ABSTRACT

Influence of Climate and the Expansion of C₄ Grasses on Sequence-Scale Cyclicity and Landscape Development during the Late Miocene to Pleistocene of West Texas

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The Neogene records a period of global climate change and terrestrial ecosystem evolution; however, little is known about whether these changes influenced sedimentary and soil forming processes. The late Miocene to Pleistocene Fort Hancock and Camp Rice Formations from two adjacent isolated basins, southeast Hueco Bolson and northwest Eagle Flat Draw, were analyzed to determine whether changing climate and concomitant C4 grass expansion influenced fluvial depositional style. Alluvial stacking-pattern analysis of two drill cores reveals sequence-scale trends in paleosol maturity, cycle thickness, and facies proportions. Stable isotope geochemistry of bulk paleosol samples and pedogenic carbonate suggest C4 expansion at 7.25 Ma and provide a pCO2 reconstruction of the late Miocene to Pleistocene. C4 onset coincides with a decreasing sedimentation rate, less frequent channel avulsion events, and an increase in paleosol maturity. Stratigraphic stacking-patterns parallel pCO2 concentration, suggesting that sedimentation and pedogenesis are influenced by third- to fourth-order global climate cycles.

Influence of Climate and the Expansion of C₄ Grasses on Sequence-Scale Cyclicity and Landscape Development during the Late Miocene to Pleistocene of West Texas

by

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

During the Neogene, terrestrial environments experienced a significant change related to global climate evolution and the expansion of C₄ grasses. Miocene to Pleistocene paleoclimate, atmospheric pCO₂, and the expansion of C₄ grasses have been extensively studied (MacGinitie 1962; Nambudiri et al. 1978; Cerling et al. 1997; Ehleringer et al. 1997; Cerling and Harris 1999; Zachos et al. 2001; Tipple and Pagani 2007; Ruddiman 2010). However, little is known about the affects of global climate change and grassland evolution on landscape stability, alluvial sedimentary processes, and pedogenesis. This study builds upon our understanding of Neogene paleoclimate and the nature of late Miocene C₄ grass expansion across North America in order to evaluate the associated impact on sedimentation, pedogenesis, and paleoecology of west Texas, U.S.A.

The earliest fossil evidence of C₄ grasses occur at ~12.5 Ma (MacGinitie 1962; Nambudiri et al. 1978), but the majority of isotope records place the global expansion to C₄-dominated ecosystems between 8 and 6 Ma (Ehleringer et al. 1991, 1997; Morgan et al. 1994; Wang et al. 1994; Quade and Cerling 1995; Cerling et al. 1997, 1998; Latorre et al. 1997; Cerling and Harris 1999; Pagani et al. 1999; Freeman and Colarusso 2001; Passay et al. 2002; Tipple and Pagani 2007; Segalen et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2009; Edwards and Smith 2010). Causal mechanisms and variability in timing of this ecological shift have long been speculated, and in general, the widely accepted driver is a

decreasing atmospheric pCO₂ of the late Miocene and global climate change (Cerling et al. 1997; Ehleringer et al. 1997; Tripati et al. 2011).

This paper ties a cyclic stratal hierarchy of Neogene paleosol-bearing alluvial deposits with a paleosol-derived paleoclimatic/paleoecological reconstruction to evaluate the relationship (if any) with alluvial sedimentation and landscape stability through time. The study area is in southern Hudspeth County, Texas (Fig. 1) where two cores were drilled through the Miocene to Pleistocene Fort Hancock and Camp Rice Formations of the Santa Fe Group (Fig. 2). These sites are located in the Hueco Bolson and Eagle Flat

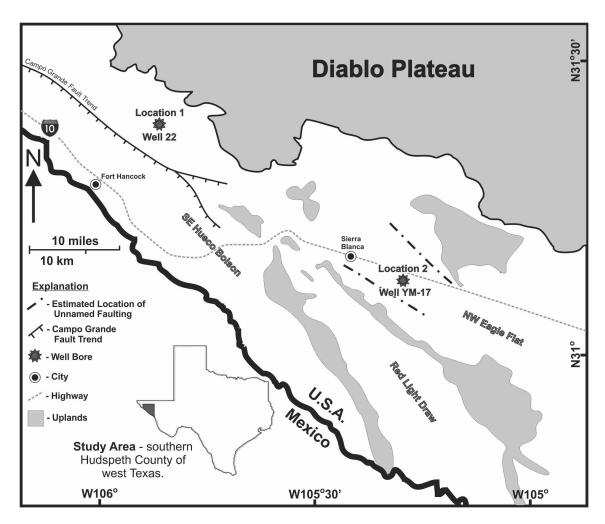


Figure 1. Map illustrating the position of Well 22 (location 1) in the SE Hueco Bolson and YM-17 (location 2) in the NW Eagle Flat basin. The Campo Grande Fault trend location is modified from Collins and Raney (1991).

Basin, which are rift basins that formed within, and associated with, the Rio Grande Rift and Basin and Range province. The goals of this paper are threefold: 1) to evaluate the cyclic alluvial sedimentation within the two isolated basins, in order to understand the local and regional trends of sedimentation and pedogenesis; 2) to reconstruct the paleoecology (C3 vs. C4) from the δ^{13} C values of soil organic matter (SOM), paleoatmospheric pCO₂ from δ^{13} C values, and paleotemperatures from δ^{18} O values of pedogenic carbonate; and 3) to evaluate the effects of climate change and C₄ grass expansion on landscape development during the Neogene in west Texas.

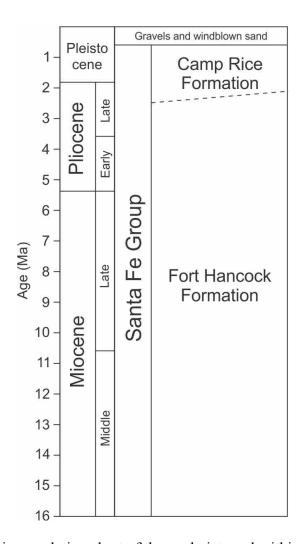


Figure 2. Stratigraphic correlation chart of the study interval within the Hueco Bolson area, Texas (modified from Gustavson 1991).

CHAPTER TWO

Background

Stratigraphy and Depositional Setting

The Fort Hancock Formation and Camp Rice Formation comprise the Santa Fe Group within the study area (Fig. 1 and 2; Albritton and Smith 1965; Strain 1966; Gustavson 1991), which has been previously interpreted as consisting of fluvial, alluvial, and lacustrine sediments of Miocene to Pleistocene age (Gustavson 1991; Langford et al. 1999). Strata time-equivalent to the Fort Hancock and Camp Rice Formations of the Hueco Bolson have been designated the Bramblett and Love Formations, respectively, within the adjacent Red Light Draw (Strain 1966). To avoid confusion, both locations are referred to using the Hueco Bolson terminology in this paper (Fig. 2).

This study examines two cores from southern Hudspeth County, Texas that are part of an 88 core suite that was originally drilled in the late 1980's by the Texas Low Level Radioactive Waste Disposal Authority (TLLRWDA) in a search for a repository site. Well 22 (location 1; 31°23'51"N, 105°43'26"W) is located on the northern edge of the SE Hueco Bolson, about 10 miles (16 km) northeast of Fort Hancock, Texas (Fig. 1). The study interval at location 1 extends from bedrock (depth of 174 meters) to 33 meters below the surface of the basin-fill strata. YM-17 (location 2; 31°8'42"N, 105°15'39"W) is located in the NW Eagle Flat Basin about 7 miles (11 km) east of Sierra Blanca, Texas and about 30 miles (48 km) southeast of location 1 (Fig. 1). The study interval at location 2 extends from bedrock (depth of 207 meters) to 6 meters below the surface.

Absolute age dates of location 2 are constrained by a magnetostratigraphic analysis conducted by Langford and others in 1999.

Located in the south-central North American craton, greater than 650 km from the paleoshoreline, the Eagle Flat Basin and Hueco Bolson are entirely continental basins. Basin-fill sediments are primarily derived from the Diablo Plateau to the north and adjacent northwest-trending fault-block mountain ranges. Basin-fill gravels are composed of limestone and sandstone clasts derived from Cretaceous bedrock (Gustavson 1991; Langford et al. 1999). The SE Hueco Bolson is interpreted as the drainage terminus of the northern ancestral Rio Grande River, from the late Miocene until entrenchment to its modern position, about 0.7 Ma (Kottlowski, 1953; Seager et al. 1984; Gustavson 1991). Stuart and Willingham (1984) described the SE Hueco Bolson as a fluvial-lacustrine basin, in which clays and evaporites were deposited within playa lakes, sandstones and mudstones within low-sinuosity braided channels, and conglomerates within channel lags or alluvial fans along the margin of the bolson. Langford and others (1999) suggested that sedimentation in the NW Eagle Flat Basin was driven by basin morphology, whereby initial basin-fill conglomerates were deposited by extensive alluvial fan systems. As the basin floor aggraded, a low-relief slope formed and deposition evolved into lower competence fluvial systems about 10 Ma.

Significant differences in sedimentation are apparent when comparing basins, the most obvious being the great abundance of mud deposited in the Hueco Bolson, whereas the Eagle Flat Basin is dominantly sand with very little mud. Controls on sedimentation vary between locations because the SE Hueco Bolson and NW Eagle Flat Basin are isolated from each other (Langford et al. 1999). The paleo-Rio Grande River did not

flow through the NW Eagle Flat as it did through the Hueco Bolson, where associated flooding events may account for the high proportion of suspended-load deposits.

Tectonism and Basin Morphology

Late Cenozoic tectonism of the Trans-Pecos Texas southern Rio Grande Rift is part of the western North American Basin-and-Range extension (Seager et al. 1984; Price and Henry 1984, 1985; Henry and Price 1985; Stevens and Stevens 1985; Morgan et al. 1986; Mack and Seager 1990; Collins and Raney 1994). Basin-and-Range extension is inferred to have initiated shortly after Laramide compression ceased, about 29 to 24 Myr before present (Seager et al. 1984; Price and Henry 1984, 1985; Stevens and Stevens 1985). Regional normal faulting across the study area follows the structural trend of the Texas Lineament (a broad subcontinental structural zone, trending NW-SE within the study area; Muehlbereger 1980). Basin-and-Range extension formed a series of north- to northwest-trending fault-bounded basins and adjacent ranges. This study is concerned with two of these normal fault-bounded basins, the southeast Hueco Bolson and northwest Eagle Flat Basin of west Texas.

The Hueco Bolson is a north- to northwest-trending extensional basin approximately 160 km in length and up to 48 km in width from west Texas to southeastern New Mexico. Core from location 1 was obtained from the southeast Hueco Bolson along the southwestern margin of the Diablo Plateau (Fig. 1). Collins and Raney (1991) reported as much as 1850 m of Cenozoic basin-fill sediments within the deepest portion of the southeast Hueco Bolson graben. The Campo Grande Fault trend is a series of normal faults that bound the SE Hueco Bolson on the northeastern edge (Fig. 1), and the fault section adjacent to location 1 is interpreted to have as much as 460 m of offset

(Collins and Raney 1991, 1994). However, location 1 is located northeast of the fault zone on the stable footwall block where Cenozoic basin fill is a maximum of 300 m thick (Collins and Raney 1991, 1994). No evidence for Neogene tectonic activity has been reported northeast of the Campo Grande fault within the study area, and therefore, tectonism at location 1 is assumed to have been relatively stable throughout the late Cenozoic.

The Eagle Flat Basin is a series of three north- to northwest-trending basins, including the Green River Basin, NW Eagle Flat Basin, and SE Eagle Flat Basin (Collins and Raney 1994). Location 2 lies within the NW Eagle Flat Basin which is located east of the Hueco Bolson and south of the Diablo Plateau, and extends 15 miles (24 km) in length and up to 7 miles (11 km) in width (Fig. 1). The basin is relatively shallow, topographically high, and internally drained with a maximum of 219 meters of sediment fill (Collins and Raney 1994; Langford et al. 1999). The tectonic history of the northwest Eagle Flat Basin was studied extensively using seismic and core data by the TLLRWDA, and no evidence of faulting was found within basin-fill strata (Collins and Raney 1994; Langford et al. 1999). Eight-eight wells were drilled throughout the basin and based on the gradually decreasing piedmont slope up-section, Langford and others (1999) interpreted the NW Eagle Flat as a mature basin with tectonism that waned or ceased sometime in the Miocene.

Climate: Miocene to Pleistocene

From assessments of the stratigraphy and paleosols of the SE Hueco Bolson area, Gustavson (1991) suggested that the climate during the Plio-Pleistocene was arid to semi-arid, with cycles of sedimentation and pedogenesis driven by episodic precipitation or

flooding events followed by desiccation. Evidence for an arid to semi-arid climate includes alluvial fan sediments, ephemeral lake deposits, and gypsum evaporite pans in combination with commonly occurring calcic Vertisols indicative of repeated shrinkswell cycles during soil formation (Gustavson 1991).

Following Oligocene glaciation, a warming trend that reduced the global ice volume began at 26 to 27 Ma and persisted through the early and middle Miocene (Miller et. al 1991; Wright et al. 1992; Zachos et al. 2001). This warm trend peaked during the middle Miocene climatic optimum (14-16 Ma) and was succeeded by a gradual global cooling trend that persisted through the late Cenozoic (Zachos et al. 2001). Evidence for global cooling is shown by increasing Antarctic glaciation and increasing δ^{18} O values of benthic marine organisms (i.e. increasing global ice volume and decreasing deep-ocean temperatures; Miller and Fairbanks 1987; Flower and Kennett 1995; Zachos et al. 2001). Recent work by Pagani and others (2010), Hönisch and others (2009), and Tripati and others (2009; 2011) have provided high resolution atmospheric pCO₂ estimations for the late Cenozoic that correlate closely with trends in glaciation, arctic vegetation, and $\delta^{18}O$ of benthic marine organisms (Ruddiman 2010). An overall decreasing atmospheric pCO₂ is estimated from the middle Miocene to Pleistocene, and this gradually decreasing pCO₂ is believed to be the driver of global cooling and associated increasing aridity (Pagani et al. 2009; Hönisch et al. 2009; Tripati et al. 2009, 2011; Ruddiman 2010).

