) and a rapid eutrophication of the oceans have been linked to extinction and a subsequent radiation of plankton and benthos alike (e.g., Hart, 1980; Caron and Homewood, 1983; Kaiho and Hasegawa, 1994; Erbacher et al., 1996; Leckie, 1989). Documentation of fossilized photosynthetic green sulfur bacteria from Cenomanian/Turonian boundary black shales points to the existence of euxinic conditions in the proto–North Atlantic (Sinninghe Damsté and Koester, 1998; Kuypers et al., 2002). Interpretations differ as to whether the associated organic carbon burial was caused by OMZ expansion and organic carbon preservation or enhanced productivity (Sinninghe Damsté and Koester, 1998).

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursions around three events (OAEs 1b, 1d, and 2) have been interpreted in terms of increases in oceanic productivity, and this mechanism has been invoked to explain wide-scale carbonate platform

drowning events in the Tethyan realm (Erbacher and Thurow, 1997; Weissert et al., 1998). On the other hand, results from the Pacific suggest that high tropical SSTs rather than eutrophication were responsible for platform drowning (Wilson et al., 1998; Jenkyns and Wilson, 1999). Cretaceous OAEs and extreme climates of the Paleogene (K/T and P/E boundaries and middle-late Eocene refrigeration) led to profound changes in plankton and benthos in the oceans (Thomas, 1998; Aubry, 1998).

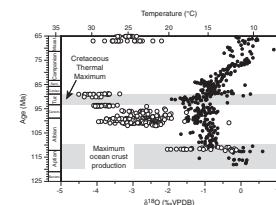
The following questions concerning Cretaceous and Paleogene biotic turnover will be addressed using microfauna recovered from Demerara Rise:

1. Are leads and lags discernible on the scale of ~10 k.y. or more in the pattern of turnover between different groups of plankton and benthos that could elucidate the nature of shifts in climate around a turnover pulse?
2. Are some species present only during transient climate shifts, and if so, how does their ecology (judged from faunal and isotopic data) compare with closely related species before and after the climatic anomaly? Answers could address (a) the rate of evolutionary response to climatic transients, (b) the magnitude or type of events needed to prompt evolutionary response, and (c) the extent to which species can accommodate environmental change by shifts in ecology rather than evolution (or extinction).
3. Are biotic changes permanent, or are major evolutionary changes offset from the transient climate shift? For example, the K/T extinction was abrupt, but the subsequent pattern of rediversification occurred over several million years. The long recovery appears to reflect structural changes in ecosystems wrought by the mass extinction (e.g., D'Hondt et al., 1998).
4. Are particular taxonomic groups more susceptible to extinction or radiation during turnovers?
5. Do different events (such as the various OAEs) generate predictable patterns of turnover within and between taxonomic groups? For example, thermocline dwelling species and those with complex life histories are believed to be particularly susceptible to extinction, and subsequent radiation, during OAEs (e.g., Hart, 1980; Caron and Homewood, 1983; Leckie, 1987), but these hypotheses have not been tested in detail with stable isotopic data.

Tropical Sea-Surface Temperatures and Greenhouse Forcing

A wide range of biotic observations suggest that substantially higher mid-latitude and polar temperatures relative to today prevailed during certain intervals of Earth history (e.g., mid-Cretaceous and early Paleogene), with tropical temperatures throughout the past ~150 m.y. probably at least as warm as today (Adams et al., 1990; Crowley and North, 1991). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ paleothermometry in deep-sea foraminiferal calcite supports the existence of these past "warm climates" (Fig. F6). These data show that deep and surface waters in the Cretaceous Antarctic during these intervals were significantly warmer than today (e.g., SSTs = ~15°C) (Huber et al., 1995). In contrast, broadly contemporaneous SSTs

F6. Cretaceous $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ temperature records, p. 63.



estimated in this way for the tropics are generally no warmer and sometimes much cooler (a minimum of $\sim 12^{\circ}$ – 18°C) than today (Shackleton, 1984; Barrera, 1994; D'Hondt and Arthur, 1996). Such cool tropical SSTs contradict not only biotic observations but also basic theories of tropical ocean–atmosphere dynamics (Crowley, 1991). Attempts to simulate Cretaceous climates using numerical general circulation models have consistently demonstrated that (1) high levels of atmospheric CO_2 (four times present amounts) are needed to explain the warm polar SSTs derived from $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ paleothermometry, and (2) this level of greenhouse forcing also yields increases in tropical SSTs beyond those indicated by $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data sets (e.g., Manabe and Bryan, 1985; Barron, 1995; Bush and Philander, 1997; Poulsen et al., 1999; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2002). Explanations for the apparent paradox of the “cool tropical greenhouse” fall into two basic categories: (1) models of past warm climates fail to account adequately for polar ocean and/or atmospheric heat transport, and (2) tropical $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ SST estimates are misleading.

Many artifacts plague existing records of tropical SSTs, including their extremely low resolution, misidentification of true surface-dwelling species of foraminifers, and the susceptibility of epipelagically secreted calcite to early diagenetic alteration in favor of artificially low SSTs (Douglas and Savin, 1975; Killingley, 1983; Schrag et al., 1995). Recent studies demonstrate that under the correct geological circumstances ancient carbonates (even highly metastable minerals) can be remarkably well preserved and yield $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ SSTs for the tropics that are significantly warmer than those provided by diagenetically suspect material (Wilson and Opdyke, 1996; Norris and Wilson, 1998; Wilson and Norris, 2001; Wilson et al., 2002; Norris et al., 2002; Pearson et al., 2001). These studies show that foraminifers recovered from sections with clay-rich lithologies and/or shallow burial depths exhibit a distinctive “glassy” taphonomy similar to fauna recovered from modern-day sediment traps. This Cretaceous material includes epipelagic fauna that yield tropical $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ SSTs that match or, in some cases, exceed those measured today, in agreement with greenhouse forcing in the tropics.

The concept of a greenhouse mid- to Late Cretaceous period is well supported by models of Earth's tectonic history. These models indicate that the mid- to Late Cretaceous was a time of exceptional rates of sea-floor spreading and intraplate volcanism. This pulse in global oceanic crustal production is hypothesized to have caused increases in the levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide and global sea levels via increases in global oceanic ridge volumes, magmatic outgassing, and metamorphic decarbonation reactions (Schlanger et al., 1981; Larson, 1991; Berner, 1994; Larson and Erba, 1999). Fundamental problems remain, however, in terms of our understanding of these Cretaceous environments and their Paleogene equivalents.

One problem concerns our understanding of Cretaceous climate change at tectonic timescales. Maximum rates of Cretaceous–Cenozoic ocean crust cycling and, therefore, inferred atmospheric carbon dioxide levels are thought to have occurred during Aptian–Albian time (Larson, 1991; Larson and Erba, 1999), but this significantly predates Cretaceous climatic optima as perceived from mineralogical evidence (Kemper, 1986) and existing $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ paleothermometric records (Fig. F6). One explanation for this discrepancy, consistent with the timing of peak Cretaceous–Cenozoic sea level (also Turonian), is that subducted crust and/or dating problems in the Cretaceous Magnetic Superchron (Superchron C34n) act to obscure a “hidden” Turonian pulse in ocean crust

production (Wilson et al., 2002). Alternatively, the mismatch is real evidence of some other factor influencing CO₂ and/or SST (e.g., higher rates of CaCO₃ subduction) (Kump, 2002) during the Turonian relative to the Aptian–Albian (Wilson et al., 2002).

A second problem with our understanding of Cretaceous climate concerns the short-term stability of the so-called greenhouse state. High-resolution bulk carbonate δ¹⁸O records from classic land sections in Italy reveal positive excursions that have been interpreted in terms of large-scale mid-Turonian and early Cenomanian glaciations superimposed on the middle of the Cretaceous greenhouse (Stoll and Schrag, 2000). Sedimentological and biotic records show no support for this hypothesis, but these records are of insufficient temporal resolution to provide a categorical test. Similarly, our highest-resolution long-term δ¹⁸O record from deep-sea sites for the Cretaceous comes from diagenetically altered bulk carbonate and has a temporal resolution of ~1 sample/200 k.y. (Clarke and Jenkyns, 1999). The best existing corresponding record from separates of planktonic foraminiferal calcite is also diagenetically suspect (it comes from chertified, deeply buried chinks in the Pacific) and is of very low resolution (<1 sample/m.y.; Aptian–Santonian) (Barrera, 1994). More recently, high-resolution sequence stratigraphic correlation of mid-Cenomanian sediments in northwest Europe and southeast India have been interpreted in terms of eustatic sea level change at an orbital timescale, possibly of glacial origin (Gale et al., 2002).

A third problem concerns the magnitude and origin of warmth of intermediate and deep waters in the Cretaceous oceans. A recent study of the dynamics of this problem demonstrates that the popular concept of low-latitude “warm salty bottom water” formation is essentially unsupported (Bice and Marotzke, 2001). A simpler way to explain the warm Cretaceous temperatures recorded by deep-sea benthic foraminifers is water mass formation at high latitudes that have warmer SSTs than today (presumably in response to pCO₂ forcing). However, the extraordinary magnitude of SST warmth indicated by a recent study for the Turonian high-latitude South Atlantic (Deep Sea Drilling Project [DSDP] Site 511; up to 32°C at ~60°S) (Bice et al., 2003) raises severe questions concerning the levels of atmospheric pCO₂ forcing required.

The following scientific questions will be addressed using well-preserved microfossils and organic-rich sediments recovered from the Demerara Rise transect:

1. What is the history of changes in atmospheric CO₂ levels from mid-Cretaceous to Paleogene time? Well-preserved microfossils and organic carbon–rich sediments from Demerara Rise will provide an ideal means to evaluate this question using multiple proxies for atmospheric pCO₂ (e.g., boron isotope geochemistry in foraminiferal calcite and δ¹³C geochemistry of bulk and biomarker organic carbon [e.g., Hayes et al., 1989; Kuypers et al., 1999; Pearson and Palmer, 1999]).
2. What is the history of tropical SSTs in the tropical Atlantic? The presence of Demerara Rise in the core of the tropics throughout the entire Cretaceous and Paleogene provides a way to evaluate the relative strength of greenhouse forcing over long time periods. The combination of well-preserved calcareous microfossils and organic carbon–rich sediments recovered provides an excellent opportunity to address this problem using both well-established

lished ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and newly developed (e.g., Mg/Ca; TEX_{86}) (Lear et al., 2000; Schouten et al., 2002) paleothermometry proxies. It is important to establish whether the persistent problem of “tropical overheating” in simulations of past warm climates is an artifact of poor SST records or the result of the existence of some tropical thermostatic regulator.

3. What evidence is there for rapid ocean warming associated with extreme perturbations in the geochemical carbon cycle (e.g., Cretaceous OAEs and P/E boundary)? High-resolution records from the Demerara Rise transect across these events will also provide a way to test the hypothesis that organic carbon burial during OAEs acted as a negative feedback for global warming.
4. Are hypothesized mid-Cretaceous glaciations real? Answers to this question have important consequences to (a) the long-standing problem of the mechanism responsible for perceived changes in global sea level prior to the icehouse and (b) our understanding of the stability of greenhouse climates.

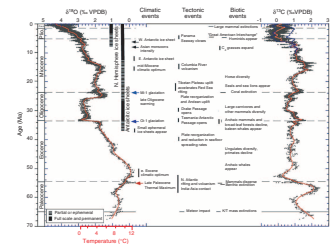
Paleogene Events

The Paleogene record has numerous “critical boundaries” that offer significant opportunities for understanding the dynamics of greenhouse gas release, warm climate stability, biotic turnover associated with climate transitions, and extraterrestrial impacts. For example, the early Eocene warm period (~50–53 Ma) is the most extreme interval of global warming in the Cenozoic, but little is known about the number of hyperthermals within it, the range of temperatures, or their effects on biotic evolution (Thomas and Zachos, 1999). The Eocene warm period is succeeded by a long shift toward the lower temperatures and increased ice buildup of the late Eocene and Oligocene (Fig. F7), whose history and consequences for ocean circulation, carbon cycling, and biotic evolution are only vaguely understood. Similarly, extraterrestrial impacts in the early middle Eocene and late Eocene offer the opportunity to study the climatological and biotic effects of impacts that were too small to precipitate global mass extinctions but were large enough to have engendered global changes in climate. Below, we discuss two events that are particularly well expressed by the sediments recovered from the Demerara Rise transect.

Thermal Maximum at the Paleocene/Eocene Boundary

The transient global warming at the end of the Paleocene is one of the best candidates for greenhouse warming in the geologic record. A growing body of evidence implicates a massive release of greenhouse gases into the atmosphere and ocean as a cause for ~5°–7°C warming in the Southern Ocean and subtropics, a 35%–50% extinction of deep-sea benthic foraminifers, and widespread carbonate dissolution in the deep-ocean record (e.g., Zachos et al., 1993; Koch et al., 1995; Dickens et al., 1995). Recent studies utilizing high-resolution stable isotope analyses (Bains et al., 1999) and orbitally tuned chronologies (Norris and Röhl, 1999) suggest that carbon release occurred in a series of short steps, lasting a few thousand years and punctuated by catastrophic shifts in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and ocean temperature. Although these new data support the idea that the carbon may have been sourced from methane hydrate reservoirs, considerable uncertainty remains about how the carbon was released, what triggered the different phases of release, and what the bi-

F7. Cenozoic events, p. 64.



otic and climatological response was to the input of large amounts of greenhouse gas. We have little data to constrain fluctuations in the CCD during the P/E event, a key parameter for understanding changes in CO₂ storage resulting from hypothesized methane outgassing. There also remain significant questions about the chronology of the P/E event. Thus far, cycle-derived chronologies are based mostly upon analysis of a single site (Site 1051). Analysis of additional cyclostratigraphic records tied to magnetostratigraphy is needed to evaluate the accuracy of the existing chronology and allow us to calculate changes in accumulation rates, rates of evolutionary and ecological responses to climate change, and biogeochemical fluxes during the Paleocene–Eocene interval.

Cretaceous/Tertiary Boundary

Two decades of study have provided considerable information on the causes and evolutionary consequences of the K/T mass extinction. There is now widespread agreement that the extinction was precipitated by a large-body impact event that created the ~300-km-wide Chicxulub impact structure on the Yucatan Peninsula in eastern Mexico, nearly 5000 km from Demerara Rise. There is considerable evidence linking the Chicxulub impact event to the K/T extinction, ranging from the dating of impact glass to the age of the impact crater, ~65.5 Ma (the currently accepted age for the K/T boundary), to the presence of impact-generated diamonds, high-pressure minerals, and chondritic ratios of platinum group elements in K/T boundary sections worldwide. Although some have continued to dispute the role of the impact event in the associated mass extinction, arguing that the impact predates the extinction or that there were multiple impacts, nearly all boundary layers that are generally agreed to be stratigraphically complete contain only one horizon rich in impact debris, and that layer is associated intimately with faunal and floral evidence for mass extinction.

Recently, it has become apparent that the impact event led to significant disruption of the stratigraphic record both above and below the boundary. Seismicity produced by the impact (an event with a Richter scale magnitude of ~10–13) and the effects of tsunamis produced by the impact eroded or caused mass wasting of Maastrichtian sediments throughout the Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean, and North Atlantic and Baja, California. Accordingly, it is not surprising that nearly all cores recovered from these areas display sedimentary disruptions or hiatuses associated with the boundary. The mass extinction, in turn, greatly diminished the supply of biogenic sediment to the seafloor, resulting in a significant drop in the sedimentation rate and, therefore, stratigraphic acuity in the earliest Paleogene. Hence, nearly all known K/T boundary sequences do not have rates of sedimentation sufficient to resolve many of the most pressing issues such as the climatic conditions that prevailed in the few hundred or even thousand years following the impact.

There are a series of outstanding issues that will be addressed by drilling on Demerara Rise:

1. Where does the K/T boundary fall within Magnetochron C29r? Although the position and age of the boundary have been evaluated using cyclostratigraphic work in the South Atlantic (e.g., Herbert and D'Hondt, 1990), the cycle counts were not entirely unambiguous (within more than two precession cycles; ~42 k.y.)

and require testing through further cyclostratigraphy and magnetostratigraphy studies.

2. How does the distribution of ejecta and impact-generated mass wasting on South America differ from that observed around the western and eastern North Atlantic?
3. What is the pattern of climate evolution in the first several thousand years of the Danian, and what does this signify about the mechanisms of extinction and the environmental conditions associated with the subsequent radiation of surviving species?
4. Does the vertical $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradient really disappear as proposed in models of extinction-related shutdown of biological production in the oceans? Thus far, there have been no studies of the K/T boundary along depth transects where changes in vertical gradients in carbonate ion concentration, nutrient proxies, and deep-water circulation could be studied in a single area.

Equatorial Atlantic Gateway Opening, Oceanic Circulation, and Heat Transport

The opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway was driven by the separation of Africa and South America and is widely hypothesized to have had a significant effect on both oceanic circulation patterns and heat transport over wide areas of the Cretaceous Atlantic. Yet, the timing of the opening of this gateway remains poorly constrained. Based on the biogeographic distribution of foraminifers and cephalopods, a shallow-water passage is thought to have been initiated between the North and South Atlantic Oceans at some time during the Albian (Moullade and Guérin, 1982; Förster, 1978; Wiedmann and Neugebauer, 1978; Moullade et al., 1993). Results from Leg 159 on the eastern side of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway suggest that a strong relationship existed between stepwise deepening and widening of the gateway and black shale deposition on the West African margin from the Albian to the Turonian (Wagner and Pletsch, 1999). Cessation of black shale deposition in the Late Cretaceous is interpreted to result from increasingly vigorous circulation between the North and South Atlantic. Hence, the Mesozoic longitudinal circulation system through the Tethyan and Central Atlantic Oceans changed to a more Cenozoic-like oxidizing latitudinal circulation pattern through the gateway.

Analysis of the subsidence history of Demerara Rise will contribute to interpretations of the history of the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway. High-resolution sampling of distinct time slices across a range of paleowater depths will help to constrain the following questions:

1. What is the timing of the establishment of oceanographically significant throughflow in the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway (i.e., the onset of throughflow of upper intermediate and deeper water masses)? Results will help to determine the paleoceanographic consequences of connecting the previously restricted South Atlantic to the North Atlantic–Tethyan realm.
2. What was the specific role played by the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway in controlling the development of Cretaceous black shale deposition? By comparing the high-resolution OAE records from Demerara Rise with earlier DSDP mapping, it will be possible to evaluate whether this gateway merely controlled OAE sedimentation in the more restricted South Atlantic or whether its influence extended to the tropical North Atlantic–Tethys.

3. What is the long-term history of cross-equatorial heat transport into the North Atlantic? Demerara Rise is positioned in an ideal location to sample meridional circulation and delivery of heat northward from Cretaceous to Oligocene time (Fig. F1).

RESULTS

Site 1257

Site 1257 is located in 2951 m of water on a terrace above the steep ($>10^\circ$) northern slope $>10^\circ$ northwest Demerara Rise, ~400 km north of Suriname. As the second deepest location, Site 1257 serves as an intermediate member of the paleoceanographic depth transect across Demerara Rise. It was promoted to recore DSDP Site 144, which was spot cored during Leg 144 in 1970. The major objectives were the following:

1. Core and log an Albian–Oligocene section to evaluate paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic changes during the Paleogene and Cretaceous, with emphasis on major and abrupt events during this interval such as the Eocene/Oligocene (E/O) and P/E boundaries and the Cretaceous OAEs.
2. Reconstruct the history of the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway by obtaining benthic foraminifer proxy data. These data will help to understand changes in bottom water circulation over Demerara Rise during the gradual opening of the seaway.
3. Define the depth of key seismic reflectors for a detailed planning of the remaining sites along the Demerara Rise depth transect.

The steep northwestern slope of Demerara Rise, where Site 1257 is located, is part of the southern transform fault that separated South America and West Africa during the rift phase of the southern Central Atlantic in the Late Jurassic–Early Cretaceous. Although spot cored, results from Site 144 suggested the presence of all the target sediments.

Operations

At Site 1257, one advanced piston corer/extended core barrel (APC/XCB) hole and two rotary core barrel (RCB) holes were cored. Hole 1257A was APC cored to 40.6 mbsf, but lithification in this part of the sediment column stopped APC coring earlier than desired. The hole was completed with XCB coring to a total depth of 284.7 mbsf (recovery = 75.9%) (Table T1). XCB coring proved slow and resulted in poor-quality cores (biscuiting), so RCB coring was used for Holes 1257B and 1257C. The upper 40 m of the succession was washed in Hole 1257B, and the section between 40 and 227.3 mbsf was RCB cored (recovery = 62.1%). In Hole 1257C, the upper 82 m was washed and the hole was RCB cored between 82 and 235.9 mbsf (recovery = 32.8%). Porcellanite, limestone, and chert beds at ~90 and 170–225 mbsf reduced recovery of both XCB and RCB coring.

Sediments at Site 1257 range in age from Miocene to Albian. A 1.5-m-thick veneer of Neogene nannofossil ooze directly overlies lower Oligocene sediment. Chalk spanning the E/O boundary was recovered in Hole 1257B. Paleogene sedimentation is cut by two hiatuses in the upper Eocene and uppermost Paleocene. In Hole 1257C, sediments span-

T1. Operations summary, p. 89.

ning the P/E boundary were recovered. Good core recovery of an expanded upper Paleocene section allowed construction of a complete composite section of this interval. Foraminiferal packstone boulders intercalated in a 2- to 3-m-thick slumped sequence represent the early Paleocene. The Cretaceous sequence is cut by three hiatuses in the upper Maastrichtian and lower Campanian. The Santonian–latest Cenomanian is represented by a 44-m-thick sequence of laminated black shales that include OAEs 3 and 2. Hard limestone and chert layers in this interval prevented good core recovery. Recovery improved in the lower part of the succession, and three copies of the black shale intervals in Holes 1257A, 1257B, and 1257C will possibly allow a complete post-cruise reconstruction of this interval. An unconformity underlying the black shales separates the uppermost Cenomanian from upper-middle Albian sediments.

Wireline logging was conducted with the triple combination (triple combo) and Formation MicroScanner (FMS)-sonic tool strings in Hole 1257A. The Well Seismic Tool (WST) was used to undertake a checkshot survey. Results provided accurate traveltime data for calibrating velocity logs and providing formation velocity information for time-to-depth conversion of seismic data.

Seismic Stratigraphy

Within 2.5 km northwest and 1.5 km north and northeast of the drill site the seafloor begins to fall off at a 10° angle, from the site elevation of 2951 meters below sea level (mbsl) to the abyssal plain at 4400 mbsl. The site itself is on a slight mound that appears to be an erosional remnant. Reflector “A,” representing the top of this erosional unconformity, crops out at the seafloor at the site (within the resolution of the survey data). Between Reflector A (the seafloor in this case) and Reflector “B” is seismic Unit 2 (seismic Unit 1 is missing at this site). It is 173 ms thick (two-way traveltime) at this location, calculated to be 144 meters below seafloor (mbsf) by the checkshot and downhole logging velocity information. Seismic Unit 2 shows an incoherent reflection character here, indicating a disturbed sediment package or the effects of side echoes from local complex topography. A high-amplitude reflection event of short lateral duration occurs at 110 ms (90 mbsf) at the site.

Reflector “B’,” at 173 ms subbottom (144 mbsf), marks the top of seismic Unit 3. Unit 3 is a flat-lying sequence at this site that dips gently to the northeast at an angle of 1.7°. Reflection event B is hummocky on a local scale, probably cut by channels, and is underlain by several high-amplitude reflections and then a short transparent zone to the top of Reflector B’ at 217 ms subbottom (181 mbsf). This section is described as Subunit 3a in [Shipboard Scientific Party](#) (“Site Survey and Underway Geophysics”), this volume. Subunit 3b underlies 3a and is the sequence between Reflectors B’ and Reflector “C,” which occurs at 272 ms subbottom (232 mbsf).

Most acoustic energy is lost below Reflector C in the survey data, and the section is difficult to describe. A few hyperbolic reflections in this interval are visible. Industry line C2206 crosses in a northeast–southwest direction just 1 km northeast of the drill site (see [Shipboard Scientific Party](#) [“Site Survey and Underway Geophysics”], this volume). In this profile, the sequence of reflectors below Horizon C appears folded into a possible small anticline below the drill site and contacts Reflector C as an angular unconformity.

Stratigraphy

Lithologic description of the cores and biostratigraphic age assignments exposed a number of hiatuses and highly condensed intervals in the sedimentary succession at Site 1257. A veneer of upper Miocene nannofossil ooze was defined as lithostratigraphic Unit I. The unit is characterized by a gradual color change downcore from pale brown to pale olive. The sediment is strongly mottled, and iron sulfide is present in discrete burrows and as mottles throughout the unit. Unit I unconformably overlies lower Oligocene–uppermost Eocene light greenish gray to greenish gray chalk and ooze. Less lithified intervals may be related to variations in clay content. Microfossil assemblages of this interval are rich in well-preserved diatoms and radiolarians. Below this section, a 20-m-thick interval of middle Eocene biosiliceous chalk disconformably overlies lower Eocene chinks with biogenic silica. The latter intervals have been grouped as lithostratigraphic Unit II, which was divided into Subunits IIA and IIB in the transition from ooze to chalk at 22 mbsf. The transition coincides with an significant increase of siliceous microfossil abundance. Sedimentation rates in the Oligocene–Eocene varied from 5 to 9 m/m.y., with increasing values in the lower Eocene.

The Paleocene comprises foraminiferal nannofossil chinks that were described as lithostratigraphic Subunit IIIA. Siliceous microfossils of the upper Paleocene were replaced by zeolite, which is abundant throughout the subunit. The presence of occasional porcellanite stringers also indicates diagenetic alteration of biogenic silica. Good recovery of an expanded upper Paleocene sequence (sedimentation rate = ~10 m/m.y.) allowed the construction of a spliced section that shows a pronounced cyclicity, possibly representing 20- to 50-k.y. periodicity.

An early–late Paleocene gravity flow deposit marks the lower boundary of Subunit IIIA. No upper Maastrichtian sediments were recovered. The subjacent lower Maastrichtian–lower Campanian zeolitic chalk (Subunit IIIB) is similar to that of the Paleocene. Well-preserved radiolarians are present in the upper Campanian but absent below. A condensed glauconite-rich horizon marks the base of Campanian sediments where there is a sharp irregular contact with underlying black shales of lithostratigraphic Unit IV (Core 207-1257A-20X).

The black shales of Unit IV primarily consist of dark olive-gray to black finely laminated calcareous claystone with carbonaceous material. Carbonate contents range from ~40 to 60 wt% in dominant lithologies and as high as 78 wt% in individual carbonate-rich layers. TOC reaches values of 16 wt%, and hydrogen index and oxygen index values indicate that the black shales contain Type II kerogen, indicating a marine source for the organic matter. The unit shows very well developed submillimeter-scale laminations and has a strong petroliferous odor, although the organic matter is thermally immature. Rhythmic color variations (dark olive gray to black) occur on a decimeter scale throughout. Lighter intervals are relatively rich in prismatic inoceramid shell material. Olive laminated calcareous porcellanite and limestone as thick as 30 cm, gray and black chert nodules, and concretions of nannofossil chalk with foraminifers are present in minor amounts. Preservation of calcareous microfossils varies between moderate to very good. Pristine glassy foraminiferal tests also are observed in this unit. Microfossil ages yield Santonian, Coniacian, and Turonian and date the base of the black shale as Cenomanian. Sedimentation rates of the Upper Cretaceous sediments vary between 4 and 6 m/m.y.

A sharp contact between the laminated black shales and the underlying pyrite-rich clayey carbonate siltstone (Unit V) was recovered in Core 207-1257C-15R. Foraminifers in a sandstone date the top of the unit in Section 207-1257A-25-CC as Cenomanian. The bottom of Hole 1257A is late–middle Albian age.

Recovery of Critical Intervals

The main objective of Leg 207 was to recover sediments with microfossils from major and abrupt events of the Paleogene and Cretaceous periods, such as the E/O and P/E boundaries and OAEs. In Hole 1257A, sediment with a continuous lower Oligocene–upper Eocene transition was recovered, presumably including the prominent stable isotope shift associated with the dramatic growth of ice sheets on Antarctica.

Sediments spanning the P/E boundary were recovered in Hole 1257C, where it comprises a 3.5-cm-thick dark greenish clay that represents carbonate dissolution associated with the P/E boundary in deep oceans. Shore-based investigations will show if the succession above the event is complete.

A 57-m-thick succession of laminated black shales, including OAEs 3 and 2, was recovered in all three holes at Site 1257. Although the recovery in the black shale interval was not as good as desired, a comparison of all three holes will probably allow for fairly complete coverage of the OAEs. A shore-based refinement of the stratigraphy including stable carbon isotope measurements will help to better define the OAE intervals. The preservation of foraminifers in this section varies between moderate and very good and has good promise for shore-based paleotemperature studies.

Geochemistry

Pore waters are characterized by the presence of a brine with maximum chlorinity of 823 mM, a ~50% increase over average seawater chlorinity. The maximum chlorinity is centered ~200 mbsf in the black shales (Unit IV), decreasing above and below the unit. The combination of the chlorinity and salinity profiles, a low-temperature anomaly recorded by the downhole logging Temperature/Acceleration/Pressure (TAP) tool, and high-porosity intervals in shales suggest that the brines are sourced externally through the black shales. Sulfate decreases downhole and is depleted by ~160 mbsf. Below 220 mbsf, sulfate increases to ~5 mM at the base of the cored interval. Methane first appears at ~108 mbsf, increasing rapidly to reach a broad maximum between 180 and 218 mbsf in black shales, largely coincident with the interval of sulfate depletion, before decreasing downhole. High methane-to-ethane ratios and the absence of measurable higher molecular weight hydrocarbons indicate that the methane was generated microbially.

Physical Properties and Logging

Core physical property (multisensor track [MST] and discrete measurements) and downhole logging physical property data show excellent agreement. Density and velocity values are uncharacteristically high for such shallow sediments but reflect their age and degree of cementation. Nonetheless, these physical property profiles demonstrate, in general, a relatively normal depth-consolidation profile that cementation appears not to have altered. On a higher-frequency scale, there

are significant characteristics to these data that reflect lithologic changes and trends, and patterns of cyclicity are obvious in some intervals. The most pronounced change correlates with lithostratigraphic Unit IV, the black shales. In this case, the unit is characterized by lower density and velocity values but with a high degree of scatter. Very high peak values correlate with calcified beds. Other significant deviations from the normal consolidation trend correlate with events and hiatuses identified in the lithostratigraphy, such as the lower Eocene hiatus, the upper Paleocene hiatus, the P/E boundary, and the top and bottom of the black shale sequence. These strong physical property contrasts yield strong reflection characteristics and allow for good correlation with the seismic stratigraphy.

Depositional History

Shallow-marine Albian synrift sediments form the oldest sequence recovered at Site 1257. They are unconformably overlain by Cenomanian–Santonian laminated black shales. These organic-rich shales reflect high productivity in surface waters and low oxygen levels in the bottom water. Regional oceanic upwelling conditions are believed to be the reason for this long-lasting (~17 m.y.) phase of black shale deposition at Demerara Rise. Similar facies have been described from the Tarfaya Basin on the northwest African margin of the Atlantic and from Venezuela, Colombia, and Costa Rica.

