

Mesozoic Oceanic Anoxic Events: Records from India and future scope

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a assessment of the Mesozoic Oceanic Anoxic Event (OAE) studies, carried out from India. It also provides a summary of the researches pursued on biostratigraphic, isotopic, and organic geochemical proxies for establishing Oceanic Anoxic Events (OAEs) from the Mesozoic sedimentary sequences of the Indian subcontinent. From Indian sedimentary basins, studies are available on OAE-1a, OAE-1b, OAE-1d, OAE-2, and OAE-3. From the Cauvery Basin records of OAE-1b, OAE-1d, OAE-2, and OAE-3 are available. From the Spiti Valley records are present of OAE-2 (Chikkim Formation) only, and the possibilities of late Valanginian Weissert Event (W-OAE), latest Hauterivian Faraoni Event (F-OAE) and OAE-1a are expected to be present in Giupal Formation. Nonetheless, the Black shale from Rudramata Shale, Jhuran Formation from Kutch basin indicate possible late Jurassic OAE, based on the character of sedimentary facies and organic geochemical results. There is also, possibility of OAE-1a and OAE-1b in the Ukra and Upper member of the Bhuj Formation. This paper aims to provide a comprehensive introduction on global and regional OAEs records from the Indian subcontinent and a significant window on available knowledge of these events in India and supply significant attention for the future research possibilities from the Indian landmass.

Key words: Oceanic Anoxic Event, Mesozoic, Black Shale, Spiti Himalaya, India.

INTRODUCTION

The Mesozoic Era (time span approx. 186 Ma) is an important and remarkable time period in the Earth's history as it witness the rifting of the Pangaea Supercontinent and the opening-spreading of the Atlantic and Indian oceans. Mesozoic era brackets the time interval sandwiched between two extreme events of biodiversity crisis i.e., the end Permian mass extinction (~ 252 Ma) marking the base of the Triassic period (start of the Mesozoic Era) and the Cretaceous-Paleogene mass extinction (around 66 Ma) marking the end of the Cretaceous period (end of Mesozoic Era). Each of extinction events record major change in atmosphere and ocean composition and it's impact on bio-diversity (extinction-adaptation-radiation) provide crucial information in understanding of anthropogenic climate change. The climate-environment may influence by several factors including volcanic eruption, sea-level rise, ocean acidification, and anoxicity. However, it is difficult to record the sedimentological-geochemical-paleontological data sets from a specific time frame at same tune throughout the globe, but study over geological time scale identified few catastrophic events from isolated basin to quasi-global scale.

The CO₂ increase in the atmosphere affect the composition of ocean and atmosphere which reflect in sedimentary basin as changes in sediment dynamics-pattern, paleo-redox, pH of ocean, nutrient supply etc. These events are recognized as deposits of dark colored laminated shale, highly rich in organic carbon content and sulfides (Jenkyns, 2010). These events are Known as Oceanic Anoxic Events (OAEs) are widely documented from a single isolated basin to quasi-global scale and from shallow coastal zones to the deepest parts of the open ocean (Jenkyns, 2010; Schlanger and Jenkyns, 1976).

In pelagic and neritic habitats, during periods of extreme greenhouse temperatures, three global OAEs (Toarcian-OAE, OAE 1a and OAE 2) are marked by a carbonate crisis. (Weissert et al., 1998; Cobianchi and Picotti, 2001; Herrle and Mutterlose, 2003). In comparison with current

populations, the excess CO₂ released from volcanoes during OAE prevented biocalcification in reef communities (Langdon *et al.*, 2000), along with planktonic foraminifers (Barker and Elderfield, 2002) and calcareous Nannoplankton (Riebesell *et al.*, 2000). After surplus CO₂ was drawn down by accelerated weathering and burial of organic matter, carbonate sedimentation restarted, and possibly the rate of nutrient delivery also slowed down.

OAEs affected nannofossil productivity in different ways. Certain OAEs, have led to speciation events whereas others have caused extinction events. The Toarcian OAE and OAE1a, which are both preceded by a speciation event and do not exhibit extinctions, showing similar nannofossil evolutionary trends. Conversely, nannofossil assemblages during OAE2 are characterised by a turnover, in which new species emerge after a set of species vanished. Therefore, calcareous nannoplankton benefited from the environmental changes that occurred during the Aptian and Toarcian, which in turn encouraged diversification. Perhaps nannofloras suffered from far more harsh conditions during OAE2.

The concept of the oceanic anoxic event was first introduced by Schlanger and Jenkyns (1976) and Jenkyns (1980). Total of nine episodes of global and regional OAEs are recorded during the Mesozoic era (Jenkyns, 2010; Leckie *et al.*, 2002; Erba, 2004). The intense effect of climate change on global oceans has been studied from the geochemical signatures in carbon-rich dark black shale sequences deposited under an anoxic condition and representing a reducing environment (Schlanger and Jenkyns, 1976). These OAEs events recognized as intervals in the geological timescale which lasted for about a few 100-1000 years (Jenkyns, 2010).

During an extensive volcanic eruption high concentrations of carbon dioxide released in the atmosphere and caused extreme warming effect. Due to the warm environment the solubility of oxygen in ocean water dropped and caused enhanced stratification (Leckie *et al.*, 2002; Hesselbo *et al.*, 2000; Beerling *et al.*, 2002). This long term intense warming also caused huge continental weathering (Jenkyns, 2010; Jenkyns, 2003). The long term depletion of oxygen in

the ocean and high concentration of carbon dioxide, caused extinction of calcareous microorganisms in the oceans which lead to mass extinction events of calcareous phytoplanktons and zooplanktons in the geological past such as during K/Pg boundary (Keller et al., 2011 and references therein). Hence, a better understanding of the past catastrophe with the future prediction of climate and oceans could be achieved from OAE studies (Arthur and Schlanger, 1979; Jenkyns, 1999; Bottjer *et al.*, 2001; Huber *et al.*, 2002; Takashima *et al.*, 2006; Bralower, 2008).