C_3 and C_4 Plants

Extensive work on the δ^{13} C values of paleosol organic carbon (SOM), pedogenic carbonate, and fossil tooth enamel commonly show evidence for globally expanding C_4 ecosystems from about 8 to 6 Ma, which has been attributed to decreasing CO_2 and

increasing aridity during the late Cenozoic (Ehleringer et al. 1991, 1997; Cerling et al. 1997, 1998; Cerling and Harris 1999; Pagani et al. 1999; Fox and Koch 2003; Tipple and Pagani 2007; Edwards and Smith 2010). C_4 plants use the Hatch-Slack photosynthetic pathway, a modified Calvin-Benson cycle (C_3 photosynthetic process) in which CO_2 is concentrated at the site of carbon fixation (Hatch 1987). The C_4 photosynthetic pathway is believed to help avoid photorespiration, increased efficiency of photosynthesis under low CO_2 conditions, and increased water-use efficiency (Hatch 1987, Tipple and Pagani 2007). Furthermore, C_4 plants fractionate with a higher preference to the ^{13}C isotope than C_3 plants, which results in the distinctly different isotopic compositions of C_3 and C_4 plants (Cerling and Harris 1999; Tipple and Pagani 2007). The typical $\delta^{13}C$ values of C_3 plants range from about -20 to -35% VPDB, whereas the typical $\delta^{13}C$ values of C_4 plants range from about -15 to -10% VPDB.

CHAPTER THREE

Methods

Core Description

A total of 342 meters of core from two boreholes (Well 22 and YM-17) were described in detail (Figs. A.1, A.2, and Appendix B). Data collected from the cores include lithotype, grain size, grain sorting, degree of grain rounding, orientation of grains, sedimentary structures (mechanical and biological), stratal thickness, relationships at stratal boundaries, and occurrence of paleosols. These rock attributes were used to assign seven facies designations (Table 1 and Fig. 3) and their distributions were documented within the cores (Figs. A.1 and A.2). Strata are flat-lying at both locations and the maximum burial depth is less than 300 meters (Collins and Raney 1991, 1994); therefore, decompacted thickness estimates were not calculated.

A total of 93 paleosols were classified using USDA Soil Taxonomy (Soil Survey Staff 2010) based on horizonation, ped morphology, carbonate occurrence and depth, color, maturity, density of rooting and burrowing, occurrence of secondary minerals, clay illuviation and eluviation, presence of slickensides, redox features, and relationship with underlying C horizon. Paleosols are categorized into pedotypes, a system of description that focuses on describing a representative profile for a collection of similar paleosols (Table 2 and Fig. 4, Retallack, 2001). Paleosols are assigned a maturity value (1-4) using the paleosol maturity index based on soil thickness, degree of horizonation and percent concentrations of pedogenic minerals (Retallack 1988; 2001). Bulk soil samples and

pedogenic carbonate samples, when present, were collected from each identified paleosol for geochemical analysis.

Table 1. Overview of facies designations, attributes for identification, facies equivalent, architectural element interpretation, and associated depositional setting for each facies (after Miall 1978).

Facies Name	Attributes	Miall Equivalent	Architectural Element Interpretation	Depositional System
Subrounded Pebble Conglomerate - Clast Supported (SPCc)	oligomict to polymict; subrounded to subangular clasts; medium- to fine-grained, calcareous quartz sand matrix; massive to weak horizontal orientation of clasts	Gm	channel bar form, sieve deposit	Alluvial Fan
Subrounded Pebble Conglomerate - Matrix Supported (SPCm)	oligomict to polymict; subrounded to subangular clasts; medium- to fine-grained, calcareous quartz sand matrix; massive to weak horizontal orientation of clasts	Gm, Gms	channel bar form, sieve deposit, debris flow deposit, lag deposit	Alluvial Fan, Eolian
Massive Sandstone (MS)	medium to very fine calcareous quartz sand; < 10% lithoclasts; massive with occasional remnant bedding; burrows and root traces	Sm	scour fill, crevasse splay, upper to lower flow regime, dunes, bed homogenization by biologic activity	Fluvial, Alluvial, Eolian
Cross- Laminated Sandstone (XBS)	fine to very fine, calcareous quartz sand; planar to trough cross-laminations; occasional mud-drapes with flame structures; burrows and root traces	Sr, Sh, Sl	scour fill, crevasse splay, upper to lower flow regime	Fluvial
Red Laminated Mudrock (RLM)	calcareous silt and clay; occasionally interbedded with fine to very fine sand laminations; horizontal laminations to massive; soft- sediment deformation; mud cracks; burrows and root traces	Fl, Fsc, Fm, Fr	overbank or waning flood deposits, drape deposit, seat earth, backswamp deposit	Fluvial, Lacustrine
Intraclastic Conglomerate (IC)	subrounded to angular, elongate mudrock intraclasts (1-35mm); occasional limestone lithoclasts; fine to very fine calcareous quartz sand matrix; massive; burrows and root traces	Se	scour fill, crevasse splay, reworking lacustrine/overbank muds	Lacustrine, Fluvial

Table 1. Overview of facies designations, attributes for identification, facies equivalent, architectural element interpretation, and associated depositional setting for each facies (after Miall 1978).—Continued

Facies Name	Attributes	Miall Equivalent	Architectural Element Interpretation	Depositional System		
Intraclastic Sandstone (IS)	fine to very fine, calcareous quartz sand; < 10% subrounded to angular, elongate mudrock intraclasts (1-25mm); occasional limestone lithoclasts; massive; burrows and root traces		scour fill, crevasse splay, reworking lacustrine/overbank muds	Lacustrine, Fluvial		
Depositional Sy	<u>ystem</u>					
Alluvial Fan	SPCc and SPCm facies are massive commonly deposited as alluvially supported conglomerate (SPCc) from (SPCm) and occasionally massive	dominated FA ining-upward i	ACs and typically consist on to matrix-supported cong	f basal clast-		
Fluvial	Fluvial MS, XBS, and RLM are commonly deposited as channel, crevasse splay, or overbank deposits. Fluvially dominated FACs typically consist of medium to very fine sands (MS, XBS) fining-upward into overbank muds (RLM) and/or a paleosol. Burrowing and rooting is common. IS and IC are fluvial sands to conglomerates with a variable proportion of mudrock intraclasts derived from overbank or lacustrine muds and occasionally occur at the base of a FAC, instead of, or in addition to, MS and XBS.					
Lacustrine RLM is generally deposited in a lacusrine setting and commonly overlain by IC and IS. A lacustrine-dominated FAC typically consists of basal mudrock (RLM) shallowing- upward (gradational transition) into an intraclast conclomerate (IC) and/or intraclast-rich sandstone (IS) and commonly capped by a paleosol. Burrowing and rooting are common						
Eolian	ian MS and SPCm are occasionally identified as an eolian-dominated FAC in instances in which a thin basal conglomerate (SPCm; lag deposit) is overlain by a thick deposit of very fine to fine sandstone (MS), occasionally capped by a paleosol. Minor rooting and burrowing are present, but deposits are dominantly structureless.					

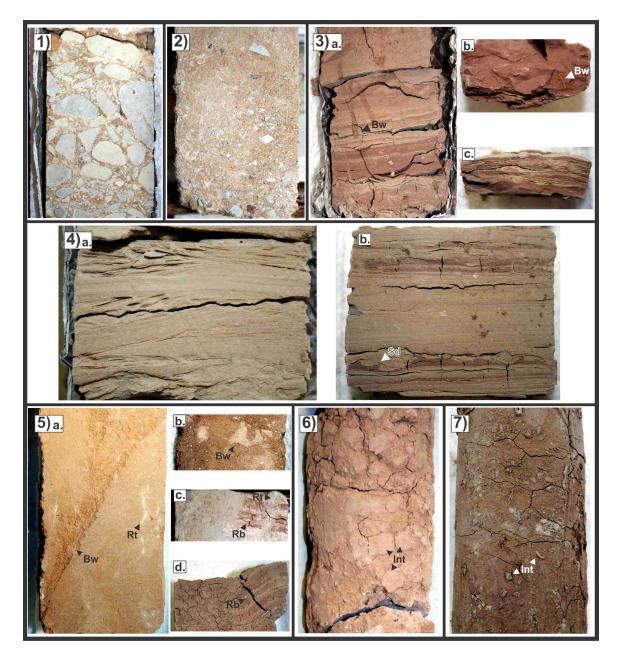


Figure 3. Representative photographs of each facies. Core diameter is 64 mm in all photographs. 1) Subrounded Pebble Conglomerate- Clast Supported (SPCc); 2) Subrounded Pebble Conglomerate- Matrix Supported (SPCm); 3) Red Laminated Mudstone (RLM); 4) Cross-Laminated Sandstone (XBS); 5) Massive Sandstone (MS); 6) Intraclastic Conglomerate (IC); 7) Intraclastic Sandstone (IS). Symbols: Bw = burrow; Rt = root trace; Sd = soft sediment deformation; Rb = remnant bedding; Int = intraclast.

Table 2. Overview of pedotypes, horizonation, paleosol maturity, and attributes for paleosol identification for each pedotype.

Pedotype	Horizon	Structure	Pedogenic features	Precipitates	Rooting	Comments
Paleo- Psamment (Ps) Maturity: 1	A	massive to coarse subangular blocky		sparry calcite around carbonized roots in some paleosols; MnO halos around roots traces or infilling root voids	very fine, common to many carbonized roots or Mn-oxide filled root traces	some A horizons over- thickened cumulative profiles
Color: 7.5YR 6/4 light brown	C	massive silt- or sandstone		none	very fine, none to few carbonized roots	
Paleo- Aquept	Bw	medium angular blocky		none	few 1 mm drab haloed root traces	
(Aq)	Bg1	fine to medium angular blocky	common 3 10 mm or to 5 cm	10.00.0	Some mottles have linear appearance likely following roots	
	Bg2	medium to coarse angular blocky	diameter mottles (5G 6/1)	Y none	2-10 cm clay filled root traces	
Maturity: 2	B/C	2nd- very coarse prismatic; 1st- coarse angular blocky		none	none	
Color: 10R 4/3; 10Y 7/1	C	massive sandstone		none	none	
Paleo- Calcid - Fine (Cf)	Ak	strong fine subangular blocky		strong reaction with HCl; some paleosols have abundant fine to very fine rhizolithic carbonate precipitation	very fine, common Mn- oxide filled bifurcating root traces	
	Bw	moderate medium angular blocky		strong reaction with HCl but no nodule formation	very fine, common Mn- oxide filled bifurcating root traces	
Maturity: 2-4	Bk1	structureless to weak medium angular blocky		medium few hard carbonate nodules o only fine to very fine rhizolithic carbonate precipitation	very fine, few Mn-oxide filled bifurcating root traces	

Table 2. Overview of pedotypes, horizonation, paleosol maturity, and attributes for paleosol identification for each pedotype.—Continued

Pedotype	Horizon	Structure	Pedogenic features	Precipitates	Rooting	Comments
	Bk2	2nd-coarse angular blocky; 1st- fine angular blocky		medium common hard carbonate nodules; 5 mm diameter hard rhizolithic carbonates	oxide filled root traces	finer-grained and stronger pedality than Bk1, potential epipedon of a soil that was welded into overlying profi
Color: 5YR 6/4 red brown	Bk3	weak coarse angular blocky		medium common hard carbonate nodules	very fine, few Mn-oxide filled bifurcating root traces	higher concentration of carbonate nodules than superseding B horizons
	B/C	weak coarse angular blocky		none	few to no roots	
Paleo- Calcid - Coarse (Cc)	Ak	medium angular blocky		few 0.3-0.5 cm hard carbonate nodules	few very fine Mn-oxide filled root traces	A horizon typically truncated as not preserve
Maturity: 3-	Bk1	massive pebbly sandstone to weak coarse angular blocky		common 0.3-0.5 cm diameter hard carbonate nodules; occasional soft masses in the matrix	few to common very fine Mn- oxide filled root traces	manganes dendrites along void
	Bk2	massive pebbly sandstone	(common 0.5-1.0 cm hard carbonate nodules	few very fine Mn-oxide filled root traces	spaces, making cle identification of rooting
Color: 5YR 6/4 red brown	Bk3	none		soft carbonate masses in soil matrix	little to no evidence of rooting	difficult
	C	none		none	none	
Paleo- Calciustert (Cu)	A	fine to medium subangular blocky		none	few to common very fine Mnoxide filled root traces with Mnoxide haloes	not ot commonly

Table 2. Overview of pedotypes, horizonation, paleosol maturity, and attributes for paleosol identification for each pedotype.—Continued

Pedotype	Horizon	Structure	Pedogenic features	Precipitates	Rooting	Comments
	Bkss1	moderate medium subangular blocky	slickensides on ped surfaces	1 cm diameter hard rhizocretions	few to common very fine Mn- oxide filled root traces	some paleosols have gleyed
Maturity: 3-	Bkss2	strong very coarse wedge	master slickensides, wedge-shaped peds	few to common 0.5 cm diameter hard carbonate nodules and 1 cm diameter rhizocretions	common 2-3 mm Mn-oxide and drab haloed	mottles and drab haloed root traces that give these horizons a Bkssg
	Bkss3	strong very coarse wedge	master slickensided surfaces	rare 2-3 mm hard carbonate nodules		horizon designation
Color: 10R 4/3; 2.5YR	B/C	thin medium platy	some small bow shaped cracks	none none	none	
4/4	С	red laminated mudrock	none	none	none	
Paleo- Gypsi- torrert (Gt)	Ay	fine to medium angular blocky	pressure faces common on ped surfaces	very few gypsum coatings on ped surfaces	common 2-3 mm Mn-oxide and drab haloed root traces	
	Bssy1	medium angular blocky; 1st- fine angular blocky	common slickensides on ped surfaces and master surfaces	gypsum coating on all ped surfaces marco voids	common 2-3 mm Mn-oxide and drab haloed root traces	no gypsum
Maturity: 3-4	Bssy2	fine to medium wedge	common well defined slickensides on ped faces	gypsum coating on all ped surfaces marco voids	common 2-3 mm Mn-oxide and drab haloed root traces	precipitation within matrix material of peds, only on ped
	Bssy3	weak blocky ped structure	pressure faces common on ped surfaces	gypsum coating on all ped surfaces marco voids	few 2-3 mm Mn-oxide and drab haloed root traces	surfaces
Color: 2.5YR 8/2 pinkish	B/C	coarse angular blocky	0.5-1 cm burrows filled with light colored fill	none	none	
white	C	massive sandstone	none	none	none	5YR 6/4 red brown

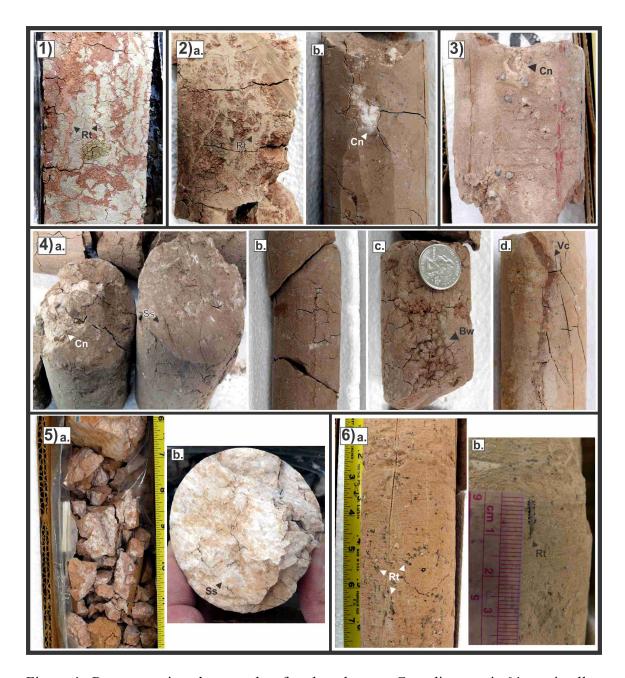


Figure 4. Representative photographs of each pedotype. Core diameter is 64 mm in all photographs. 1) Paleo-Aquept (Aq) – Bg horizon; 2) Paleo-Calcid-Fine (Cf): a. rhizolithrich Ak to Bk horizon, b. Bk horizon; 3) Paleo-Calcid-Coarse (Cc) – Bk horizon; 4) Paleo-Calciustert (Cu): a. carbonate nodules and slickensides in Bkss horizon, b. wedge-shaped peds in a Bkss horizon, c. fecal pellet lined burrow from Bkss horizon, d. vertical crack into B/C horizon; 5) Paleo-Gypsitorrert (Gt): a. gypsum covered peds within Byss horizon, b. gypsum covered slick-plane from Byss horizon; 6) Paleo-Psamment (Ps): a. A horizon with a high concentration of manganese-filled root traces and a diffuse upper contact with overlying sandstone, b. manganese coated root trace in an A horizon; Symbols: Bw = burrow; Rt = root trace; Cn = carbonate nodule; Ss = slickenside; Vc = vertical crack.