Oxic conditions were established by the early Campanian when pelagic and open marine marls were deposited on Demerara Rise. However, the abundance of trace fossils indicating dysoxic environments points toward oxygen deficiency at the seafloor. The upper Campanian–Neogene pelagic record at Site 1257 is interrupted by several hiatuses and slump deposits reflecting the position of the site on the topographic slope of Demerara Rise. Paleobathymetric assignments of these sediments are difficult to provide, but water depths similar to those of the present were probably reached by the late Maastrichtian to Paleocene. Sedimentation and subsidence have probably kept pace since that time.

Site 1258

Site 1258 is located at a depth of 3192.2 mbsl on the gently dipping (~2°) western slope of Demerara Rise, ~380 km north of Suriname. The site is located on a ridge of Paleogene sediments outcropping on the seafloor. Site 1258 is the distal and deepest end-member of the paleoceanographic depth transect across Demerara Rise. The major objectives for this site are as follows:

1. Core and log a Paleogene–Albian section to evaluate paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic changes, with emphasis on major and abrupt events during this interval such as the E/O and P/E boundaries and Cretaceous OAEs.
2. Reconstruct the history of the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway by obtaining benthic foraminifer proxy data. These data will help in understanding changes in bottom water circulation over Demerara Rise during the gradual opening of the seaway.

3. Recover continuous and expanded sediment records of the Paleogene and Cretaceous to reconstruct short- and long-term changes in greenhouse forcing.

Operations

At Site 1258, three RCB holes were cored. Hole 1258A was cored to 447.5 mbsf (recovery = 83.9%), Hole 1258B was cored to 460.9 mbsf (recovery = 76.3%) (Table T1), and Hole 1258C was washed from 0 to 120.0 mbsf. To obtain a splice for a lower lower middle Eocene succession, missing because of faulting in Hole 1258A, Hole 1258C was spot cored between 120.1 and 206.1 mbsf. Spot coring the interval between 245.3 and 274.2 mbsf obtained a third copy of the K/T boundary interval. Subsequent washing to 384.8 mbsf was followed by coring of the hole to a total depth of 485.0 mbsf. The average recovery in Hole 1258C was 74.9%. Hard beds between 320 and 380 mbsf and 415 and 420 mbsf reduced core recovery in these intervals.

Seismic Stratigraphy

The seismic stratigraphy established for Demerara Rise, including Horizons A, B, B', and C, have been correlated to Site 1258 strata. Reflector A, representing the top of a presumably early Miocene erosional unconformity, crops out at the seafloor at the site (within the resolution of the survey data). Between Reflectors A and B, seismic Unit 2 is 300 ms thick (265 m using downhole logging velocity information). Seismic Unit 3, between Reflector B at 300 ms subbottom and Reflector C at 480 ms subbottom, is a 94-m-thick flat-lying sequence that dips 1.5° to the north-northwest.

Seismic Unit 2 shows an echo character of reasonably coherent but slightly contorted reflections with offsets, which probably describes a sediment sequence that has undergone mass failure and rotational displacement. Seismic Unit 3 is divided into two subunits: the basal subunit (Subunit 3b) lies between Horizons B' and C (450–515 ms subbottom; 417–480 mbsf). It is defined on the basis of a series of strong, parallel, coherent reflections that are laterally contiguous and have been shown to correlate to the black shale interval.

Stratigraphy

Lithologic description of the cores and biostratigraphic age assignments revealed a rather continuous sedimentary succession with only a few hiatuses. Sediments at Site 1258 range in age from Miocene to middle Albian. An ~8-m-thick package of Miocene nannofossil ooze unconformably overlies a drape of calcareous ooze with radiolarians and diatoms of early Oligocene age. This sequence, in turn, unconformably overlies an expanded 143-m-thick succession of lower middle Eocene (planktonic foraminiferal Zone P10; calcareous nannoplankton Zone NP15) to lower Eocene nannofossil chalk. With a sedimentation rate of ~20 m/m.y., the middle–lower Eocene succession is a remarkably expanded and complete (to zonal level) section. Excellent RCB recovery provided continuous core overlap from the middle Eocene to ~10 m below the P/E boundary. The periodic variability in the Eocene magnetic susceptibility data at Site 1258 will provide a good basis for postcruise cyclostratigraphic studies. Age control is excellent, with well-defined paleomagnetic datums in the section (e.g., the top of Chron C21n and

the base of Chron C22r). Preliminary investigation suggests that the dominant frequencies of the magnetic susceptibility data are likely Milankovitch periods, with significant power at ~20, 40, and 100 k.y.

We recovered an apparently expanded section across the P/E boundary in all three holes. The upper Paleocene clayey nannofossil chalk sequence is relatively thick compared to other Leg 207 sites. Zeolite or locally abundant opal-CT lepispheres replace siliceous microfossils in this interval. We recovered the K/T boundary in all three holes, and Core 207-1258B-27R contains the K/T ejecta layer. The subjacent upper Maastrichtian greenish gray nannofossil chalk with foraminifers and clay and lower Campanian–lower Maastrichtian zeolitic nannofossil claystone display cyclic color banding between light greenish gray and greenish gray on a decimeter scale. Radiolarians in the Campanian are well preserved, but planktonic foraminifers are absent or poorly preserved. The lithology becomes increasingly clay rich downhole, and carbonate contents decrease to 35 wt%. Foraminifers and nannofossils are rare in this interval, and a significant increase in abundance of diagenetic calcite and carbonate debris is observed. *Planolites*, *Chondrites*, and *Zoophycos* burrows are abundant, as are barite and pyrite crystals. Average sedimentation rates in the Maastrichtian–Campanian interval are 12 m/m.y.

A condensed glauconite-rich horizon in Core 207-1258B-44R separates the Campanian clayey chalk from the ~56-m-thick black shale sequence below. This interval contains the lower part of OAE 3, a complete OAE 2, and an expanded succession of laminated shales of Cenomanian–middle Albian age. The preservation and abundance of calcareous microfossils is poor to good, with glassy foraminifers in the Cenomanian part of the black shales. A middle Albian disconformity separates the laminated black shales and limestones from the underlying TOC-rich claystones with phosphatic concretions. Although rich in predominantly marine organic matter (up to 5%), the sediments lack obvious laminations. Clay-rich beds in the latter yield some extremely well preserved microfossils. In addition, ammonites as small as a centimeter in diameter are abundant in some laminae. Rare and thin bioclastic limestone intervals are intercalated; they may represent occasional small-scale storm deposits. The base of Site 1258 is dated as late early Albian (*Ticinella primula* planktonic foraminiferal zone and Subzone NC8a–b).

Recovery of Critical Intervals

In each of the three holes cored at Site 1258, sediments spanning the P/E boundary were recovered. The boundary interval comprises the last occurrence of the benthic foraminifer *Gavelinella beccariiformis* followed by a sharp contact between light green chalk and dark green clay. The sharp contact reflects the sudden decrease of carbonate content from values of ~60 wt% in the upper Paleocene to ~13 wt% in the lowermost Eocene associated with the P/E boundary. Green clay-rich sediments prevail from the P/E boundary to ~1.90 m above the boundary. Light green carbonate-rich sediments are the dominant lithology of the lower Eocene. Site 1258 appears to provide the first highly expanded P/E boundary succession known from tropical oceans.

The K/T boundary was recovered in all the three holes cored at Site 1258, and Core 207-1258B-27R contains the K/T ejecta layer. The base of the K/T boundary is marked by a 1-mm-thick layer of clayey spherules overlying upper Maastrichtian chalks and is covered by a thin (2–3

mm) drape of whitish nannofossil chalk of potentially reworked upper Maastrichtian sediments. This white layer is overlain by a 2-cm-thick graded bed of medium to fine sand-sized green spherules, which are in turn overlain by gray clay. The *Parvularogoglobigerina eugubina* planktonic foraminiferal zone ($P\alpha$) is remarkably expanded (~3 m thick) and is overlain by planktonic foraminifers belonging to Danian foraminiferal Subzones P1a–P1c, suggesting that the recovered succession is expanded and complete (at the zone level). The recovery of the ejecta layer is, to our knowledge, the first discrete ejecta bed known in South America. Demerara Rise lies ~5000 km southeast of the impact crater in Yucatan. The distribution of documented ejecta deposits west, north, and northeast of Yucatan leads us to expect a much thinner (millimeter scale) ejecta bed than was actually recovered.

A ~56-m-thick Coniacian–Albian succession of laminated black shales and laminated limestones, including OAE 2, was recovered in all three holes at Site 1258. Average recovery of this interval was 77%, and correlation between the holes and the high-quality FMS logs will allow for a continuous reconstruction of the interval. The transition between Campanian chinks and the underlying black shales is represented by a hiatus covering the entire Santonian. Coniacian organic-rich sediments are slumped or missing. OAE 2 is represented by an interval of distinctly laminated black shales with TOC values up to 28 wt%. The main lithology consists of dark olive-gray to black finely laminated calcareous claystone with organic matter (black shale) and clayey chalk and limestone with organic matter. The unit shows well-developed submillimeter-scale laminations and has a strong petroliferous odor. Rhythmic color variations between dark olive gray and black are visible on a decimeter scale. Carbonate contents vary between 5 and 95 wt%, and the constituents include nannofossils (concentrated in fecal pellets), foraminifers, and shell fragments. TOC values range from ~5 to 28 wt% in the black shales. Rock-Eval analyses indicate Type II kerogen, which is consistent with a marine origin of the organic matter. Fish scales, bone fragments, and amorphous to cryptocrystalline phosphatic nodules are common. The black shales facies continue until the upper middle Albian, including the middle Cenomanian Event, and the lowermost black shales are dated as late middle Albian (*Biticinella breggiensis* planktonic foraminiferal zone). Storm or turbidity current deposits with oyster and other pelecypod fragments are present, especially toward the base of the black shale interval. Occasional layers of diagenetic calcite with a distinct bluish tint are noted. Microscopic analysis reveals that the morphology of the calcite growth resembles that of authigenic methane carbonate cements and may derive from the high methane content in the black shales. To date, no upper Albian biostratigraphic markers have been identified that would enable a stratigraphic definition of the uppermost Albian OAE 1d.

Geochemistry

Active microbial organic matter diagenesis is focused in the organic-rich black shales of Unit IV. Pore water sulfate decreases linearly throughout the overlying units to the top of the black shales at ~390 mbsf. Correspondingly, ammonium, which is produced by organic matter degradation, increases linearly through the same interval. In contrast, alkalinity, a byproduct of sulfate reduction, does not increase linearly with depth, but varies, with multiple maxima and minima. The correspondence between alkalinity and calcium profiles and intervals of

increased lithification suggests alkalinity and calcium variability is controlled by carbonate diagenesis. As expected, where pore water sulfate approaches zero (approximately the top of the black shales), methane contents increase sharply to high values (~3,000–60,000 ppmv). Interstitial gas volumes and methane/ethane ratios are high at Site 1258, probably reflecting the high TOC contents of Units IV and V. Unlike Sites 1257, 1254, and 1261, however, Site 1258 pore waters are not characterized by the presence of brine. Salinity and chlorinity decrease with depth beginning at ~300 mbsf, then sharply decrease in the clayey chalks of Unit V. The minimum chloride value at the base of the hole is 465 mM, a 17% decrease from seawater chlorinity. At present, the origin of the low-salinity fluids is undetermined.

Physical Properties and Logging

Core physical property data (MST and discrete measurements) and downhole logging physical property data show excellent agreement. The downhole profiles show marked variability linked to lithologic change. In general, they exhibit a normal consolidation profile down to ~267 mbsf, with a strong negative excursion in velocity and density encompassing the P/E boundary. Below 267 mbsf, the profiles remain constant or decrease slightly, correlating with lithostratigraphic Subunit IIC to Unit V. The data in this interval also show patterns of cyclicity. The most pronounced change correlates with lithostratigraphic Unit IV, the black shales. In this case, lower density and highly variable velocity values, which reach >2600 m/s, characterize the unit. Other significant deviations from the normal consolidation trend correlate with events and hiatuses identified in lithostratigraphy, such as the P/E boundary, the K/T boundary, and the top and bottom of the black shale sequence. These pronounced physical property contrasts yield strong reflection characteristics and allow for good correlation with the seismic stratigraphy.

Depositional History

Lower–middle Albian clayey and TOC-rich sediments represent the oldest sequence recovered at Site 1258 and reflect open marine conditions in a marginal or epicontinental setting. They are unconformably overlain by middle Albian–Coniacian black shales. It appears as though the contact between these two lithologies represents Reflector C, which separates synrift from drift sediments on Demerara Rise. If so, the change between synrift and drift sedimentation at Site 1258 occurred in one planktonic foraminiferal zone, which would give the reflector a late middle Albian age (*B. breggiensis* planktonic foraminiferal zone). Although no major facies change is observed between the middle Albian and upper Cenomanian, the lack of late Albian index fossils point to a hiatus in this interval. The presence of possible storm deposits in the lower part of the succession might indicate a paleowater depth above storm-wave base, and continuous deepening characterizes the remaining Lower Cretaceous succession. During OAE 2, high TOC values and very distinct laminations indicate severe bottom water anoxia. Slumping and reworking of organic-rich sediments and black shales occurred during the Coniacian. The top of the black shales terminates at a hiatus covering the Santonian and lower Campanian. It is unclear whether the observed mass flows in the Coniacian are related to tectonic movements during the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway. The con-

tact between upper Coniacian slumped black shales and condensed lower Campanian glauconite-rich chalk is erosional.

Oxic conditions were established by the early Campanian, when sedimentation on Demerara Rise changed from hemipelagic to pelagic. The abundance of radiolarians in the Campanian, however, indicates high surface water productivity. The cyclic distribution of trace fossils, indicative of oxygen deficiency, suggests recurring decreases of bottom water oxygenation. The rather continuous Maastrichtian–Eocene pelagic record at Site 1258 records the results of the K/T impact with a graded bed of spherules. The spherules are up to 2.5 mm in diameter, an exceptional size considering the distance to the proposed impact crater.

Interpretation of the seismic records, in conjunction with the observation of mass-wasting deposits and “missing” intervals between holes, indicates that a significant portion of the cored stratigraphic column has failed in a slope instability event or events. The likely scenario is a rotational slump whereby material has been displaced but not transported far and the stratigraphy is left largely intact but results in differences between holes.

Site 1259

Site 1259 is located in a water depth of 2354 mbsl on the gently dipping ($\sim 1^\circ$) north-facing slope of Demerara Rise, ~ 380 km north of Suriname. The site is located on a ridge of Paleogene sediments subcropping near the seafloor and is the second shallowest of all sites forming the intended paleoceanographic depth transect across Demerara Rise. The major objectives were the following:

1. Core and log a Paleogene–Albian section to evaluate paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic changes, with emphasis on major and abrupt events during this interval that include the E/O and P/E boundaries and Cretaceous OAEs.
2. Reconstruct the history of the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway by obtaining benthic foraminifer proxy data. These data will help to understand changes in bottom water circulation over Demerara Rise during the gradual opening of the seaway.
3. Recover continuous and expanded sediment records of the Paleogene and Cretaceous to reconstruct short- and long-term changes in greenhouse forcing.

Operations

At Site 1259, three RCB holes were cored. Hole 1260A was cored to 558.8 mbsf (recovery = 66.6%). Hole 1259B was washed to 305 mbsf and cored to 381.9 mbsf, then washed to 420.5 mbsf and cored to 556.2 mbsf (recovery = 69.2% in the cored intervals) (Table T1). Hole 1259C was washed to 308.0 mbsf and cored to 373.3 mbsf. It was then washed to 436 mbsf, and one core was taken between 436.0 and 445.6 mbsf to obtain a third copy of the K/T boundary interval. The succession was washed again to 490 mbsf, where continuous coring proceeded until 553.7 mbsf (recovery = 80% in the cored intervals). Sandy intervals at 120 and 300 mbsf and hard layers at 380–400 and 490–520 mbsf hampered core recovery at these depths.

Seismic Stratigraphy

The seismic stratigraphy established for Demerara Rise, including Horizons A, B, B', and C, can be correlated to Site 1259 with line GeoB219; the closest of the three holes drilled at this site is 170 m from this line. The slope angle near the drill site is gentle ($\sim 1^\circ$) but increases downslope from the site. Reflector A, representing the top of a presumably lower Miocene erosional unconformity, outcrops at the seafloor on the nearest seismic line. The Miocene section recovered in the core is probably not present at the extrapolated site position on the seismic line.

Between Reflectors A and B, seismic Unit 2 is 465 ms thick (~ 405 m thick using laboratory-measured velocity information). The topmost sequence (180 ms; ~ 130 m thick) in this seismic unit consists of incoherent reflections. Below this interval, Unit 2 is a sequence of high-amplitude, parallel, coherent reflections that are relatively flat lying. This package is ~ 120 m thick, terminating at 300 ms subbottom (240 mbsf). Below this section to its base at Reflector B, the horizons are still parallel and coherent but lower in amplitude. The entire unit dips to the north slightly less than the seafloor, at $\sim 0.6^\circ$. Reflector B, at 463 ms subbottom (442 m), is a high-amplitude, laterally coherent reflector that correlates with the approximate position of the K/T boundary. Seismic Unit 3, between Reflectors B and C at 571 ms, is a ~ 100 -m-thick flat-lying sequence that dips 1° to the north. The upper part of this unit, between Reflectors B and B', is acoustically incoherent and relatively transparent. The basal part lies between Horizons B' and C (503–571 ms subbottom; ~ 495 – 545 mbsf) and is defined on the basis of a series of strong, parallel, coherent reflections that are laterally contiguous for several kilometers, below which is another thin (20 m) transparent zone.

Reflector C is an angular unconformity at Site 1259, with underlying reflections cropping against it at relatively shallow angles ($\sim 2^\circ$), as they appear on the strike line GeoB2219. On the industry seismic line C2206a that intersects the site in a dip profile (northwest), these low-angle reflections are not resolved and the underlying sequence appears locally conformable (a disconformity).

Stratigraphy

Lithologic descriptions of the cores and biostratigraphic age assignments reveal a rather continuous sedimentary succession with only a few hiatuses. Sediments at Site 1259 are Miocene–Cenomanian in age. The deepest unit recovered at Site 1259 did not yield any age-diagnostic microfossils. A thin veneer of Holocene foraminiferal ooze at the top of the section unconformably overlies a ~ 30 -m-thick slide of reworked lower Oligocene calcareous ooze with nannofossils and planktonic foraminifers. A disconformity separates this slide from a concordant succession of lower Miocene calcareous ooze and chalk. Another disconformity separates the Miocene from lower Oligocene–upper Eocene foraminiferal chalk. The latter is represented by a condensed interval of calcareous chinks and overlies an expanded, 235-m-thick succession of middle Eocene (planktonic foraminiferal Zone P14; calcareous nannoplankton Zone NP17) to lower Eocene nannofossil chalk with abundant and well-preserved radiolarians in the middle Eocene part of this succession. Excellent RCB recovery provided continuous core overlap between holes for the lower Eocene. The periodic variability in sediment properties in the lower Eocene will provide a good basis for postcruise cyclostratigraphic studies.

In all three holes, an apparently expanded section across the P/E boundary was recovered. As at Sites 1258 and 1260, the upper Paleocene clayey nannofossil chalk sequence is relatively thick. Zeolites or locally abundant opal-CT lepispheres replace siliceous microfossils in this interval. Each hole recovered the K/T boundary with an ejecta layer. The subjacent upper Maastrichtian greenish gray nannofossil chalk with foraminifers and clay and the lower Maastrichtian–upper Campanian zeolitic nannofossil claystone display cyclic color banding between light greenish gray and greenish gray on a decimeter scale. The lithology becomes increasingly clay rich downhole, and carbonate contents decrease to 30 wt%. Radiolarians in the Campanian are well preserved, but foraminifers and nannofossils are rare in the Campanian interval and a significant increase in abundance of diagenetic calcite and carbonate debris is observed. *Planolites*, *Chondrites*, and *Zoophycos* burrows are abundant, as are barite and pyrite crystals. Average sedimentation rates in the Maastrichtian–Campanian interval were 4.5 m/m.y. Age control is excellent, with well-defined paleomagnetic datums in both sections (Chronos C30n and C32n) (see “**Paleomagnetism**,” p. 42, in “Discussion and Conclusions”). Preliminary investigation suggests the dominant periodicities of the magnetic susceptibility data are Milankovitch in nature.

The abundance of very dark intervals (cyclic in appearance) and glauconitic layers increase in the lower part of the clayey chalk. A condensed interval of glauconite-rich horizons and firmgrounds separates the Campanian clayey chalk from the ~56-m-thick laminated black shale sequence. The top of the black shale unit contains a 1.2-m-thin sliver of Santonian-age sediments that unconformably overlies 15 m of lower Coniacian black shales with some debris flows and slumped horizons. The Turonian and OAE 2 are virtually complete and expanded, but only 15 m of Cenomanian-age black shales represents the thinnest occurrence of Cenomanian sediments of Leg 207. The preservation and abundance of calcareous microfossils range from poor to good, with glassy foraminifers in the Santonian–Cenomanian part of the black shales. The maximum TOC content in these sediments is 29 wt%. A disconformity separates the lower Cenomanian laminated black shales and limestones from the underlying silty claystone, calcareous siltstone, and quartz sandstone that did not yield any age-diagnostic microfossils and represents the oldest sediments cored at Site 1259. Sedimentary structures and the presence of shallow-water fossils (brachiopods, oysters, and echinoderms) suggest a very shallow marine to tidal origin of these sediments.

Recovery of Critical Intervals

Sediments spanning the P/E boundary were recovered in all three holes at Site 1259. The boundary interval comprises the last occurrence of benthic foraminifer *Aragonia velascoensis*, a species that became extinct at the P/E boundary, followed by a sharp contact between light green chalk over dark green clay. The sharp contact reflects the sudden decrease of carbonate content between the upper Paleocene and the lowermost Eocene associated with the P/E boundary. Planktonic foraminifers are absent from the base of the distinctive green clay horizon until at least 20 cm above the P/E boundary, although this interval contains a small number of benthic foraminifers and abundant but poorly preserved radiolarians. A sample 50 cm above the P/E boundary contains a moderately well preserved foraminiferal assemblage with abun-

dant *Morozovella allisonensis* and *Acarinina soldadoensis* and rare *Acarinina africana*, *Acarinina sibaiaensis*, *Subbotina patagonica*, and *Parasubbotina varianta*. Three of these species, *M. allisonensis*, *A. africana*, and *A. sibaiaensis*, are associated with P/E boundary sections in other tropical and subtropical sites (Central Pacific, Egypt, Spain, New Jersey, and the Blake Plateau) and are known as “excursion fauna” because of their abundance and near restriction to the PETM. An unusual element of these assemblages is *Parasubbotina paleocenica*—a clavate species that has previously been reported only from Site 1220 in the equatorial Pacific and its type area in coastal Senegal. The west African and equatorial Pacific settings of these previous discoveries suggest that *P. paleocenica* is associated with upwelling conditions. Hence, we infer that the excursion fauna may also represent an expansion of relatively productive waters during the PETM.

The K/T boundary was recovered in all three holes cored at Site 1259, and each contains the ejecta layer. A 1.9-cm-thick layer of clayey spherules overlying upper Maastrichtian chalks marks the K/T boundary. Above the boundary, the lower Danian planktonic foraminiferal Zones P2–P α were distinguished, Subzone P1c to Zone P α have a thickness of 8 m. The thickness of the spherule layer is similar to that at Sites 1258 and 1260, suggesting that the spherule bed at both sites is a result of fallout rather than redeposition.

A ~56-m-thick Cenomanian–Santonian succession of laminated black shales and laminated foraminiferal limestones, including OAEs 3 and 2, was recovered in both holes at Site 1259. The quasi-periodic variability of the claystone and chalk/limestone composing the black shales resulted in strong signal-to-noise ratios in both the gamma ray attenuation (GRA) bulk density and natural gamma ray data sets. These data, combined with good RCB recovery over a significant portion of the black shale interval, allowed for the construction of a continuous composite section from ~520 to 555 meters composite depth (mcd), the Cenomanian–Turonian interval of the black shales including OAE 2. Poor recovery from 495 to 520 mcd precluded the construction of a composite section in this upper interval of the Cretaceous black shales (OAE 3).

The transition between Campanian chalks and the underlying black shale sequence is represented by a condensed section covering the early Campanian and entire Santonian epochs. The thickness of Coniacian organic-rich sediments is comparable to other sites. OAE 2 is represented by an interval of distinctly laminated black shales. The main lithology consists of dark olive-gray to black finely laminated calcareous claystone with organic matter (black shale) and clayey chalk and limestone with organic matter. Occasional coarse-grained glauconite-rich horizons are present. The unit shows well-developed submillimeter-scale laminations and has a strong petroliferous odor. Rhythmic color variations between dark olive gray and black are visible on a decimeter scale. TOC values range from ~5 to 29 wt% in the black shales, with the highest values in the basal upper Cenomanian part of the succession. Rock-Eval analyses indicate Type II kerogen, which is consistent with a marine origin of the organic matter. Fish scales, bone fragments, and amorphous to cryptocrystalline phosphatic nodules are common.

Geochemistry

Similar to the pore waters at Sites 1257 and 1261, Site 1259 is characterized by the presence of a brine, with maximum chlorinity of 832

mM, a ~50% increase over average seawater chlorinity. The combination of the chlorinity and salinity profiles and high-porosity intervals in the black shales suggests that the brine is sourced laterally through these organic-rich claystones of Unit IV. Interstitial water chemistry data are dominated by the degradation of organic matter in the black shales and associated organic matter-rich sediments. Sulfate decreases downhole and is depleted by ~490 mbsf, the top of Unit IV, whereas ammonium increases to >1 mM. Below the sulfate reduction zone, methane increases sharply to reach a maximum of 76,000 ppmv near the base of black shales before dropping to 2,000 ppmv in Unit V. As at previous Leg 207 sites, the calcium and alkalinity profiles show the effects of carbonate diagenesis. In particular, decreases in calcium and alkalinity indicate an interval of carbonate precipitation between 300 and 490 mbsf.

Physical Properties

Moisture and density (index) properties, compressional (*P*)-wave velocities, and GRA densities were measured on core samples from Site 1259. No downhole logs were run at this site because of concerns about hole conditions in the topmost part of the formation. In general, the physical property data reflect normal consolidation down to ~365 mbsf, with relatively linear profiles. Small excursions in properties appear at ~95 and 200–280 mbsf, the latter correlating with a middle Eocene radiolarian-rich interval of calcareous nannofossil chalk. Porosity data show strong periodic signals superimposed on the normal consolidation trend through the lower Eocene, suggesting that cyclical variations may be readily determined.

Sediments become richer in clay below 365 mbsf. Velocity and density profiles tend to flatten with much higher scatter in magnitudes than above. A strong increase in velocity and density corresponds to the K/T boundary, and apparent cyclicity occurs in data through the Maastrichtian sedimentary sequence. The black shale facies is highlighted particularly well by the physical property data, with a distinct drop in average values but a high degree of scatter. Velocity and density maximums correspond with limestone or sandstone beds, and low values in density and velocity correspond to organic-rich intervals. The largest peaks in velocity and density appear in quartz sandstone and siltstone below the black shales (values up to 3500 m/s and 2.4 g/cm³, respectively).

Depositional History

Probable tidal flat sediments of unknown age (Albian?), which were deposited in a marginal marine setting, represent the oldest sequence recovered at Site 1259. They are unconformably overlain by a black shale sequence that dates from late Cenomanian–Santonian, but most of it is Turonian, with thinner Cenomanian, Coniacian, and Santonian intervals. Occasional clayey bentonite layers indicate the proximity of volcanoes. Calcareous nannofossils of the genus *Eprolithus* from very dark TOC-rich shales at the base of the succession point to marginal marine environments. The laminated, coarse-grained foraminiferal limestones in the succession may be related to winnowing or grain flows or may reflect changes in carbonate productivity. Continuous deepening characterizes the remaining Upper Cretaceous succession. During OAE 2, high TOC values and very distinct laminations indicate

bottom water anoxia. The top of the black shale interval is represented by a condensed interval covering the Santonian and lower Campanian. At present, it is unclear whether the observed mass flow deposits in the upper Turonian and Coniacian are part of the tectonic movements related to the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway.

Oxic conditions were established by the late Campanian, when sedimentation on Demerara Rise changed from hemipelagic to pelagic. The abundance of radiolarians in the Campanian, however, indicates high surface water productivity. The cyclic pattern of trace fossil abundance suggests repeated changes in bottom water oxygenation.

Maastrichtian- to Oligocene-age sediments at Site 1259 consist of pelagic deep marine nannofossil chalks and oozes. Sedimentation rates varied from 4.5 m/m.y. in the Maastrichtian–late Paleocene, 12 m/m.y. in the late Paleocene–late Eocene, and ~13 m/m.y. in the early Miocene. The succession is interrupted by a few hiatuses—a lower Paleocene hiatus covering ~1 m.y., a ~3-m.y. hiatus at the middle/upper Eocene boundary, and an upper Oligocene interval of hiatuses and condensed intervals representing ~3 m.y. These hiatuses may reflect periods of slow deposition and/or erosion.

Site 1260

Site 1260 is located in a water depth of 2549 mbsl on the gently dipping (~1°) northwest-facing slope of Demerara Rise, ~380 km north of Suriname. The site is located on a ridge of Paleogene sediments subcropping near the seafloor. Site 1260 is at an intermediate depth of the intended paleoceanographic depth transect across Demerara Rise. The major objectives were the following:

1. Core and log a Paleogene–Albian section to evaluate paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic changes, with emphasis on major and abrupt events during this interval that include the E/O and P/E boundaries and Cretaceous OAEs.
2. Reconstruct the history of the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway by obtaining benthic foraminifer proxy data. These data will help to understand changes in bottom water circulation over Demerara Rise during the gradual opening of the seaway.
3. Recover continuous and expanded sediment records of the Paleogene and Cretaceous to reconstruct short- and long-term changes in greenhouse forcing.

Operations

Two RCB holes were cored at Site 1260. Hole 1260A was cored to 491.9 mbsf (recovery = 79.6%) (Table T1). Hole 1260B was washed to 40 mbsf and cored from 40 to 136.5 mbsf. It was then washed to 235 mbsf and cored to 509 mbsf (recovery = 88.2% in the cored intervals). Hard beds at 130–154, 180–211, and 480–509 mbsf hampered core recovery in these intervals.

Seismic Stratigraphy

The seismic stratigraphy established for Demerara Rise, including Horizons A, B, B', and C, has been correlated to Site 1260 strata with lines GeoB215 and 207_LIS. The seafloor in the proximity of the drill site ap-

pears hummocky in the downslope direction but reasonably flat in the contour parallel direction. Reflector A, representing the top of a presumably lower Miocene erosional unconformity, subcrops near the seafloor at the site. Between Reflectors A and B, seismic Unit 2 is 365 ms thick (~315 m using laboratory-measured downhole logging and checkshot velocity information). The topmost sequence in this seismic unit consists of contorted reflectors that pinch out against the seafloor within 1.5 km downslope. This sequence may represent a slumped interval, below which is a sequence of crenulated but coherent reflection horizons, separated by transparent or incoherent intervals. In the downslope direction, these reflectors are reasonably flat lying, dipping slightly less than the angle of the seafloor.