Several studies have demonstrated plenty of evidence of global and regional OAE's in the Mesozoic sediments (Jenkyns, 2010; Leckie *et al.*, 2002; Erba, 2004). These events are early Toarcian (Posidonienschiefer event, T-OAE, ~ 183 Ma); early Aptian (Selli event, OAE-1a, ~ 120 Ma; early Albian (Paquier event, OAE-1b, ~ 111 Ma) first recognized in the Vocontian Trough of southeast France (Br  h  ret, 1985) and Cenomanian-Turonian (Bonarelli event, C/T OAE, OAE-2, ~ 93 Ma). Some events are recognized from the Tethyan realm (OAE-1c, OAE-1d (Toolebuc event, late Albian Breistroffer event, (Arthur *et al.*, 1990), the late Cretaceous Valanginian Weissert event (W-OAE) and latest Hauterivian Faraoni Event (F-OAE) also demonstrated from the various Tethyan and Atlantic domain regions (Lini *et al.*, 1992; Erba *et al.*, 2004; Bornemann and Mutterlose, 2008; Brassell, 2009; Rodr  guez-Tovar and Uchman, 2017) and Coniacian-Santonian (OAE-3) (Arthur *et al.*, 1990; Wagner *et al.*, 2004). In addition Late Jurassic anoxic event (Nozaki *et al.*, 2013; Arora *et al.*, 2015; Carmeille *et al.*, 2020; Rogov *et al.*, 2020) and an Oxfordian-Kimmeridgian OAE (Martinez and Dera, 2015) also identified (Fig. 1).

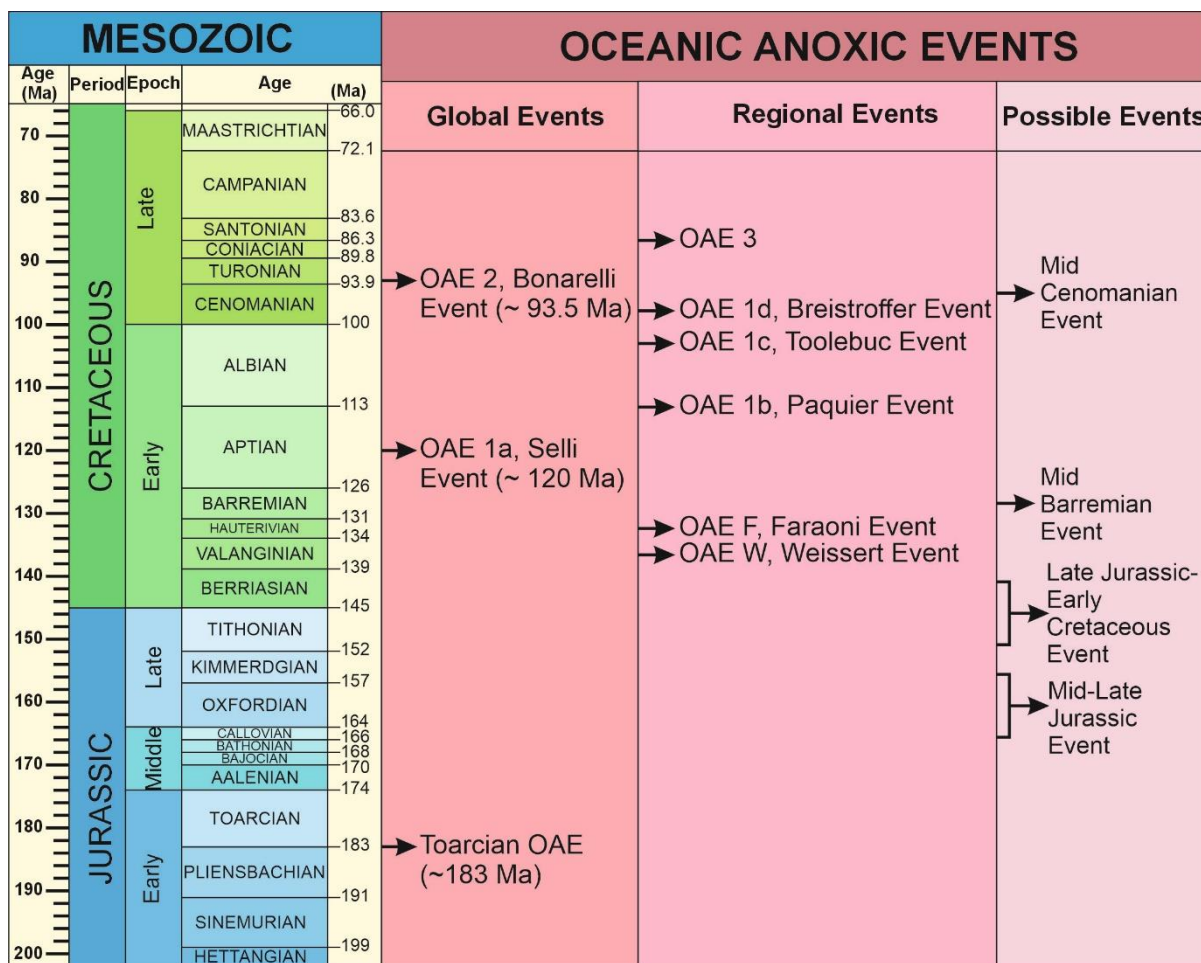


Figure 1. Mesozoic Oceanic Anoxic Events plotted against geological time scale.

During the Mesozoic time three global OAEs (i. Toarcian OAE or Jenkyns Event, ii. OAE 1a or Selli Event, iii. OAE 2 or Bonarelli Event) and six regional OAEs (OAE-W or Weissert Event, OAE-F or Faraoni Event, OAE 1b or Paquier Event, OAE 1c or Toolebuc Event, OAE 1d or Breistroffer Event and OAE3 Coniacian-Santonian) are recorded. The global OAEs are associated with the warm conditions due to the high carbon dioxide levels related to the various volcanic activities. T-OAE has been attributed to the warming due to the excessive carbon input into the atmosphere potentially caused by volcanism from the Karoo-Ferrar Large Igneous Province, the thermogenic emission of ^{12}C via intrusion of Karoo-Ferrar sills in Gondwanan

coal deposits (McElwain *et al.*, 2005; Svensen *et al.*, 2007), and/or the dissociation of methane gas hydrates (Hesselbo *et al.*, 2000, Hesselbo *et al.*, 2007; Kemp *et al.*, 2005).

OAE 1a has been attributed to the warm conditions resulted from the increased CO₂ levels in the atmosphere which could possibly resulted from the volcanic activity on the the Ontong Java Plateau (OJP) in the Mid-Pacific. Studies also suggests volcanic activity in the Songliao Basin and northeast Asia possibly played an important role (Wang *et al.*, 2016a).

OAE-2 was linked to the high global temperatures associated with large igneous province (LIP) emplacements (Leckie *et al.*, 2002) and elevated volcanic degassing (Arthur *et al.*, 1985; Huber *et al.*, 1995; Jones *et al.*, 2021; Kuroda *et al.*, 2007; Larson, 1991), and thus increased atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Forster *et al.*, 2007; O'Brien *et al.*, 2017; Robinson *et al.*, 2019; Sinninghe-Damsté *et al.*, 2010).