Stacking-Pattern Analysis

Recently, marine stacking-pattern analysis methodology has been adapted for paleosol-bearing alluvial successions (Atchley et al. 2004), in which cycles of fluvial sedimentation occur on a multiple-tier hierarchy and are used in an attempt to decipher autogenic and allogenic controls on terrestrial basin-fill stratigraphy (Kraus 1987, 1999, 2002; Burns et. al. 1997; Retallack 1998; Kraus and Aslan 1999; Atchley et al. 2004; Prochnow et al. 2006; Cleveland et al. 2007; Mintz 2011). This study follows the methodology of Atchley and others (2004) to evaluate potential autogenic and allogenic mechanisms that may account for depositional and pedogenic cyclicity.

Fluvial aggradational cycles (FACs) are the lowest tier of the cyclic stratal hierarchy, and are described as fining-upward, meter-scale successions that are disconformably bound at the base and top (Atchley et al. 2004). An individual FAC is attributed to a single channel avulsion event (Bridge 1984; Kraus 1987; Kraus and Aslan 1999; Atchley et al. 2004; Cleveland et al. 2008; Mintz 2011). FACs stack into decameter-scale FAC-sets, which are disconformably bound at the base and top (Atchley et al. 2004). FAC-sets are interpreted to have been deposited by a series of avulsion episodes as a channel migrated away from, or back toward, a reference point in the alluvial valley (Kraus 1987; Kraus and Aslan 1999; Atchley et al. 2004; Cleveland et al. 2007). Finally, FAC-sets stack into hectometer-scale alluvial sequences that are recognized by a long-period fining-upward trend, thinning-upward of FACs, and the presence of sequence boundaries at the base and top (Atchley et al. 2004). Sequence boundaries are recognized by 1) erosional truncation, 2) long-period inflection from relatively low to high sedimentation rates, 3) the long-period inflection from thinning to thickening of FACs, 4) change in facies proportions from overbank mud dominated

deposits below the boundary to channel sand and gravel dominated deposits above, and 5) the long-period transition from relatively mature and well drained paleosols below the boundary to relatively immature and poorly drained paleosols above (Atchley et al. 2004).

Modified systems tract names are assigned to trends of accommodation change and sedimentation within an alluvial sequence (Atchley et. al. 2004, in review). Trends of increased accommodation gain, high sedimentation, and low paleosol maturity are referred to as transgressive systems tract equivalents (TE), and trends of decreased accommodation gain, decreased sedimentation to erosion, and high paleosol maturity are referred to as highstand- to falling-stage equivalents (HFE; Atchley et. al. 2004). The maximum flooding surface equivalent (MFE) is identified at the inflection of increasing sedimentation/accommodation (TE) and decreasing sedimentation/accommodation (HFE; Atchley et. al. 2004). Alluvial systems tract nomenclature is based solely on stacking-pattern trends and in this study, and have no implications for interpreting eustatic changes.

Previous work using the alluvial stacking pattern analysis methodology has been applied to several types of basins (continental, backarc, passive margin), in which sedimentation and pedogenesis are driven by variations in sea level (Atchley et. al. 2004, in review) or tectonism (Cleveland et. al. 2007, Mintz 2011). In these studies, the greatest and most continuous pedogenic modification occurs during periods of low accommodation. FAC thickness and paleosol maturity have an inverse relationship. Trends of thickening FACs are associated with decreasing paleosol maturity and vice versa.

Paleosol Geochemistry

Pedogenic carbonate samples were collected and analyzed from nodules that were spherical to elliptical in shape, >50 cm from the preserved soil surface, absent of blocky spar, and interpreted to have formed in the vadose zone. Samples were cleaned of siliciclastic material and micritic calcite was collected from each nodule using a small hand drill. Powdered carbonate was analyzed at Baylor University using a Thermo Scientific GasBench II coupled to a Thermo Finnigan Delta V Advantage mass spectrometer, which provided δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values with a precision of $\pm 0.2\%$. Approximately 50 mg of powdered bulk paleosol sediment samples were treated to analyze δ^{13} C values of soil organic matter (SOM). Samples were placed in a small silver cup, treated with a 5% dilute solution of sulfurous acid, dried, and the process was repeated until the reaction digested all the CaCO₃. The soil organic matter was analyzed on the Baylor University Costech elemental analyzer coupled to a Thermo Finnigan Delta V Advantage mass spectrometer, which provides δ^{13} C values with a precision of $\pm 0.1\%$.

Soil-derived calcium carbonate (pedogenic carbonate) has been sampled from paleosols throughout the Phanerozoic and is used to estimate the mean annual temperature and paleoatmospheric pCO₂ at the time of carbonate precipitation (Equation 1 and 2; Cerling 1999; Ekardt et al. 1999; Dworkin et al. 2005). Paleotemperature was estimated using the oxygen isotopic composition of pedogenic carbonate ($\delta^{18}O_{cc(SMOW)}$) and the spatial relationship equation (Equation 1) from Dworkin and others (2005) for soil calcite formed in mid-latitude regions:

Equation 1: $-0.22T^3 + (\delta^{18}O_{cc(SMOW)} + 61.99)T^2 - 2.78 \times 10^6 = 0$ where T is absolute temperature (°K).

Atmospheric pCO₂ was estimated using the carbon isotopic composition of pedogenic carbonate and the isotope mass-balance equation (Equation 2; Cerling 1999; Ekardt et al. 1999):

Equation 2: $[CO_2]_{atm} = Sz([\delta^{13}C_s - 1.0044\delta^{13}C_r - 4.4] / [\delta^{13}C_a - \delta^{13}C_s])$ where $[CO_2]_{atm}$ is atmospheric pCO₂ (ppmV); Sz is the concentration of soil-respired CO₂ (ppmV); and $\delta^{13}C_s$, $\delta^{13}C_r$, and $\delta^{13}C_a$ are the carbon isotopic compositions of soil pCO₂, soil-respired pCO₂, and atmospheric pCO₂, respectively. Soil pCO₂ concentration (Sz) was estimated to be 1000 ppmV during the formation of the carbonate based on a study of modern soil calcite formation in desert soils and of soil carbonate in Vertisols forming in a humid climate (Breecker et al. 2009, Mintz et al., 2011). The $\delta^{13}C$ values of soil organic matter (SOM) was used to represent $\delta^{13}C_r$ ($\delta^{13}C_r = -19$ to -25‰). The $\delta^{13}C$ values of pedogenic carbonate and estimated paleotemperature (from Equation 1) were used to calculate the $\delta^{13}C$ values of soil CO₂ from the temperature-dependent carbonate equilibrium fractionation between calcite and CO₂ (Romanek et al. 1992). Finally, $\delta^{13}C_a$ was estimated using $\delta^{13}C_r$ values and the Arens and others (2000) equation ($\delta^{13}C_a = (\delta^{13}C_r + 18.67) / 1.10$).

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Depositional Facies

A total of seven depositional facies were identified, and then assigned to a Miall (1974) architectural element and depositional system association (Table 1). Facies include subrounded pebble conglomerate, clast-supported (SPCc), subrounded pebble conglomerate, matrix-supported (SPCm), massive sandstone (MS), cross-laminated sandstone (XBS), red laminated mudrock (RLM), intraclast conglomerate (IC), and intraclast sandstone (IS) (Table 1 and Fig. 3). Four depositional systems are interpreted (alluvial, fluvial, lacustrine, and eolian), which are described in Table 1, and are depicted in Figure 5.

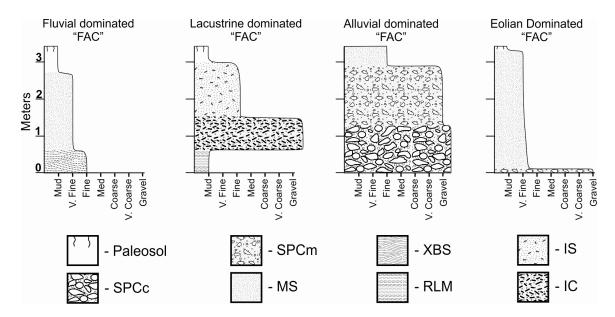


Figure 5. Idealized succession of facies for FACs deposited by fluvial, lacustrine, alluvial, and eolian depositional processes. Compare facies symbols and notation to Table 1.

Pedotypes

A total of six pedotypes are identified that include an Entisol (Paleo-Psamment [Ps]), Inceptisol (Paleo-Aquept [Aq]), two different Aridisols (Paleo-Calcid – fine [Cf] and Paleo-Calcid – coarse [Cc]), and two different Vertisols (Paleo-Calciustert [Cu] and Paleo-Gypsitorrert [Gt]; Table 2 and Fig. 4). Each paleosol was assigned a maturity value and then plotted as cumulative deviation from mean (Fig. 6), and the distribution of pedotypes and paleosol maturity are displayed on the detailed FAC-specific histograms of Figure 7.

Plotting Trends in Sedimentation and Pedogenesis

Cumulative deviation from mean (CDM) FAC thickness, paleosol maturity, and relative abundance of coarse-grained to fine-grained facies (facies proportion) were plotted for each core location to identify long-term stacking patterns (Fig. 6; Sadler et. al. 1993; Drummond and Wilkinson 1993; Lehrmann and Goldhammer 1999; Atchley et. al. 2004). In order to plot CDM facies proportion, site-specific calculations were made to show the relative abundance of fine-grained and coarse-grained facies for each FAC. At location 1, coarse-grained facies include SPCc, SPCm, MS, XBS, IS, and IC, whereas fine-grained facies include RLM and paleosols. At location 2, coarse-grained facies include SPCc and SPCm, whereas fine-grained facies include MS and paleosols. Additionally, distributions of facies and facies thickness, as well as pedotype and paleosol maturity, were plotted for each FAC on histograms for each location to quantitatively assess trends in sedimentation and pedogenesis through time (Fig. 7).

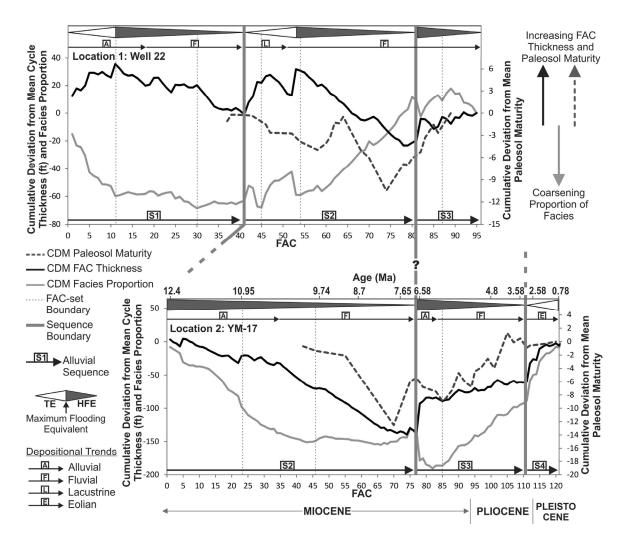


Figure 6. Cumulative deviation from mean (CDM) FAC thickness (bold black line), proportion of facies (bold light gray line), and paleosol maturity (dashed dark gray line) are plotted for both locations. For FAC thickness and paleosol maturity curves, increasing values correspond to increasing thickness/maturity and decreasing trends correspond with decreasing thickness/maturity. For facies proportions, increasing and decreasing trends represent low and high proportions of coarse-grained facies, respectively. Sequences are labeled at the base of each plot with a black arrow and labeled with S1, S2, S3, or S4. TE and HFE are marked with white and dark gray triangles, respectively. Sequence boundaries are designated with thick gray vertical lines and locations are correlated at sequence boundary 2 (SB2). A dashed sequence boundary line means that its position was interpolated. Depositional trends are labeled with arrows just below the systemstracts (A = alluvial; F = fluvial; L = lacustrine; E = eolian). Sequence boundaries and systems tracts were identified using the methodology from Atchley and others (2004).