Seismic Unit 3, between Reflector B at 365 ms subbottom and Reflector C at 522 ms, is a ~170-m-thick, flat-lying sequence that dips 1.5° to the north-northwest. The basal part of this unit lies between Horizons B' and C (464–522 ms subbottom; ~392–485 mbsf) and is defined on the basis of a series of strong, parallel, coherent reflections that are laterally continuous. This seismic interval has been shown to correlate to the black shale interval.

Stratigraphy

Lithologic descriptions of the cores and biostratigraphic age assignments revealed a rather continuous sedimentary succession with only a few hiatuses. Sediments at Site 1260 range from Oligocene to early Albian in age. A thin veneer of Pleistocene carbonate-poor clayey ooze with quartz and glauconite at the top of the section unconformably overlies ~30 m of heavily slumped and reworked lower Oligocene calcareous chalk with nannofossils and planktonic foraminifers. The upper Eocene is represented by a condensed interval of calcareous chinks and overlies an expanded 235-m-thick succession of middle Eocene (planktonic foraminiferal Zone P13; calcareous nannoplankton Zone NP17) to lower Eocene nannofossil chalk with abundant and well-preserved radiolarians in the middle Eocene part of this succession. With the exception of a hiatus spanning the lower/middle Eocene boundary, the lower–middle Eocene succession is remarkably expanded (average sedimentation rate = ~20 m/m.y.) and complete. Excellent RCB recovery provided continuous core overlap between holes for the middle Eocene. The periodic variability in the middle Eocene color reflectance and GRA bulk density data will provide a good basis for postcruise cyclostratigraphic studies. Age control is excellent, with well-defined paleomagnetic datums in the section (e.g., Chrons C19n and C20n). Preliminary investigation suggests the dominant periodicities of the magnetic susceptibility data are Milankovitch in nature, with significant power at 40 k.y.

In both holes, an apparently expanded and laminated section across the P/E boundary was recovered. As at Sites 1258 and 1259, the upper Paleocene clayey nannofossil chalk sequence is relatively thick and sedimentation rates in the lower Eocene–Paleocene interval drop to values averaging ~12 m/m.y. Zeolite or locally abundant opal-CT lepispheres replace siliceous microfossils in this interval. The K/T boundary with an ejecta layer was recovered in both holes. The subjacent upper Maastrichtian greenish gray nannofossil chalk with foraminifers and clay and the lower Maastrichtian–upper Campanian zeolitic nannofossil claystone display cyclic color banding between light greenish gray and greenish gray on a decimeter scale. The succession is considerably ex-

panded. Almost complete coring in both holes allowed for the construction of a splice with only one gap in the lower Maastrichtian. Radiolarians in the Campanian are well preserved. The lithology becomes increasingly clay rich downhole, and carbonate content decreases to 30 wt%. Foraminifers and nannofossils are rare in the Campanian, and a significant increase in the abundance of diagenetic calcite and carbonate debris is observed. *Planolites*, *Chondrites*, and *Zoophycos* burrows are abundant, as are barite and pyrite crystals. Average sedimentation rates in the Maastrichtian–Campanian interval were 12 m/m.y.

A condensed glauconite-rich horizon in Core 207-1260A-42R separates the Campanian clayey chalk from the ~93-m-thick black shale sequence, with TOC content up to 14 wt%. This sequence contains a thin Coniacian interval, and thus the lower part of OAE 3, and a virtually complete Turonian. OAE 2 overlies an expanded succession of Cenomanian laminated shales. The preservation and abundance of calcareous microfossils is poor to good, with glassy foraminifers in the Turonian and Cenomanian part of the black shales. A disconformity separates the lower Cenomanian laminated black shales and limestones from the underlying silty claystone and silty limestone, which is dated as late early Albian (*T. primula* planktonic foraminiferal zone; Subzones NC8a–NC8b) and represents the oldest sediments cored at Site 1260.

Recovery of Critical Intervals

Sediments spanning the P/E boundary were recovered in both holes at Site 1260. The boundary interval includes the last occurrence of benthic foraminifer *Aragonia velascoensis*, a species that became extinct at the P/E boundary, followed by a sharp contact between light green chalk over dark green clay. The sharp contact reflects the sudden decrease of carbonate content between the upper Paleocene and the lowermost Eocene associated with the P/E boundary. The uppermost Paleocene chalk contains distinct laminations up to 12 cm above the boundary, where the first bioturbation occurs. Pervasive bioturbation returns within ~30 cm above the boundary. Bioturbated, light green, carbonate-rich sediments are the dominant lithology of the lower Eocene.

The K/T boundary was recovered in both holes cored at Site 1260, and the ejecta layer is present in Cores 207-1260A-36R and 207-1260B-23R. A 1.8-cm-thick layer of clayey spherules overlying upper Maastrichtian chalks marks the base of the K/T boundary interval. In the core from Hole 1260A, the spherule layer covers a thin (5 mm) drape of whitish nannofossil chalk of potentially reworked upper Maastrichtian sediments. The section is similar in Hole 1260B, but the spherule layer is only 1 mm thick, probably because of drilling disturbance. Above the boundary, the lower Danian planktonic foraminiferal Zones P2–P α were distinguished. The thickness of the spherule layer is similar to that at Site 1258, suggesting that the spherule bed at both sites is a result of primary fallout rather than redeposition.

A ~93-m-thick Coniacian–Albian succession of laminated black shales and laminated foraminiferal limestones, including OAE 2, was recovered in both holes at Site 1260. Average recovery of this interval was 80%, and correlation between the holes and the high-quality FMS logs will allow for a continuous reconstruction of the interval.

The transition between Campanian chalks and the underlying black shale sequence is represented by a hiatus or condensed section covering the entire Santonian. The Coniacian organic-rich interval is very thin.

OAE 2 is represented by an interval of distinctly laminated black shales. The main lithology consists of dark olive-gray to black finely laminated calcareous claystone with organic matter (black shale) and clayey chalk and limestone with organic matter. Occasional coarse-grained glauconite-rich horizons are present. The unit shows well-developed submillimeter-scale laminations and has a slight petroliferous odor. Rhythmic color variations between dark olive gray and black are visible on a decimeter scale. TOC values range from ~5 to 14 wt% in the black shales. Rock-Eval analyses indicate Type II kerogen, which is consistent with a marine origin of the organic matter. Fish scales, bone fragments, and amorphous to cryptocrystalline phosphatic nodules are common. The lower part of the black shales consists of distinctly laminated shales that are composed almost exclusively of fecal pellets. The black shale facies continues until the lower Cenomanian and thus comprises the mid-Cenomanian Event.

Geochemistry

Interstitial water profiles at Site 1260 document reactions similar to those at earlier Leg 207 sites, with remarkably comparable profiles to Site 1258 in particular. Microbially mediated organic matter remineralization is largely centered in Unit IV, the black shales. Sulfate decreases linearly downcore to zero near the top of Unit IV at ~390 mbsf, with a corresponding increase in ammonium to values >2 mM. Below the depth of sulfate depletion, methane contents increase sharply to maximum values (~68,000 ppmv) in the black shales, then decrease below. As at Site 1258, alkalinity and calcium profiles document intervals of active carbonate diagenesis. In the upper 400 mbsf, chloride profiles at Site 1260 are strikingly similar to the upper 400 mbsf at Site 1258, including two coincident 3% decreases at ~310 and 370 mbsf. Below 400 mbsf, the Site 1260 chloride profile only increases slightly (577–582 mM) and shows neither the presence of the brine documented at Site 1257 nor the pronounced pore water freshening that was observed at Site 1258.

Physical Properties and Logging

Index properties, *P*-wave velocities, and GRA densities were measured on core samples from Site 1260. Logging runs consisted of two passes with the triple combo and FMS-sonic tool strings. In addition, a checkshot velocity run was conducted, comprising 14 downhole stations. Hole conditions were excellent for the logging tools, and data are of extremely high quality. In general, the physical property data reflect normal consolidation down to ~328 mbsf. Anomalously high velocities and porosities in the uppermost 40 m reflect a slump deposit in this interval. Porosity, resistivity, and FMS data show strong periodic signals superimposed on the normal consolidation trend through the Eocene interval, suggesting cyclic variations may be readily determined.

Lithologies become richer in clay below 328 mbsf. Velocity and density profiles tend to flatten with much higher scatter in magnitudes than above. All logs correlate very closely with lithologic changes identified from core descriptions. Natural gamma logs delineate the black shale facies particularly well, but all logs show distinctive changes in profile shape and a high degree of data variability in this interval. Critical intervals that are visually distinct, like the P/E and K/T boundaries, are readily distinguished with logging and physical property data. As a

consequence, lithologic changes and these event deposits can be correlated to the seismic reflection data with a high degree of confidence.

Depositional History

Clayey quartz siltstone of early Albian age, which was likely deposited in a marginal marine or epicontinental shelf setting, represents the oldest sequence recovered at Site 1260. It is unconformably overlain by a black shale sequence that dates from Cenomanian to Coniacian, but most of it is Cenomanian, with thinner Turonian and Coniacian intervals. Laminated, coarse-grained foraminiferal limestones in the succession may be related to winnowing or grain flows or may reflect changes in carbonate productivity. Continuous deepening characterizes the remaining Upper Cretaceous succession. During OAE 2, high TOC values and very distinct laminations indicate bottom water anoxia. At the top of the black shale interval is a hiatus covering the Santonian and lower Campanian. Mass flow deposits in the upper Turonian and Coniacian may be a result of tectonic movements related to the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway. The contact between upper Coniacian slumped black shales and condensed Campanian glauconite-rich chalk is erosional.

Oxic conditions were established by the Campanian, when sedimentation on Demerara Rise changed from hemipelagic to pelagic. The abundance of radiolarians in the Campanian, however, indicates high surface water productivity.

Maastrichtian- to Oligocene-age sediments at Site 1260 consist of pelagic deep marine nannofossil chalks and oozes. Sedimentation rates varied from 4.3 m/m.y. in the Maastrichtian–upper Paleocene, 12.1 m/m.y. in the upper Paleocene–lower Eocene, ~20.5 m/m.y. in the middle Eocene, and ~6.7 m/m.y. in the upper Eocene. The succession is interrupted by several hiatuses—an upper Paleocene hiatus representing ~1 m.y., a ~1.5-m.y. hiatus at the lower/middle Eocene boundary, an upper–middle Eocene hiatus of ~5 m.y., and lower Oligocene hiatus of ~2 m.y. These hiatuses may reflect periods of slow deposition and/or erosion.

Site 1261

Site 1261 is located in a water depth of 1899 mbsl on the gently dipping (~1°), northwest-facing slope of Demerara Rise, ~350 km north of Suriname. Sites 1260 and 1258 are to the northwest and Sites 1257 and 1259 are to the north. Site 1261 is the shallowest site, forming the paleoceanographic depth transect across Demerara Rise. The major objectives were the following:

1. Core and log a Paleogene–Albian section to evaluate paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic changes, with emphasis on major and abrupt events during this interval that include the E/O and P/E boundaries and Cretaceous OAEs.
2. Reconstruct the history of the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway by obtaining benthic foraminifer proxy data. These data will help to understand changes in bottom water circulation over Demerara Rise during the gradual opening of the seaway.

3. Recover continuous and expanded sediment records of the Paleogene and Cretaceous to reconstruct short- and long-term changes in greenhouse forcing.

Operations

At Site 1261, two RCB holes were cored. Hole 1261A was spot cored to a depth of 236.9 mbsf, with cores taken at 0–22.5, 69.7–79.3, 131.4–141.1, and 189.1–198.7 mbsf. Continuous coring proceeded from 236.9 to 659.8 mbsf (recovery = 73.4% in the cored intervals) (Table T1). Hole 1261B was washed to 525.3 mbsf and cored to 674.1 mbsf (recovery = 62.2% in the cored intervals).

Seismic Stratigraphy

The seismic stratigraphy established for Demerara Rise, including Horizons A, B, B', and C, was correlated to Site 1261 with line GeoB213. Lines GeoB204 and GeoB208 are orthogonal to GeoB213 and pass within 5 km of the site to the northwest and southeast, respectively. Industry line C2206a passes orthogonal to GeoB213 as well, 8 km northwest of the drill site.

The seismic stratigraphy for Demerara Rise shows increasing sediment thickness to the south. At Site 1261, the uppermost sediment section has not been defined previously. It consists of a thin (30 ms; 24 m thick) package of parallel coherent reflections that offlap from the upslope direction (south) and truncate against the seafloor ~10 km downslope from the site. This sequence is likely Quaternary in age, and the base of it is termed Reflector "O."

What has previously been defined as seismic Unit 1 (Miocene–Pliocene) underlies Reflector O. It is largely missing at the other sites. In the immediate vicinity of Site 1261, Unit 1 comprises a well-defined set of coherent seismic reflections of varying amplitudes. The topmost reflections truncate against Reflector O, sometimes in an angular fashion. The base of the unit is Reflector A, just above which is a 50-ms-thick (~40 m) zone of incoherent reflections capped by a bright reflector. This interval appears to be a debris flow. Unit 1 is 415 ms thick (~367 m) at the drill site.

Unit 2 is below Reflector A, which is the presumed lower Miocene erosional unconformity. The base of seismic Unit 2 is correlated to Reflector B at 586 ms subbottom (550 mbsf). Unit 2 is represented by a sequence of high-amplitude, parallel, coherent reflections that are relatively flat lying, dipping 0.5° to the north. Seismic Unit 3, between Reflectors B and C, is estimated to be 150 ms thick (175 m). Much of the acoustic energy in the high-resolution site survey profile (line GeoB213) is lost in the highly reflective Unit 2. Little detail is resolved in Unit 3 as a result. It appears as an acoustically transparent package with occasional semicoherent reflectors at the top and at the very base, just above Horizon C. It is difficult to correlate Horizon B' and thus to distinguish Subunits 3a and 3b because of this low reflectivity. Horizon B' has been correlated to the base of the slightly coherent section near the top of Unit 3, but the tie is uncertain.

Reflector C, at the base of the section of interest, is an unconformity. No coherent subsurface data are recognizable in the survey data, but the nearby industry line C2206a shows the underlying section. At Site 1261, the unconformity appears as a disconformity and it is difficult to actually pick up Reflector C as a single event. Further below, reflections

form a broad anticline, fault bounded to the southwest and folded into a syncline to the northeast.

A listric normal fault is shown on line GeoB213 5 km southeast of the drill site. This fault has offset the entire sediment column. Apparent displacement across the fault is ~30–60 ms in the deeper portion of the section (at Reflector C), whereas in the upper portion it is on the order of 200 ms. This discrepancy in offset can be accounted for only by invoking either significant rotation or slumping in the upper sediment column. The fault splays at 300 ms subbottom to the seafloor, showing significant tilting of reflections in the interval between offsets and providing further evidence of slumping.

Stratigraphy

Lithologic descriptions of the cores and biostratigraphic age assignments reveal a sedimentary succession with several hiatuses. Sediments at Site 1261 range in age from Pleistocene to Cenomanian. Approximately 13 m of Pleistocene nannofossil ooze at the top of the section unconformably overlies an apparently continuous ~300-m-thick succession of lower middle Pliocene–upper Miocene nannofossil clay. Sedimentation rates in the Neogene are extraordinarily high, with values of 65 m/m.y. A ~60-m-thick upper Miocene matrix-supported conglomerate forms the base of the Neogene at Site 1261. A disconformity separates this debris flow from a concordant succession of middle–lower Eocene calcareous chalk, porcellanite, and limestone (planktonic foraminiferal Zone P14; calcareous nannoplankton Zone NP17). A 4-m.y. hiatus covering the lower Eocene (planktonic foraminiferal Zone P6) lies above the P/E boundary, which was recovered in Hole 1261A.

As at the other Leg 207 sites, the upper Paleocene clayey nannofossil chalk contains zeolites or locally abundant opal-CT lepispheres that replaced siliceous microfossils in this interval. Foraminifers in the middle part of this succession are very well preserved. The K/T boundary layer is absent from this site because of a hiatus covering most of the lower Danian (planktonic foraminiferal Zone P1). The subjacent upper Maastrichtian greenish gray to upper Campanian claystone with nannofossils is fairly condensed and displays cyclic color banding between light greenish gray and greenish gray on a decimeter scale. Foraminifers and nannofossils are rare in the Campanian, and a significant increase in abundance of diagenetic calcite and carbonate debris is observed. *Planolites*, *Chondrites*, and *Zoophycos* burrows are abundant, as are barite and pyrite crystals. Average sedimentation rates in the Maastrichtian–Campanian interval were 3.3 m/m.y. Magnetostratigraphic age control in this interval is excellent, with well-defined paleomagnetic datums C29r–C32r in both holes.

There are numerous very dark colored intervals, apparently cyclic in occurrence, in the lower part of the Campanian. A condensed glauconite-rich interval separates the claystone from a laminated black shale sequence. The contact between this glauconite-rich interval and the mid-Cretaceous black shales is very sharp and may be a fault plane. Site 1261 represents the most expanded black shale sequence of the Leg 207 paleoceanographic depth transect. Approximately 10 m of Santonian sediments overlie ~10 m of lower Coniacian black shales. The Turonian epoch (~30 m thick) is completely represented and underlain by 40 m of upper Cenomanian black shales. Preservation and abundance of calcareous microfossils is rated poor to moderate. The maximum TOC content in these sediments is 16 wt%. Rock-Eval analyses indicate Type II

kerogen, which is consistent with a marine origin of the organic matter. Fish scales, bone fragments, and amorphous to cryptocrystalline phosphatic nodules are common.

A disconformity separates the Cenomanian-age laminated black shales and limestones from the underlying quartz sandstone and silty claystone that is upper Albian–Cenomanian in age, according to a single nannofossil datum. The oldest sediment cored at Site 1261 is a limestone with abundant oysters of the genus *Aucillina*.

Recovery of Critical Intervals

Sediments spanning the P/E boundary were recovered in Hole 1261A. The boundary interval comprises a sharp contact between light green chalk over dark green clay followed by a reddish clay-rich interval similar to Sites 1258 and 1259. The sharp contact reflects the sudden decrease of carbonate content between the upper Paleocene and the lowermost Eocene associated with the P/E boundary. The record of the K/T boundary interval was not recovered at this site.

An ~89-m-thick Santonian to upper Cenomanian succession of laminated black shales and laminated foraminiferal limestones, including OAEs 3 and 2, was recovered in both holes at Site 1261. This interval displays the most expanded record of the Santonian to Coniacian OAE 3 of Leg 207 (20 m). The variability of the claystone and chalk/limestone composing the black shales resulted in strong signal-to-noise ratios in both the GRA bulk density and natural gamma ray data sets. These data sets, combined with good RCB recovery over a significant portion of the black shale interval, allowed for the construction of a nearly continuous composite section with only three small gaps. If these alternations prove to be periodic, then there is a good opportunity for high-resolution age control with orbital tuning.

Geochemistry

Site 1261 is dominated by the presence of an interstitial water brine. Chloride increases in a linear fashion to the base of the black shales, where the highest chlorinity encountered on Demerara Rise is observed (907 mM; 62% greater than standard seawater). Unfortunately, it was not possible to extract pore water from the very thin interval of quartz sandstone that was recovered immediately below the shales. It could not be verified, therefore, whether the brine was sourced laterally through the black shale sequence, as was suggested by the Site 1257 chloride profile.

Unlike previous Leg 207 sites, organic matter degradation reactions occur outside the organic-rich black shales. Sulfate decreases to zero in the upper 200 mbsf in the rapidly deposited (65 m/m.y.) Pliocene nannofossil clay. Correspondingly, ammonium, a common respiration product of organic matter diagenesis, increases sharply to ~1.5 mM in the upper 140 mbsf and then slowly increases with depth to a maximum of 1.8 mM in the black shales. Methane increases modestly to ~2,000 ppmv in the upper 500 mbsf, then increases sharply near the top of the black shales to a maximum of ~110,000 ppmv. In contrast, alkalinity does not increase with depth as expected in the sulfate reduction zone, but decreases from the seafloor to a minimum at ~480 mbsf. The decreasing alkalinity corresponds to a decrease in calcium between ~250 and 375 mbsf and the interval of well-cemented Eocene chalks and limestones, indicating carbonate precipitation.

Physical Properties and Logging

Index properties, *P*-wave velocities, and GRA densities were measured on core samples from Site 1261. Downhole logging runs included the triple combo and the FMS-sonic tool strings, acquiring borehole caliper, acoustic velocity, formation density, porosity, electrical resistivity, and natural gamma ray emission data. The WST was run for checkshot velocities, but the tool could not be lowered past a bridge at 210 mbsf. Five WST stations were acquired in this upper interval.

Logging data in the upper ~380 mbsf are highly suspect because of the highly variable hole diameter through this interval. Consequently, correlation between laboratory-measured densities and logging densities are poor. Logging velocity data are not affected as severely by the hole diameter and correlate well with discrete core measurements in the laboratory and checkshot velocities measured with the WST tool. Physical property data show this interval is normally consolidated, with linear increases in density and velocity and a decrease in porosity. A significant perturbation in the porosity and velocity curves correlates with a major debris flow interval between ~320 and 380 mbsf.

Logging density data become stable below ~380 mbsf. They show a significant increase between 380 and 500 mbsf, concomitant with higher velocities. This interval corresponds to the Eocene sequence that has high clay and siliceous fractions relative to overlying sediments. A gradual decline in velocity and density corresponds to the P/E boundary. A subsequent sudden increase in these properties correlates with the K/T boundary and the underlying Maastrichtian chalk sequence. Absolute values show an overall drop with a high degree of scatter through the Cenomanian and Turonian black shale sequence. Velocity and density maximums in this interval correspond to limestone or coarse-grained beds, and low values in density and velocity correspond with organic-rich intervals.

Depositional History

Shallow-marine quartz sandstones with ammonite casts and limestones with oysters represent the oldest rocks recovered at Site 1261. They are overlain by a black shale sequence that dates from late Cenomanian–Santonian, but most of it is Cenomanian–Turonian with thinner Coniacian and Santonian intervals. Occasional clayey bentonite layers indicate the proximity of volcanoes. The laminated, coarse-grained foraminiferal limestones in the succession may be related to winnowing or grain flows or reflect changes in carbonate productivity. Continuous deepening characterizes the remaining Upper Cretaceous succession. During OAE 2, high TOC values and very distinct laminations indicate bottom water anoxia. The top of the black shale interval is a sharp contact between the Santonian and overlying glauconite-rich upper Campanian claystones. At present, it is unclear whether the observed glauconite-rich intervals in the Turonian and Coniacian black shales reflect periods of oxygenation, condensation, or both.

Oxic conditions were established by the late Campanian, when sedimentation on Demerara Rise changed from hemipelagic to pelagic. The cyclic pattern of trace fossil abundance, however, suggests that a reduction in bottom water oxygenation recurs.

Maastrichtian- to Pleistocene-age sediments at Site 1261 consist of pelagic deepwater marine clayey chalk, claystone, limestone, and clays. Sedimentation rates varied from 3.3 m/m.y. in the Maastrichtian, 7 m/

m.y. in the Paleocene and early Eocene, to 8.9 m/m.y. in the middle Eocene. These are the lowest values observed during Leg 207 for these intervals. Average sedimentation rates for the upper Miocene–lower Pliocene reach the extremely high values of 65 m/m.y. The pelagic succession is interrupted by a few hiatuses—a lower Paleocene hiatus covering ~4 m.y., a ~2.5-m.y. hiatus in the lower Eocene, and a hiatus representing ~31 m.y. covering the upper Eocene, Oligocene, and lower Miocene. These hiatuses may reflect periods of slow deposition and/or erosion.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Lithostratigraphy

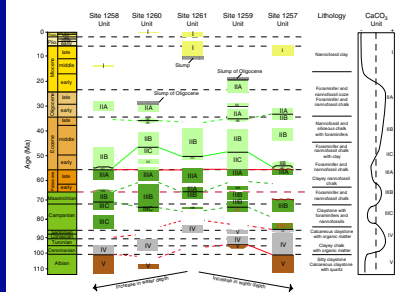
The five sites cored during Leg 207 recovered sedimentary sequences that record the sedimentary and paleoceanographic history of the tropical Atlantic. The sedimentary pile can be divided into three broad styles of deposition—synrift clastics, restricted marine “black shales,” and open marine chalk and calcareous claystones (Fig. F8). Synrift deposits show a variety of lithologies, and important questions remain regarding depositional water depth, terrigenous sources, transport paths, and possible differences in age within and among the sites. Pelagic deposition included long intervals of relatively constant sedimentation recovered at multiple sites suitable for detailed chronostratigraphic and paleoceanographic studies. In addition, the changing proportions of terrigenous and biogenic components, the distribution of regional hiatuses, and benthic isotopic studies should help constrain the evolution of circulation in the tropical Atlantic. The most dramatic lithologic features recovered during Leg 207, however, are the sedimentological expression of the P/E and K/T boundary events and black shale deposition encompassing several OAEs.

Paleocene/Eocene Boundary

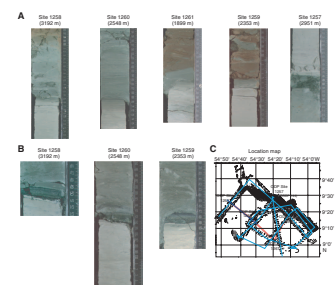
The P/E boundary is placed at the base of a ~30-cm-thick greenish clay bed that is a unique lithology at each site where it is present (Fig. F9A). This layer is provisionally interpreted as the record of the shoaling of the CCD following the P/E boundary event and is expected to coincide with both the benthic foraminiferal extinction event and the carbon isotopic excursion. The 1–5 cm of the Paleocene below the clay shows a progressive increase in clay content toward the boundary. At Site 1260, the clay is relatively thick and distinctly laminated, but this fabric is not seen at the other sites. Either the record at Site 1260 is exceptionally complete or there were paleogeographic or paleobathymetric differences in expression of the event on Demerara Rise. A 12- to 20-cm-thick red interval begins 2–20 cm above the P/E boundary at Sites 1258, 1259, and 1261 but not at Sites 1257 or 1260, documenting additional site-to-site variability.

Magnetic susceptibility measurements suggest that the clay-rich part of the boundary sequence ranges from ~1 m in thickness at Site 1261 to ~2 m in thickness at Site 1258. The differential thickness indicated by the magnetic susceptibility high may reflect depth-related changes in carbonate preservation or variations in sedimentation rate. The P/E interval at all sites displays pronounced cyclicity in physical property measurements and sediment color. Cyclicity is particularly pronounced

F8. Major breaks in sedimentation, p. 65.



F9. P/E and K/T boundary intervals, p. 66.



at Site 1259, where a short-period cycle with a ~25- to 30-cm wavelength is modulated by a ~1- to 1.5-m cycle that resembles the modulation of the orbital precession cycle with a period of ~21 k.y. by the 100-k.y. eccentricity cycle. The pervasive cyclicity in physical property records from the lower Eocene offers the possibility not only of refining the chronology of the P/E boundary event but also cross-checking the results among sites.

Cretaceous/Tertiary Boundary

Compared to the P/E boundary, the lithologic character of the K/T boundary is remarkably consistent at the three sites in which it was recovered (Fig. F9B). At each site, sediments ~0.5 m above and below the boundary have a yellowish brown tinge, but the causal relationship of these colors to the boundary is unclear. The boundary itself occurs within an interval of pelagic sediment with no visible change in depositional style until 0.3 cm below an ejecta layer marking the boundary. The ejecta layer is 1.7–1.9 cm thick and is composed of normally graded green spherules. Spherules decrease in diameter from ~2 mm at the base to ~0.25 mm at the top; the uniformity of this layer among sites suggests settling of ejecta material through the water column without subsequent reworking (i.e., primary air fall deposit). The spherule bed sits on a ~3-mm-thick gray fine-grained homogeneous layer, probably composed of Maastrichtian nannofossils. Possible interpretations of this layer include (1) fine material suspended or elutriated by impact shaking, (2) a thin layer of reworking between the time of the impact and the arrival of the first spherules, and (3) a diagenetic artifact related to rapid burial and alteration of the spherules. The spherule bed is overlain by a clay-rich interval containing characteristic earliest Tertiary foraminifers and nannofossils as well as bloom taxa. Carbonate content gradually increases over ~0.5 m, and the basal Danian seems to be expanded, suggesting that details of the paleoceanographic conditions in the earliest Tertiary may be preserved on Demerara Rise.

Black Shales

Tens of meters of organic-rich laminated sediments (black shale) were recovered at all sites during Leg 207 (Fig. F8). These rocks represent the local equivalent of widespread organic-rich sedimentation in the southern part of the mid-Cretaceous North Atlantic (Kuhnt et al., 1990). They include the globally recorded OAE 2 around the Cenomanian/Turonian boundary.

On Demerara Rise, black shale sedimentation began abruptly in the Cenomanian and extended into the Campanian. The black shales unconformably overlie Albian–Cenomanian shallow-water siliciclastic sediments, including a unit tentatively interpreted as a tidal flat deposit. Some of the Albian claystones have a high organic carbon content, but organic matter composition and a lack of lamination distinguishes them clearly from the younger black shales. During the Coniacian, and especially in the Santonian, oceanographic conditions in the region were apparently less stable, as indicated by intercalated glauconitic and bioturbated intervals. Bioturbation affected large intervals of the organic-rich claystones and destroyed the lamination. Furthermore, probable tectonic instability on Demerara Rise led to widespread mass wasting, resulting in numerous debris flows affecting the Coniacian–Campanian part of the black shale sequence. The lithologic

transition from the black shales into the overlying Campanian pelagic deposits at some sites occurs over several meters of glauconite-rich, bioturbated claystone. At other sites, bioturbated and laminated sediments are in a sharp contact. Regardless, the basal Campanian chalks typically contain some glauconite, quartz, and abundant zeolite-replaced radiolarians.

The black shales are characterized by the following three facies:

1. Laminated organic-rich claystones with variable carbonate content (5–50 wt%) and up to 30 wt% TOC of marine origin; this facies is particularly well developed in the upper Cenomanian–Turonian part of the black shale interval;
2. Lighter laminated to finely bedded foraminifer wackestone to packstone occurring as either light–dark cycles in organic-rich claystones or as discrete beds with a sharp base and a gradual transition into overlying sediments; these beds may represent tempestites (storm deposits?) or turbidites; and
3. Glauconitic bioturbated intervals that might represent periods of oxygenation. Burrows in rocks of this facies extend deeply into the underlying sediment (up to 1 m). These glauconite-rich intervals can be correlated between holes and, perhaps, among the shallower sites. No equivalent has been found at the deeper sites.

Well-preserved fish debris and phosphatic nodules (~2 cm) are ubiquitous but are particularly concentrated in the organic-rich claystones. These occurrences may form discrete layers/intervals or are scattered in the background sediment. Diagenetic calcite formation is common at the shallower sites. Calcite replaces organic-rich sediment in the form of cone-in-cone structures up to several centimeters thick.

Black shale sediments seem to have been deposited in a shallow to moderately deepwater environment. Existing seismic lines do not support a silled basin model but rather an intensified oxygen-minimum layer impinging on Demerara Rise. This interpretation is further supported by rare glauconite-rich bioturbated intervals at the shallower sites marking the weakening or even retreat of the oxygen minimum zone.