Regional OAEs are comparatively less studied for the causative mechanisms. While the role of volcanic activity is not established for the all regional OAEs, sea level changes, climate change could have played a key role in the formation of regional OAEs.

The present paper contributes on the synthesis of various studies made Oceanic anoxic events (OAEs) recognized from the Indian sedimentary record. The OAEs recorded from the Indian basins are OAE-1b (Paquier event); OAE-2 (Bonarelli event); OAE-1d (Breistroffer event) and OAE-3 (Coniacian-Santonian). The paper also demonstrates the possible time slices and sediment succession from where OAE studies can be persued from Indian sub-continent.

INDIAN MESOZOIC SEQUENCES AND OAE RECORDS

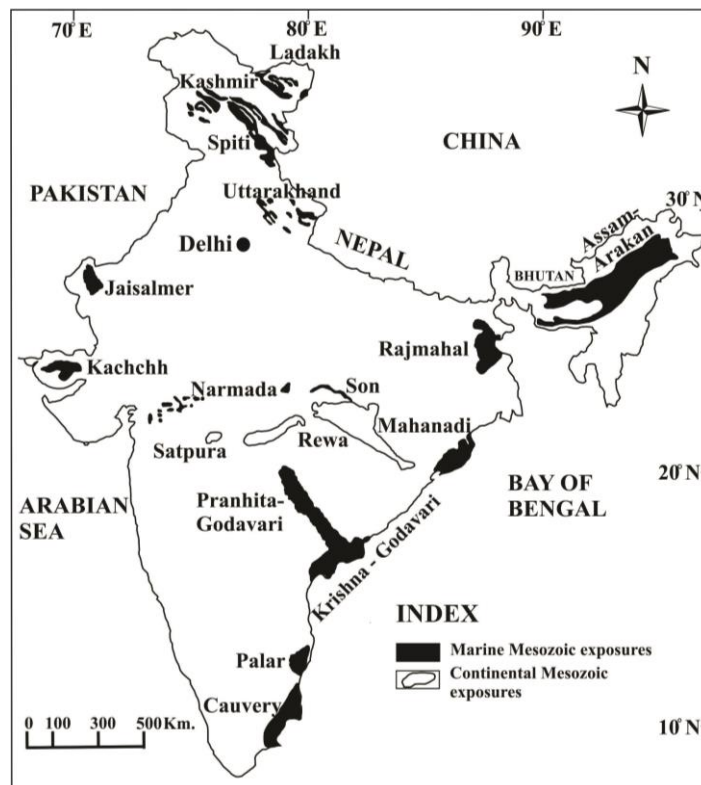


Figure 2. Marine and continental Mesozoic exposures in India (Modified after Chopparapo and Rajanikanth, 2018 ; Krishna, 2017).

In India, Mesozoic sequences are well developed and sought great attention of the stratigraphers and the palaeontologist from worldwide (Medlicott, 1872; Matley, 1921; Brookfield and Westermann, 1982; Jadoul *et al.*, 1990; Oloriz and Tintori, 1990; Fürsich *et al.*, 2018; Garzanti, 1992; Premoli Silva *et al.*, 1992; Cariou *et al.*, 1996; Fürsich, 1998; Whatley and Bajpai, 2000; Whatley *et al.*, 2002; Bertle and Suttner, 2005; Alberti *et al.*, 2019; Hart *et al.*, 2001; Lukeneder *et al.*, 2013; Galeet *et al.*, 2019; Chopparapu and Rajanikanth, 2018; Krishna, 2017). These sequences in India are exposed in the northern (Laddakh, Spiti, Uttarakhand); western (Jaisalmer, Kutch); eastern (Rajmahal Basin and Assam-Arakan); central (Narmada-Son, Satpura and Rewa basins); and southern parts (Cauvery, Krishna-Godavari, Palar, Mahanadi and Pranhita–Godavari basins) (Chopparapu and Rajanikanth, 2018; Krishna, 2017). However, the marine exposures comprising OAEs can be only found in

Ladakh and Spiti Himalaya, Kutch, Jaisalmer and Cauvery basins (Fig. 2). The areas from which OAE studies are available and the possible areas for these studies are discussed below and compiled in figure 3.