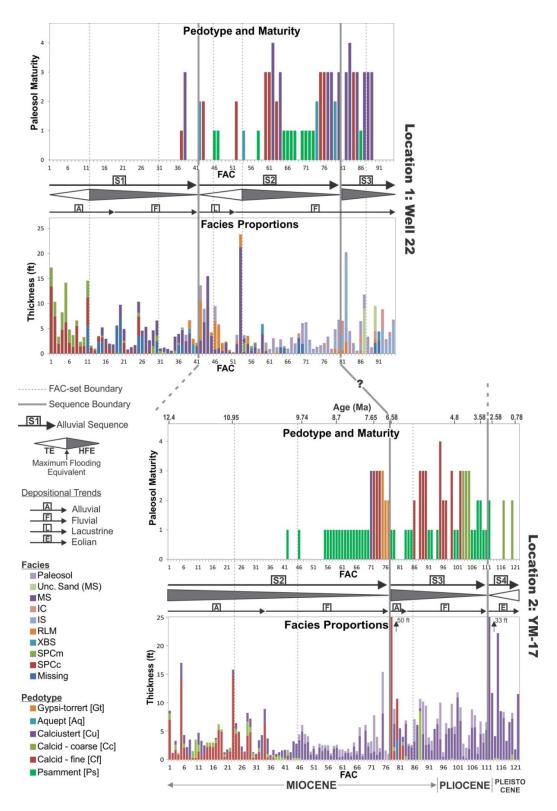


Figure 7. Facies proportions, pedotype, and paleosol maturity histograms for FACs at each location. Depositional trends, sequences, and systems tracts are labeled for each locality. Sequences and systems tracts were identified based on the methodology from Atchley and others (2004).

Potential Sequence-Stratigraphic Correlation

Unlike location 2, location 1 does not have absolute age dates assigned to strata so unequivocal correlation is not possible. However, similarities in long-term trends of FAC thickness, paleosol maturity, and facies proportions are suggestive of equivalence (Figs. 6 and 7). Allogenic processes may produce regionally correlative patterns in sedimentation and pedogenesis (Atchley et al. 2004; Cleveland et al. 2007; Mintz et al. in revision). Thus, the possibility exists that strata at both localities are contemporaneous, at least during the interval of conformable trends.

Sedimentation Rate

The sedimentation rate at location 2 is calculated using the magnetostratigraphic age assignments provided by Langford and others (1999). Sedimentation estimates assume continuous deposition. In reality, the sedimentation rate in a fluvial/alluvial sedimentary system is controlled by rapid deposition during flood events and erosion, non-deposition, or slow deposition during paleosol formation. Initial basin-fill alluvium was deposited at a relatively high rate (2.1 cm/Ky) from about 12 to 10 Ma and then followed by a sudden drop to 0.7 cm/Ky at 9.3 Ma (Figs. 7, 8, and A.2). Paleosol-rich fluvial sandstones deposited from about 10 to 7.5 Ma correspond with low sedimentation rates (~1 cm/Ky; Figs. 7, 8, and A.2). Sedimentation rates gradually increased from 7.5 to 5 Ma and peaked at 2.4 cm/Ky during the deposition of alluvial gravels and subsequent fluvial sands (Fig. 8). At about 5 Ma deposition rates again decreased and remained relatively constant around 1.3 cm/Ky through fluvial and eolian sedimentation of the Plio-Pleistocene (Fig. 8).

No absolute age dates are available for location 1 so detailed sedimentation rates cannot be calculated. However, sequence boundary 2 (SB2) at location 2 is used as a reference point for tentative correlation based on similarities in stacking-pattern trends (Figs. 6 and 7). From this correlation a regional equivalence between the locations is suggested, although not confirmed. "Equivalent" sequences and systems tracts are significantly thinner at location 1, suggesting a lower sedimentation rate (Fig. 6).

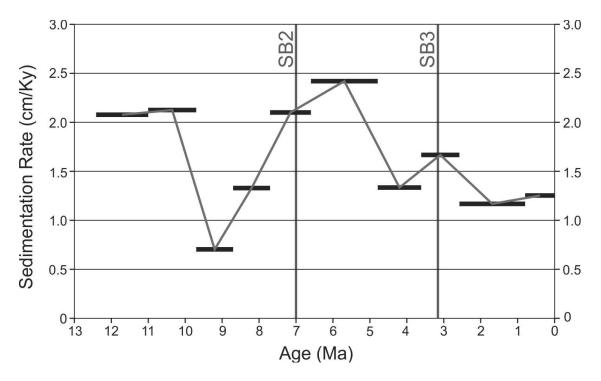


Figure 8. Sedimentation rates from YM-17 (location 2) in cm/Ky were calculated from stratal thicknesses and the absolute age dates of Langford and others (1999).

Alluvial Sequence Stratigraphy

The study interval at location 1 contains 95 FACs that stack into 8 FAC-sets and 3 alluvial sequences through the Fort Hancock Formation (Fig. 6). The facies suggest a variable depositional system through time including alluvial fan, fluvial, and lacustrine processes (Table 1, Figs. 3, 6, and A.1). Thirty-seven paleosols were identified and are

classified as Calciusterts, Aquepts, Calcids (fine), and Psamments with maturity range from 1 to 4 and an average maturity of 2.1 (Table 2, Figs. 4 and 7). Location 2 contains 122 FACs that stack into 6 FAC-sets and 3 alluvial sequences through the Fort Hancock and Camp Rice Formations (Fig. 6). The facies suggest variable trends in depositional style that include alluvial fan, fluvial, and eolian processes (Table 1, Figs. 3, 6, and A.2). Fifty-six paleosols were identified and are classified as Calcids (coarse and fine), Psamments, Gypsitorrerts, and Calciusterts with maturity range from 1 to 4 and an average maturity of 1.7 (Table 2, Figs. 4 and 7).

Sequence 1 (S1) is only present at location 1 where it is bound at the top by sequence boundary 1 (SB1). The underlying sequence boundary is not present. S1 at location 1 has 41 FACs and 3 FAC-sets. The lowest FAC-set has an alluvial fan facies assemblage, thicker than average FACs, coarser than average facies, and is described as occurring within the transgressive equivalent (TE) of S1 (Figs. 6 and A.1). The upper two FAC-sets have a dominantly fluvial facies assemblage, thinner than average FACs, average facies proportion grain-size trend, and are described as occurring within the highstand to falling stage equivalent (HFE) of S1 (Figs. 6 and A.1). Sedimentary structures are rarely preserved due to bioturbation, and pedogenesis is almost completely absent with the exclusion of an Aridisol and a Vertisol (Cf and Cu; average maturity of 2) near the top of S1 (Figs. 7 and A.1).

SB1 is only present at location 1 where it separates the fluvially-dominated HFE of S1 and the lacustrine-dominated TE of sequence 2 (S2). SB1 coincides with the inflection of thinning-upward FACs of S1 and thickening-upward FACs of S2. Paleosol maturity remains relatively uniform below and above SB1, and the grain-size trend of S1 transitions from coarser to finer than average (Figs. 6 and 7).

S2 at location 1 is bound at the base by SB1 and at the top by sequence boundary 2 (SB2) and contains 39 FACs that stack into 3 FAC-sets. The lower two FAC-sets have a lacustrine facies assemblage, thicker than average FACs, finer than average facies proportion trend, lower than average paleosol maturity trend, and are described as the TE of S2 (Figs. 6 and A.1). FACs are lacustrine-dominated, although fluvial sands are also common. Horizontal laminations are observed in lacustrine muds, however, homogenization of the sediment via bioturbation is common. Pedotypes Aq, Cf, and Ps are present and have relatively low maturity values (1 to 2; Fig. 7). The upper FAC-set has a fluvial facies assemblage, thinner than average FACs, finer-grained facies, generally lower than average paleosol maturity, and is the HFE of S2 (Figs. 7 and A.1). FACs are fluvially-dominated, mudrock intraclasts are common within sandstones, and primary sedimentary structures are rarely preserved due to burrowing and rooting. Pedotypes Aq, Cf, Ps, and Cu are present and have highly variable maturities (1-4), although the overall paleosol maturity is lower than average (Figs. 6 and 7).

S2 at location 2 is bound at the top by SB2, but the lower sequence boundary was not penetrated through coring. Seventy-seven FACs stack into 3 FAC-sets with a thinner than average cycle thickness, therefore S2 is described as entirely HFE at location 2 (Fig. 6). The lower two FAC-sets have a dominantly alluvial fan facies assemblage, coarser than average facies, and no sedimentary structures or pedogenic modification is apparent (Figs. 6, 7, and A.2). The upper FAC-set has a fluvial facies assemblage, average to finer than average facies, and a generally lower than average paleosol maturity (Figs. 6 and 7). FACs are fluvially-dominated, with no preserved primary sedimentary structures due to bioturbation. Rooting and pedogenic modification are common, especially near the top of S2, including pedotypes Ps, Cu, Cf, and Gt. Poorly developed Ps (maturity of 1)

paleosols dominate until the upper-most portion of S2, where better developed Cu, Cf, and Gt paleosols (maturity of 2-3) occur (Fig. 7). At both localities, trends in paleosol maturity and FAC thickness reach the lowest recorded value of the entire study interval just prior to SB2 (Fig. 6).

SB2 separates thinning-upward cycles of the S2 HFE and relatively uniform thickness cycles of the sequence 3 (S3) HFE at location 1 and 2. SB2 at location 1 occurs between underlying paleosol-bearing fluvially-dominated FACs of S2 and overlying lacustrine-rich fluvially-dominated FACs of S3 (Figs. 7 and A.1). A higher than average paleosol maturity trend initially decreases across SB2, but overall, maturity increases above SB2 (Figs. 6 and 7). A finer than average facies proportion trend of S2 abruptly changes to a coarser than average trend at SB2 (Fig. 6). SB2 at location 2 separates underlying paleosol-rich fluvially-dominated FACs of S2 and overlying alluvially-dominated FACs of S3 (Figs. 7 and A.2).

S3 at location 1 is bound at the base by SB2 and the upper boundary was not collected during coring. Fifteen FACs stack into 2 FAC-sets, which have a fluvial facies assemblage, average to slightly higher than average FAC thickness, average to coarser than average facies, higher than average paleosol maturity, and are assigned to only HFE (Figs. 6 and 7). Facies are dominated by fluvial sands, although lacustrine mudrocks occur at the base of S3. Sedimentary structures are absent and were likely destroyed by biogenic modification. Paleosols are only present within the lower half of S3. Pedotypes Aq, Cu, and Cf dominate and have moderate to high maturity values (3-4); however, one low maturity (1) Ps is present as well (Figs. 7 and A.1).

S3 at location 2 is bound by SB2 at the base and sequence boundary 3 (SB3) at the top. 34 FACs stack into 2 FAC-sets that have an average to slightly higher than

average FAC thickness trend. S3 is described as HFE (Fig. 7). The lower FAC-set has alluvially-dominated FACs, coarser than average to average facies, and lower than average paleosol maturity (Fig. 6). FACs are initially dominated by poorly-sorted mudrich gravel (diamict) but fine-upward abruptly into fluvially-dominated FACs (Fig. 7 and A.2). Sedimentary structures are absent and were likely destroyed by bioturbation. Pedotypes Ps and Cf are present, but have very low maturity (1.2 average; Fig. 7). The upper FAC-set has fluvially-dominated FACs, finer than average facies, and sporadic but overall higher than average paleosol maturity. FACs are fluvially-dominated and all sedimentary structures were destroyed by bioturbation. Trends in paleosol development alternate back and forth between low maturity (1-2) Ps and moderate to high maturity (2-4) Cf or Cc (Fig. 7).

SB3 is only present at location 2 where it separates the relatively uniform thickness FACs of the S3 HFE and thickening-upward FACs of sequence 4 (S4). SB3 occurs between paleosol-bearing fluvially-dominated FACs of S3 and eolian-dominated FACs of S4 (Figs. 7 and A.2). Finer than average facies continue across SB3 with no significant change, but paleosol maturity changes from higher than average (S3) to relatively average (S4; Fig. 6).

S4 is only present at location 2 and is bound at the base by SB3. The upper boundary was not sampled during coring. Eleven FACs stack into 1 FAC-set, which has an eolian-dominated thicker than average FACs, finer than average facies, average paleosol maturity, and is described as only TE (Figs. 6 and A.2). Pedogenic modification is low and sedimentary structures were likely destroyed by bioturbation and eolian reworking of sediment. Only 3 weakly developed (maturity of 2) paleosols are present, including pedotypes Ps and Cc (Fig. 7).

Stable Isotopes of Soil Organic Matter and Pedogenic Carbonate

At location 1, 52 samples of bulk soil organic matter (SOM) were analyzed in duplicate for δ^{13} C, and resultant values are relatively consistent through the study interval (average δ^{13} C of -24.1‰ \pm 0.9‰ relative to VPDB standard) (Fig. 9). Paleotemperature and paleoatmospheric pCO₂ were estimated using the δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of pedogenic carbonates, respectively (Table 3). Paleotemperature was calculated using equation 1, resulting in an estimated 22.1°C at location 1. Paleoatmospheric pCO₂ was estimated using equation 2 and the resulting concentrations varied from 275 to 1235 ppmV (parts per million by volume). The pCO₂ gradually decreases up-section, with the lowest concentration just below SB2, and rises to the highest concentration just above SB2 (Fig. 9).

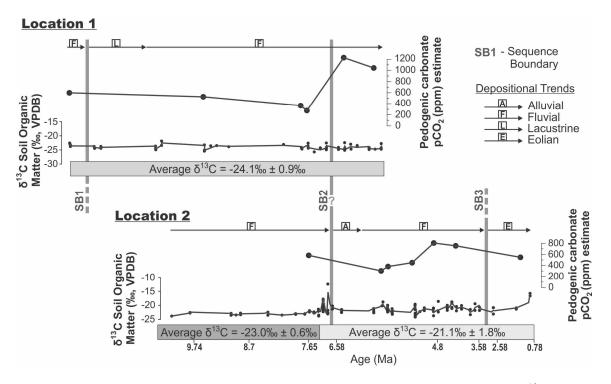


Figure 9. Pedogenic carbonate-derived pCO₂ estimates (from equation 2) and δ^{13} C values of soil organic matter (SOM) plotted for each location and tentatively correlated at SB2.

Table 3. List of pedogenic carbonate-derived pCO₂ estimates, paleotemperature estimates, and remaining variables used to calculate pCO₂ (equation 2).