Biostratigraphy

Of the five sites drilled, multiple sequences of Cenomanian and Turonian black shales, Campanian–Maastrichtian chalk, as well as Paleocene, lower Eocene, and middle Eocene chalk were recovered at each. In aggregate, the recovered sections form a continuous record of tropical sedimentation from the late early Cenomanian (~98 Ma) to the Santonian (~83.5 Ma) and from the late Campanian (~76 Ma) to the late middle Eocene (~38 Ma). The oldest sedimentary rocks recovered during Leg 207 are early and middle Albian claystones (Site 1258), and the youngest are Pliocene–Pleistocene clay-rich nannofossil oozes (Site 1261). At all but one site (1261), the Paleogene was exposed at the seafloor or by <90 m of burial beneath Neogene sedimentary cover.

Neogene or Oligocene calcareous ooze is present at the seafloor at all the Leg 207 sites and consists mostly of winnowed foraminifer sands. The thickest Neogene sequence is present at Site 1261, where 370 m of Pleistocene, Pliocene, and upper Miocene strata is present above chalk of late middle Eocene age. The Neogene section at Site 1261 was spot

cored through most of its thickness but appears to comprise an expanded sequence of lower Pliocene and upper Miocene deposits that form a drape over the shallower parts of Demerara Rise shoreward of the Leg 207 drill sites. Elsewhere, drilling encountered lower Miocene and lower Oligocene calcareous ooze below a thin veneer of Pleistocene foraminifer nannofossil ooze. At Site 1259, nearly 125 m of Oligocene and lower Miocene strata are present, but at least the upper 28 m represents a remobilized sequence that was slumped or eroded and redeposited in inverse stratigraphic order. Redeposited lower Oligocene calcareous ooze also is present at Site 1260. The E/O boundary is unconformable or highly condensed at all sites.

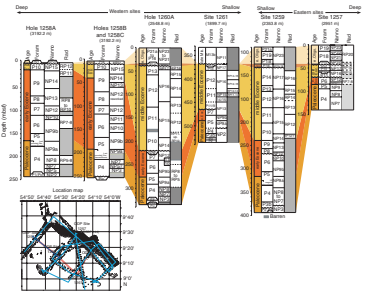
There are widespread Paleogene unconformities in the upper Eocene, the lower middle Eocene, and upper Danian (Figs. F10, F11). However, with the exception of the upper Eocene, the other hiatuses are mostly represented by sediment in at least one of the sites. Most notably, the widespread lower Eocene–middle Eocene hiatus, which is found virtually everywhere in the North Atlantic, is represented by apparently continuous sedimentation at Site 1258. Indeed, recovery at Site 1258 appears to include the most complete lower Eocene section cored by DSDP and ODP in the tropical oceans (Figs. F10, F11). In the Cretaceous, there is a condensed surface or unconformity across the Santonian–lower Campanian and another between the upper Albian and lower Cenomanian (Figs. F12, F13). Further biostratigraphic work may well recover zonal markers for parts of the lower Campanian in the sequence of glauconitic-rich horizons at the contact between the Turonian–Santonian black shales and the upper Campanian chalk. The age of the Albian–Cenomanian unconformity may be diachronous with the oldest Cenomanian section at Sites 1258 and 1260, whereas Cenomanian sedimentation began slightly later in the late Cenomanian at the other sites.

Preservation of microfossils is highly variable at all Leg 207 sites. Calcareous microfossils are best preserved in parts of the Albian at Site 1258, the black shale sequence, and the Paleocene—all sequences rich in clay. In some cases, particularly in the black shales, foraminifers are preserved with translucent skeletons and primary microstructure. Much of the lower and middle Eocene suffers from extensive recrystallization of calcite. Siliceous microfossils (mainly radiolarians) are present in parts of the middle and lower Eocene and Campanian and in spots in the black shales and underlying Albian claystone. Middle Eocene siliceous nannofossil chalks at Site 1260 are particularly notable for their expanded sequence of middle Eocene radiolarian zones with excellent preservation.

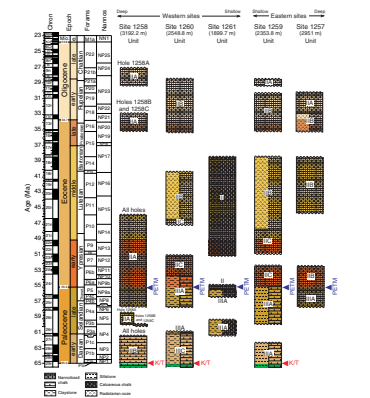
Paleocene/Eocene Boundary

During Leg 207, we recovered the P/E boundary at all five sites, with a remarkable 10 cores spanning the boundary interval. At all sites, the P/E boundary is represented by dark green clay-rich beds that form a sharp contact with underlying chalk. The chalk below the boundary is frequently well lithified and shows a transition to slightly darker sediment, often laminated, ~1–2 cm below the first dark green clay. The green beds themselves are either massive (e.g., Sites 1257–1259) or display fine laminations (e.g., Sites 1260 and 1261) in the lower parts. Bioturbation gradually returns between 5 m (Site 1261) and ~30 cm (Site 1259) above the base of the green bed.

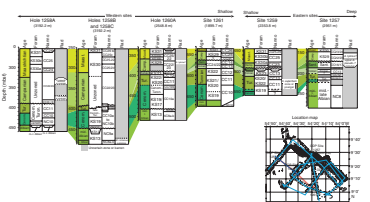
F10. Paleogene biostratigraphic summary, p. 67.



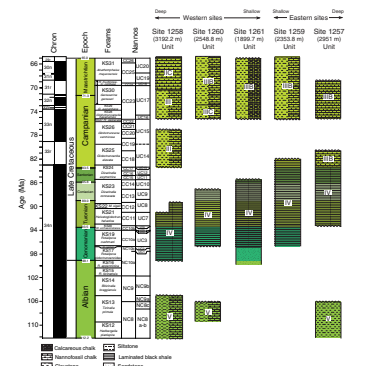
F11. Paleogene stratigraphy and lithology, p. 68.



F12. Cretaceous biostratigraphic summary, p. 69.



F13. Cretaceous stratigraphy and lithology, p. 70.



All five sites showed the same typical succession of calcareous nanofossils across the P/E boundary interval (Zone NP9). Abundant *Zygrhablithus bijugatus*, *Discoaster multiradiatus*, and rhombs (interpreted as *Rhomboaster*) characterize the early Eocene (upper part of Zone NP9 = NP96). *Neochiastozygus junctus* is also abundant and continues without rhombs but with occasional fasciculiths to the P/E boundary. Below the P/E boundary fasciculiths replace *N. junctus* and *Z. bijugatus* in dominance and preservation improves considerably.

Samples taken from the massive green beds at Sites 1258 and 1259 contain few calcareous foraminifers but common, poorly preserved radiolarians. Calcareous microfossils begin to appear at about the same level that the massive or laminated sequence begins to become bioturbated. The foraminiferal assemblages are characteristic of dissolved faunas, consisting mostly of small benthic foraminifers. However, as preservation improves, a distinct fauna of planktonic foraminifers appears. These species include *M. allisonensis*, *A. sibaiyensis*, and *A. africana*, all of which have been named the excursion fauna (e.g., Kelly et al., 1996) because they have been previously recognized only in the interval of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ anomaly. Leg 207 sites appear to contain a few additional, as yet unnamed, species of the excursion fauna. In addition, the foraminiferal assemblage from Site 1259 includes a clavate species, *P. paleocenica*, which has thus far been described only from coastal Senegal and the equatorial Pacific (Site 1220). About 2 m above the base of the green beds at Site 1259, the excursion fauna appears to be rare or absent, but several other foraminifer species are present that may be undescribed. These include a nearly biconvex variant of *Morozovella aequa*.

Cretaceous/Tertiary Boundary

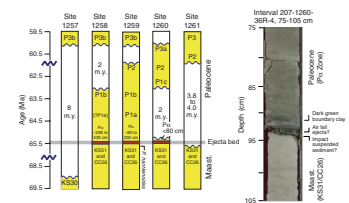
Although Demerara Rise is located some 3500 km southeast of and therefore upwind from the Chicxulub impact site, ejecta layers ~1.7–1.9 cm thick were cored at the K/T boundary in six holes at three sites (Fig. F14). This is the first such discrete K/T ejecta layer reported from the South American continent proper.

The ejecta usually rests on a 1- to 2-mm-thick white calcareous layer (Fig. F14) composed of Cretaceous microfossils that were possibly suspended into the water column by the seismic shock of the impact. The ejecta itself is typically laminated, sometimes consisting of sublayers of darker and lighter color with different concentrations of spherules, black to light green in color. These are often graded upward, and individual spherules may range in size from 1 to 2.5 mm in diameter.

Above the ejecta layer, the dark green boundary clay is relatively soft, low in carbonate, and sometimes drilling disturbed. In the most complete sections (at Sites 1258 and 1259) (Fig. F14), the greenish chalk beneath contains the latest Maastrichtian-age calcareous nanofossils *Micula prinsii* and *Micula murus* along with the corresponding planktonic foraminifers *Abathomphalus mayaroensis* and the rare *Plummerita hantkenoides*, which suggests that the Leg 207 sites preserve an unusually complete record of latest Cretaceous paleoclimate and biotic evolution.

Immediately above the boundary clay, the “disaster forms” *Braarudosphaera* and *Thoracosphaera* are present, but other nanofossils are difficult to extract from the more lithified Danian chalk farther uphole. Instead, planktonic foraminifers provide better age control for the biotic “recovery,” beginning with rather small specimens of *P. eugubina* and associated forms that distinguish the basal Tertiary Zone P α and

F14. Late Maastrichtian–Danian record, p. 71.



hence progressing upsection through Subzone P1b or Zone P2 before a disconformity intervenes.

Black Shales

At each of the five sites drilled during the course of Leg 207 a sequence of claystones rich in organic matter, referred to here as black shales (Fig. F13), was recovered. The black shale sequence has been attributed to a Cenomanian–earliest Campanian age based on biostratigraphic observations (Fig. F12). Throughout the depth transect covered by the five sites, the thickness of the black shales is relatively consistent (Site 1261: shallow, 89 m; Site 1259: shallow, 56 m; Site 1260: intermediate, 93 m; Site 1257: deep, 57 m; and Site 1258: deep, 56 m).

The black shales rest on a variety of Albian–earliest Cenomanian shallow marine to nonmarine sediments that include:

- Site 1261: upper Albian–lower Cenomanian silt–sandstones,
- Site 1259: lower Cenomanian silt–sandstones,
- Site 1260: lower–middle Albian claystones,
- Site 1257: upper Albian siltstones, and
- Site 1258: upper–middle Albian black shales and claystones.

The onset of the black shale sedimentation occurred, except at Site 1258, in the Cenomanian over a period of ~3 m.y. (Fig. F13). Because of the low resolution, poor preservation, and absence of both calcareous nanofossils and planktonic foraminifers in the lower part of the black shale succession at most sites, an accurate age assignment of the basal part has not been made. The current biostratigraphic data cannot solve the question of whether the onset of the black shales at the various sites is synchronous or diachronous over a period of ~3 m.y. in the Cenomanian. A very dark black shale interval, intercalated in the lower part of the black shale succession of the shallow sites (1259 and 1261) is of late Cenomanian–early Turonian age and may equate to OAE 2.

The top of the black shale succession is diachronous, with ages ranging from latest Turonian (Site 1258) to mid-Coniacian (Site 1260) to late Santonian (Site 1261) to early Campanian (Sites 1257 and 1259). The different ages of the cessation of black shale deposition are partly caused by postdepositional erosion and/or condensation.

Paleomagnetism

The magnetic polarity zonation in Eocene–Campanian sediments could be resolved at nearly all Leg 207 sites. Paleomagnetic investigations began with a shipboard phase, followed by an intensive shore-based analysis of ~800 minicores at the paleomagnetism laboratory at the University of Munich, Germany. In addition to revealing a more reliable magnetostratigraphy for each site, the detailed shore-based analyses of these discrete samples allowed insight into the magnetic properties and magnetic mineralogy of the sediments and a determination of paleolatitudes.

The preliminary results suggest that this region of Demerara Rise, now at ~9°–10°N latitude, was at approximately the same northern latitude during the Albian, then drifted southward during the latest Cretaceous to a location at or just south of the paleoequator during the Paleocene–middle Eocene. The near-equatorial setting implied that polarity assignments required analysis of the changing magnetic vectors

as each sample underwent progressive thermal demagnetization to remove present-day secondary overprints. The resulting polarity zonations, when constrained by shipboard biostratigraphy, could generally be unambiguously correlated to the magnetic polarity timescale. Additional shore-based paleomagnetic sampling, especially within selected stratigraphic intervals that displayed cyclic alternation of sediment, increased the resolution of the polarity chron boundaries. The combined magnetostratigraphy from shipboard and shore-based studies is included for each site in this volume:

1. At Site 1257, we resolved Chrons C17n–C20r (middle Eocene), Chrons C24r–C26n (late Paleocene), and Chrons C31r–upper C33n (Maastrichtian/Campanian boundary).
2. At Site 1258, we obtained a high-resolution record of Chrons C20r–C26r (middle Eocene–late Paleocene) and Chrons C29r to potentially C33r (Maastrichtian–late Campanian).
3. At Site 1259, Chrons C18r–C24r (middle Eocene–latest Paleocene) are well defined, and a tentative assignment was made for Chrons C29r–C31r (Maastrichtian).
4. At Site 1260, we obtained a high-resolution record of Chrons C18r–C21r (middle Eocene), and lower-resolution identification of Chrons C3n–C26n (early Eocene–late Paleocene) and C29r–C31r (Maastrichtian–late Campanian).
5. At Site 1261, Chrons C19r–C21r (middle Eocene), Chrons C24r–C27n (early Eocene–early Paleocene), and Chrons C29r–C31r (Maastrichtian) were delimited.

The main goals for postcruise paleomagnetic studies are to utilize sediment magnetic characteristics to examine bottom environments during the latest Paleocene and earliest Eocene, to obtain astronomical calibration of the durations of Eocene–Campanian polarity chrons, and to compile a detailed paleolatitude motion of Demerara Rise.

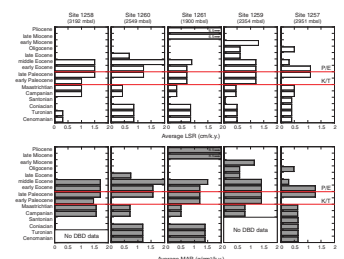
Sedimentation and Accumulation Rates

Linear sedimentation rates (LSRs) were derived from age–depth models at each of the Leg 207 sites with current stratigraphic resolution. At all sites, the sediment sequences contain intervals of apparently continuous sedimentation separated by distinctive hiatuses, condensed intervals, and/or mass flows. Each of the hiatuses recognized comprises, based on biostratigraphic dating, at least 1 m.y.

Linear Sedimentation Rates of Cretaceous Black Shales

The absence of biostratigraphic zonal markers, as well as the extensive Normal Polarity Superchron C34n, restricted the age assignment in most of the Lower–Upper Cretaceous sequences recovered during Leg 207 (Albian–Santonian). Therefore, LSRs calculated for these intervals should be considered as imprecise estimates. These intervals include the black shale sequences (Cenomanian–Santonian) that were characterized by LSRs of 3–5 m/m.y. at Sites 1257, 1258, and 1259 and slightly higher values of ~8.5 m/m.y. at Sites 1260 and 1261 (corresponding to 0.3–0.9 cm/k.y. in Fig. F15). In addition, mass accumulation rate (MAR) calculations were limited by the lack of reliable dry bulk density data at Sites 1258 and 1259.

F15. Summary of LSRs and MARs, p. 72.



Significant LSR and MAR Increases across the K/T Boundary

Average LSRs increased markedly across the K/T boundary interval at all sites (Fig. F15). They were at least 1.5 and up to 2.8 times higher during the Paleogene (Paleocene–Eocene) than rates recorded during the latest Cretaceous (Campanian–Maastrichtian). There is no discernible change in LSRs across the P/E boundary interval at all Leg 207 sites (Fig. F15). Late Paleocene and early Eocene LSRs ranged from 7 to 15 m/m.y. (Fig. F15), rates typical for pelagic nannofossil chalk, which is the dominant lithology in this interval. The middle Eocene interval is characterized by a decrease in LSRs from 11 m/m.y. (during the early Eocene) to 3 m/m.y. at Site 1257, whereas a relative increase in LSRs is recorded for the same time interval at Sites 1260 (from 12 to 20.5 m/m.y.) and 1261 (from 7 to 9 m/m.y.) (Fig. F15).

MAR calculations, using the LSRs and average dry bulk density data, allow for a better assessment of sedimentation processes because the influence of compaction has been taken into account. This effect is clearly illustrated at Site 1261, where overburden by Neogene sediments on the Paleogene chinks is greatest and, hence, is reflected in lowest LSRs calculated for the Paleogene sequences on Demerara Rise. However, MARs are comparable to those found at the less deeply buried sediments at Site 1257 (Fig. F15). In contrast, at Site 1258, where the change in LSR across the K/T boundary was least pronounced, MARs only increased by 10% during the Paleocene and Eocene, compared to 50% using LSR only (Fig. F15). Nevertheless, the conclusion that sedimentation rates, hiatuses notwithstanding, were higher overall during the Paleogene than during the Late Cretaceous still holds when MARs are considered.

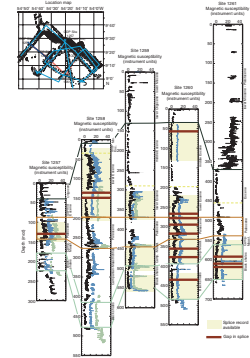
Glimpses of Neogene Sedimentation Rates: Site 1261

Neogene oozes recovered during Leg 207 are too thin relative to sampling density at four of the five sites for a meaningful sedimentation rate to be calculated. In addition, slumps and hiatuses occur in these sequences. At Site 1261, however, the upper 368 m contains a thin Pleistocene interval separated by a gap of ~3 m.y. from an interval of upper Miocene–Pliocene nannofossil clay and nannofossil ooze. Sedimentation rates for this Miocene–Pliocene section are the highest calculated for Demerara Rise (65 m/m.y.) (Fig. F15). This interval of high sedimentation rates sits above a thick (60 m) series of mass flow deposits that occupy a stratigraphic position corresponding to a >30-m.y. gap in pelagic sedimentation.

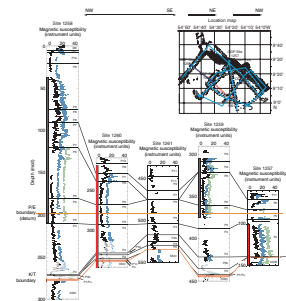
Cyclostratigraphy

Intervals of complete recovery were obtained by multiple coring, particularly through the middle–upper Eocene and Cenomanian–Campanian (Fig. F16). Rotary coring and moderate recovery prevented sampling the complete stratigraphy everywhere, however. Where overlap existed in the Paleocene–lower Eocene (Fig. F17) and Campanian and Maastrichtian (Fig. F18) sequences, magnetic susceptibility was generally the best correlation tool, reflecting varying percentages of carbonate and clay. In the Cenomanian–Santonian black shales, GRA bulk density allowed good correlation among holes where organic-rich laminated claystones alternate with more calcareous well-indurated sediments (Fig. F19).

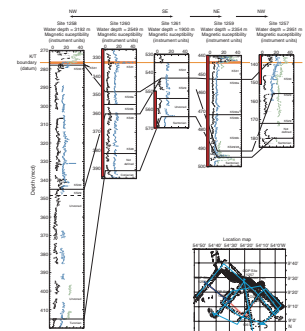
F16. Magnetic susceptibility profiles, p. 73.



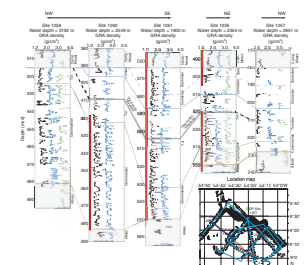
F17. Paleocene–lower Eocene magnetic susceptibility, p. 74.



F18. Campanian–Maastrichtian magnetic susceptibility, p. 75.



F19. GRA bulk density profiles, p. 76.



In the lower and middle Eocene, splices were created for Sites 1258, 1259, and 1260 (Fig. F16). At these sites, the splice sections span the P/E boundary. Splices also were constructed that span the K/T boundary at Sites 1259 and 1260, where the boundary is conformable and contains the ejecta layer (Figs. F17, F18). A splice also was generated for Site 1257, where the base of the Paleocene is an unconformity. It was possible to create a splice section that covered the entire Campanian–Maastriichtian succession at Sites 1259 and 1260. For Sites 1259, 1260, and 1261, sampling splices were created that cover all or nearly all of the Cretaceous black shales.

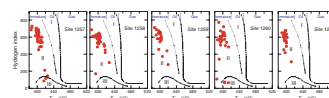
Organic Geochemistry

Cenomanian–Santonian sequences, extraordinarily rich in organic carbon, were recovered at all five sites cored during Leg 207. The finely laminated, dark-colored organic-rich claystones typically contain 2–15 wt% organic carbon, and they range in thickness from 56 m at Sites 1258 and 1259 to 93 m at Site 1260. These thick and extensive black shales are part of the global burial of huge amounts of organic carbon on the seafloor during OAEs 2 and 3.

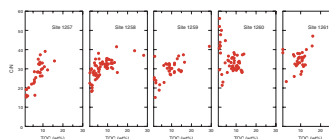
Organic geochemical properties of the black shales measured during Leg 207 reveal aspects of the exceptional conditions of organic matter production and preservation involved in their formation. The results of Rock-Eval pyrolysis show that the bulk of the organic matter originates from algal and microbial primary production (Fig. F20). Extractable biomarker hydrocarbon compositions suggest that relative proportions of algal and microbial contributions of organic matter vary in different parts of the black shale sequences (see Forster et al., this volume). Hydrocarbon distributions from some parts are dominated by the acyclic tetraterpenoid lycopane, which is indicative of microbial productivity (Brassell et al., 1981). In other parts, the algal C_{15} – C_{19} *n*-alkanes dominate. The presence of both algal and microbial biomarkers suggests that organic matter production was enhanced by a consortium of primary producers. Brassell et al. (1981) postulate expansion of an intensified oxygen minimum zone into the photic zone led to black shale deposition at DSDP Site 144, which was recored as Site 1257 during Leg 207. This paleoenvironment probably permitted the coexistence of algae and the photosynthetic microbes that function best under dysaerobic and anaerobic conditions.

Organic matter is thermally immature, as shown by both the high Rock-Eval hydrogen index and low T_{max} values (Fig. F20) and also by the dominance of nonrearranged steranes (see Forster et al., this volume). In addition, improved organic matter preservation is implied by $C_{organic}/N_{total}$ ratios that increase to ~40 as organic carbon concentrations increase (Fig. F21). Values above ~20 are usually considered typical of land-plant organic matter, but such elevated ratios are also common to Cretaceous black shales (Meyers, 1997). Consequently, most of the elevated C/N values that mimic those of land-derived organic matter are likely to be the result of retarded selective alteration of algal and microbial organic matter. A likely scenario is that nitrogen-rich components were more readily degraded than other organic matter components during sinking of organic matter through a strongly developed oxygen minimum zone, thereby elevating the C/N ratio of the surviving organic matter (Twichell et al., 2002).

F20. Hydrogen index and T_{max} values, p. 77.



F21. TOC and C/N in black shales, p. 78.



Contributions of land-derived organic matter are also evident in the black shales. Some of the *n*-alkane distributions of the 10 samples that compose the biomarker survey are dominated by the C₂₉ and C₃₁ components diagnostic of land-plant waxes (see Forster et al., this volume). These hydrocarbon compositions do not indicate a dominance of land-plant organic matter in the black shales, inasmuch as land plants contain larger proportions of hydrocarbons than do algae and microbes (e.g., Meyers, 1997), but they do confirm the presence of continental plant debris. However, the proportion of land-plant material appears to become important in some of the lower Cenomanian black shales from Site 1260 in which C/N ratios are between 40 and 60 (Fig. F21).

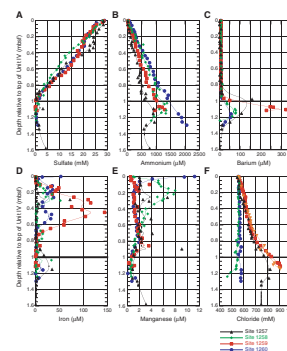
Concentrations of interstitial methane in the sediment sequences at all five Leg 207 sites increase abruptly in the black shales, where they reach their peak values. The possible relation between sediment organic matter contents and gas concentrations was tested by measuring the organic carbon concentrations of the headspace sediment samples at three of the sites. A rough correspondence exists between higher TOC and greater gas concentrations (see Meyers et al., this volume). Marked excursions from a simple linear relation suggest that the type of organic matter, and not simply the amount, affects gas generation from the black shales. Because of the low thermal maturity of organic matter at all five sites (Fig. F20) and the predominance of methane in the interstitial gases, the origin of the gases is probably from in situ microbial activity. Dramatic decreases in methane concentrations above the black shale units suggest that methane oxidation, which consumes interstitial sulfate, proceeds in overlying units (see “Interstitial Water Geochemistry,” below, and Meyers et al., this volume). Moreover, active generation of gas must exist in the black shales to replace losses from that migration and to maintain the elevated gas concentrations in these lithostratigraphic units.

Interstitial Water Geochemistry

Interstitial waters from 152 samples were collected at all five sites cored on Demerara Rise, covering a depth range from the sediment/seawater interface to 648 mbsf. This comparably dense interstitial water sampling program was conducted to understand the impact of relatively deep-seated organic matter-rich black shale sequences on diagenetic processes along the paleoceanographic transect. At all sites (except Site 1261), sulfate and ammonium gradients are essentially linear from the sediment/seawater interface to the top of the black shale sequence (Fig. F22A, F22B). These results indicate the following:

1. Nearly 100 m.y. after deposition, the black shale sequence continues to act as a bioreactor that dominates interstitial water chemistry.
2. Sulfate reduction is of minor importance at shallower depth intervals.
3. The resulting downhole profiles are controlled by the existence of one major stratigraphic sulfate sink and ammonium source (Cretaceous black shales) and simple compensatory diffusion from and/or to the sediment/seawater interface. We interpret the linearity of these profiles to reflect minimal accumulation of sediments younger than middle Eocene age at Sites 1257–1260. Methane diffusing upward from the black shales may furnish

F22. Interstitial water chemical constituents, p. 79.



metabolic activity above the black shale unit, possibly anaerobic methane oxidation.

Despite the reducing character of the sedimentary column at all Leg 207 sites, only very low pore water concentrations of manganese and iron are attained in the black shales (Fig. F22D, F22E). Our favored working hypothesis for this observation is that these redox-sensitive metals were completely remobilized during or shortly after the host organic matter-rich units were deposited, implying conditions of syndimentary oxygen depletion. In contrast, high dissolved barium levels ($>300 \mu\text{M}$) are attained in the black shales (Fig. F22C), indicating ongoing mobilization of barium where sulfate concentrations are lowest. Uphole diffusion of barium and downhole diffusion of sulfate from the sediment/water interface give rise to authigenic barite formation in the overlying Campanian–Paleogene sediments (see “Lithostratigraphy,” p. 37).

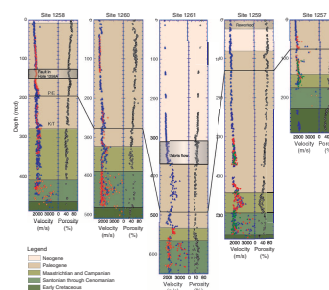
The other prominent features seen in the Leg 207 interstitial water data set are chloride anomalies (Fig. F22F). At Sites 1257, 1259, and 1261, we see increases in chloride concentration downhole $>60\%$ above standard seawater. Based on the depth profiles obtained at Site 1257 (where data are available from significantly below the black shales), we infer that the shale sequence acts as an aquifer for brines at these sites. At Sites 1258 and 1260, we observe relatively low salinity and chloride concentration anomalies between ~ 300 and 500 mbsf (up to 17% freshening relative to seawater). Low-chlorinity anomalies such as those seen at Site 1258 are not easy to interpret with confidence on the basis of shipboard data alone. Significant concentrations of methane in head-space gas analyses ($>50,000$ ppmv) (see “Organic Geochemistry,” p. 45) are consistent with the anomalies having been caused by dissociation of gas hydrates. Alternative explanations for the chloride anomalies are clay dehydration reactions and dilution by meteoric water. The former possibility seems unlikely given the lithologies encountered, but the latter possibility cannot be excluded even though the nearest landmass is located ~ 350 – 400 km away.

Physical Properties and Downhole Logging

Four of the five sites were logged during Leg 207 (Holes 1257A, 1258C, 1260B, and 1261B), all cores were passed through the MST, and discrete samples were measured for index properties and velocity. Downhole logging runs included the triple combo tool string with the Multi-Sensor Spectral Gamma Ray Tool (MGT) and the FMS-sonic and WST tool strings, acquiring borehole diameter and wall imagery, formation acoustic velocity, density, porosity, electrical resistivity, natural gamma radiation, and direct acoustic traveltimes. Logging data from Leg 207 show a high degree of correlation with the physical property data, which includes index properties, P -wave velocities, GRA densities, and NGR emissions.

Index property trends, corroborated by the porosity, density, and velocity logs, generally indicate normal consolidation from the surface to the depth of the K/T boundary. Significant perturbations in these profiles are coincident with the P/E and K/T boundaries as well as various hiatuses and mass flow deposits. At Sites 1257–1260, acoustic velocity increases linearly with depth until the P/E boundary (Fig. F23). In the interval between the P/E and K/T boundaries, velocity varies about a fixed baseline, with cyclical fluctuations reflecting changes in sediment composition and degree of lithification. These variations are well repre-

F23. Velocity and porosity profiles, p. 80.



sented in the high-resolution FMS images, MGT gamma ray and porosity logs, and MST GRA densities, all providing an excellent opportunity for cyclostratigraphic analysis. At Site 1261, a 310-m-thick Neogene sequence of normally consolidated clay-rich material overlies a 60-m-thick debris flow and a highly indurated middle Eocene sequence that is unique in character to this particular site (Fig. F23).

Across the K/T boundary and through most of the Cretaceous, all sites show a high degree of similarity in the physical property and downhole logs. Highly lithified Maastrichtian chalks gradationally change to low-velocity, high-porosity calcareous claystones with glauconite-rich horizons at their base. This change is readily tracked in both the downhole MGT natural gamma ray logs and the NGR records from the MST.

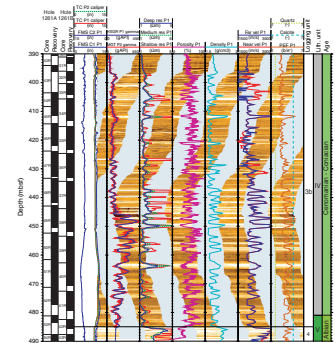
Through the black shale intervals, the wireline data provide a continuous record of the stratigraphy that is readily interpreted in terms of organic- and clay-rich intervals interbedded with carbonate-cemented layers. High-resolution MST data through the shales shows excellent agreement with the downhole logs. Coupled with high recovery through these sequences, the generation of a core-log composite stratigraphy at all logged sites should be possible. Figure F24 shows the black shale sequence in Hole 1260B, with the carbonate-cemented layers readily picked out with low gamma ray and porosity and high resistivity (white bands in the FMS images), density, velocity, and photoelectric absorption cross-section index (Pe) values. Strong physical property contrasts characterize the transition from the black shales to the underlying Albian synrift sediment. These latter rocks are characterized by very high velocity and density values.