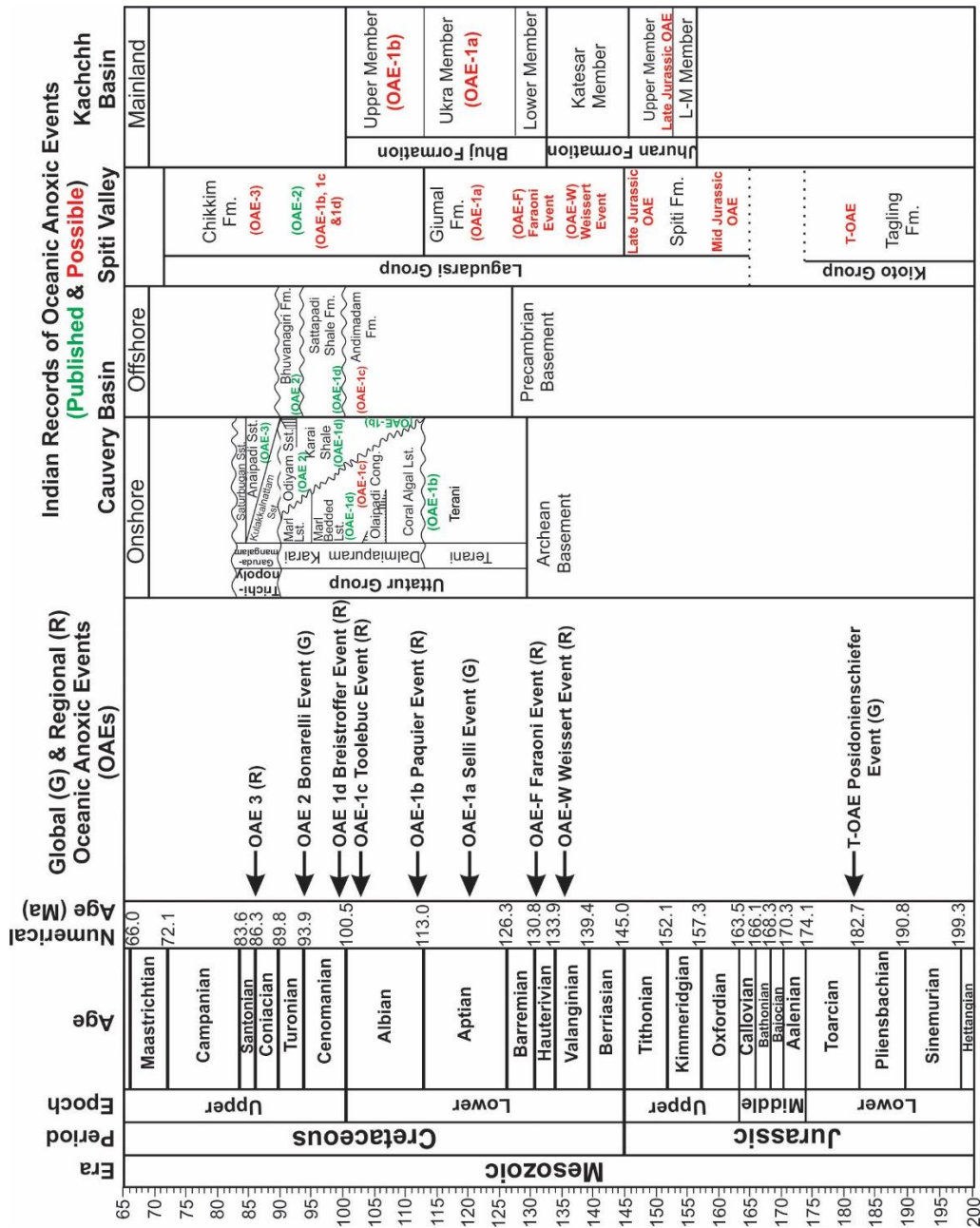


Figure 3. Established Global and Regional Oceanic Anoxic events (OAEs) and records from Indian Basins (Published events- green colour; Possible events- red colour).

Cauvery Basin

The Cauvery Basin is a pericratonic rift basin along the eastern continental margin of the Peninsular India (Rangaraju *et al.*, 1993; Madhavaraju *et al.*, 2015). It comprises more than 6000 m thick well preserved sediments ranging from Cretaceous to Paleocene. The sediments were deposited during two phases- (1) syn-rift phase which predominantly contains fluvial and lacustrine deposits and (2) post-rift phase consisting of shelf carbonates and marine shale (Reddy *et al.*, 2013). Post-rift phase sediments are well exposed in the Ariyalur area (Madhavaraju *et al.*, 2015). The Cretaceous and early Paleogene sediments are exposed in disconnected outcrops (Govindan, 2017); dipping towards east from bounding nonconformity with Archaean charnockitic crystalline basement (Sundaram *et al.*, 2001). Mainly exposed in three areas: in the Ariyalur, Vriddhachalum and Pondicherry districts. The complete succession is well represented in the Ariyalur area. A total thickness of 2.5 km of the Cretaceous sediments are well preserved in the Ariyalur area (Sundaram *et al.*, 2001). Blanford (1862) classified the Cretaceous sedimentary rocks of the Ariyalur area and divided them into three groups, the Uttatur, Trichinopoly, and Ariyalur groups. The Uttatur Group overlies the Archean basement. It comprises terrestrial, paralic and shallow marine strata (Sundaram *et al.*, 2001). Nagendra and Reddy (2017) divided the Uttatur Group into three formations- Terani, Dalmiapuram and Karai formations (Fig. 4).

Age	Group	Formation	Member	
Maastrichtian	Ariyalur	Kallamedu	Kallamedu Sst.	
			Ottakovil Sst.	
		Kallankurichchi	Kallankurichchi Lst.	
Campanian		Sillakkudi	Kaller conglomerate	Kilpavalur grainstone.
				Sillakkudi Sst.
Santonian		Trichinopoly	Garudamangalam	Saturbugan Sst.
Coniacian	Anaipadi Sst. Mbr.			
Turonian	Uttatur	Karai	Marl Lst.	
Cenomanian			Marl bedded limetone	
Albian		Dalmaipuram	Olaipadi Cong.	
	Coral algal limestone			
Aptian - Berriasian	Terani	Terani	Terani	
			Boulder bed	
Archean Basement				

Figure 4. Mesozoic stratigraphy of the Cauvery Basin (modified after Nagendra and Reddy, 2017).

The Trichinopoly Group comprises Garudamangalam Fm., which is further divided into three members- Kulakkalnattam Sandstone, Anaipadi Sandstone and Saturbugan Sandstone members (Fig. 4).

The Ariyalur Group is divided into three formations- Sillakkudi, Kallankurichchi and Kallamedu. The Sillakkudi Fm. is further divided into three members- Kilpavalur Grainstone, Sillakkudi Sandstone and Kaller Conglomerate members. The

Kallankurichchi Fm. Comprises Kallankurichchi Limestone Mb. The Kallamedu Fm. Is divided into two members-Ottakovil Sandstone and Kallamedu Sandstone (Reddy *et al.*, 2013) (Fig. 4).

In the Uttatur Group, the Terani Fm. (Berriasian-Aptian) comprises fluvial and marine sediment deposits during the first marine worldwide transgression in late Aptian to early Albian during the Cretaceous period (Reddy *et al.*, 2013, Govindan, 2017, Sundaram *et al.*, 2001, Blanford, 1862; Nagendra and Reddy, 2017). It comprises bedded sandstone contains local boulder conglomerates with bleached, kaolinitic claystone and micaceous shale, which is interbedded with a siltstone and sandstone of 0.5 m and well cemented with calcareous material.

It is overlain by the Dalmiapuram Fm. (Albian to middle Turonian) comprising grey, fossiliferous, poorly lithified shale, calcareous mudstone, irregularly bedded to massive, fine-grained coralline micritic and algal limestone, coquinite and calcareous sandstone with rounded quartzite pebbles locally grading to beds of granule and pebble conglomerate. The internal facies mosaic of this unit is complex but in the type section, limestone interbedded with calcareous mudstone overlies a thick unit (>30 m) of grey shale (Sundaram *et al.*, 2001).

The time equivalent Karai Shale Fm. consists of ammonites, belemnites, and worm tubes (Madhavaraju *et al.*, 2015). Lithologically, it contains grey-brown, gypsiferous, glauconitic mudstone and marl which is black and gypsum free when freshly deposited, with sporadic thin, interbeds of siltstone, calcareous sandstone and coquinite particularly in its upper part. Sporadic calcareous, sideritic and phosphatic concretions and concretionary horizons occur in some intervals. Scattered macrofossils, predominantly molluscs, are typical of the formation (Sundaram *et al.*, 2001).