			Locatio	n 1		
Paleosol	Sz	$\delta^{13}C_s$	$\delta^{13}C_r$	$\delta^{13}C_a$	Temp (°C)	pCO ₂
W-22-2	1000	-13.1	-22.9	-3.8	22.1	595.4
W-22-8	1000	-13.9	-23.3	-4.2	22.1	526.5
W-22-16	1000	-16.1	-24.4	-5.2	22.1	366.8
W-22-19	1000	-16.3	-23.7	-4.6	22.1	274.5
W-22-22	1000	-12.3	-24.9	-5.6	22.1	1233.0
W-22-24	1000	-12.7	-24.6	-5.4	22.1	1041.4

Location 2 $\delta^{13}C_s$ $\delta^{13}C_r$ $\delta^{13}C_a$ Temp (°C) **Paleosol** \mathbf{Sz} pCO_2 -12.8 YM-17-15 1000 24.5 581.6 -22.3 -3.3 YM-17-24 1000 -12.4 -19.5 -0.8 24.5 303.1 YM-17-25 1000 -13.1 -21.2 -2.3 24.5 380.5 -11.7 YM-17-27 1000 -19.9 -1.1 24.5 448.3 YM-17-30 1000 -11.4 -22.4 -3.4 24.5 802.4 YM-17-32 1000 -10.5 -20.0 -1.2 24.5 753.5 YM-17-36 -12.0 -21.2 24.5 1000 -2.3 546.3

At location 2, 56 SOM samples were analyzed in duplicate for their δ^{13} C values, which ranged from about -24 to -12‰ PDB. Depth plots reveal two distinct intervals (Fig. 9). From ~10 Ma to 7.25 Ma the data range from -22.3 to -23.9‰ with an average δ^{13} C value of -23.0‰ \pm 0.61‰, and from ~7.25 to 1 Ma the data range from -12.4 to -24.2‰, with an average δ^{13} C value of -21.1‰ \pm 1.81‰. These two groups of data were analyzed via single-tailed t-test and were determined to be statistically different (p = 1.7 x \pm 10⁻¹²).

The δ¹³C and δ¹⁸O values of pedogenic carbonates at location 1 provide a paleotemperature estimate of 22.1°C and pCO₂ estimates ranging from 600 to 1230 ppmV (Table 3 and Fig. 9). Paleotemperature at location 2 was estimated at 24.5°C and pCO₂ estimates range from about 300 to 800 ppmV (Table 3 and Fig. 9). An abrupt increase in pCO₂ is apparent adjacent to SB2 at location 1, but is not apparent at location 2, possibly due to the limited availability of pedogenic carbonate samples (Fig. 9). The combined pCO₂ estimates appear to correspond, I a general sense, with trends of global pCO₂; however, the range and amplitudes of the pedogenic carbonate-derived pCO₂ estimates are much higher than the global reconstruction (Fig. 10). This may be due to errors in constraining soil-forming conditions (e.g., soil CO₂ concentration, soil respiration rates, etc.). Recent work on modern soils has greatly improved our understanding of the isotope behavior of carbonates in soil-forming environments (Breecker et al. 2009; Mintz et al. 2011), although more research is needed to constrain these variables.

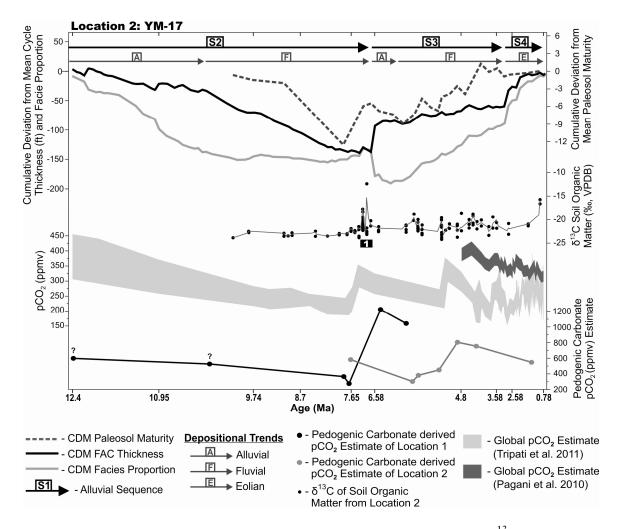


Figure 10. Combined plots of CDM curves from location 2 (see Fig. 6), δ^{13} C values of soil organic matter from location 2, pedogenic carbonate derived pCO₂ estimates from location 1 (black circles and black line), pedogenic carbonate derived pCO₂ estimates from location 2 (gray circles and gray line), and global pCO₂ reconstructions from alkenone-CO₂ estimates (dark gray; site 925, Pagani et al. 2010) and boron/calcium isotopes of forams (light grey; Tripati et al. 2011). Pedogenic carbonate-derived pCO₂ estimates from location 1 were correlated to the absolute age estimates of location 2 at SB2 (between S2 and S3). Error in correlation increases with distance from the shown correlation point because the sedimentation rate is lower at location 1; thus, the age of the two oldest pCO₂ estimates from location 1 are approximated and marked with "?". Sequences and depositional trends are labeled at the top. The black box labeled "1" marks the onset of C₄ expansion at location 2.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

Discrepancies with Original Alluvial Stacking-Pattern Concepts

Sequence and systems-tract designations are assigned using the original stacking-pattern methodology (see methods section), however, distinct differences are apparent in trends of paleosol maturity. The original model predicts a change from very mature to low-maturity paleosols across sequence boundaries, whereas paleosols in this study appear to increase in maturity or remain relatively stable across sequence boundaries (Fig. 6). Furthermore, paleosol maturity does not decrease with increasing sedimentation/accommodation of the TE, nor increase with decreasing sedimentation/accommodation of the HFE. Contrary to the original alluvial stacking-pattern concepts, increasing paleosol maturity is associated with increasing FAC thickness, and vice versa (Figs. 6 and 7).

Potential Causal Mechanisms

Eustatic Influences

Previous work has identified eustatic fluctuations (Atchley et al. 2004) and regional tectonism (Cleveland et al. 2007; Mintz et al. in revision) as drivers for sequence-scale cyclicity. Atchley and others (2004) conducted their study on a Late Cretaceous-Early Tertiary coastal-plain succession in which sea-level fluctuations were interpreted to have directly affected base level and dynamic equilibrium within the study area. The present study focuses on two rift basins within the craton interior, over 650 km

from the nearest paleocoastline. Therefore, variations in global sea level likely did not have a direct influence on base level, dynamic equilibrium, sedimentation, nor accommodation within the study area.

Tectonic Influences

The southeast Hueco Bolson and northwest Eagle Flat Basin formed from Basinand-Range extensional tectonism during the Late Cenozoic (Collins and Raney 1994).

Langford and others (1999) reported that faulting in the NW Eagle Flat Basin may
predate 14 Ma. No evidence was found from seismic or core data to suggest faulting of
basin-fill strata (Collins and Raney 1994, Langford et al. 1999). Initial alluvial
sedimentation occurred from 12.4 Ma to 10 Ma, possibly during active tectonism (Fig. 6),
however, overlying strata show a gradually decreasing piedmont slope up-section
(Langford et al. 1999) that suggests tectonic quiescence throughout the remaining history
of the basin. Hueco Bolson tectonism began as early as 29 Ma and continues today.

Location 1 is positioned on the stable footwall block northeast of the Campo Grande
Fault trend and was probably not affected by extensive normal faulting of the Hueco
Bolson (Fig. 1). No absolute age dates are available for location 1 so the timing of basin
formation within the study area is unknown.

Initial basin-fill stratigraphy at both locations is dominated by thick successions of alluvial conglomerate that fine-upward into fluvial/lacustrine-dominated basins (Figs. 6 and 7). This depositional pattern, in combination with the tectonic history, suggests second- or third-order, tectonically-induced accommodation gain (via rifting). As accommodation was filled, deposition evolved into a relatively lower-gradient depositional system. The occurrence of higher-frequency depositional cycles (e.g.,

sequences) within this longer-period tectonic trend argues for a hierarchy of accommodation periods. Possible higher-frequency mechanisms are evaluated in the following sections.

Climate and Landscape Development

Evidence for climate-driven sequence-scale cyclicity is provided, in part, by discrepancies with prior stacking-pattern analysis records. As discussed above, paleosol maturity does not drastically decrease across sequence boundaries (Fig. 6). Instead, paleosol maturity appears to parallel trends in sedimentation, as shown in Figs. 6 and 8, whereby increasing FAC thickness and sedimentation rate correspond with increasing paleosol maturity, and vice versa. Therefore, sedimentation and paleosol development co-vary, but are inverted from the classic stacking pattern model. This implies that the degree of paleosol development was not influenced by landscape stability and exposure time alone.

The Fort Hancock and Camp Rice Formations were previously interpreted to have been deposited in an arid to semi-arid climate (Gustavson, 1991). Observations from this study support a relatively arid climatic interpretation. Alluvial fan facies may suggest little vegetation covering the landscape (low landscape stability). Evaporite deposits imply occasional flooding events and subsequent evaporation. Thick successions of clayrich conglomerates (diamicts) are diagnostic of rapid deposition from flooding within an arid climate (flashy flow deposits). Carbonate-rich paleosols, in combination with gypsum-rich Vertisols and calic Aridisols, imply pedogenic modification within a relatively arid climate.

Global pCO₂ reconstructions from the Miocene to Pleistocene were correlated with trends in stacking patterns, δ^{13} C values of SOM, and pedogenic carbonate-derived pCO₂ estimates (Fig. 10). Figure 10 shows similar patterns between local pCO₂ estimates, global atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and trends in sedimentation and paleosol maturity. Long-term decreasing estimates of pCO₂, from 12.4 to 7.5 Ma, correlate with decreasing FAC thickness and decreasing paleosol maturity (Fig. 10). Abrupt increase in estimated pCO₂ at 7.5 Ma corresponds with the major inflection to increasing FAC thickness, increasing paleosol maturity, SB2 formation, rapid increase in sedimentation rate, deposition of thick successions of diamict (flashy flow deposits), gypsum-bearing paleosols, and the possible onset of C_4 grasses (Figs. 7, 8, 10, and A.2). This pCO₂ "pulse" was followed by multiple episodes of abrupt pCO₂ increases and subsequent more gradual decreases. From 7.5 Ma to 3 Ma, episodic pCO₂ pulses correspond with an interval of sporadic variability in paleosol maturity (Fig. 10). Overall, variability in global pCO₂ concentration appears to have a direct influence on landscape development through time by modifying regional climate and weathering intensity.

Variations in global CO₂ as a driver for sequence-scale trends of sedimentation and paleosol development within an arid environment could be explained by corresponding trends of moisture availability. As atmospheric pCO₂ decreases, global temperatures decrease, global ice volume increases, equatorial evaporation decreases, and moisture is removed from the system. Evidence for this is shown by the eastern Antarctic glacial expansion during the long-term decrease in pCO₂ from about 14 to 10 Ma, following the middle Miocene climatic optimum (Flower and Kennett 1995; Zachos et al. 2001; Tripati et al. 2011). As atmospheric pCO₂ increases, global temperature increases,

glaciers melt, and equatorial evaporation is amplified, increasing atmospheric water vapor on a global-scale. This occurred during the middle Miocene climatic optimum (14-16 Ma) when pCO₂ concentration is estimated to have been at the highest levels in the Neogene and global ice volume was low to absent (Flower and Kennett 1995; Zachos et al. 2001; Tripati et al. 2011). Globally extensive desert formation, eolian deposition, and decreasing vegetation cover during periods of increasing global ice volume suggest that global aridity increases during periods of global cooling (Adams 1997; Zhisheng et al. 1999). In this case, decreasing pCO₂ is associated with increasing global aridity and increasing pCO₂ is associated with increasing global humidity.

This complementary relationship between CO₂ and aridity is archived in trends of paleosol maturity and FAC thickness. During periods of increasing aridity (decreasing pCO₂, 12.4 to 7.5 Ma) the landscape appears to have been relatively static, with low sedimentation rates, sparse vegetation, and weak pedogenesis (Figs. 6 and 10). Increased delivery of moisture (pulses of increased pCO₂, 7.5 to 0.78 Ma) to the area corresponds with flooding and increased sedimentation, as well as increased biological activity, chemical and physical weathering, and high pedogenic modification of the landscape (Figs. 6 and 10). Estimates of pCO₂ show an overall decreasing trend from the middle Miocene to Pleistocene, with pulses of increased CO₂ that occur on a third- to fourth-order scale. These higher-frequency climate pulses are superimposed on longer-period tectonic accommodation gain. Therefore, a composite accommodation history is archived within strata of the southeastern Hueco Bolson and northwestern Eagle Flat Basin.

C₄ Ecosystems and Landscape Development

Although climate may be a driver for depositional cyclicity, the ecology appears to influence deposition as well. The onset of C_4 grasses may have occurred at location 2 at about 7.25 Ma, as suggested by a change in $\delta^{13}C$ values of SOM from relatively constant C_3 values of -23.0% \pm 0.6% PDB, to a more variable range of -21.1% \pm 1.8% PDB (Fig. 9). The timing of potential C_4 expansion at location 2 falls within the same interval as the global record (8-6 Ma; Fig. 11).

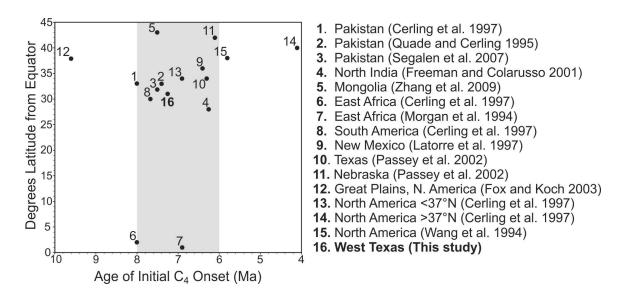


Figure 11. Plot showing the timing of C_4 plant expansion and reconstructed paleolatitude of compiled global data, including this study (16). The majority of records report an initial C_4 onset to occur between 8 and 6 Ma (shaded in gray), regardless of latitudinal variability.

Expansion of C₄ grasses may have affected sedimentation and landscape formation at location 2. For example, trends of paleosol maturity and FAC thickness steadily increase and the proportion of facies changes to dominantly fine-grained (MS) following the expansion (Figs. 6 and 7). Sedimentation rate decreases as FAC thickness is increasing, implying that flooding and avulsion events occurred less commonly, but had a higher magnitude when they did occur. C₄ grasses may have filled an ecological

niche within the previously "pure" C₃ environment and promoted increased landscape stability. Increased channel stability, in turn, resulted in reduced avulsion and flooding, and only higher-magnitude flooding events affected the depositional systems.

A shift from weakly developed Entisols (pedotype Ps) to dominantly well-developed Vertisols (pedotype Cu and Gt) and Aridisols (pedotypes Cc and Cf) is contemporaneous with the onset of C₄ grasses at location 2 (Figs. 7 and 10). Whereas the occurrence of well-developed paleosols is attributed to episodic wetting events, the presence of C₄ grasses likely played a role in increased pedogenic modification of the landscape. Grasses have rapid growth rates, deeply penetrating roots, and commonly very high densities, which accelerate chemical and physical weathering and bind the soil. If C₄ grasses did have such an effect on the landscape, modern mixed C₃-C₄ ecosystems should probably not be used as analogs for understanding pre-C₄ sedimentary systems.