Seismic Stratigraphy

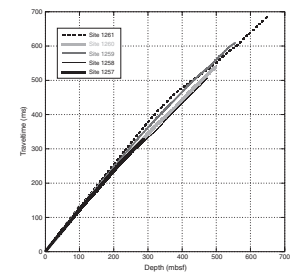
The seismic stratigraphy for the Demerara Rise study area is characterized by five key reflectors (Reflectors O, A, B, B', and C) that define four main seismostratigraphic units (Units 1–4) and one minor unit (Unit Q). A seismic track map with seafloor bathymetry is presented in Figure F2. In each site chapter, physical property data (in particular, velocity and density) derived from laboratory measurements on core and from downhole logging were used to generate synthetic seismograms. These seismograms were matched to seismic reflection profiles across each site to provide quantitative ties from core and logging results, which are in the depth domain to seismic data that are in the time domain. The results of these ties are summarized in Figure F25. Although these data are presented in each site chapter, there was no attempt to correlate seismic reflection profile data to lithology. Using the information derived from the synthetic seismograms, seismic profiles across each drill site have been depth migrated and matched against the summary lithologic column (Figs. F26, F27, F28, F29, F30). These results permit the seismic profiles to be interpreted with certainty and allow lithostratigraphic units to be correlated site to site and regionally across Demerara Rise.

Reflector C is clearly defined as the base of the black shales, and the underlying sediments of Unit 4 are Albian-age claystone, clayey siltstone, and sandstone. Site 1260 sampled the deepest below Horizon C (40 m). It is uncertain whether any of these sediments were truly synrift or whether they represent undeformed shallow-water clastic sediments following rifting. Horizon C is presently at ~2650 mbsl at Site 1261 (the

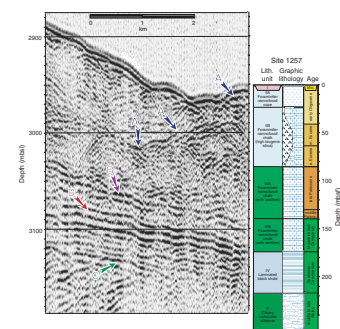
F24. Stratigraphy of the black shale interval, p. 81.



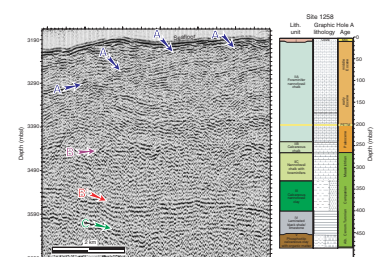
F25. Seismic traveltime vs. depth, p. 82.



F26. Seismic profile, line Geob220, p. 83.



F27. Seismic profile, line Geob221, p. 84.



shallowest site) and dips 0.7° to the north (Fig. F31). At Site 1258 (the deepest site), Horizon C is at 3700 mbsl.

The complete sediment sequence from the seafloor to Horizon C is >1000 m thick south of Site 1261. It gradually thins to the north and rapidly thins near the flanks of the rise. It is ~200 m thick on the upper slope of the flank and then rapidly drops to zero, as the sediment is not retained on the very steep slopes (see Fig. F4, p. 8, in Shipboard Scientific Party ["Site Survey and Underway Geophysics"], this volume).

Seismic Unit 3 lies between Reflectors C and B. Horizon B' is within seismic Unit 3, and it correlates with the top of the black shale sequence (lithostratigraphic Unit IV) at each site, except Site 1259. At this location, it correlates slightly above Unit IV, probably due to an expanded gradational sequence of organic-rich glauconitic claystone above the black shales. The top of seismic Unit 3 is Reflector B, a regional high-amplitude reflector that correlates with the K/T boundary at every site. This surface dips rather uniformly at $\sim 1^\circ$ to the northwest. The thickness of Unit 3 is locally variable but, in general, increases from ~120 m in the south (Site 1261) to >300 m thick in the northwest between Sites 1258 and 1260.

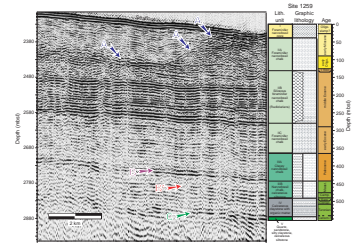
Seismic Unit 2 lies between Reflectors B and A. Horizon A correlates everywhere to the top of lithostratigraphic Unit II, a variable nannofossil chalk sequence that is mostly Eocene but possibly as young as early Miocene. Horizon A is believed to result from an episode of extensive erosion during the early Miocene. The surface of Reflector A dips toward the northwest and is at ~2100 mbsl at Site 1261 and 3200 mbsl at Site 1258. This surface appears to be channelized, but seismic line density is insufficient to discern much detail. Unit 2 is highly variable in thickness as a result of differential amounts of erosion but, in general, thins toward the northwest. At Site 1260, for example, the seismic unit is 180 m thick, whereas at Site 1259 it is 400 m thick.

Reflector A forms the base of seismic Unit 1. The top of Unit I is typically the seafloor because Reflector O and seismic Unit Q are rarely present. Unit 1 correlates with unlithified or semilithified sediment, such as the 300-m-thick succession of Miocene–Pliocene nannofossil clay at Site 1261. The unit is absent at other sites. Seismic lines show that its thickness is highly variable because its lower bounding surface is Reflector A. Its maximum thickness is >350 m, and it thins toward the west and northwest.

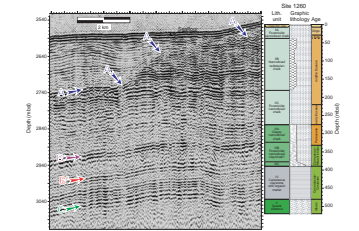
Seismic Unit Q rarely is resolved on seismic reflection profiles, but at Site 1261 it is nearly 30 m thick (Fig. F30). At this location, Reflector O correlates with the base of lithostratigraphic Subunit IA, a Pleistocene nannofossil ooze. Reflector O represents an unconformity, separating Pleistocene and younger sediment from the middle Miocene. Reflections in Unit 1 sometimes truncate against Reflector O.

In summary, strong physical property contrasts in lithostratigraphic units, as described from Leg 207 drilling results on Demerara Rise, translate to excellent correlation with seismic units and even with some single-reflection events. Depth-migrated seismic reflection profiles consistently match summary lithologic columns as a result. Seismic reflection data can be used to confidently correlate from site to site and across the Demerara Rise study area.

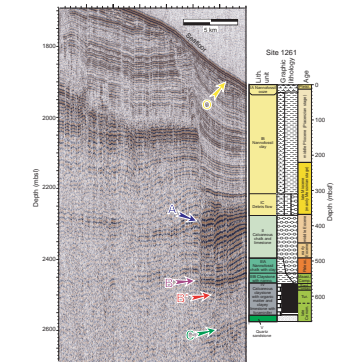
F28. Seismic profile, line Geob219, p. 85.



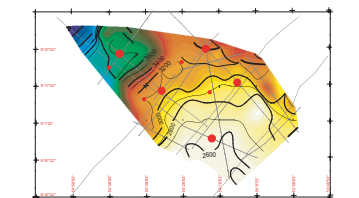
F29. Seismic profile, line Geob215, p. 86.



F30. Seismic profile, line Geob213, p. 87.



F31. Horizon C surface map, p. 88.



Cretaceous–Neogene Depositional History of Demerara Rise

The mid-Cretaceous (Albian) to Neogene history of Demerara Rise reflects multiple depositional episodes during the late rifting and drifting stage of a continental margin that saw different sedimentological regimes separated by several hiatuses of varying duration. Transform movements related to the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway are believed to have influenced the sedimentary history during the Cenomanian–Campanian stages.

The oldest sediments recovered during Leg 207 are early Albian in age. At the deepest site of the depth transect (Site 1258), they are represented by organic carbon-rich claystones with phosphatic pebbles. Ammonites and microfossils recovered from this interval indicate open marine conditions in a probable epicontinental basin. Upslope (at Site 1260), an increase of siliciclastic detritus indicates a sedimentary environment closer to the sediment source. Probable tidal flat deposits of unknown age (Albian?), represent the oldest sequence recovered at the shallow end of the transect (Site 1259). Shallow-water environments are also indicated by marine quartz sandstone with occasional ammonite casts and shell debris recovered at the shallow sites (Sites 1261 and 1259) and at Site 1257, where they unconformably overlie middle–upper Albian open marine clays. These sandstones are late Albian–late Cenomanian in age. Early Cretaceous shallow-water carbonates and Aptian–Albian open marine marls have been recovered in industry wells farther south. These data suggest that Demerara Rise was a submarine high, separated from South America by a shallow-marine epicontinental basin.

Black shale deposition at Demerara Rise started in the middle Albian at the deep end of the transect. At this location, sediments are overlain by a lower–middle Cenomanian sequence of storm-induced layers intercalated with black shales, which might be laterally equivalent to the quartz sandstone upslope. No upper Albian sediments have been identified. Elsewhere, middle–upper Cenomanian black shales overlie a prominent unconformity that separates them from the underlying Albian–lower Cenomanian clays and sandstones, which represent the synrift deposits on Demerara Rise.

Cyclic successions of middle–upper Cenomanian organic matter-rich black shale with abundant phosphatic pebbles and fish remains and laminated foraminiferal packstone are believed to represent the first shallow hemipelagic sediments on Demerara Rise. They reflect high surface water productivity and dysoxic bottom water conditions. The thickness of the Cenomanian sequence on Demerara Rise changes greatly (8–80 m). This may be the result of either varying subsidence histories of different small slope basins or the middle–late Cenomanian sea level rise and the consequent transgressive onlap. However, the onset of black shale deposition at the shallow sites dates as late Cenomanian. There, dark TOC-rich shales yield very low diversity reduced planktonic faunas and calcareous nannoplankton of the genus *Eprolithus*, which indicate a very shallow-marine to lagoonal setting.

High-productivity conditions, probably related to local upwelling, continued until the early Campanian, with most extreme conditions during OAE 2. Clayey bentonite layers indicate the proximity of volcanoes. Occasional glauconite-rich horizons are interpreted as either an oxygenation event or reduced sedimentation rates. Debris flow deposits, slumped intervals, and condensed horizons occur in the upper Turo-

nian–lower Campanian section. Black shale deposition on Demerara Rise ends in the Santonian–early Campanian.

No middle–late early Campanian sediments were recovered, and the upper Campanian yields glauconite-rich horizons indicating reduced sedimentation rates. It is believed that the cessation of black shale sedimentation, low sedimentation rates, and hiatuses are related to oceanographic modifications and transform motions following the opening of the Equatorial Atlantic Gateway. Oxic conditions were established by the late Campanian, when sedimentation on Demerara Rise changed from hemipelagic to pelagic. The abundance of radiolarians in the Campanian indicates high surface water productivity. The cyclic pattern of trace fossil abundance suggests repeated recurrence of variations in bottom water oxygenation.

Maastrichtian–Oligocene sediments at Demerara Rise consist of pelagic deep marine nannofossil and foraminiferal chalks and oozes deposited in an upper bathyal setting. The succession records the lithologic consequences of the K/T boundary impact and the abrupt global warming associated with the P/E boundary. The high abundance of radiolarians in middle Eocene sediments is related to upwelling conditions. Because of a major erosional event in the early Miocene, Oligocene sediments on Demerara Rise are often reworked or reduced in thickness.

Neogene sediments on the slopes of Demerara Rise are rather patchy. As a probable result of Amazon plumes, upper Miocene–Pliocene sediments are clay rich and sedimentation rates can be very high (Site 1261). However, no upper Pliocene and only very thin veneers of Pleistocene and Holocene clay-rich sediments are present.

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Figure F1. Regional location map. The boxed area represents the approximate Leg 207 operational area on Demerara Rise, which is shown in detail on Figure F2, p. 59.

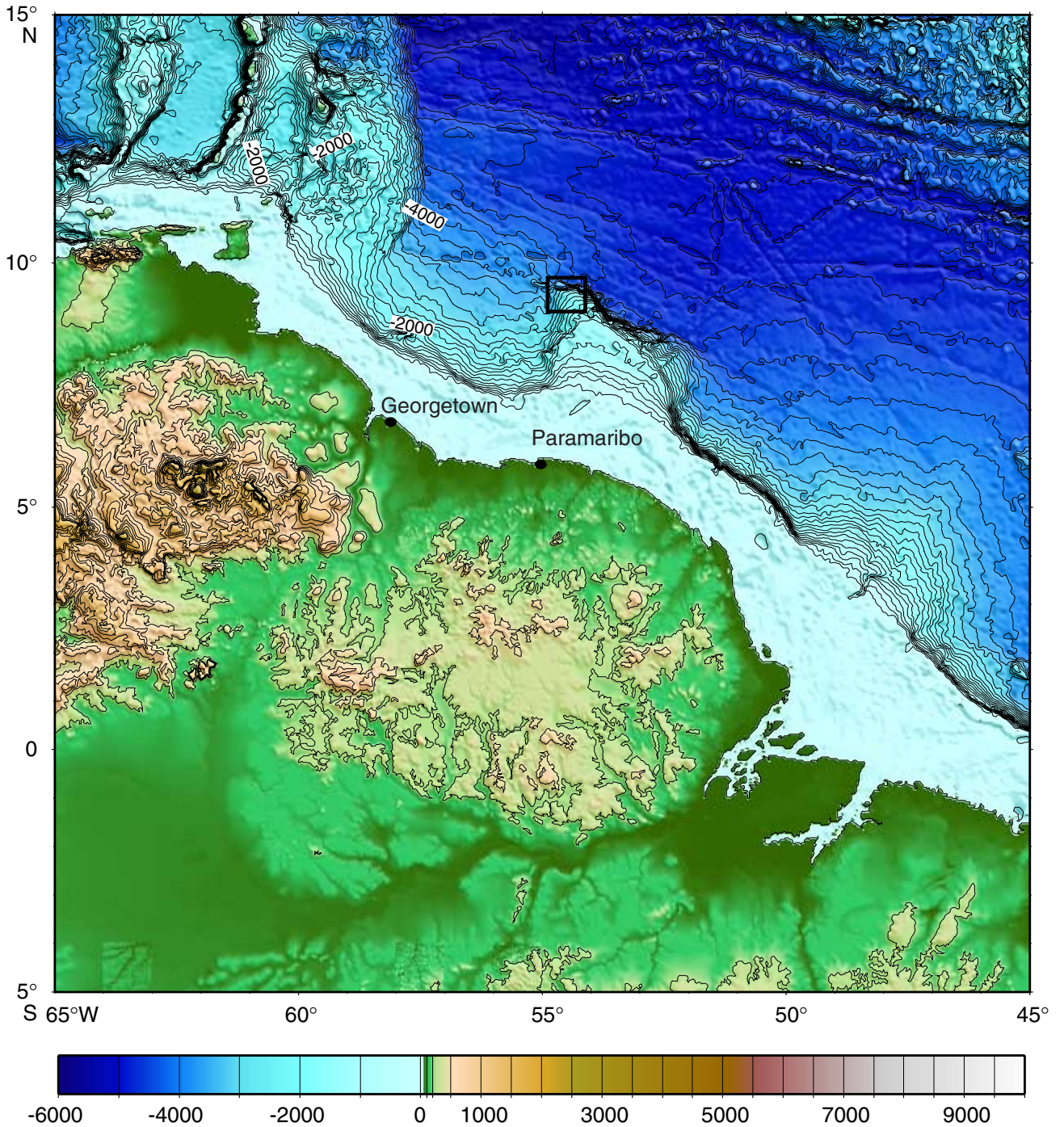


Figure F2. Seismic survey track lines over bathymetry. The bathymetry was compiled from the seafloor pick of the seismic data. Map modified after www.odsn.de.

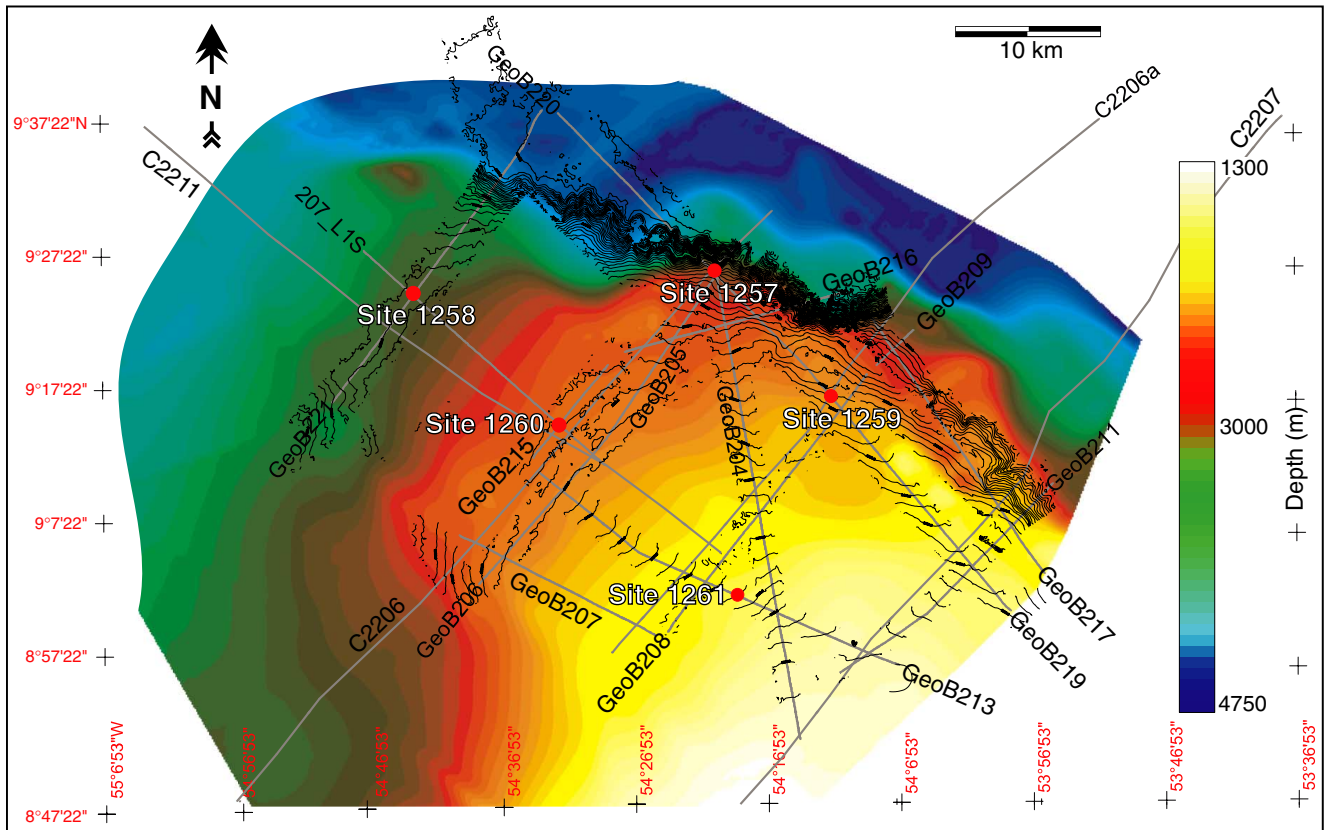


Figure F3. Global paleogeographic reconstruction of the Late Cretaceous, showing the position of Demerara Rise in the early South Atlantic.

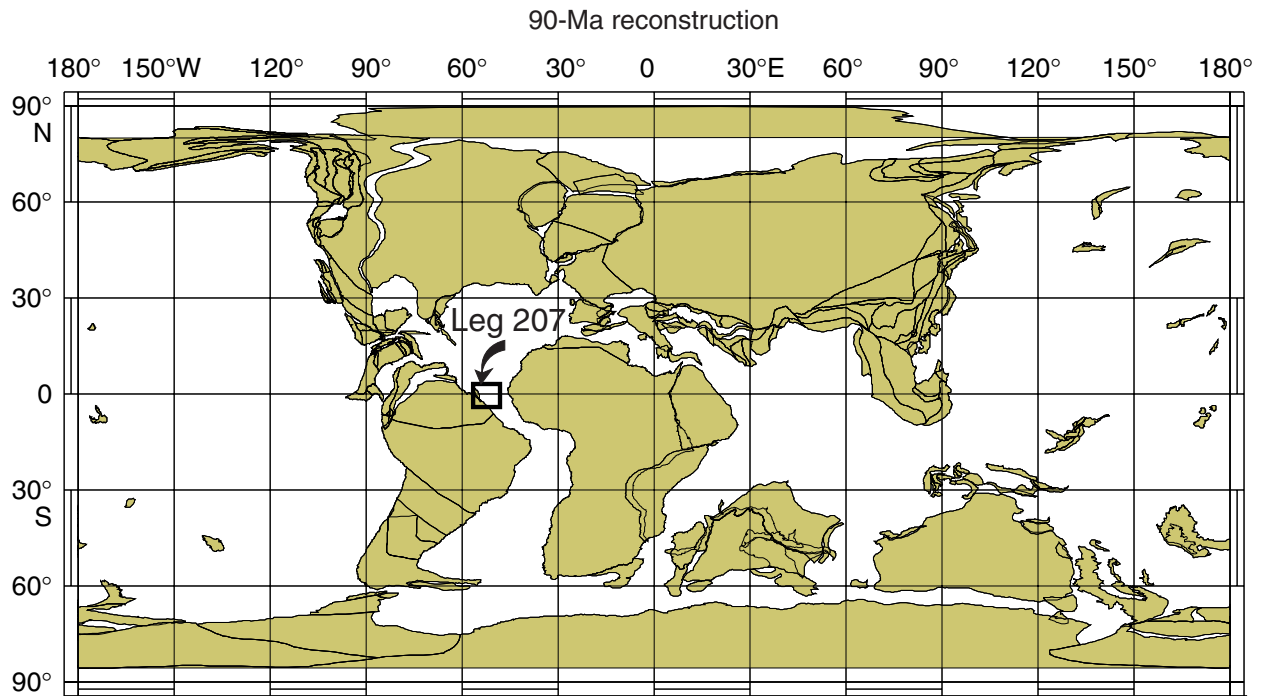


Figure F4. Stratigraphy of industry well A2-1 in relation to multichannel seismic (MCS) line SU7657A. TD = total depth.

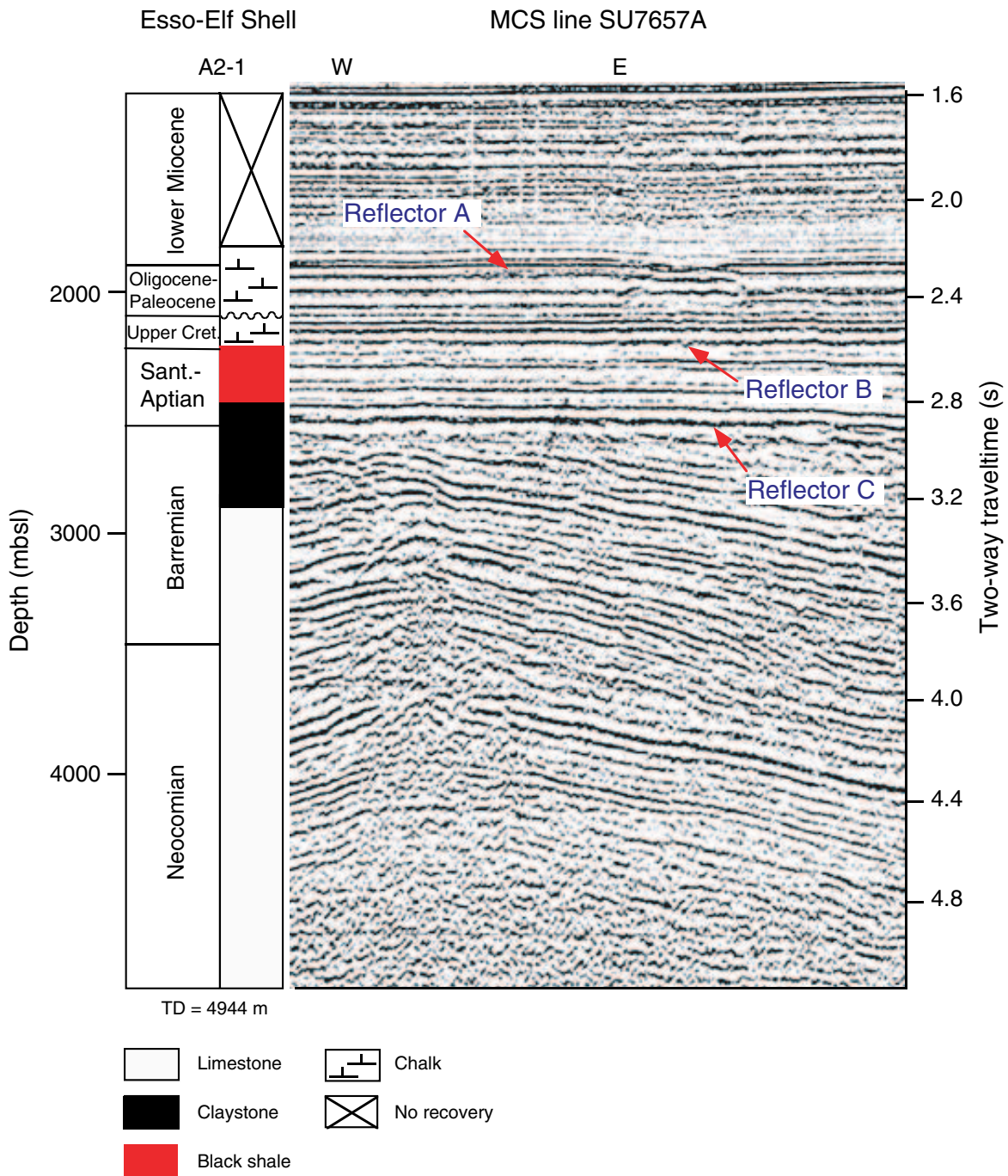


Figure F5. Summary of major geochemical, tectonic, sea level, and plankton evolutionary events associated with mid-Cretaceous oceanic anoxic events (OAEs) (from Leckie et al., 2002). VPDB = Vienna Peedee belemnite.

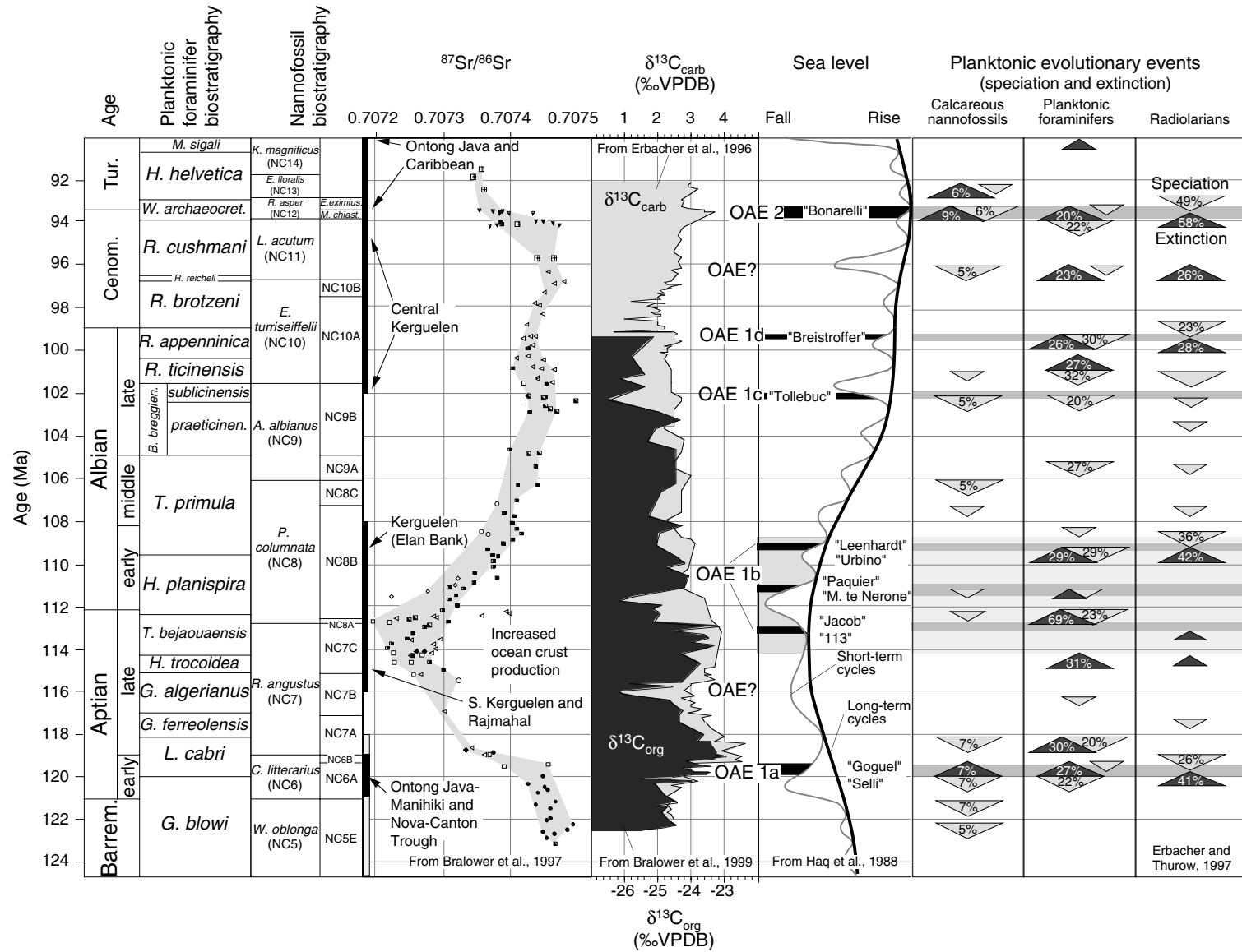


Figure F6. Comparison of Cretaceous $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ temperature records indicate a 20- to 40-m.y. mismatch between peak Cretaceous–Cenozoic warmth and peak Cretaceous–Cenozoic tectonic CO_2 production inferred from ocean crust cycling (after Wilson et al., 2002). Open symbols = “glassy” foraminifers from the low-latitude western Atlantic, Gulf Coast, and Tanzania. Solid symbols = bulk carbonate from the high-latitude southern Indian Ocean. All temperatures are conservative values calculated assuming δw = mean Cretaceous seawater and would be $3^\circ\text{--}6^\circ\text{C}$ higher if modern latitudinal trends in δw were applied. VPDB = Vienna Pee Dee belemnite.