The Garudamangalam Fm. (Coniacian-Santonian) of Trichinopoly Group unconformably overlies the Karai Shale Fm. and comprises burrows in sandstone. Cross laminations are preserved in the upper portion indicating presence of the fluvial system and a sea level drop in the basin (Nagendra and Reddy, 2017). This formation is devoid of foraminifera but contains nannoplanktons and ammonite fossils (Reddy *et al.*, 2013). The Sillakkudi Fm. (Campanian) overlies the Garudamangalam Fm. It comprises glauconite pellets and calcareous nodules (Rasheed and Ravindran, 1978). The Kallankurchchi Fm. (early Maastrichtian) overlies the Sillakkudi Fm. and consists of limestone beds dominated by the benthic foraminifera. The Kallamedu Fm. (late Maastrichtian) comprises ferruginous limestone, a lower arenaceous limestone, and *Gryphaea* limestone overlies the Kallankurchchi Fm. (Reddy *et al.*, 2013, Nagendra and Reddy, 2017).

OAE records

A number of significant OAE events has been demarcated from the Cauvery Basin. The OAE-1b has been marked at the Aptian-Albian boundary from the organic-rich shale deposits of the Terani Fm. (Nagendra and Reddy, 2017). The OAE-2 (Cenomanian-Turonian) and OAE-3 (Coniacian-Santonian) has recorded from Karai Shale Fm. and Garudamangalam Fm. respectively (Fig. 3). Later on, Bansal *et al.* (2019) provided more precise age of the OAE by $^{40}\text{Ar} / ^{39}\text{Ar}$ study from the glauconite occurred at the lower part of the Karai Shale Fm. The age, ranging from 100.3 ± 0.7 to 92.6 ± 0.6 Ma correlates to the OAE-1d and OAE-2. Govindan (2017) and Nagendra and Reddy (2017) recorded OAE-1c, OAE-1d and OAE-2 from the Andimandam, Sattapadi Shale, and Bhuvanagiri formations from the organic-rich shale containing up to 6% TOC.

Madhavaraju *et al.*,(2015) carried out the petrographic, carbon, and oxygen isotopic studies from the Dalmiapuram Fm.exposed in the Vadugarpettai. He reported the positive shift of 0.8‰ in carbon isotopic values from the lower portion of the Coral algal Limestone. The shift coincided with the initiation of OAE-1d. The carbon isotopic value increases in the middle portion of the limestone coincided with the upper limit of the OAE-1d.

Tewari *et al.*(1996) correlated the significant evolution of the Planktonic foraminifera assemblages and planktonic/benthonic (p/b) ratio with the OAE-1d and the OAE-2.

Spiti Valley

The Spiti valley is considered as the deformed remnants of the northern continental margin of the Indian subcontinent. It consists of dominant limestone, shale, siltstone, and dolomite. The sequence of 12,000 meters of Paleozoic–Mesozoic sediments is well preserved in this synclinoria basin in the Tethyan Himalaya. The succession was first referenced by Gerard (1827); subsequently worked by Hayden (1904, 1908) and Diener (1912). Further, detailed

work was done by many workers (Srikantia, 1981; Bagati, 1990; Gaetani and Garzanti, 1991; Bhargava and Bassi, 1998; Srikantia and Bhargava, 1998; Myrow *et al.*, 2003). The detailed lithostratigraphic framework of the Spiti valley was proposed by Bhargava (2008). The Mesozoic Tethys sediments were classified into Tamba Kurkur Group, Sanglung Group, Nimoloksa Group, Kioto Group, and Lagudarsi Group; lies disconformably in ascending order shown in figure 5.

Group	Formation	Lithology	Age
Lagudarsi	Chikkim	Limestone, Shale	Albian-Campanian/Early Maastrichtian
	Giumal	Sandstone	Berriasian-Aptian
	Spiti	Shale	Callovian-Tithonian
Unconformity			
Kioto	Tangling	Limestone, Dolomite	Late Triassic-Early Jurassic
	Para	Limestone, Dolomite	Late Rhaetian
Nimoloksa	Nunuluka	Sandstone, Siltstone, Limestone	Late Norian-Early Rhaetian
	Alaror	Shale, Siltstone, Limestone	Late Norian
	Hangrang	Limestone, Dolomite	Middle Norian
	Rangrik	Shale, Sandstone, Limestone	Early-Middle Norian
Sanglung	Rongtong	Dolomite, Limestone	Middle-Late Carnian
	Rama	Shale, Sandstone, Limestone	Early-Middle Carnian
Tamba Kurkur	Chomule	Limestone	Ladinic-Early Carnian
	Kaga	Shale, Sandstone, Limestone	Ladinian
	Mikin	Limestone	Induan-Anisian
Unconformity			

Figure 5. Mesozoic stratigraphy of Spiti Valley, Himachal Pradesh (modified after Bhargava 2008; Bertle and Suttner, 2005; Lukenederet *al.*, 2013; Pandey and Pathak, 2015; Pathak, 2007; Cariou *et al.*, 1996).

OAE records:

Pandey and Pathak (2015) carried out a preliminary study on ammonoids from the early Cretaceous Giumal Fm. of the Spiti Valley, Himachal Pradesh. He suggested an age of Berriasian to early Aptian to the Giumal Formation based on the ammonoids. Also, showed the presence of all the stages from Berriasian to early Aptian in the Giumal Fm. The age range of

Gimual Fm. and presence of dark grey to black shale layers in between sandstone beds enhances the possibility of the presence of late Valanginian Weissert Event (W-OAE), the latest Hauterivian Faraoni Event (F-OAE), and OAE-1 in the Gimual Fm. succession. The area has potential for the study of early Cretaceous OAEs.

Bertle and Suttner (2005) carried out a detailed biostratigraphy of the Chikkim Fm. based on planktonic foraminifera. They have given an age ranging from late Albian to early Maastrichtian? to the Chikkim Fm. The age of the Lower Chikkim Fm. is from late Albian to Santonian and contains Cenomanian age sediments also, evidence by the presence of FO of *Rotalipora globotruncanoides*. In the upper portion of the Lower Chikkim Fm. presence of the single thin pinkish colored bed, suggests a change towards an oxygenated water column and presence of possible OAE-2, documented by the occurrence of *Whiteinella archaeocretacea* Zone (Bertle and Suttner, 2005).

Kutch Basin

The Kutch Basin is a pericratonic rift basin in the Western Continental Margin of India, Gujarat. It comprises more than 25,000 m of synrift middle Jurassic to early Cretaceous sediments and post-rift late Paleocene to Pliocene and Quaternary sediments distributed in the northern, eastern, and the southern part of the basin (Biswas, 2016). The Mesozoic rocks are exposed in the uplifted areas especially islands (Wagad, Pachchham, Khadir etc.) and Kachchh mainland whereas the lowlying areas of Kachchh mainland are enclosed by Tertiary to recent marine and fluvio-deltaic sediments. Biswas (2016) classified Mesozoic successions of Kutch Basin into three lithostratigraphic Groups-Mainland Group, Pachchham Group, and Eastern Kutch Group. The Mainland sequences are divided into four formations-Jhurio, Jumara, Jhuran, and Bhuj in ascending chronological order shown in figure 6.