C₄ Grasses and Climate

The evolution of C_4 grasses is interpreted to have occurred in the middle Miocene before 12.5 Ma (MacGinitie 1962; Tidwell and Nambudiri 1989), although the majority of records suggest an expansion between 8 and 6 Ma (Fig. 11). Perhaps climate needed to reach a tipping point before C_3 ecosystems were outcompeted by C_4 grasses. Previous research suggested that C_4 plants can outcompete C_3 plants when pCO₂ decreases below a threshold of 400 ± 100 ppmV in low- to mid-latitudes (Cerling et al. 1997; Ehleringer et al. 1997). According to global pCO₂ estimates (Tripati et al. 2011), this threshold was crossed about ~5 Ma before the global expansion of C_4 grasses (Fig. 10). Furthermore, a rapid increase in atmospheric pCO₂ occurred in unison with the putative C_4 expansion at location 2 (~7.5 Ma) and the vast majority of other global records (Figs. 10 and 11).

These records suggest that CO₂ starvation of C₃ plants was not the only driver for C₄ expansion. Decreasing pCO₂ likely influenced C₄ plant evolution (Cerling et al. 1997; Ehleringer et al. 1997), but a global shift to C₄ dominated ecosystems may have also been influenced by abrupt climate change, extensive flooding, and ecosystem disruption associated with rapidly increasing pCO₂.

Some studies report an asynchronous C₄ expansion to the globally established 8 to 6 Ma range (Cerling et al. 1997; Fox and Koch 2003; Sanyal et al., 2010). Cerling and others (1997) suggested an initial onset in equatorial regions, followed by a gradual expansion into higher latitudes; however, a compilation of 16 datasets from varying latitudes show no such trend (Fig. 11; Morgan et al. 1994; Quade and Cerling 1995; Cerling et al. 1997; Latorre et al. 1997; Freeman and Calarusso 2001; Passey et al. 2002; Fox and Koch 2003; Ségalen et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2009). Sanyal and others (2010) reported a 3 My difference in timing of C₄ expansion between sites less than 200 km apart, in northern India. This asynchronous expansion is attributed to local climate (Indian monsoon) and habitat disturbance overriding global drivers of C₄ onset (Sanyal et al. 2010).

Location 1 does not show evidence for a shift to a C₄ ecosystem (Fig. 9). This may be attributable to either an incorrect time-stratigraphic correlation or to significant differences in environmental conditions between the Eagle Flat Basin and Hueco Bolson. Location 1 shows evidence for common flooding events and consistently moister conditions than location 2, including lacustrine deposits, poorly drained Aquepts and hydromorphic Usterts, more mature paleosols, and an assemblage of pedotypes that typically reflect poor drainage (Figs. 7, A.1, and A.2). Perhaps episodic flooding (via the ancestral Rio Grande) superseded climatic effects and their control on C₄ grass expansion

within the SE Hueco Bolson. If this hypothesis is correct, then the data presented here suggest that asynchronous C₄ expansion is likely related to site-specific environmental conditions, as proposed by Sanyal and others (2010). Absolute age dates for location 1 strata are needed to confirm this.

CHAPTER SIX

Conclusions

- 1) Patterns in sedimentation and pedogenesis within the SE Hueco Bolson and NW Eagle Flat Basin are found to have a cyclic stratal hierarchy. Alluvial stacking-pattern analysis reveals long-term trends in cycle thickness, paleosol maturity, and facies proportions that allow sequence stratigraphic interpretation.
 - a. Location 1 contains 95 FACs that stack into 8 FAC-sets and 3 alluvial sequences and location 2 contains 122 FACs that stack into 6 FAC-sets and 3 alluvial sequences.
 - b. Based on significantly similar stacking-pattern trends, absolute ages of strata at location 2 are tentatively correlated to undated strata of location 1 using sequence boundary 2 as a correlation point. This correlation is not absolute but substantial evidence is presented to allow for sequencestratigraphic correlation.
- 2) The climate of west Texas during the Neogene is interpreted as arid to semi-arid as suggested by sedimentology, inferred depositional style, pedogenic features, and distribution of pedotypes and paleosol maturity. Additionally, atmospheric pCO₂ gradually decreased through the Neogene and suggests increasing global aridity (Tripati et al. 2011).
- 3) Tectonism is interpreted to have produced second- and/or third-order accommodation gain that was filled by an overall fining-upward alluvial record within the SE Hueco Bolson and NW Eagle Flat Basin.

- 4) Higher-frequency cycles of fluvial and lacustrine sedimentation and associated pedogenesis are superimposed onto the overall fining-upward tectonic fill succession. Stacking-pattern trends of FAC thickness, proportion of facies, and paleosol maturity correlate well with global pCO₂ concentrations, suggesting that sequence-scale trends in sedimentation and pedogenesis are controlled by long-term (perhaps third- and/or fourth-order) climate cycles.
- 5) The expansion of C₄ grasses is interpreted to occur at location 2 at about 7.25 Ma.
 - a. Following the onset of C₄ grasses, decreased sedimentation rate corresponded with increased FAC thickness, and suggests that flooding and avulsion events occurred less often and only in conjunction with higher-magnitude floods. Therefore, C₄ grass expansion may have assisted in stabilizing landscapes of west Texas.
 - b. Paleosol development increased following the onset of C₄ grasses and may be attributed to the rapid growth rate, deeply penetrating roots, and high density roots of C₄ grasses, as well as decreased sedimentation rate.
- 6) A rapid increase in pCO₂ occurred in unison with C₄ expansion at location 2 and the majority of other records across the globe (~7.5 Ma). Abrupt climate change and habitat disturbance associated with the rapid increase in pCO₂ may be a driver for the global shift to C₄-dominated ecosystems.
- 7) The onset of C₄ ecosystems does not occur within the study interval at location 1. This may be due to incorrect correlation, or local conditions that inhibited the expansion of C₄ grasses within the SE Hueco Bolson.

- a. Data presented in this study (and an analog study in a monsoonal climate) suggest that asynchronous C_4 expansion is caused by site-specific climatic and landscape conditions.
- b. Location 1 shows evidence for common flooding and consistently moister conditions than location 2. Episodic flooding from the ancestral Rio Grande may have superseded climatic effects and their control on C₄ expansion within the SE Hueco Bolson. Absolute ages for location 1 strata are needed to evaluate this possibility.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Stratigraphic Sections

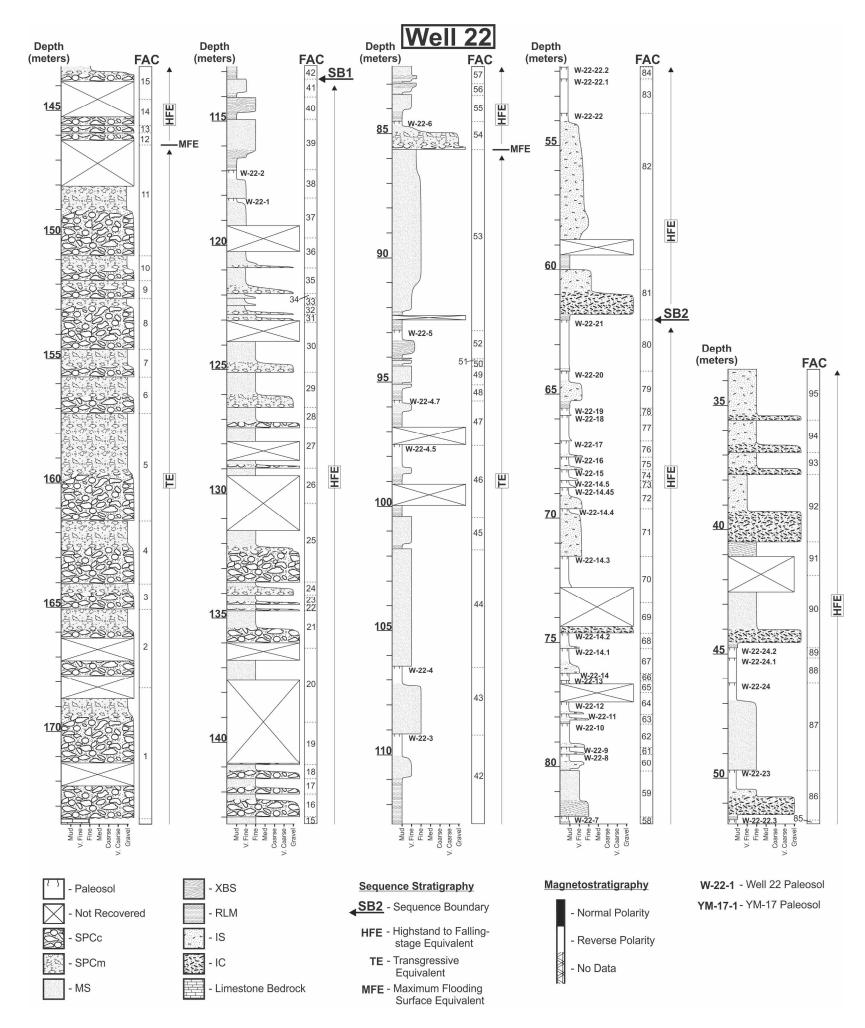


Figure A.1. Stratigraphic section of Well 22 (location 1) from the SE Hueco Bolson. Labeled immediately to the right of the graphical measured section is the fluvial aggradational cycle (FAC) number (from 1 to 95). To the right of the FAC numbers are identified sequence boundaries (sequence 1 is below SB1, sequence 2 is below SB2 and above SB1, etc.) and intrasequence systems tracts. Small bold labels within the graphical section are paleosols (e.g., W-22-1). Fill patterns within the graphical stratigraphic section represent individual facies and their associated sedimentary structures. For detailed facies distributions and pedotype classification, distribution, and maturity refer to Figure 7. For detailed sequence-stratigraphic interpretations, depositional trends, distribution of FAC-sets, and trends in paleosol maturity, FAC thickness, and grain-size refer to Figure 6.

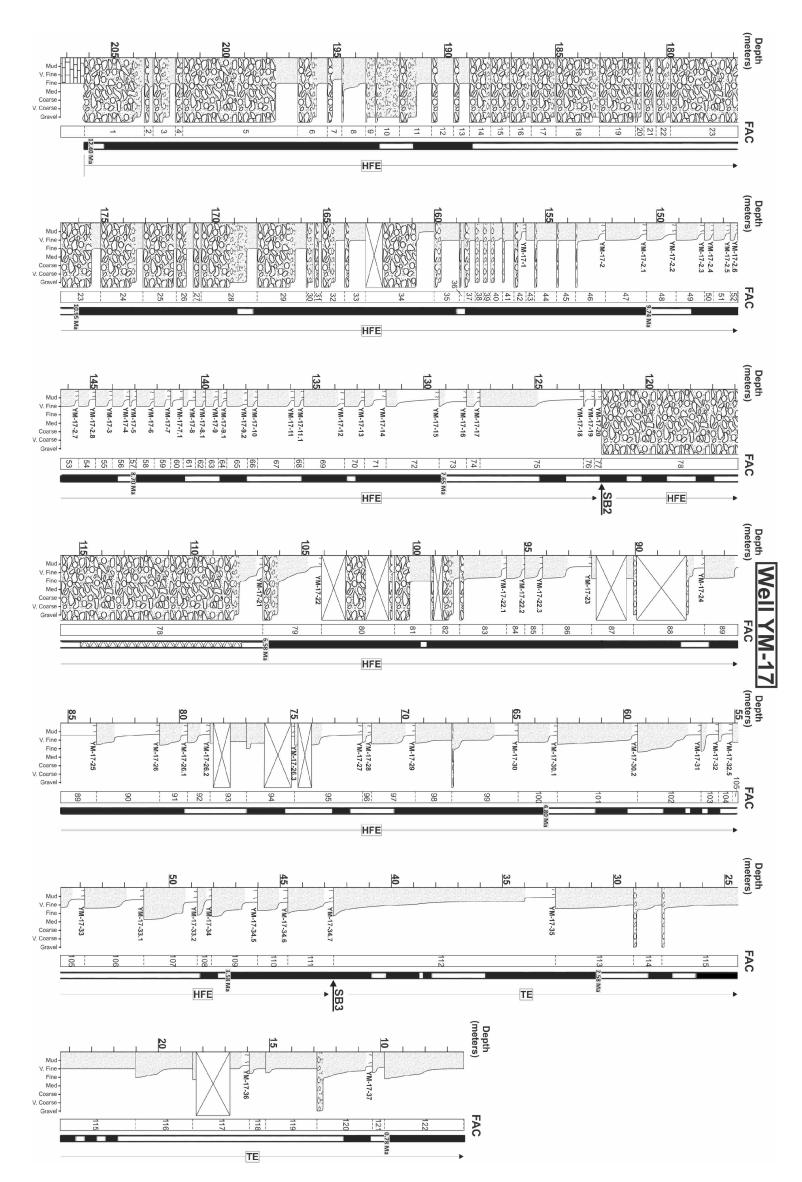


Figure A.2. Stratigraphic section of YM-17 (location 2) from the NW Eagle Flat Basin. The legend is located in Figure A.1. Labeled immediately to the right of the graphical measured section is the fluvial aggradational cycle (FAC) number (from 1 to 122). To the right of the FAC numbers is the magnetostratigraphy and absolute ages from Langford and others (1999). To the right of magnetostratigraphy are identified sequence boundaries (sequence 1 is below SB1, sequence 2 is below SB2 and above SB1, etc.) and intra-sequence systems tracts. Small bold labels within the graphical section are paleosols (e.g. YM-17-1). Fill patterns within the graphical stratigraphic section represent individual facies and their associated sedimentary structures. For detailed facies distributions and pedotype classification, distribution, and maturity refer to Figure 7. For detailed sequence-stratigraphic interpretations, depositional trends, distribution of FAC-sets, and trends in paleosol maturity, FAC thickness, and grain-size refer to Figure 6.