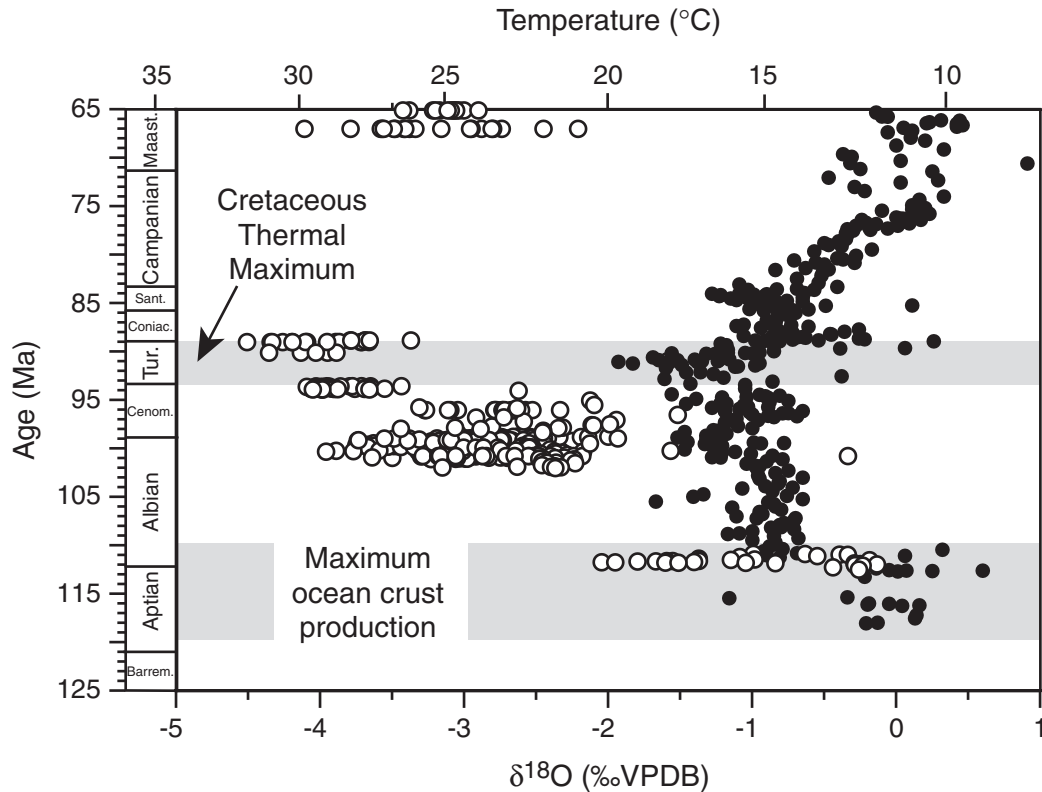


Figure F7. Cenozoic events in climate, tectonics, and biota vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in benthic foraminiferal calcite (after Zachos et al., 2001). VPDB = Vienna Pee Dee belemnite.

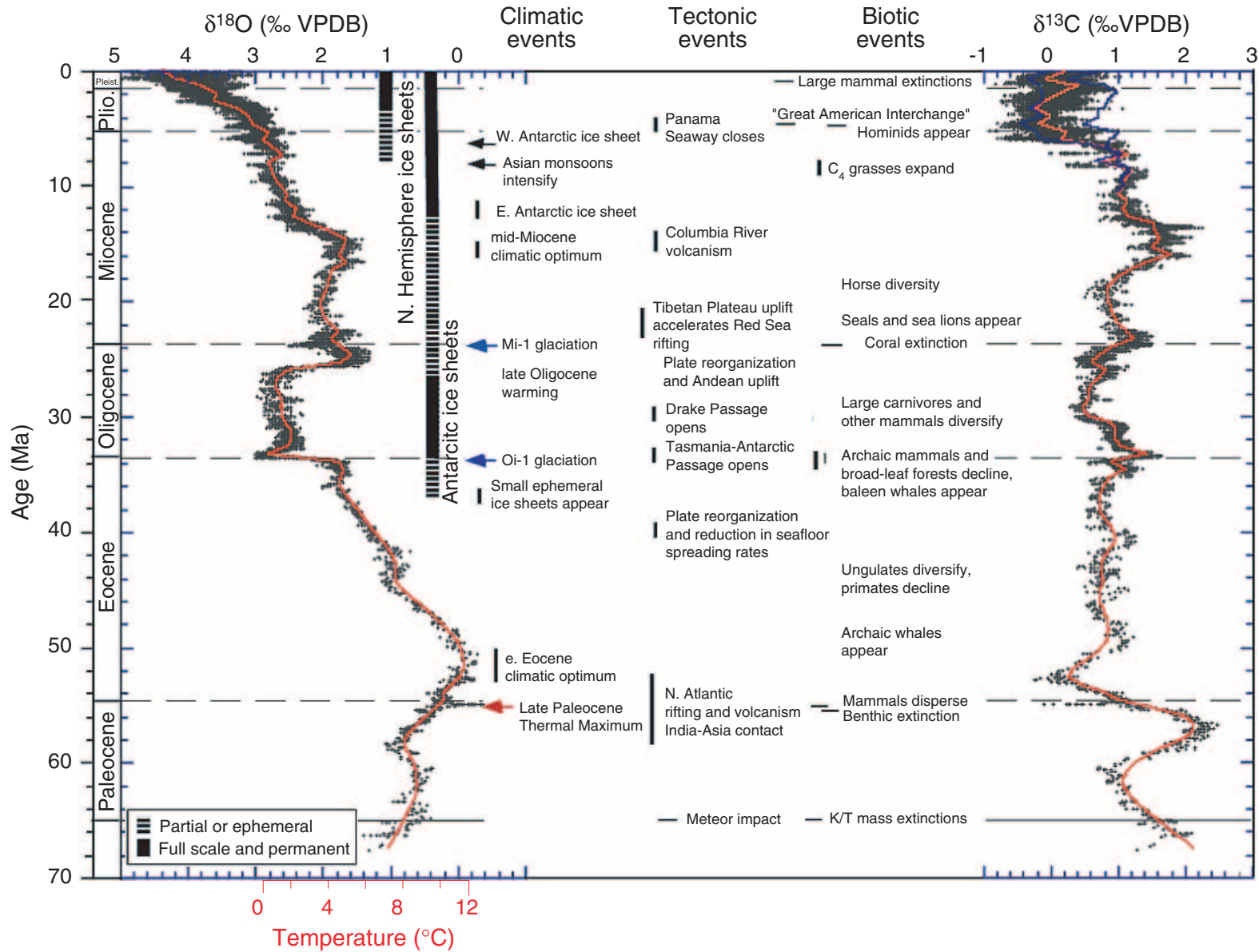


Figure F8. Schematic illustration of the distribution of lithostratigraphic units and major breaks in sedimentation recognized during Leg 207. Unit V is dominated by clastics, Unit IV by organic-rich deposits, and Units I–III by pelagic microfossils with variable clay contents.

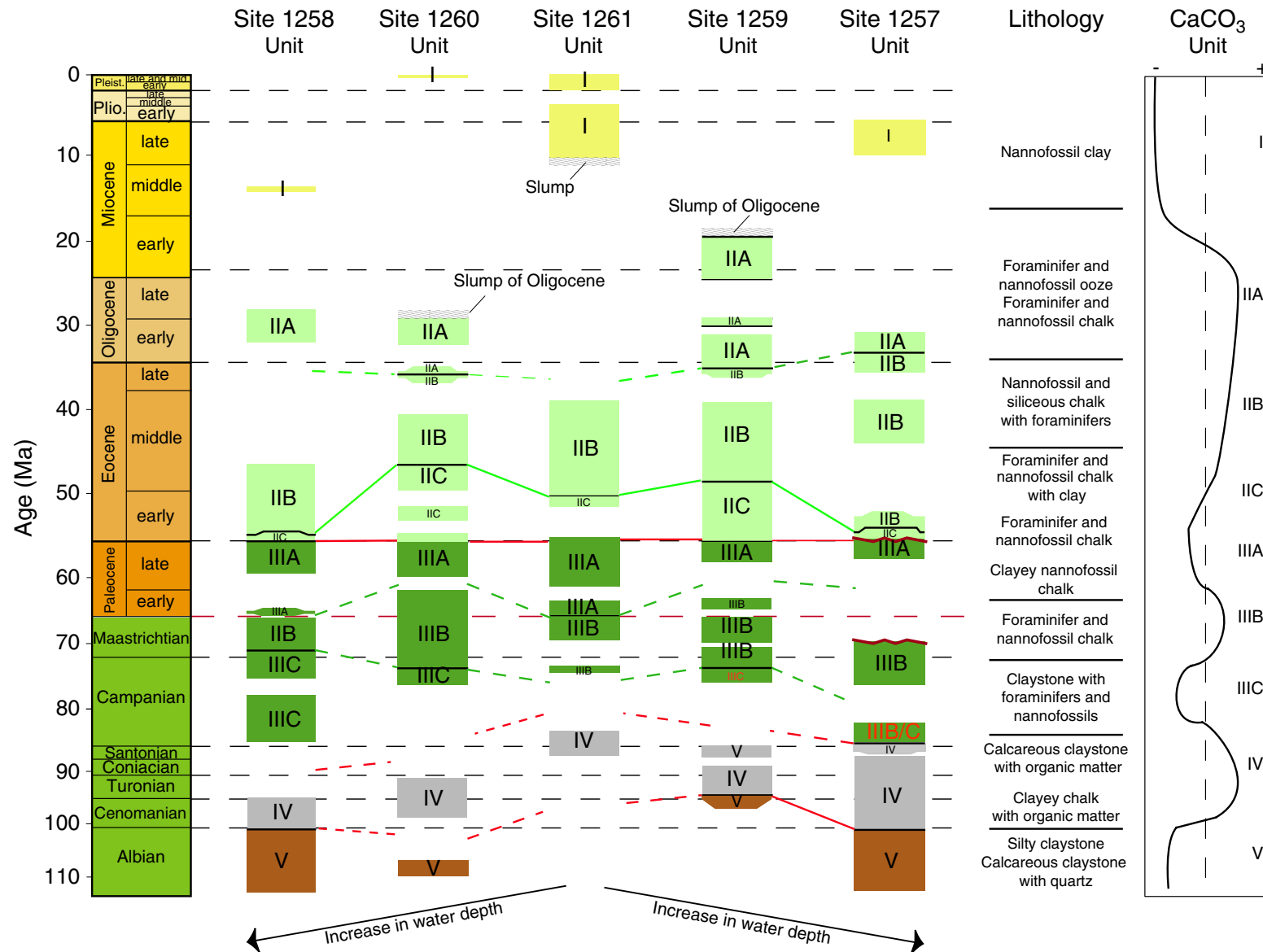


Figure F9. Close-up photographs of the P/E and K/T boundary intervals recovered during Leg 207. Each section is in meters above and below the boundary intervals. **A.** The P/E boundary interval is hung on the clay layer interpreted as the lithologic expression of shoaling of the CCD associated with the benthic extinction event and carbon isotope excursion. **B.** The K/T boundary interval is hung on the base of the spherule layer interpreted as a primary air fall deposit of material ejected by the K/T impact. **C.** Locality map of the Leg 207 sites on Demerara Rise. The water depth for each site is indicated.

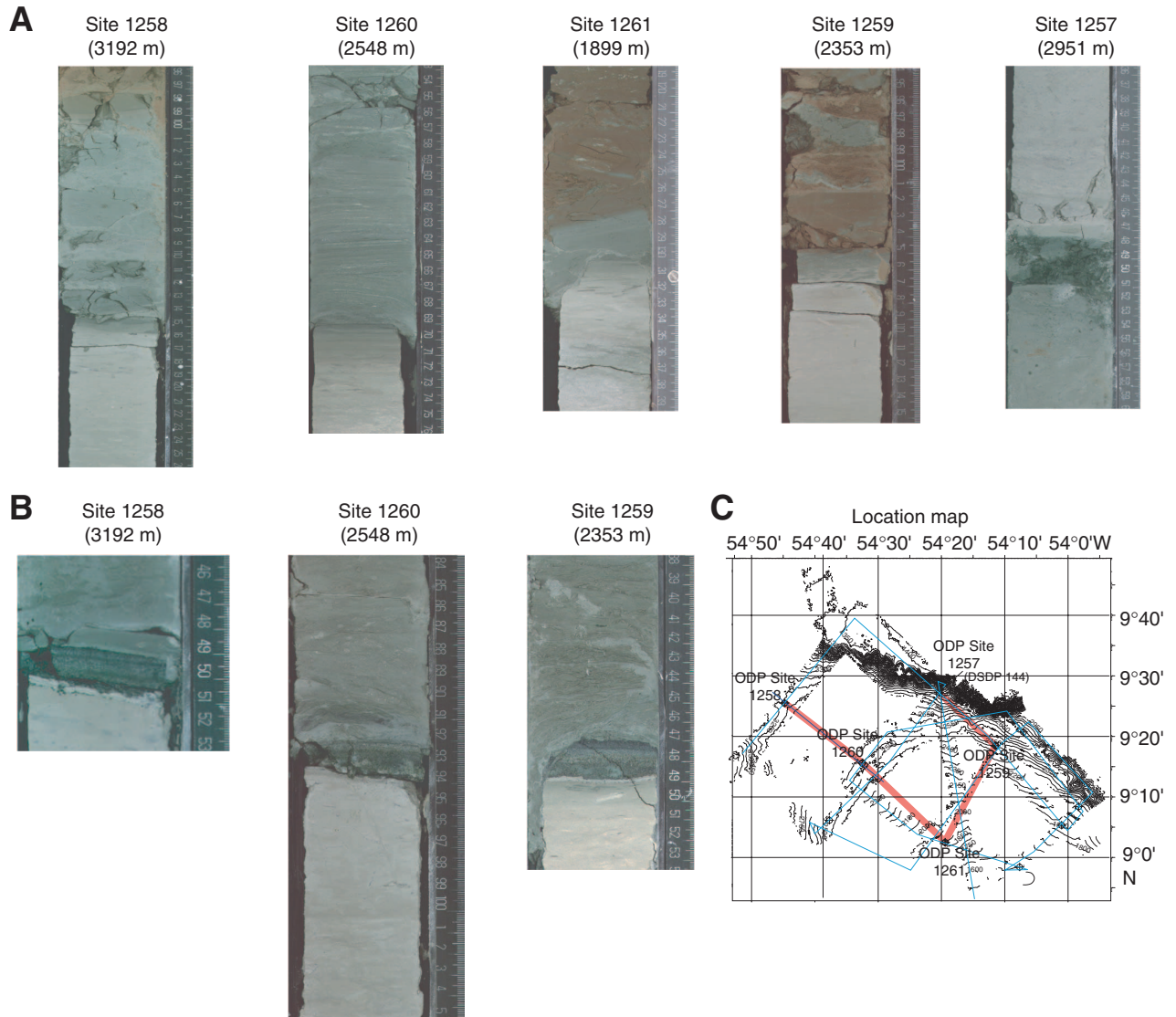


Figure F10. Paleogene biostratigraphic summary of the western sites (Sites 1258, 1260, and 1261) and eastern sites (Sites 1259 and 1257), which are in order by present-day relative water depth. Foram = foraminifers, Nanno = nannofossils, Rad = radiolarians.

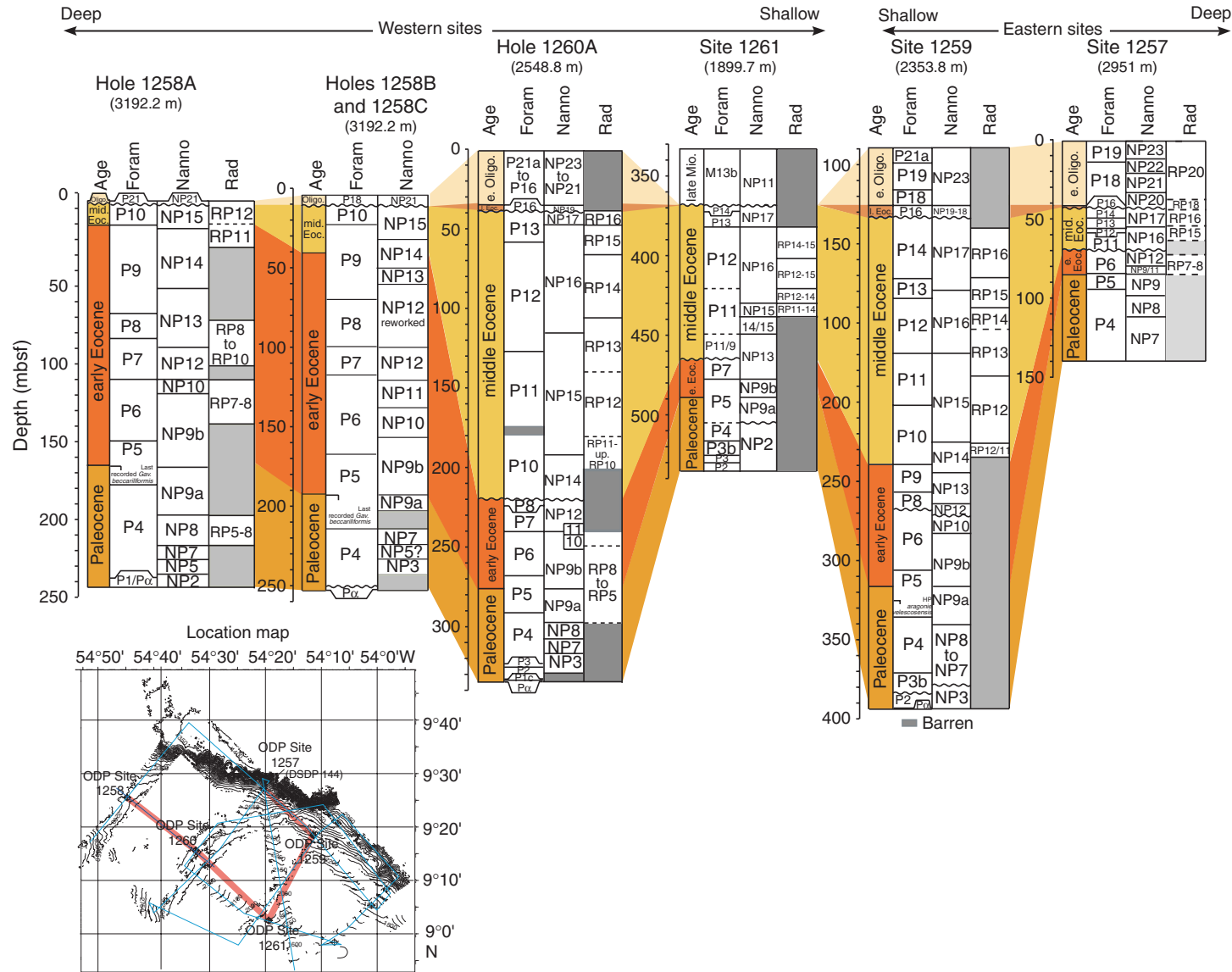


Figure F12. Cretaceous biostratigraphic summary of the western sites (Sites 1258, 1260, and 1261) and eastern sites (Sites 1259 and 1257), which are in order by present-day relative water depth. Foram = foraminifers, Nanno = nannofossils, Rad = radiolarians.

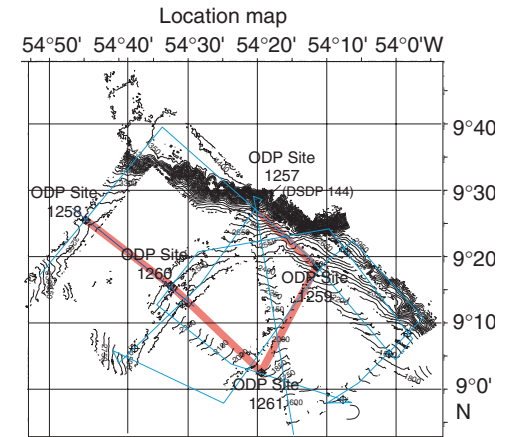
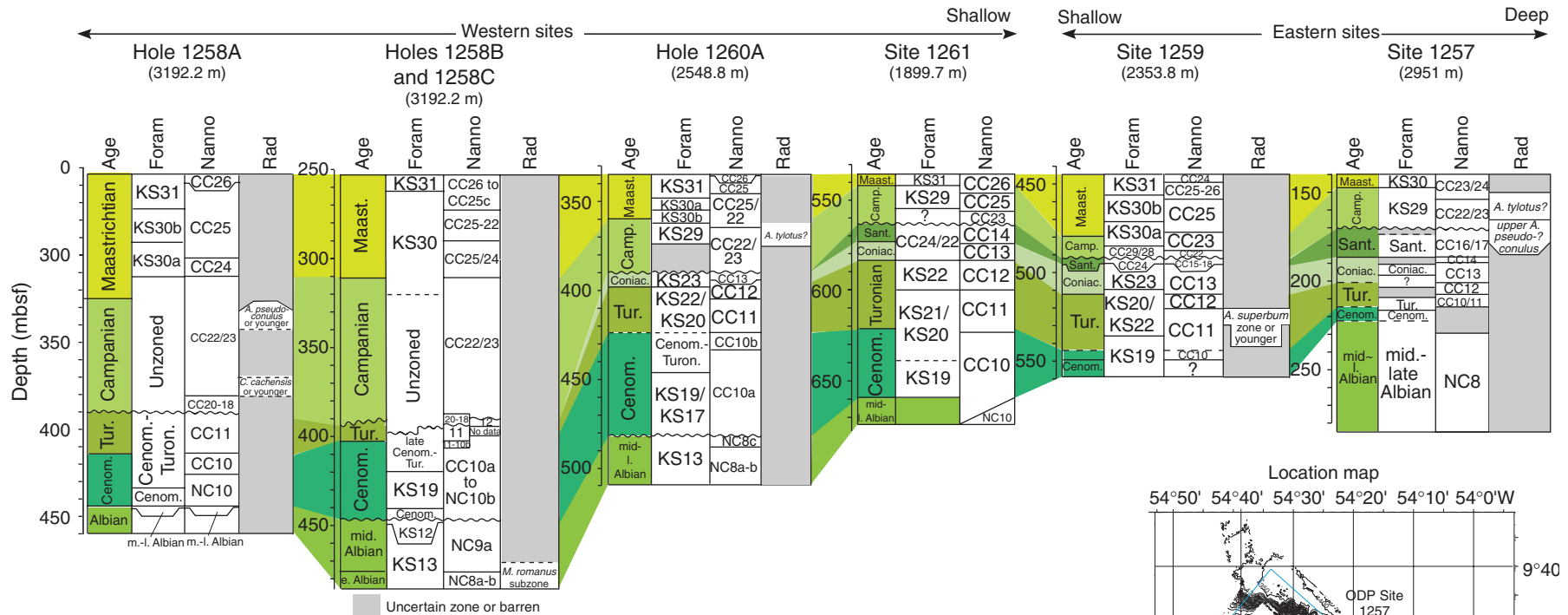


Figure F13. Summary of Cretaceous stratigraphy and lithologic succession for Leg 207. Lithology is plotted against time to show duration of periods of deposition and locations of unconformities. The western sites (Sites 1258, 1260, and 1261) and eastern sites (Sites 1259 and 1257) are in order by present-day relative water depth. Forams = foraminifers, Nannos = nannofossils.

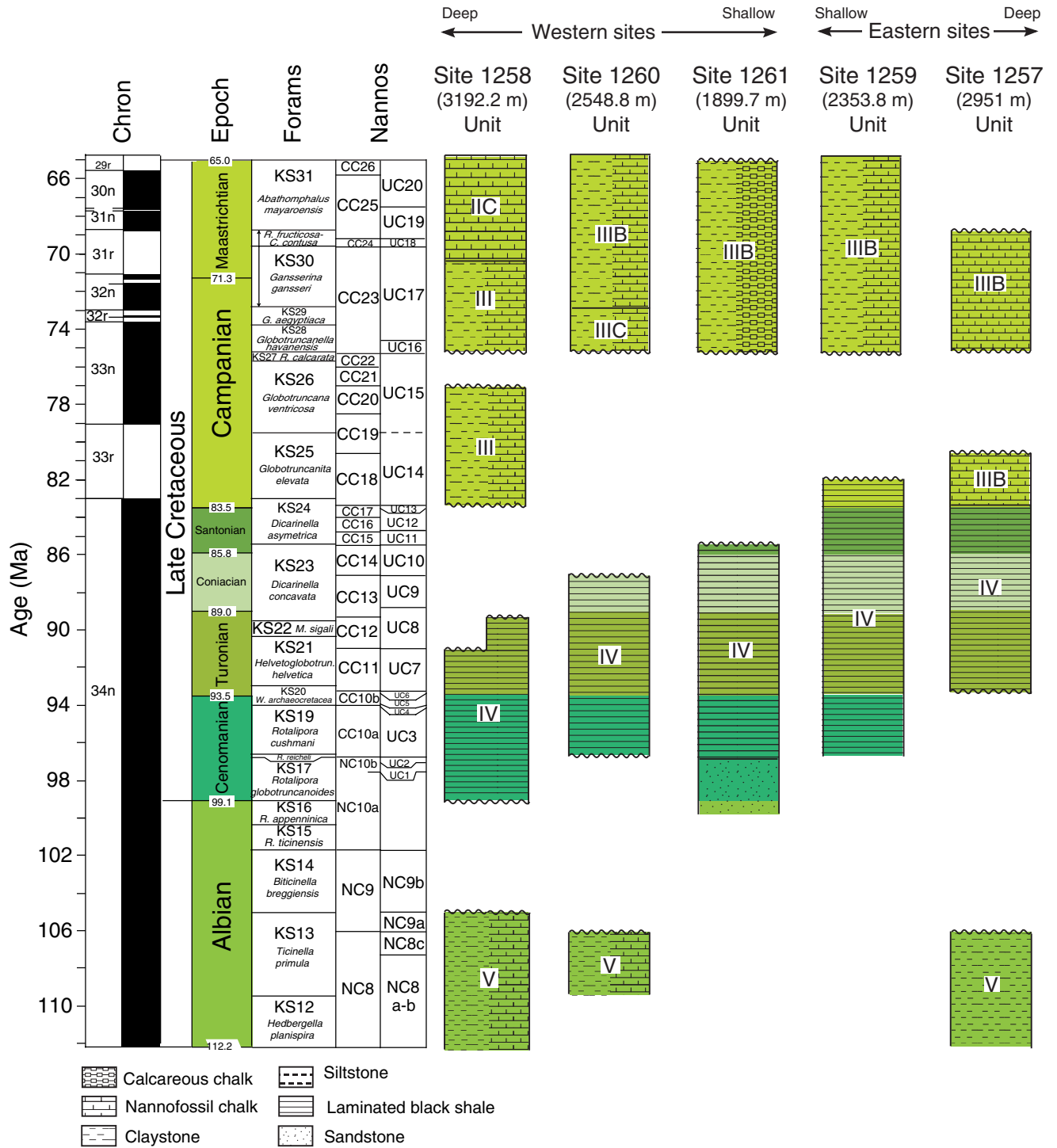


Figure F14. Late Maastrichtian–Danian record of the Leg 207 sites. Cretaceous and Paleogene planktonic foraminiferal zones are shown. Note the uncertainty in thickness of planktonic foraminiferal Zone P α is derived from the spacing of shipboard samples.

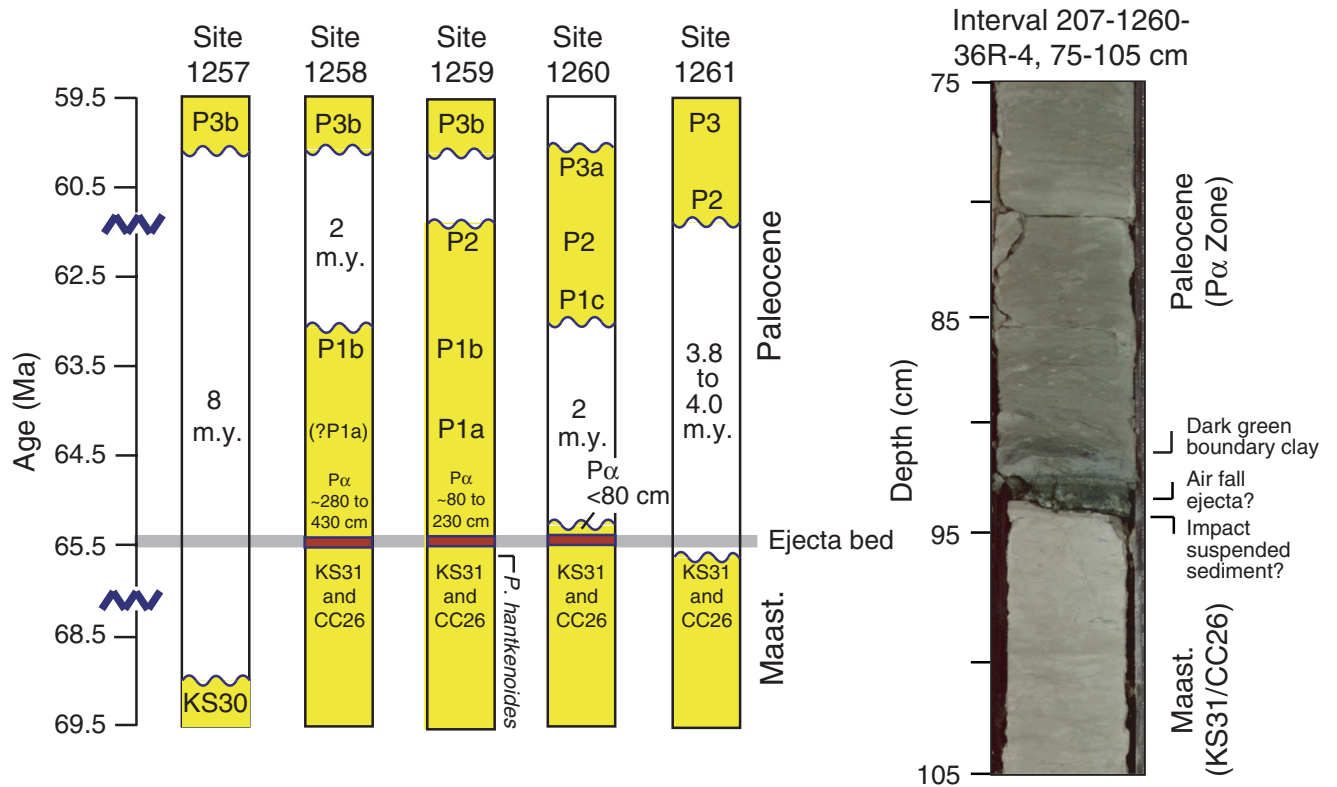


Figure F16. Magnetic susceptibility profiles for Leg 207 sites. The yellow shading indicates sections for which splice sections were created. Gaps in the splices are indicated. P/E = Paleocene/Eocene boundary, K/T = Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary.