Age	Kutch Mainland Group		Pachchham Island Group			Eastern Kutch Group														
	Formation	Member	Member		Formation	Khadir-Bela-Choror Islands	Wagad Uplift													
			Goradongar	Kaladongar			Recent Deposits	Recent Deposits												
Maastrichtian-Danian	Deccan Traps	Basalt flows																		
Albian	Bhuj Formation	Upper Member: massive sandstones																		
Aptian		Ukra Member: Green glauconitic shale/ferruginous bands with fossil																		
Barremian-Hauterivian		Ghuner Member/ Lower Member: Sandstones/ shales/ ferruginous bands/ shales with plant fossils																		
		Katesar Member: massive sandstone																		
Tithonian	Jhuran Formation	Upper Member: fossiliferous sandstones, shales, hard calcareous sandstones							Recent Quaternary	Recent Quaternary	Tertiary Quaternary Recent	Quaternary to Recent Deposits	Ghadhata Formation	Recent Deposits						
Kimmeridgian		Middle member: mainly shales, fossiliferous with sandstone interbeds																		
		Lower member: sandstones/ shales/ arenaceous limestones with fossils																		
Oxfordian	HIATUS														Recent Deposit	Miocene Shales	Modar Hill Formation	Recent Quaternary	Khadir Formation	Recent Deposits
		Dhosa Oolite Member																		
Callovian	Jumara Formation	Gypseous Shale Member	Paleocene laterites	Modar Hill Formation	Recent Quaternary	Tertiary Quaternary Recent	Ghadhata Formation	Recent Deposits												
		Ridge Sandstone Member																		
		Shelly Shale Member																		
Aalenian-Bathonian	Jhurio Formation	Member G: Thin bedded white Lst. and Nodular Lst.																		
		Member F: Purple sandstones/Packstones							Gadaputa Sandstone Member											
		Member E: Bedded rusty grainstone with golden oolite							Goradongar Flagstone Member											
		Member D: Gray Shales																		
		Member C: Brick red weathering rusty grainstone with golden oolites							Middle sandstone Member (Leptosphinacles pebbly rudstone)	Kaladongar Formation	Khadir Formation									
		Member B: Gray Shales							Lower Flagstone Member			Cheriyabet Conglomerate Member								
		Member A: Thin bedded yellow white limestones, shales, rusty brown limestones with golden oolites	Eorniodon Red Sandstone Member	Narewari Wandh Sandstone Member	? Basement															
		??	Sadara Coral Limestone Member	Dingy Hill Member																
Basement	? Basement	? Basement																		

Figure 6. Mesozoic stratigraphy of Kutch Basin (modified after Biswas, 2016).

The Pachchham Group is divided into two formations- Lower Kaladongar, and Upper Goradongar formations. They are exposed in the northern Kaladongar and southern

Goradongar hill ranges. The Eastern Kutch Group is divided into four formations- Khadir, Ghadhada, Washtawa, and Wagad Sandstone which are exposed in the disconnected rock units outcropped in the Khadir, Bela, Chorar 'Island' and Wagad Highland. The middle Jurassic to late Jurassic sediments were deposited in the marine transgressive phase during the syn rifting stage whereas late Cretaceous to recent sediments deposited after post-rift stage which indicates deltaic to marginal shelf depositional environment.

OAE records:

The sedimentary facies and organic geochemical analysis carried out by Arora *et al.* (2015) on the organic rich black shale of the Middle Member (Rudramata Shale) of the Jhuran Fm. They divided lower portion of the Rudramata Shale into five lithofacies-

Facies A: Black shale,

Facies B: Black shale with siltstone inter-bedding,

Facies C: shale and siltstone alternations with minor sandstones,

Facies D: siltstone-sandstone alternations, and

Facies E: plane laminated and hummocky cross-stratified sandstone.

The Total Carbon Content (TOC), oxygen index (OI), hydrogen Index (HI), T_{max} and trace elemental composition study records show significant variations. The TOC content decreases from Facies A (av. TOC- 3.4%) to Facies D (av. 0.6%). The black shale of Facies A and B have high TOC values and indicates deposition in possibly oxygen minimized zone developed at that time. Also, a significant shift was recorded in the Ni/Co ratio and V/(V+Ni) ratio plot represents an anoxic and sulfidic conditions in the depositional setting. Whereas the V/Cr ratio plot represents an oxic condition which might be due to diagenetic redistribution of the elements. The presence of the pyrite framboids of size ranging from 7 to 20 μm also correlated with an anoxic and sulfidic conditions within the depositional setting. These suggest sub-oxic

to anoxic conditions prevailed during the Late Jurassic and it could be signature of Late Jurassic Oceanic Anoxic Event.

Pandey and Pathak (2016) discussed the presence of OAE-1a in the Ukra Member (early Cretaceous) of Bhuj Fm., Kutch Basin.

DISCUSSION

Apart from the globally recorded oceanic anoxic events (Three: T-OAE, OAE-1a and OAE-2 several regional or local anoxic events are also reported from the different parts of world (Jenkyns, 2010; Leckie *et al.*, 2002; Erba, 2004) (Table 1).

Table 1. Global, Regional and Possible Oceanic Anoxic Events and their records from the different regions of the world.

Sl. No.	Oceanic Anoxic Events	Records
Global Oceanic Anoxic Events		
1.	OAE 2, Bonarelli Event (~ 93.5 Ma)	Western Tethys, Southern Tethys, USA, North African Continental margin, Canadian Arctic , Alaska , Mexico Japan (Tiwari et al. 1996; Bertle and Suttner, 2005; Govindan, 2017; Nagendra & Reddy, 2017; Boulila et al., 2020; Sooraj et al. 2024)
2.	OAE 1a Selli Event (~120 Ma)	Northern Tethys (Zhang et al. 2021 and references therein) Western Tethys (Midtkandal et al., 2016; Tedeschi et al., 2020; Giraud et al., 2018; Castro et al., 2021; Giraldo-Gomez et al., 2022) Southern Tethys (Lowrie et al., 1980; Coccioni et al., 1987, 1990; Erba, 1994; Baudin et al., 1998; Erba & Larson, 1998; van Breugel et al., 2007; Bottini et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2016; Karakitsions et al., 2018; Talbi et al., 2021) Pacific (Thiede et al., 1981; Sliter, 1989; van Breugel et al., 2007; Bottini et al., 2012; Erba et al., 2015; Matsumoto, 2024)
3.	Toarcian OAE (Jenkyns Event) (~183 Ma)	Arctic (Suan et al., 2011 and references therein) Panthalassic Ocean (Kemp et al., 2019; Kemp et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023 and references therein) Northern Tethys (Huang et al., 2024; Nie et al., 2023; Jin et al. 2020 and references therein) Western Tethys (Reolid et al. 2021; Peti & Thibault, 2017; Chen et al., 2021; Fernández-Martínez et a., 2021;