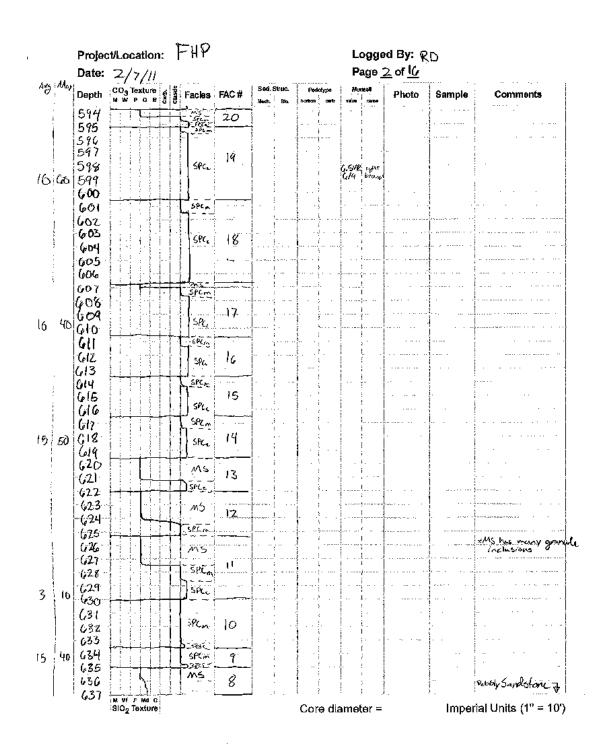
APPENDIX B

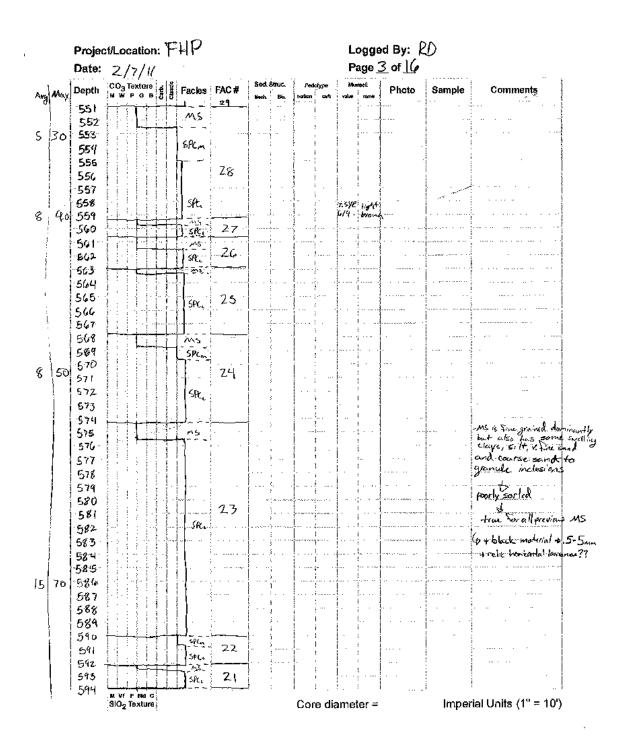
Core Description Logs

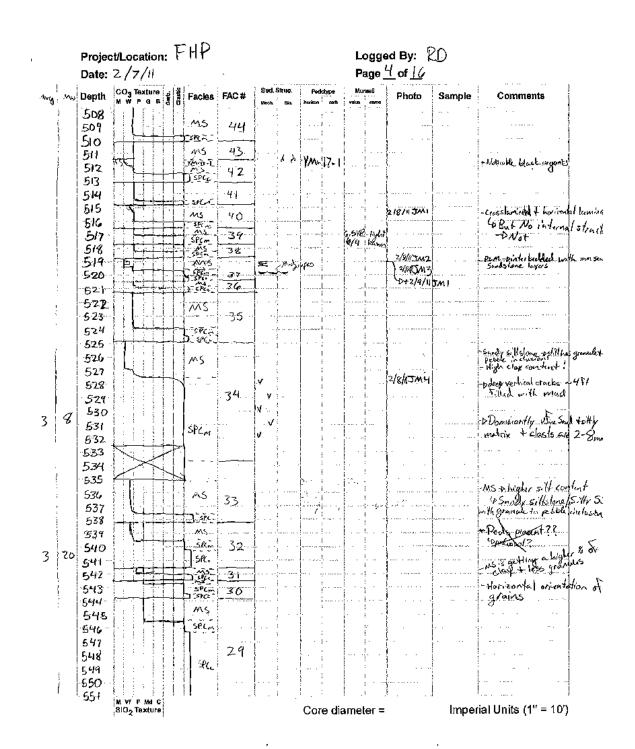
Symbols

Symbol Legend	
=-planar laminations	
w-x-bedding	
se - Flame structure Soft sed deformation	
1/2 - rooting	
à - carbonate nodule (pedegenie)	
±>-Slicken Sides	
- Remnant luminae / x bods	
#so - Scoyenia burrous (bedla)	····
lsk - Skolithos burrows	
VAR - Arenicolites burgous	
7 - Unidentified burrow	
0 - Intraclast	
- lithoclust	
i' - Organic material	
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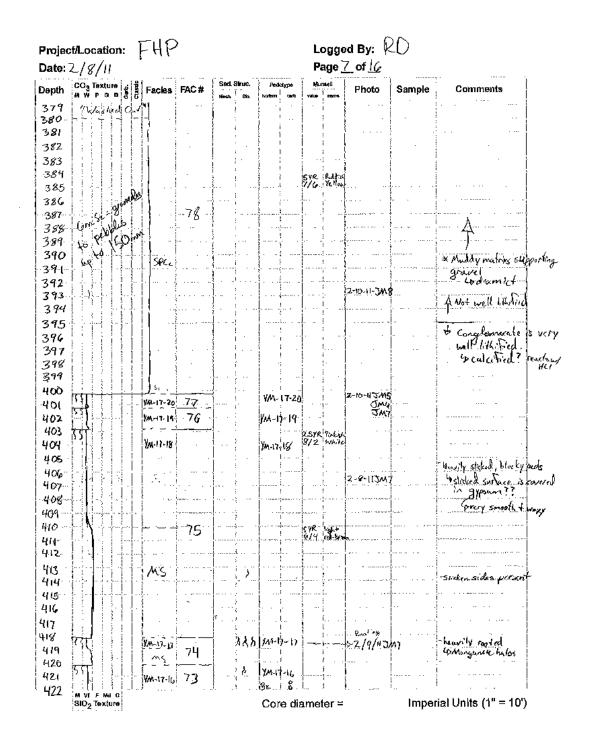


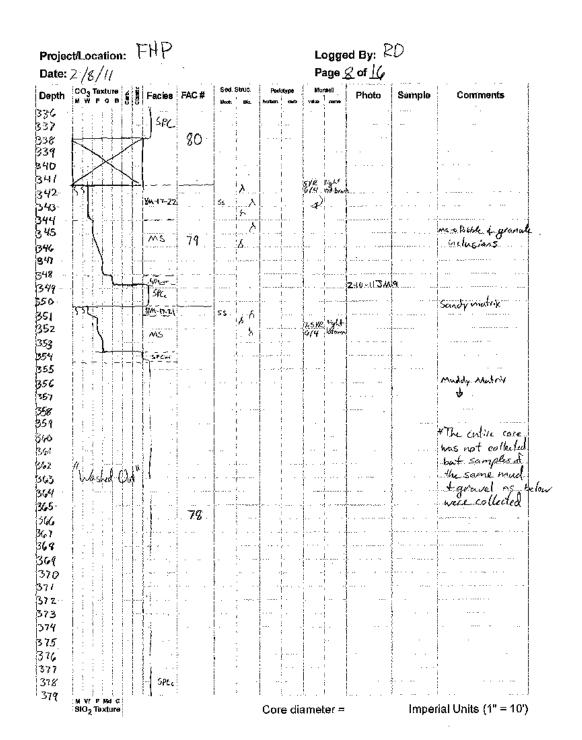


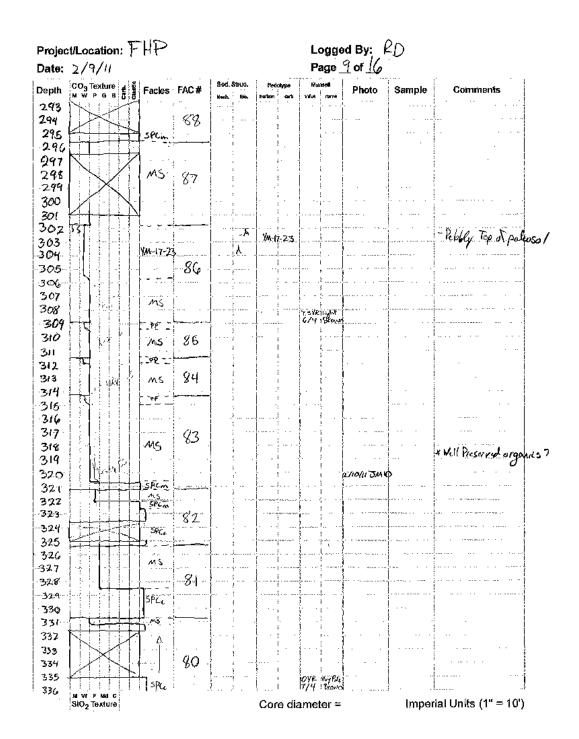


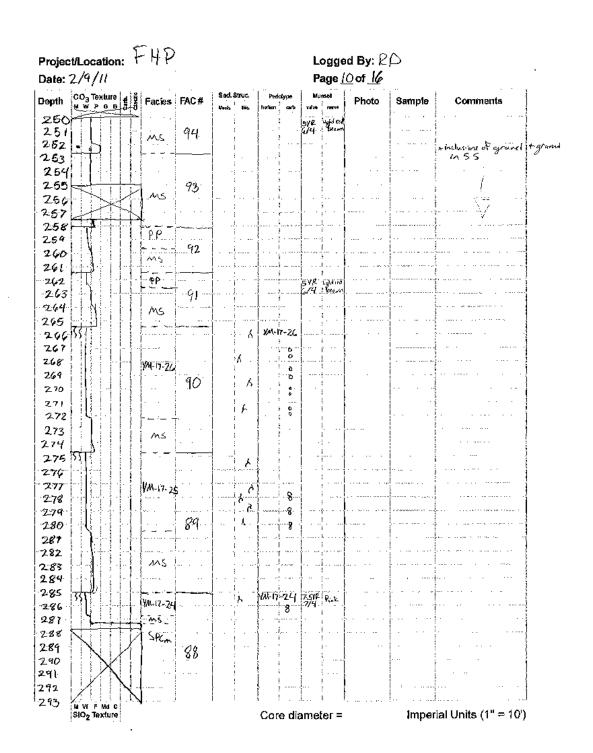
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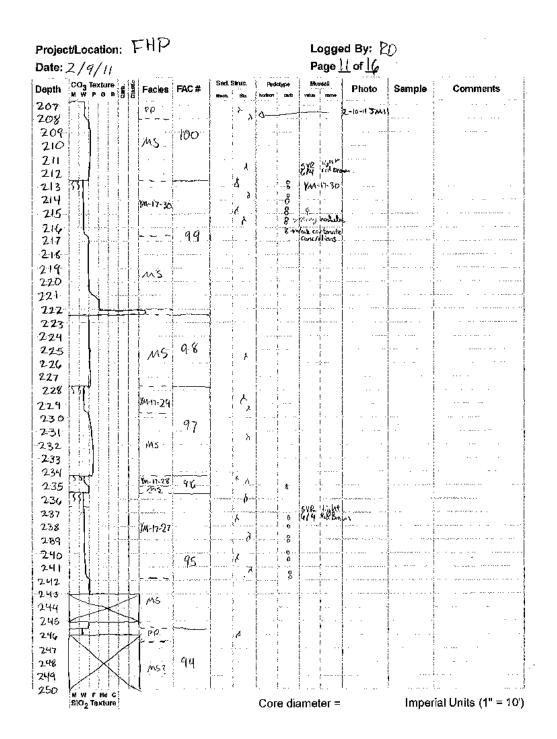
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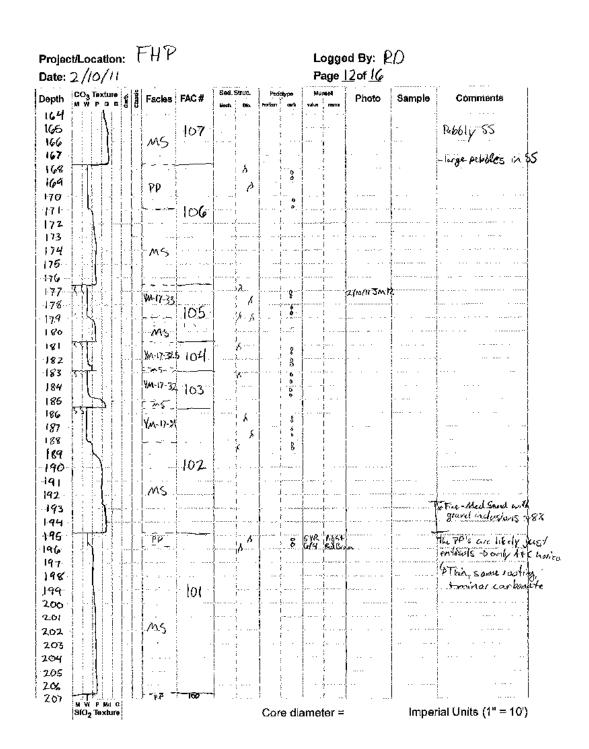