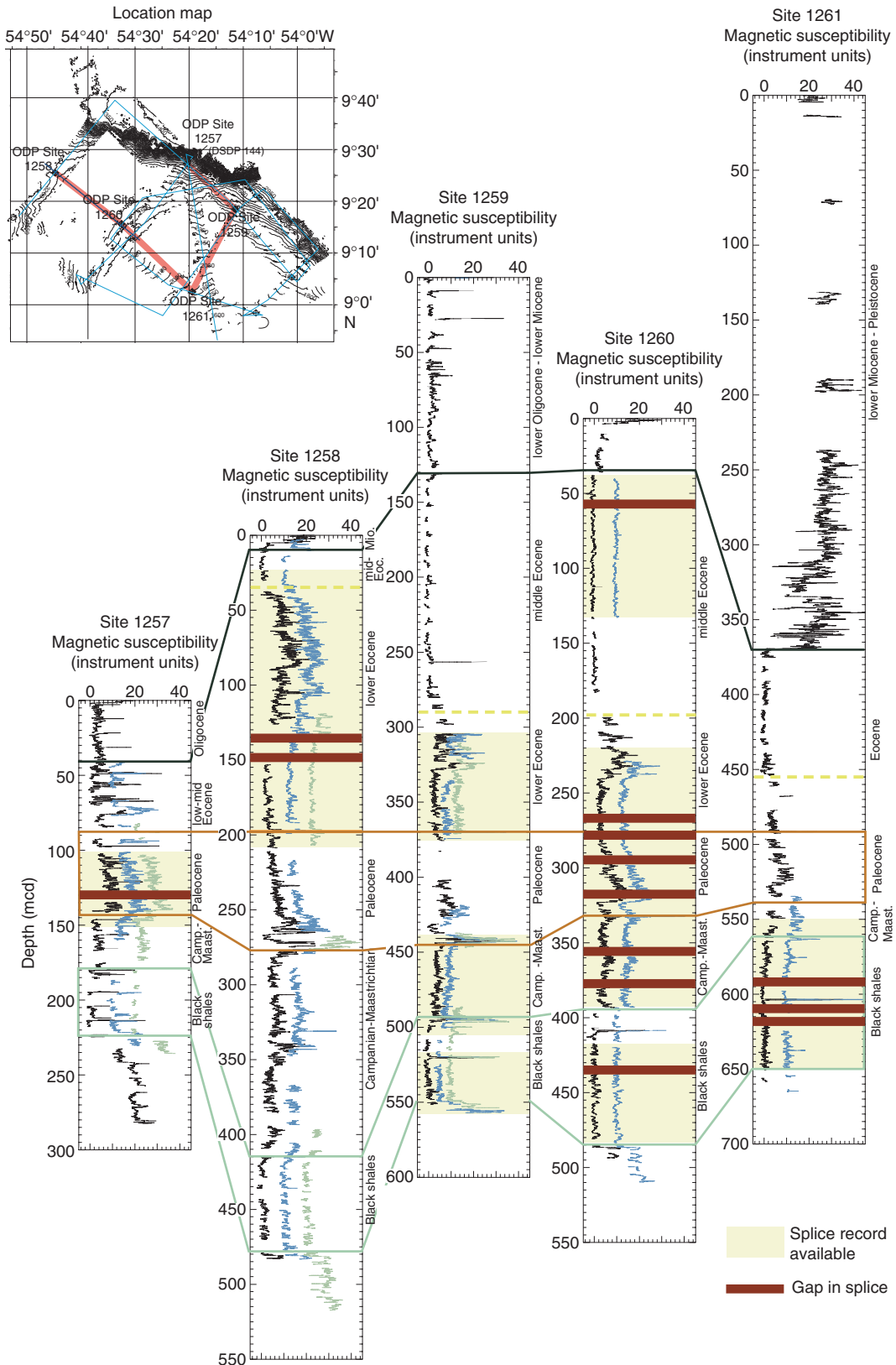


Figure F17. Magnetic susceptibility profiles for Leg 207 sites for the Paleocene–lower Eocene interval. The positions of zonal boundaries are tentative, pending postcruise biostratigraphic refinements. The profiles are aligned on the P/E boundary. A red bar along the left side of the log indicates an interval covered by a sampling splice. P/E = Paleocene/Eocene boundary, K/T = Cretaceous/Tertiary boundary.

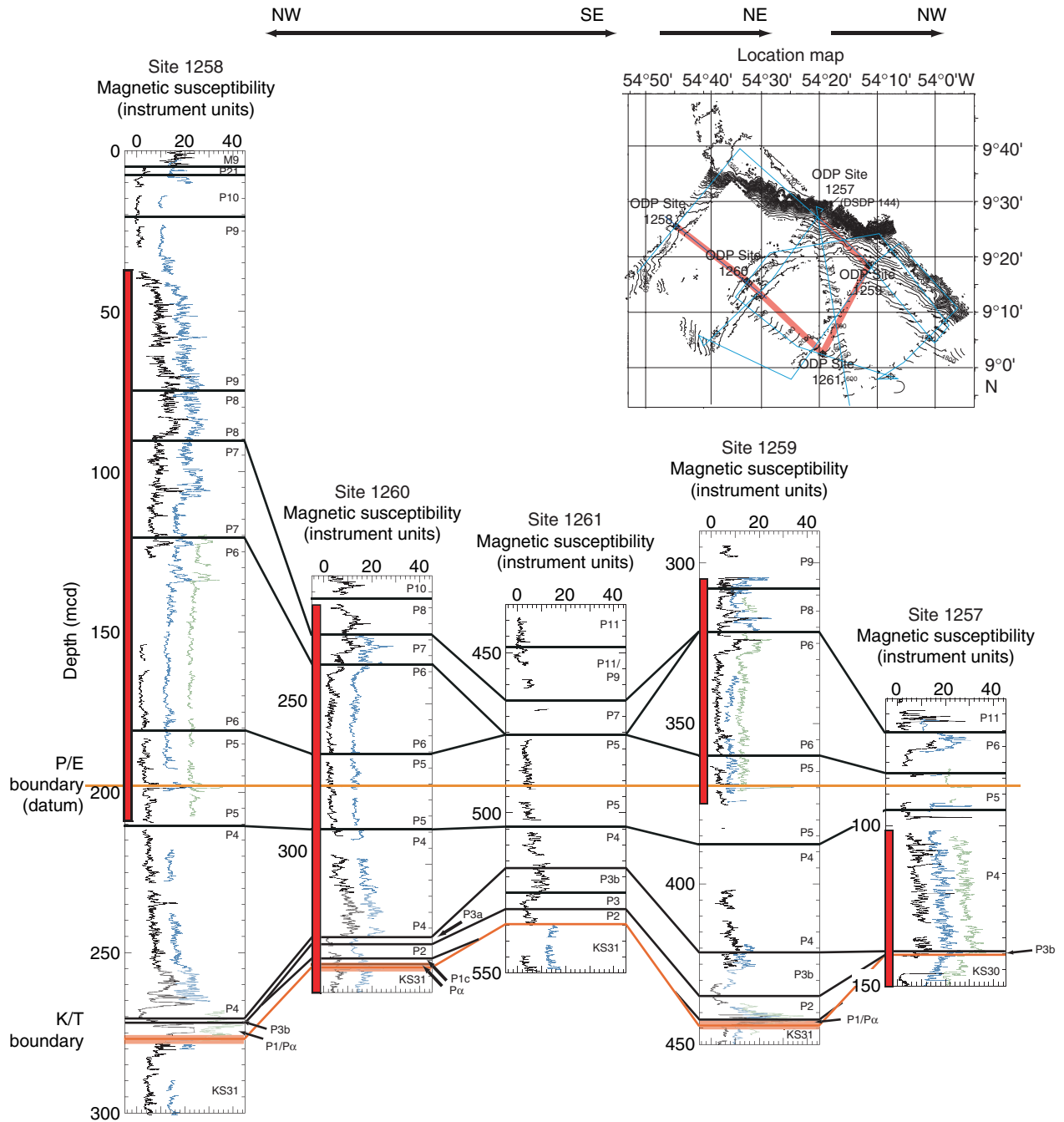


Figure F18. Magnetic susceptibility profiles for Leg 207 sites for the Campanian–Maastrichtian interval. The positions of zonal boundaries are tentative, pending postcruise biostratigraphic refinements. The profiles are aligned on the Cretaceous/Tertiary (K/T) boundary. A red bar along the left side of the log indicates an interval covered by a sampling splice.

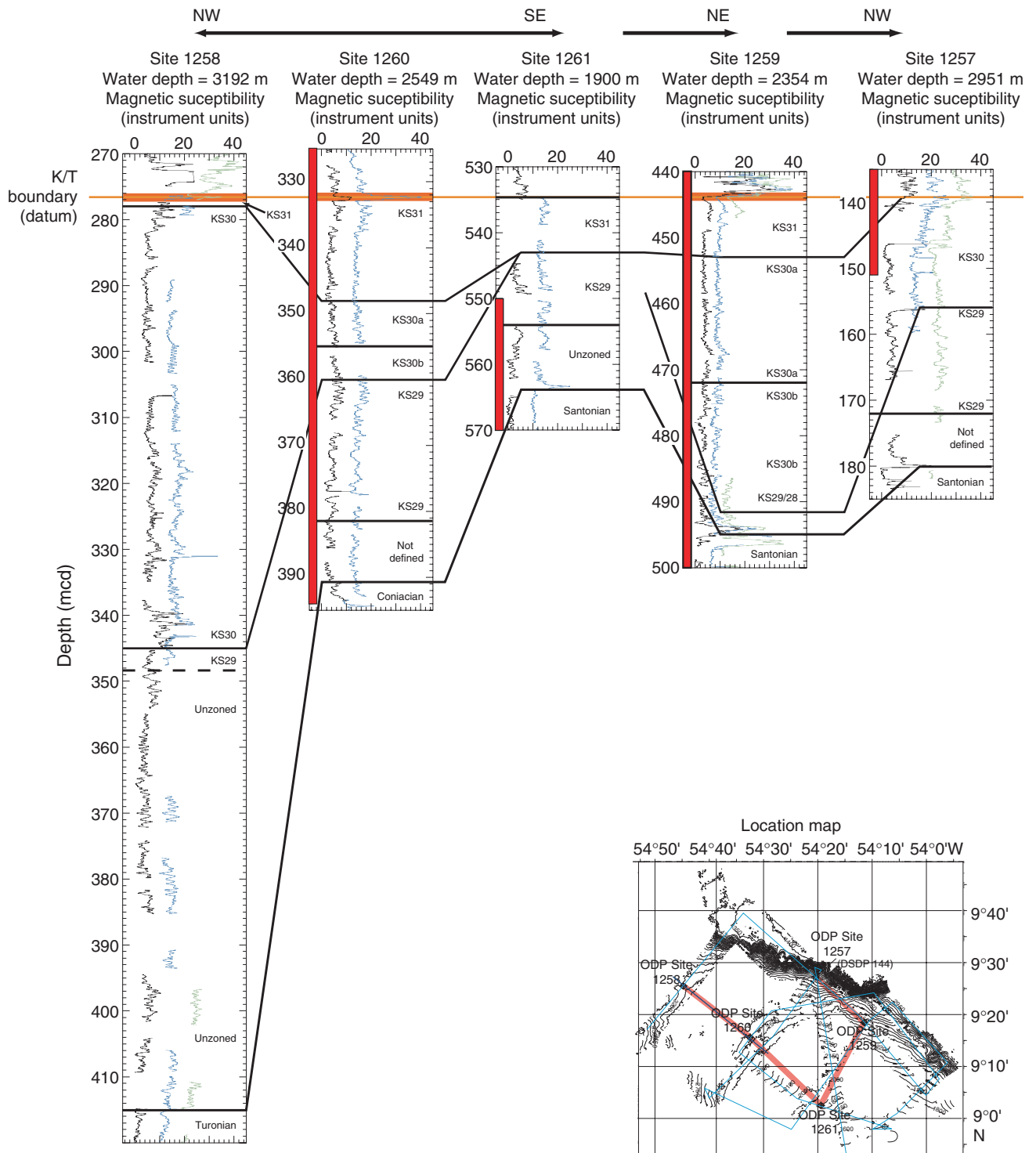


Figure F19. Gamma ray attenuation (GRA) bulk density profiles for Leg 207 sites through the Cretaceous black shale sequence. The positions of stage boundaries are tentative, pending postcruise biostratigraphic refinements. The profiles are aligned on the top of the laminated organic-rich claystone. A red bar along the left side of the log indicates an interval covered by a sampling splice.

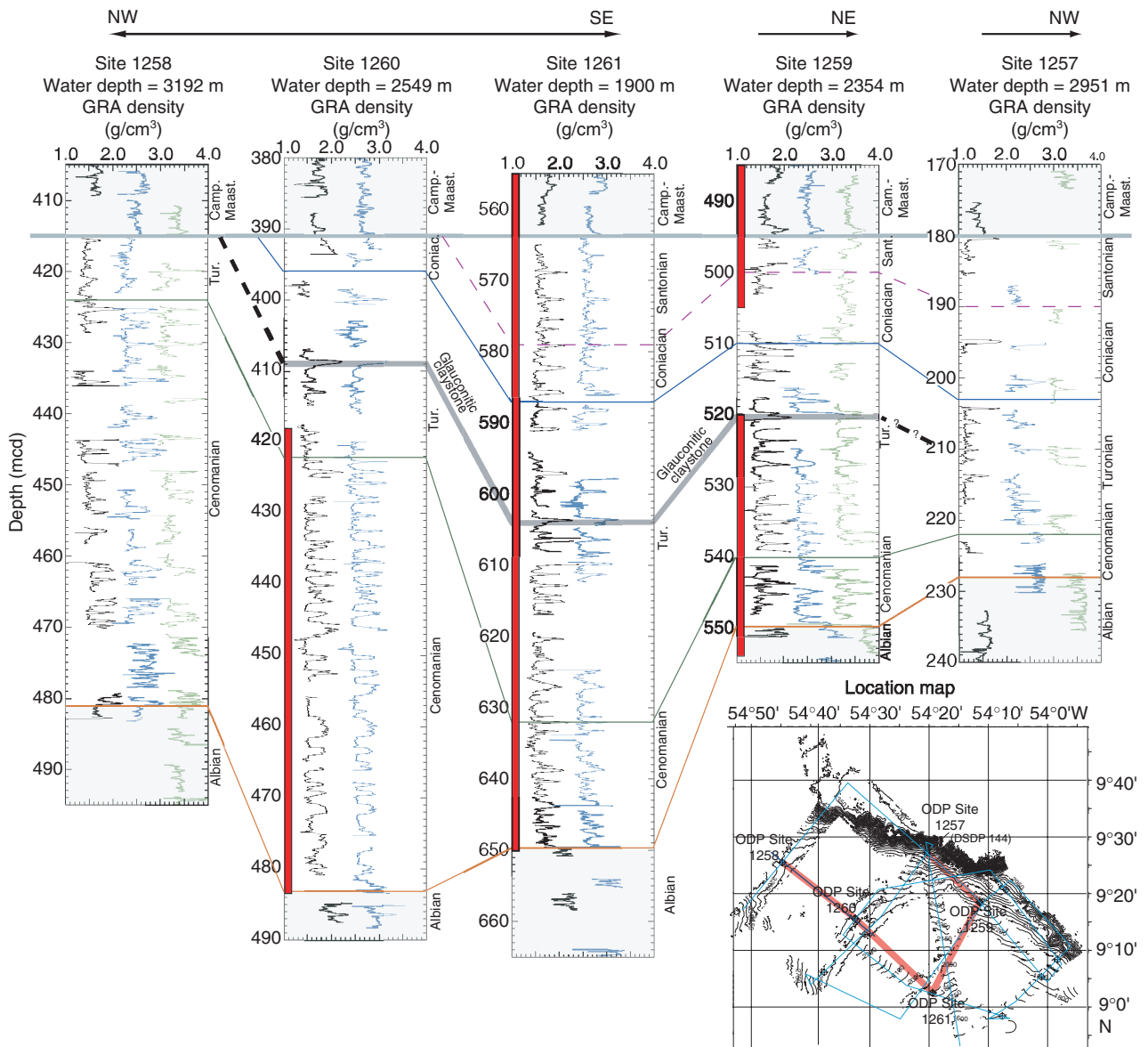


Figure F20. Comparison of Rock-Eval pyrolysis hydrogen index and T_{max} values for black shale and underlying claystone units of the five sites cored during Leg 207 on Demerara Rise. Fields for Type I (waxy), Type II (algal microbial), and Type III (land plant/detrital) organic matter are shown. Compositions of the black shales are dominated by thermally immature, relatively well preserved algal-microbial organic matter.

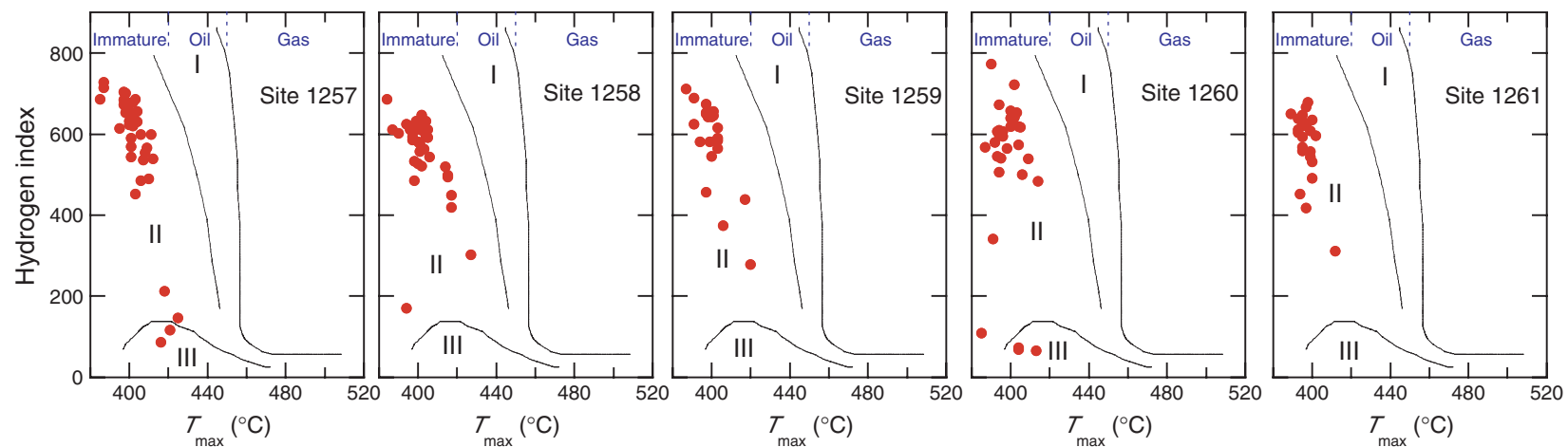


Figure F21. Comparison of total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations and C_{org}/N_{total} values of black shales (defined as >1% TOC) for black shale units of the five sites drilled during Leg 207 on Demerara Rise. Increasing C/N values with higher TOC concentrations probably reflect preservational conditions that favored burial of carbon and recycling of the nitrogenous components of marine organic matter.

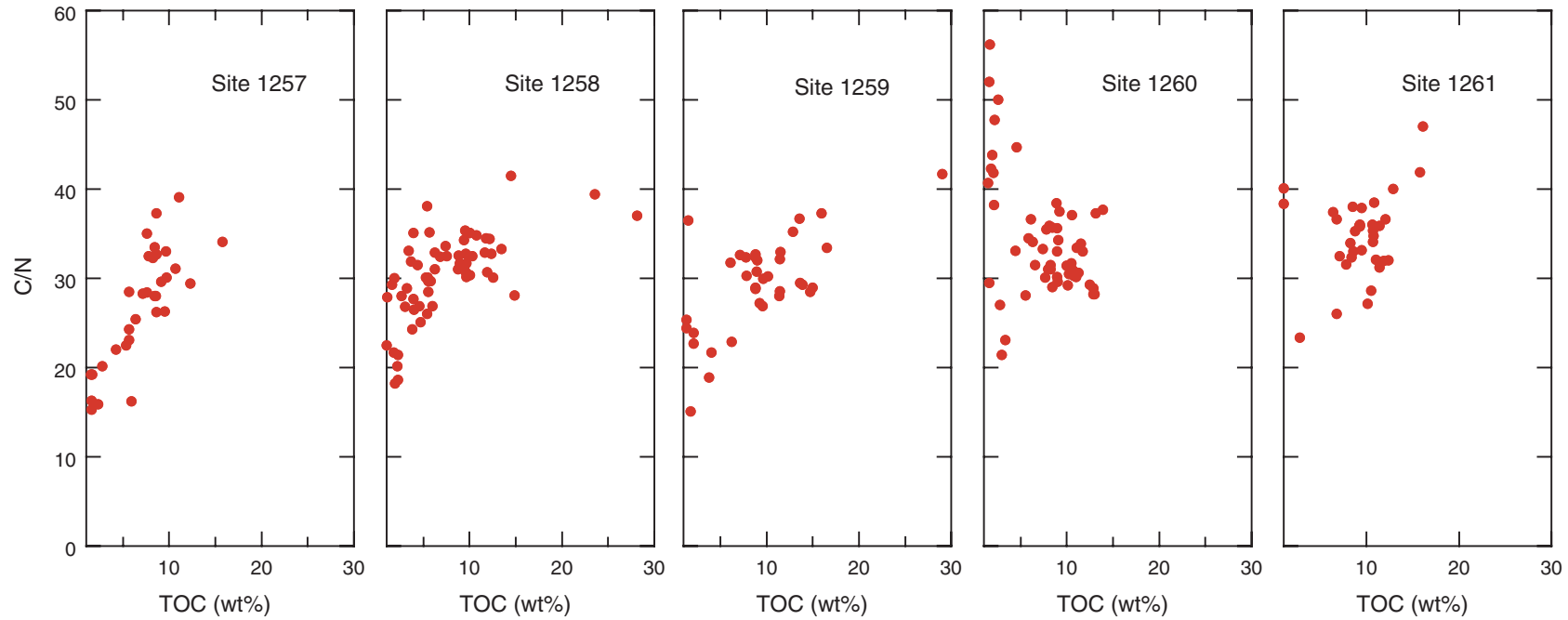


Figure F22. Profiles of chemical constituents in interstitial waters for Leg 207. A. Sulfate. B. Ammonium. C. Barium. D. Iron. E. Manganese. F. Chloride.

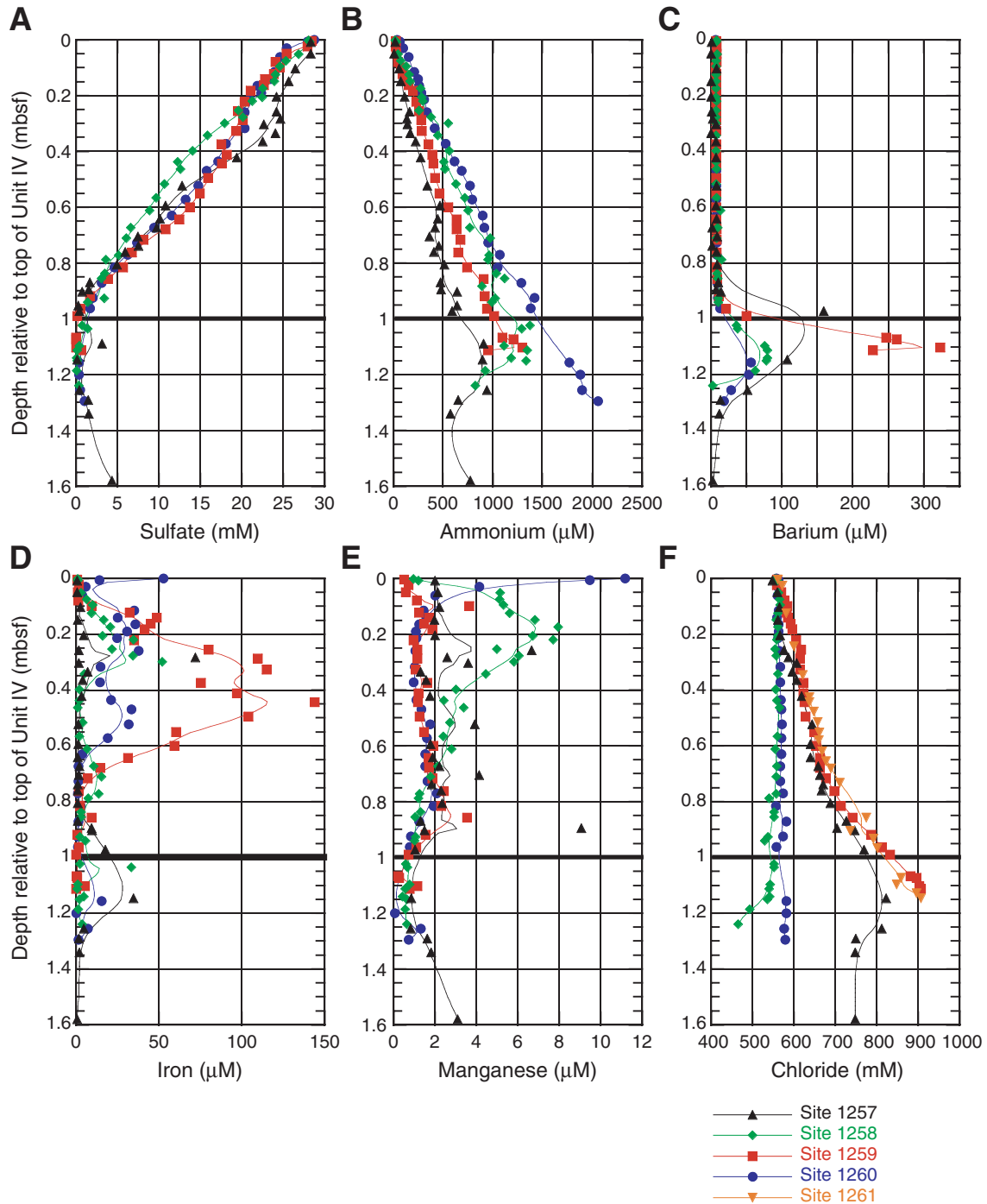


Figure F23. Velocity and porosity profiles for Leg 207. Velocity measurements, acquired using the Hamilton Frame on split cores, are uncorrected for in situ temperature and pressure. Porosity was determined along with wet bulk density, grain density, and water content on discrete samples.

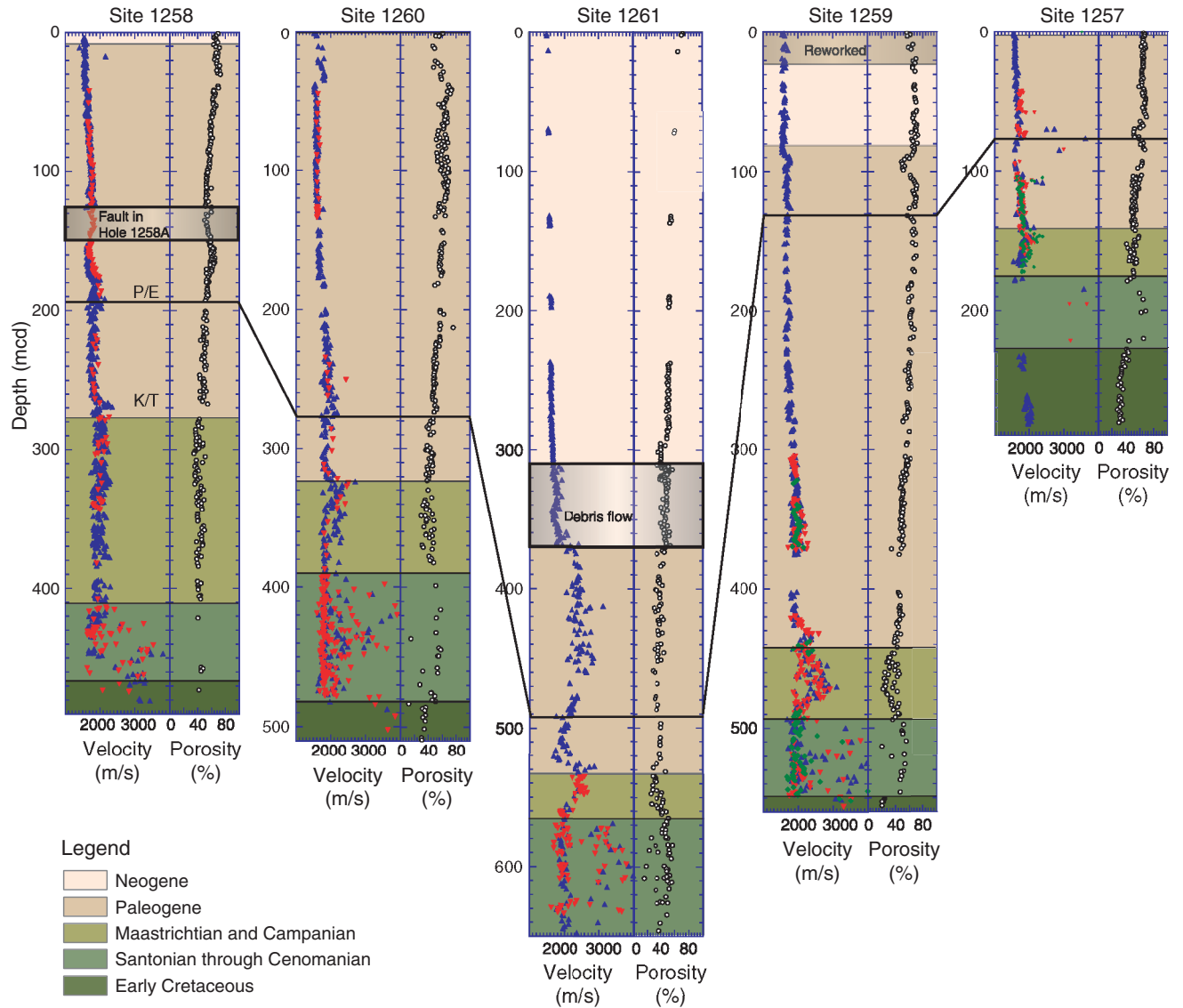


Figure F24. Stratigraphy of the black shale interval revealed by Formation MicroScanner (FMS) images and wireline measured physical properties from Hole 1261B. TC = triple combination, HSGR = spectral gamma ray, MGT = Multi-Sensor Spectral Gamma Ray Tool, PEF = photoelectric effect.