		Galasso et al., 2021; Müller et al., 2020; Boulila et al., 2019; Satolli et al., 2018; Mattioli et al., 2009) Southern Tethys (Han et al., 2022; Kemp et al., 2022 and references therein)
Regional Oceanic Anoxic Events		
1.	OAE 3	Boreal (Jenkyns et al., 1994; Jarvis et al., 2006; Pugh et al., 2014; Thibault et al., 2016; Eldrett et al., 2021; Grasby et al., 2024) Northern Tethys (Chamberlain et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016b; Jones et al., 2018 and references therein) Western Tethys (Arthur & Fischer, 1977; Jenkyns et al., 1994; Stoll & Schrag, 2000; Wagreich & Krenmayr, 2005; Lamolda & Paul, 2007; Locklair et al., 2011; Frijia et al., 2015) Southern Tethys (Clark & Jenkyns, 1999; Tur & Wagreich, 2005; Li et al., 2006; Wendler et al., 2011; Petrizzo et al., 2017; Huber et al., 2018; MacLeod et al., 2020; Mansour et al., 2020b) Eastern Tethys (Navidtalab et al., 2020; Razmjooei et al. 2020 and references therein) Pacific (Perez-Infante et al., 1996; Alberdi-Genolet & Tocco, 1999; Rey et al., 2004; Takashima et al., 2010; Ando et al., 2013; Machado et al., 2016; Tessin et al., 2019) Atlantic (Huber et al., 2002; Bottcher et al., 2006; Beckmann et al., 2008; Sachse et al., 2012, 2014; Aquit et al., 2017; Junium et al., 2018; Luft de Souza et al., 2018)
2.	OAE 1d, Breistroffer Event	Boreal (Mitchell et al., 1996; Bornemann et al., 2017; Bornemann et al., 2023 and references therein) Northern Tethys (Melinte-Dobrinescu et al., 2015 and references therein) Western Tethys (Erbacher and Thurow, 1997; Gale et al., 1996; Stoll and Schrag, 2000; Strasser et al., 2001; Bornemann et al., 2005; Reichelt, 2005; Sprovieri et al., 2013; Gambacorta et al., 2015; Giorgioni et al., 2015; Bāk et al., 2016; Gyawali et al., 2017; Bottini & Erba) Southern Tethys (Govindan, 2017; Nagendra & Reddy, 2017; Yao et al., 2018; Mansour et al., 2020a; Madhavaraju et al., 2021) Eastern Tethys (Vahrenkamp, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Wohlwend et al., 2016; Hennhofer et al., 2018; Navidtalab et al., 2019) Atlantic (Wilson and Norris, 2001; Nederbragt et al., 2001; Watkins et al., 2005; Petrizzo et al., 2008; Ando et al., 2010; Rodríguez-Cuicas et al., 2020) Pacific (Takashima et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2008; Navarro-Ramirez et al., 2015; Rodríguez-Cuicas et al., 2019, 2020)

		<p>Western Interior Seaway (North America) (Gröcke et al., 2006; Gröcke and Joeckel, 2008; Scott et al., 2013; Richey et al., 2018)</p> <p>Indian Ocean (Madhavaraju et al., 2015 and references therein)</p>
3.	OAE 1c, Toolebuc Event	<p>Boreal (Strasser et al., 2001; Wójcik-Tabol & Ślaczka 2015 and references therein)</p> <p>Southern Tethys (Coccioni and Galeotti, 1993; Tiwari et al. 1996; Galeotti et al., 2003; Luciani et al., 2004; Govindan, 2017; Nagendra & Reddy, 2017; Madhavaraju et al., 2021)</p> <p>Pacific (Meyers et al., 2006; Scott et al., 2020 and references therein)</p> <p>Austral (Bralower et al., 1993; Haig and Lynch, 1993; Alibrahim, 2016 and references therein)</p>
4.	OAE 1b, Paquier Event	<p>Boreal (Herrle et al., 2015; Bodin et al., 2023 and references therein)</p> <p>Northern Tethys (Ando and Kakegawa, 2007; Suarez et al., 2018; Gavrilov et al., 2019 and references therein)</p> <p>Western Tethys (Breheret and Crumiere, 1989; Strasser et al., 2001; Grocke, 2002; Heimhofer et al., 2003; Mutterlose et al., 2003; Herrle et al., 2004; Follmi et al., 2007; Millan et al., 2014)</p> <p>Southern Tethys (Coccioni et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Ben Chaabane et al., 2019)</p> <p>Atlantic (Bralower et al., 1999; Erbacher et al., 2001; Wagner et al., 2008; Huber and Leckie, 2011; McAnena et al., 2013; Peybernes et al., 2013; Phelps et al., 2015; Caetano-Filho et al., 2017; Huber et al., 2018; Matsumoto et al., 2023)</p> <p>Pacific (Price, 2003; Robinson et al., 2004; Ludvigson et al., 2015; Navarro-Ramirez et al., 2015; Matsumoto et al., 2020)</p>
5.	OAE F, Faraoni Event	<p>Western Tethys (Baudin, 2005; Baudin & Riquier, 2014; Rodríguez-Tovar & Uchman, 2017)</p> <p>Southern Tethys (Ammar & Layeb, 2021)</p> <p>Atlantic (Stein et al., 1989)</p> <p>South Africa (Brown et al., 1996)</p> <p>North Sea (Mutterlose & Ruffell, 1999)</p> <p>Pacific (Baudin et al., 1995; Jenkyns, 1995)</p> <p>Argentina (Tyson et al., 2005; Guler et al., 2013)</p>
6.	OAE W, Weissert Event	<p>Southern Tethys (Bottini et al., 2018; Ammar & Layeb, 2021)</p> <p>Western Tethys (Moller et al., 2020)</p> <p>Atlantic (Moller et al., 2020)</p>
Possible Oceanic Anoxic Events		
1.	Mid Cenomanian	Western Tethys (Coccioni & Galeotti, 2003)

	Event	
2.	Mid Barremian Event	Southern Tethys (Talbi et al., 2021)
2.	Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous Event	Boreal sea (Rogov et al., 2020) Panthalassic Ocean (Nozaki et al., 2013) Southern Tethys (Arora et al., 2015) Northern Tethys (Carneille et al., 2020)
3.	Mid-Late Jurassic Event	Western Tethys (Martinez & Dera, 2015)