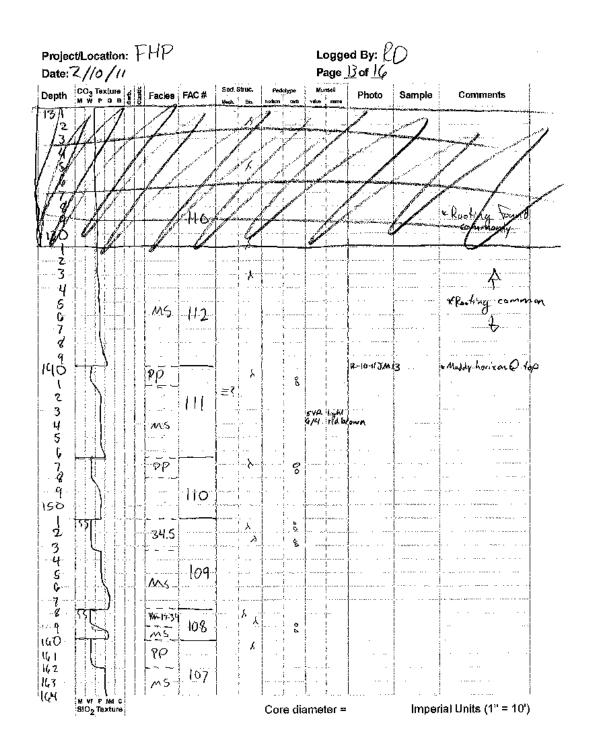


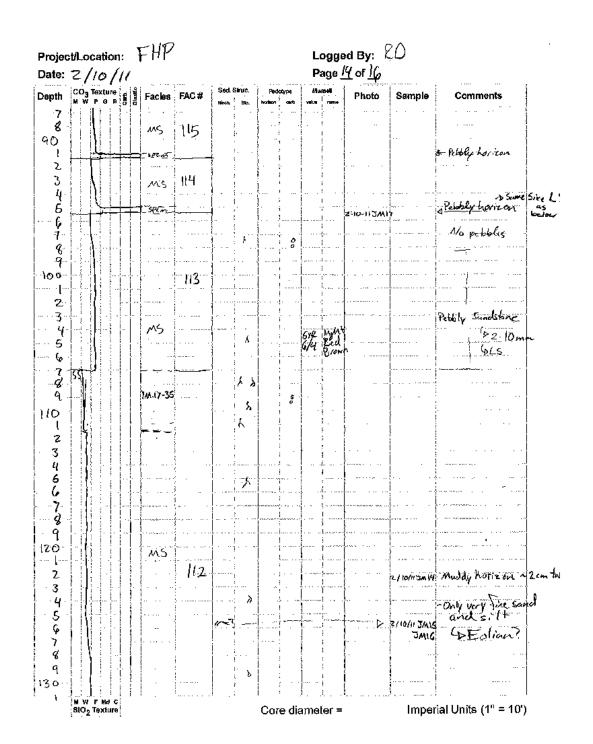


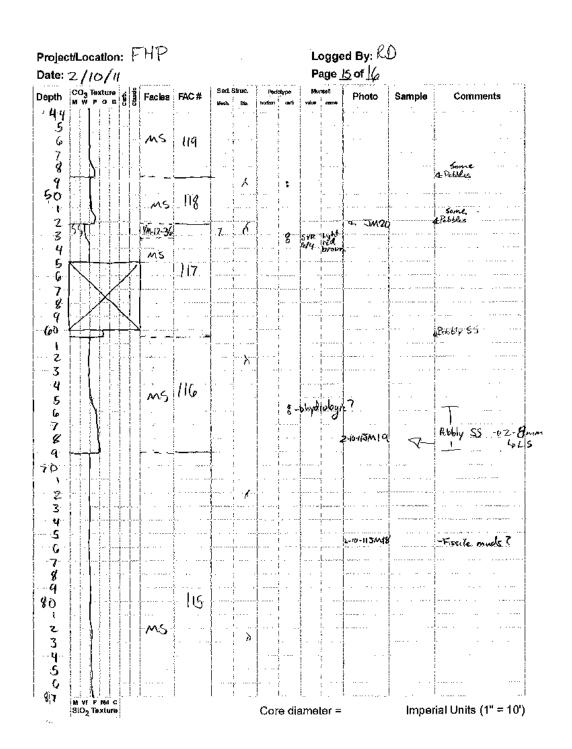


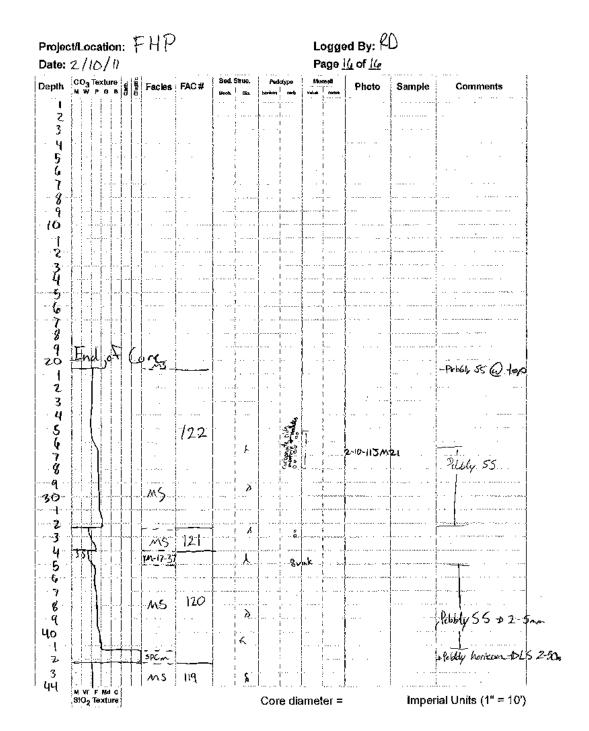


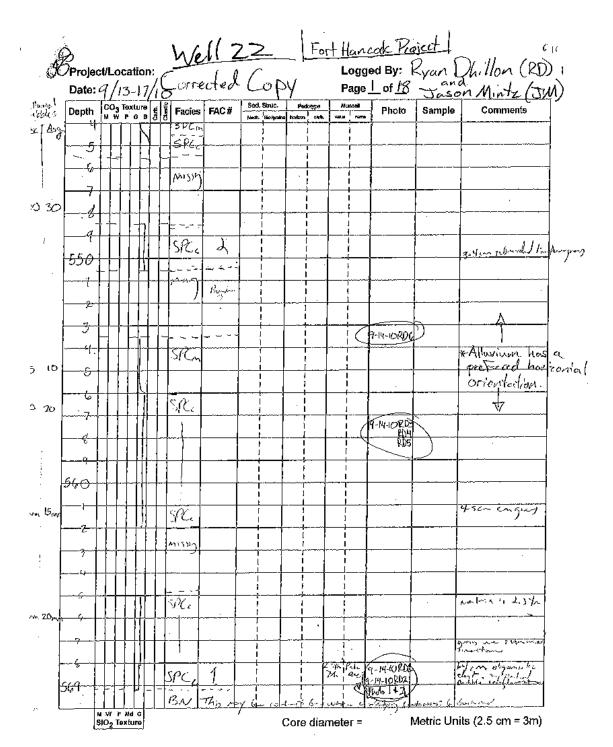




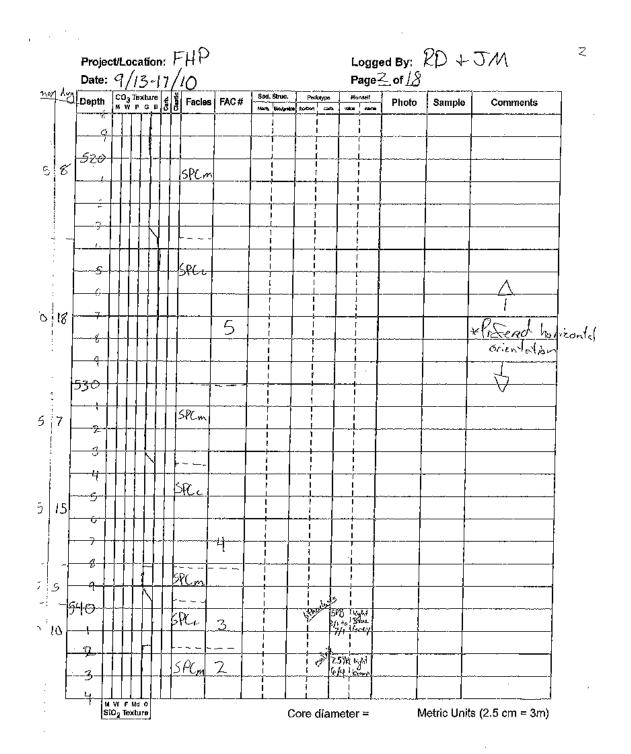


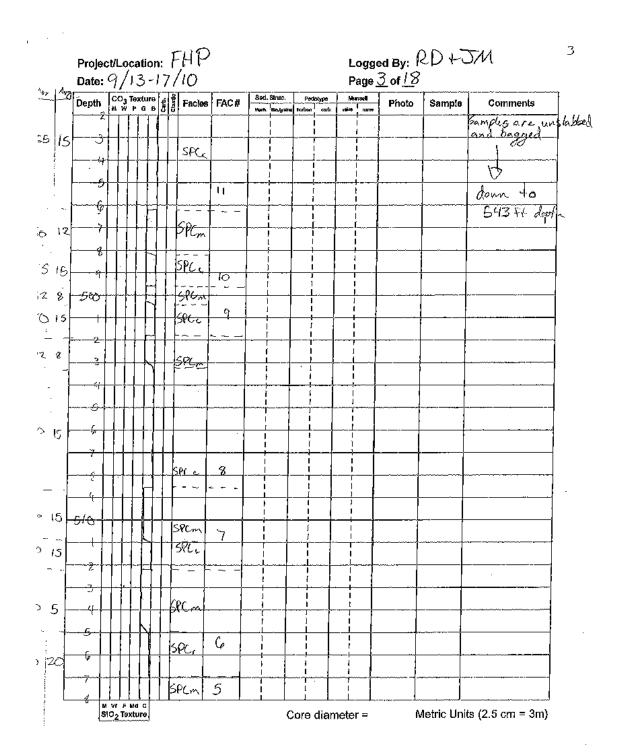


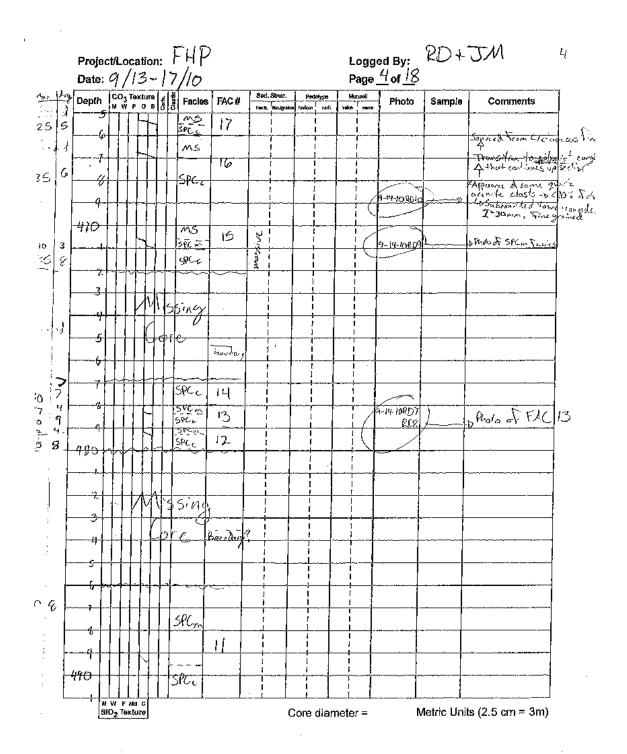




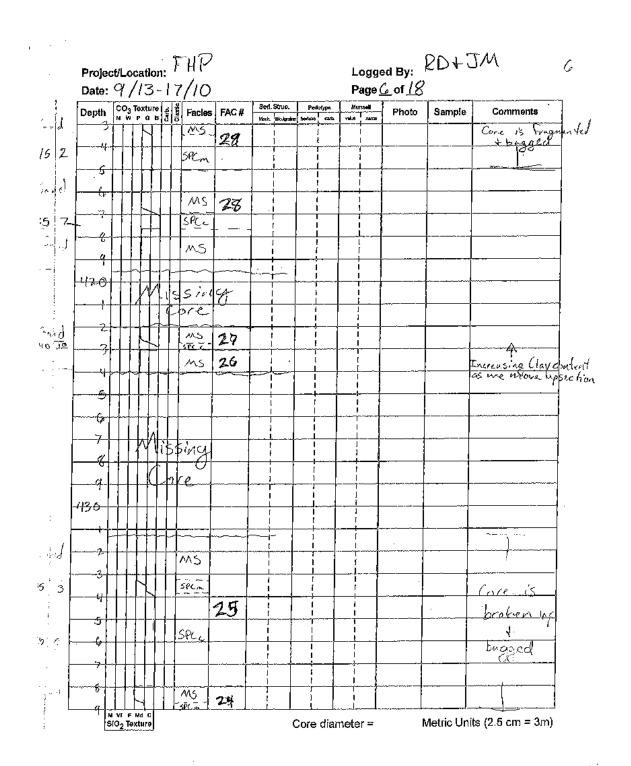
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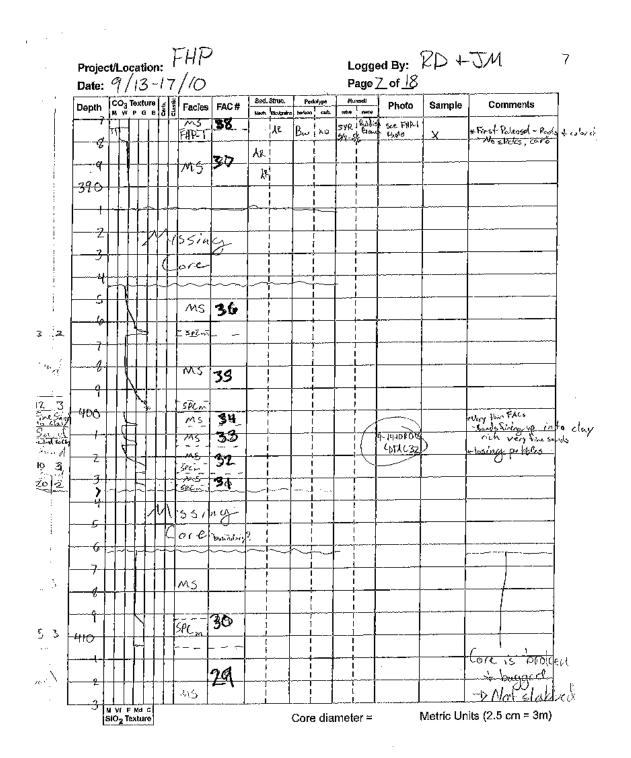




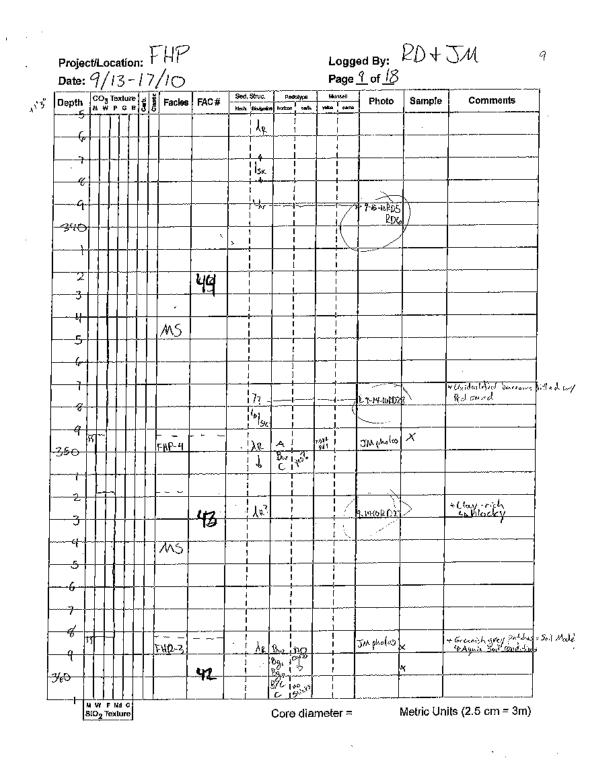


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