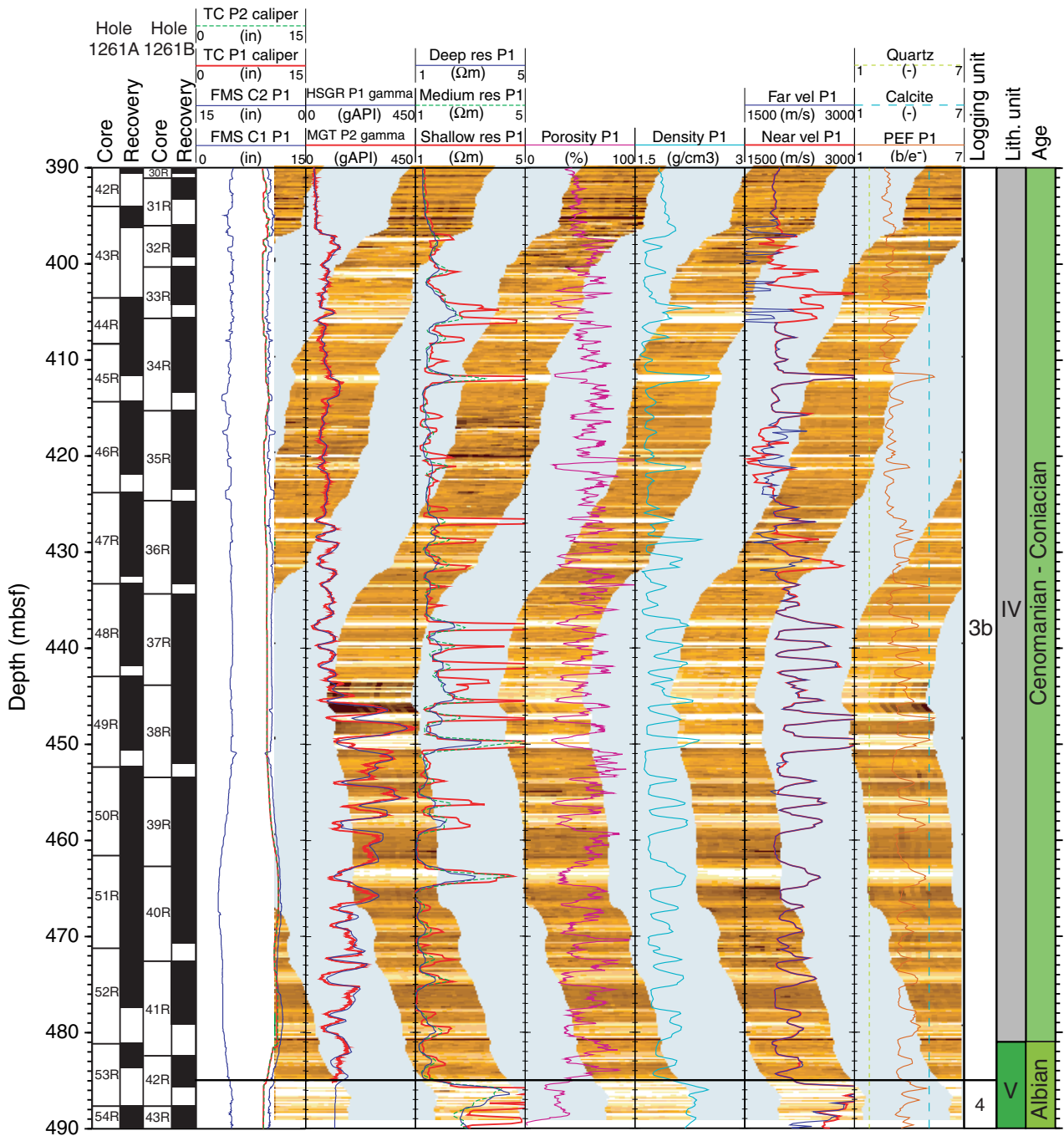


Figure F25. Seismic traveltime vs. depth for each site. The relationships were derived from best fits with the synthetic seismograms. Note that Sites 1257, 1258, and 1260 have very similar curves and Sites 1259 and 1261 have similar shaped curves.

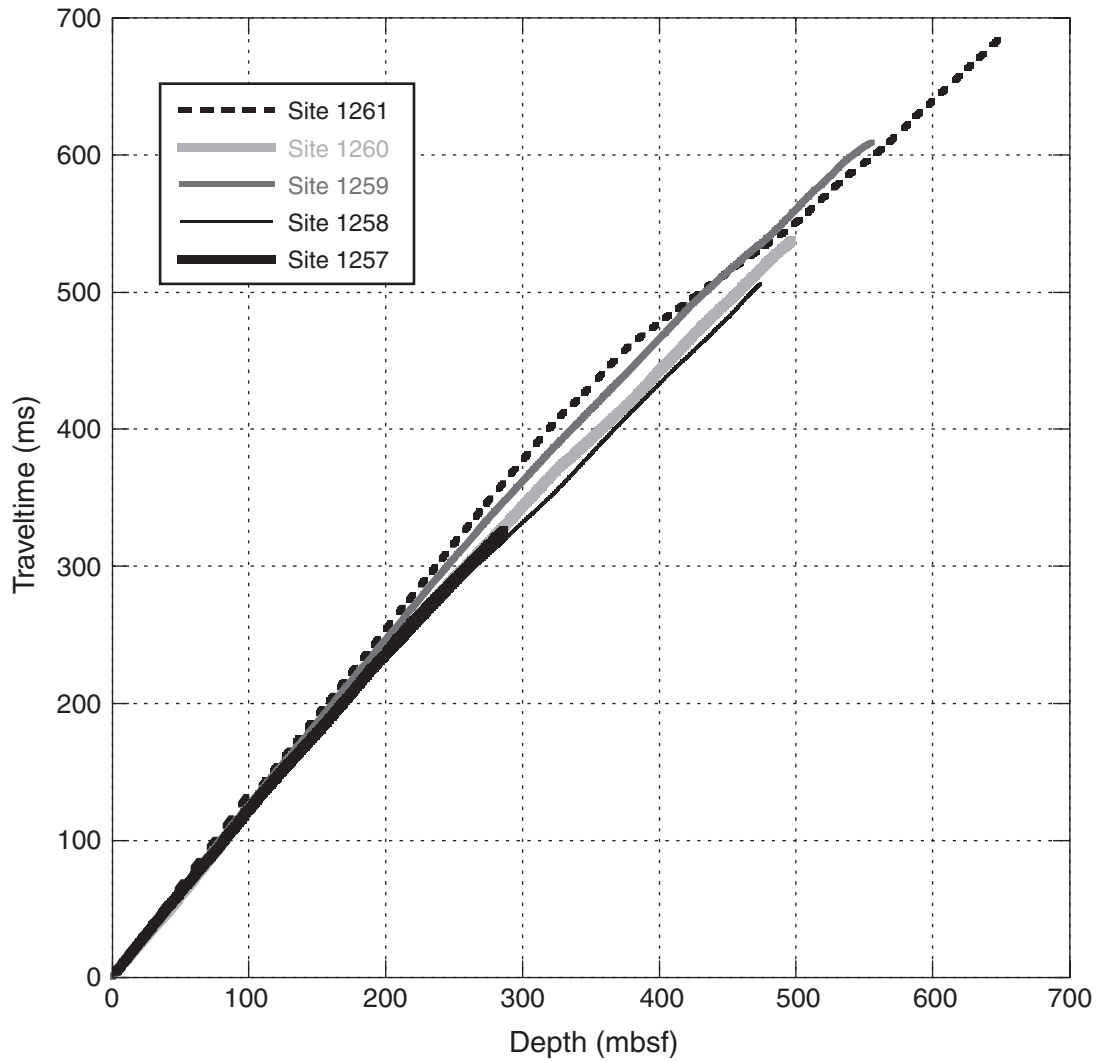


Figure F26. Depth-migrated seismic profile of line GeoB220 correlated with the lithologic summary for Site 1257.

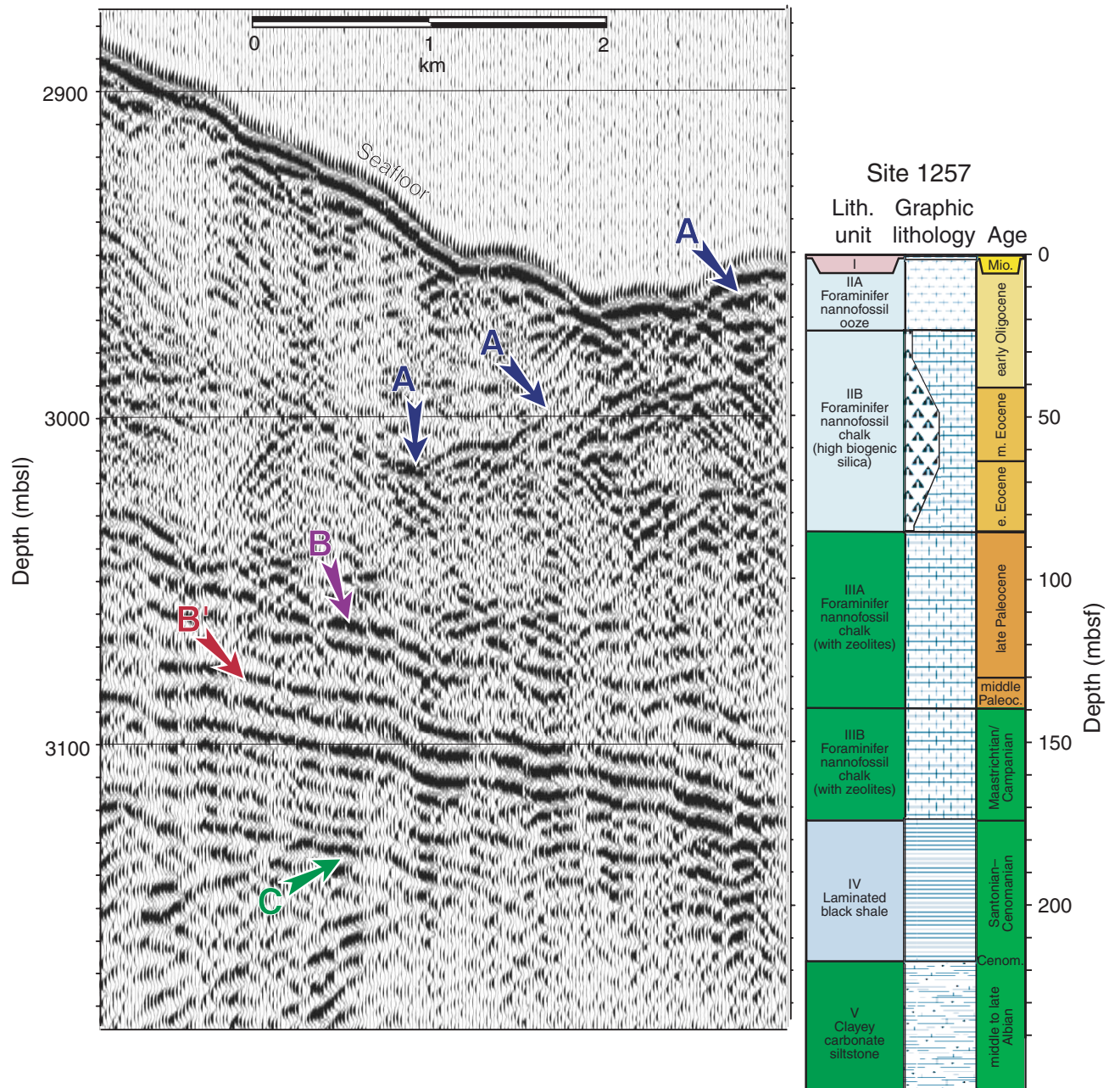


Figure F27. Depth-migrated seismic profile of line GeoB221 correlated with the lithologic summary for Site 1258. PETM = Paleocene/Eocene Thermal Maximum.

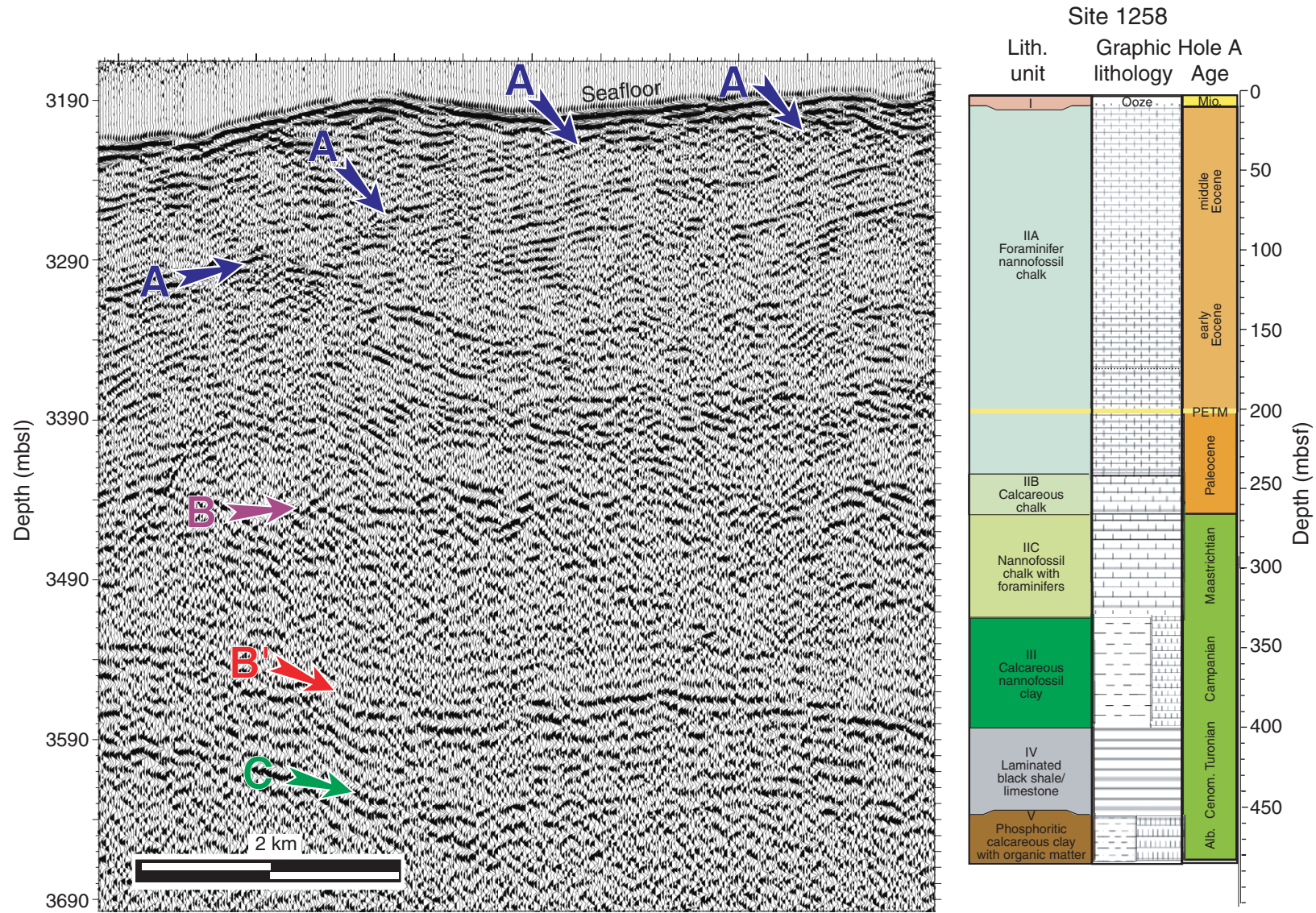


Figure F28. Depth-migrated seismic profile of line GeoB219 correlated with the lithologic summary for Site 1259.

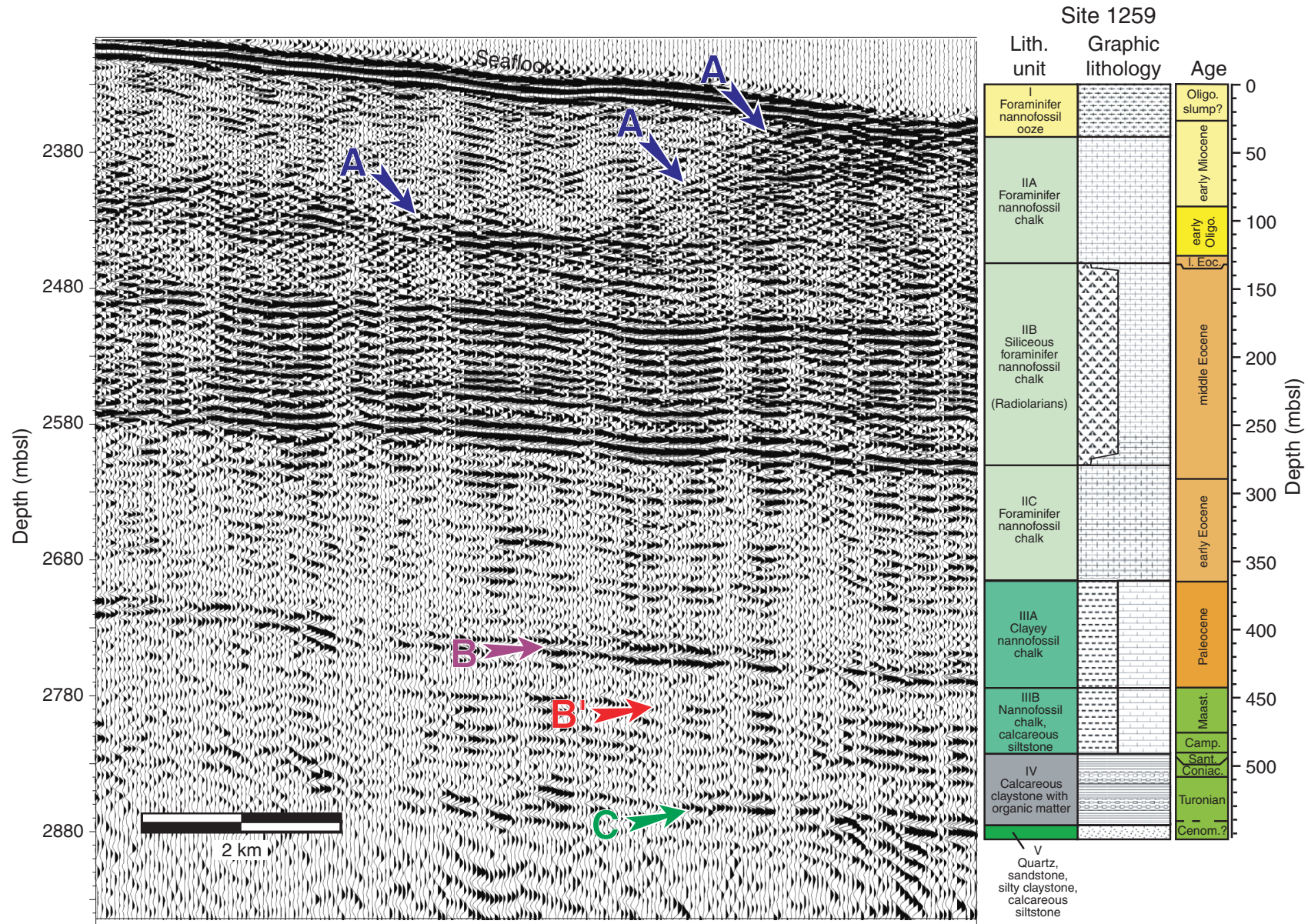


Figure F29. Depth-migrated seismic profile of line GeoB215 correlated with the lithologic summary for Site 1260.

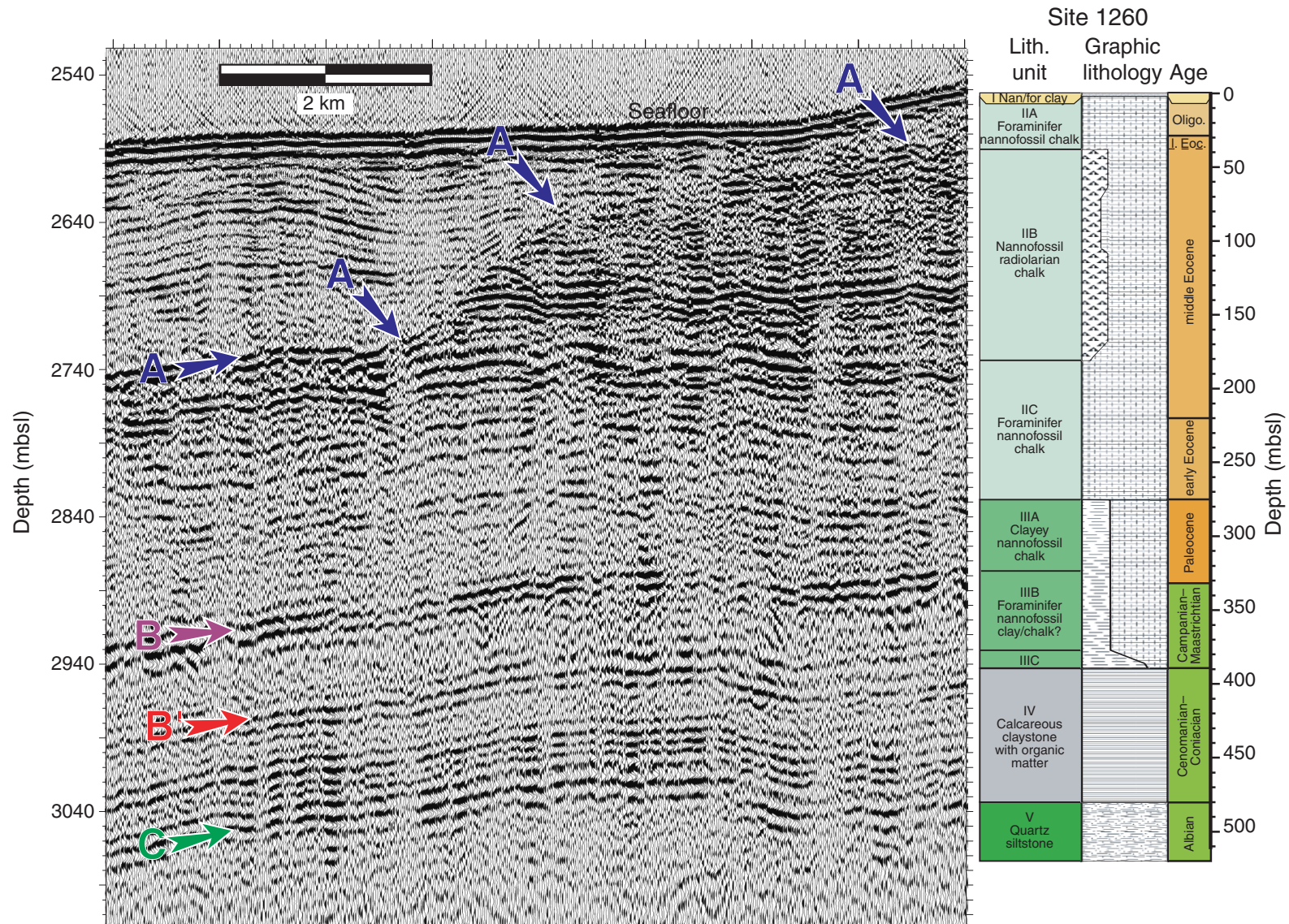


Figure F30. Depth-migrated seismic profile of line Geob213 correlated with the lithologic summary for Site 1261.

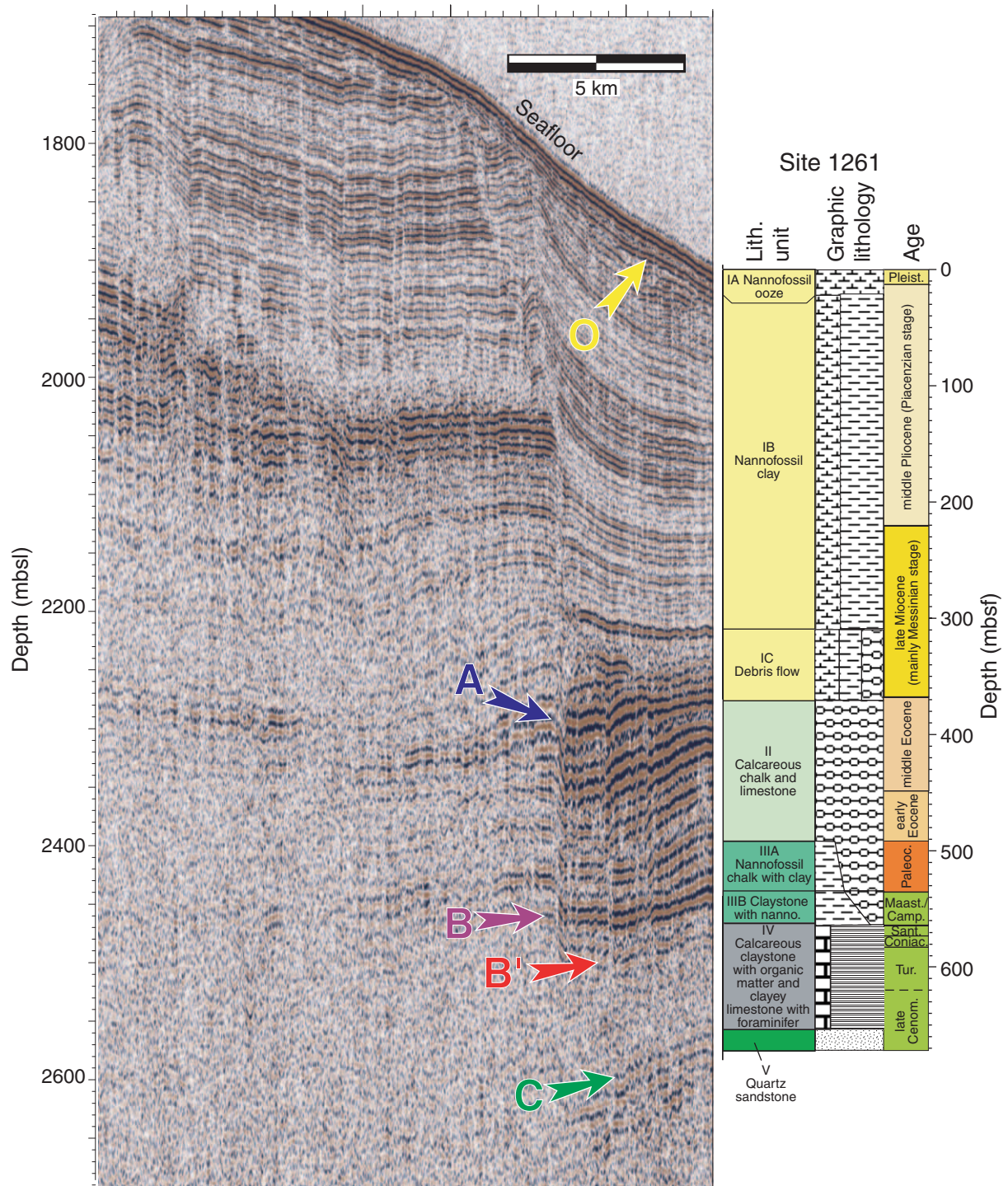


Figure F31. Horizon C surface map. Depths were calculated assuming velocities of 1495 m/s for the water column and an average velocity of 2000 m/s for the sediment column.

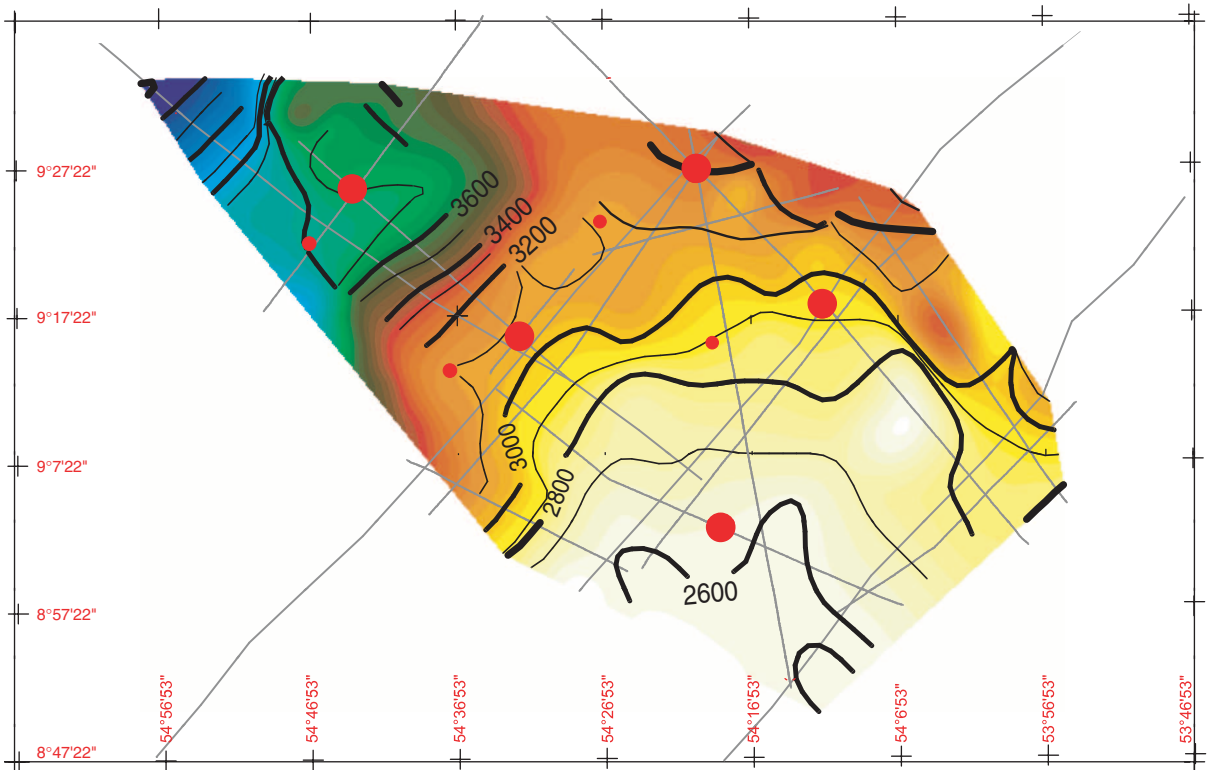


Table T1. Operations summary, Leg 207.

Hole	Latitude	Longitude	Water depth (mbsl)	Number of cores	Interval cored (m)	Core recovered (m)	Recovery (%)	Interval drilled (m)	Total penetration (mbsf)	Time on site (hr)	Time on site (days)
1257A	9°27.230'N	54°20.518'W	2951.0	31	284.7	216.1	75.9	0.0	284.7	104.2	4.3
1257B	9°27.218'N	54°20.508'W	2951.0	27	187.3	116.2	62.1	40.0	227.3	38.6	1.6
1257C	9°27.206'N	54°20.495'W	2951.0	16	153.9	96.6	62.8	82.0	235.9	26.2	1.1
Site 1257 totals:				74	625.9	428.9	68.5	122	747.9	169.0	7.0
1258A	9°26.000'N	54°43.999'W	3192.2	50	447.5	375.5	83.9	0.0	447.5	63.9	2.7
1258B	9°26.000'N	54°43.982'W	3192.2	57	453.9	346.1	76.3	7.0	460.9	72.0	3.0
1258C	9°26.000'N	54°43.966'W	3192.2	34	215.2	161.1	74.9	269.8	485.0	93.7	3.9
Site 1258 totals:				141	1116.6	882.7	79.0	276.8	1393.4	229.6	9.6
1259A	9°17.999'N	54°11.998'W	2353.8	60	558.8	372.1	66.6	0.0	558.8	62.9	2.6
1259B	9°18.048'N	54°11.945'W	2353.8	25	222.2	153.8	69.2	334.0	556.2	42.6	1.8
1259C	9°18.024'N	54°11.969'W	2355.8	19	148.6	118.9	80.0	405.1	553.7	39.7	1.7
Site 1259 totals:				104	929.6	644.9	69.4	739.1	1668.7	145.2	6.1
1260A	9°15.948'N	54°32.633'W	2548.8	54	491.9	391.6	79.6	0.0	491.9	51.1	2.1
1260B	9°15.931'N	54°32.652'W	2548.8	46	370.3	326.5	88.2	138.7	509.0	88.4	3.7
Site 1260 totals:				100	862.2	718.1	83.3	138.7	1000.9	139.5	5.8
1261A	9°2.917'N	54°19.038'W	1899.7	51	484.0	355.4	73.4	185.5	669.5	67.9	2.8
1261B	9°2.918'N	54°19.049'W	1899.7	16	148.8	92.5	62.2	525.3	674.1	84.9	3.5
Site 1261 totals:				67	632.8	447.9	70.8	710.8	1343.6	152.8	6.3
Leg 207 totals:				486	4167.1	3122.4	74.9	1987.4	6154.5	836.1	34.8