Leckie *et al.* (2002) has given an overview of additional possible oceanic anoxic events. These additional possible anoxic events are recorded from the black shale units deposited worldwide during the late Aptian (~116 Ma), latest Aptian–early Albian (OAE-1b; ~113– 109 Ma), late Albian (OAE-1c and OAE-1d; ~102 and ~99.2 Ma, respectively), mid Cenomanian (~96 Ma), an event in the late Aptian, between OAE-1a and OAE-1b (Arthur *et al.*, 1990; Weissert and Lini, 1991; Bralower *et al.*, 1993, 1999; Br  h  ret, 1994; Erbacher *et al.*, 1996; Weissert *et al.*, 1998; Wilson and Norris, 2001). The multiple black shales of OAE-1b are mostly restricted to Mexico and the North Atlantic basin (western Tethys) and the Mediterranean (eastern Tethys) region (Bralower *et al.*, 1993, 1999; Arthur and Premoli Silva, 1982; Br  h  ret *et al.*, 1986; Premoli Silva *et al.*, 1989). OAE-1b time interval is linked with cooling and sea level fall in the latest Aptian and following sea level rise during the early Albian (Weissert and Lini, 1991; Weissert *et al.*, 1998). OAE-1c (lower upper Albian) has been identified from the central Italy, the U.S. western interior, and Australia (Bralower *et al.*, 1993; Erbacher *et al.*, 1996; Pratt and King, 1986; Coccioni and Galeotti, 1993; Haig and Lynch, 1993). Conversely, OAE-1d is widely preserved as a black shale across Tethys with patchy occurrences in the South Atlantic, southern Indian, and eastern Pacific Ocean basins; it is primarily linked with marine organic matter enrichment due to increased primary productivity (Br  h  ret, 1994; Erbacher *et al.*, 1996; Wilson and Norris, 2001; Br  h  ret and Delamette, 1989). The cause of the OAE-1d is explained from the ODP Site 1052. The Cyclic black shales in the uppermost Albian sequence are correlative to OAE-1d and correspond to an interval manifested by collapse of upper water

column stratification which was caused by the intensification of mixing during winters and reduced stratification during summers (Petrizzo *et al.*, 2008).

The global and regional OAE records from India are very limited. Only one global Oceanic Anoxic Event, OAE2 is recorded from the Indian successions. It is recorded from the two areas, i. Chikkim Formation, Spiti Valley, ii. Karai Shale Formation and Bhuvanagiri Formation, Cauvery Basin. In India the published records on regional OAEs (OAE 1b, OAE 1d and OAE 3) are available only from the Cretaceous successions of Cauvery Basin.

Possible OAEs and possible horizons in India

Possible OAE occurs in the mid-Cenomanian of the Tethys where it is associated with a positive carbon excursion (~1%), deposition of marine organic matter, and an extinction event in the radiolarian (Erbacher *et al.*, 1996; Stoll and Schrag, 2000; Coccioni and Galeotti, 2003). Within the same time period, benthic calcareous micro-organisms exhibit a steady reduction in both species diversity and faunal density (Coccioni *et al.*, 1995).

Apart from the above OAE, a Mid Barremian anoxic event (Talbi *et al.*, 2021), a Late Jurassic-Early Cretaceous anoxic event (Nozaki *et al.*, 2013; Arora *et al.*, 2015; Carmeille *et al.*, 2020; Rogov *et al.*, 2020) and an Mid-Late Jurassic OAE event (Martinez & Dera, 2015;) are also possible. For ascertaining their regional or global extent more studies are needed from the suitable successions around the world.

In Indian sedimentary sequences the marine Mesozoic black shale, dark grey or glauconitic deposits falling in the additional possible OAEs time slice are mainly deposited in Spiti, Kutch and Cauvery basins. From the Kutch Basin, Pandey and Pathak (Pandey and Pathak, 2016) showed the possible presence of early Aptian based on the ammonoid genera *Deshayesites* and *Australiceras* in the Ukra Mb. of the Bhuj Formation. These ammonoids were recorded from the green shales which is characteristic deposit of OAE in shallower depths. For ascertaining

the presence of OAE-1a in the Ukra Mb. geochemical studies and other marine fossil group studies are required from the green shales, which is key lithology to shows presence of OAE in an extreme marginal location. OAE-1b can be demarcated in Upper Mb. of the Bhuj Fm. due to its age range and marine nature of deposits (Darji and Solanki, 2017). Predominantly, Rudramata shale Member of Jhuran Fm. contains dark grey to black shales which could be a possible horizon to study the Late Jurassic OAE (Arora *et al.*, 2015) (Fig. 3).

The Tagling Fm. (Lias) of Kioto Group, Spiti Valley mainly contains limestone with black shaley bands and ranges in age from Late Triassic to Early Jurassic. In this view the possibility of T-OAE in Tagling Fm. could not be denied. The Spiti Fm. (Callovian-Tithonian) mainly comprises black shale and remarks the presence of Late Jurassic OAE. Overlying Guimal Fm. (Berriasian-Aptian) mainly comprises sandstone with intercalations of black shales and these black shales can give signatures of Weissert event, Faraoni event and OAE-1a. Also OAE-1b, OAE-1c, OAE-1d, OAE-2, and OAE-3 can be traced out in the Chikkim Fm. (Cenomanian-early Maastrichtian) (Fig. 3).

From the Cauvery Basin OAE-1b, OAE-1d, OAE-2 and OAE-3 are already studied but the possibility of OAE-1c from Onshore and Offshore organic rich shaley successions still present and can be distinguish in the Karai Fm. (Albian to middle Turonian) of Uttatur Group on Onshore and from Andimadam Fm. on Offshore. Still detailed study is required of the previously recorded oceanic anoxic events from the Cauvery Basin (Fig. 3).

CONCLUSION

Within the previous few years, in India, researches on oceanic anoxic events have been carried out utilizing detailed biostratigraphy, stable isotopic studies, organic geochemistry, and sedimentary facies studies of the geochemically significant organic-rich laminated black shales from the Mesozoic successions exposed in different basins. But, the integrated approach for

OAE characterization from individual section is lacking. The purpose of this review paper is to provide a comprehensive introduction to Oceanic anoxic events and records of OAEs from the varied parts of India and find out the probable horizons from which these studies can be taken up in future. The review highlights the potentiality of the various regions from where the increasing number of studies would offer a much better understanding of the OAEs from Indian basins. The holistic approach for establishing OAE events from Indian sections is totally lacking. A few studies have been taken from the Cauvery Basin up to some extent but from the other areas the OAE studies are in nascent stage. It is an author's hope that the work, comprehensively presented in this overview has paved the ground for more research on OAEs from Indian sediments.

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