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**Development of an equatorial carbonate platform across the Triassic-Jurassic
boundary and links to global palaeoenvironmental changes (Musandam Peninsula,
UAE/Oman)**

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Highlights

- A shallow-marine carbonate system, studied vertically and laterally, across the Triassic-Jurassic transition from the palaeoequator is presented.
- The vertical stacking pattern is controlled most likely by relative sea level changes.
- No clear evidence for a biocalcification crisis or ocean acidification across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary is visible.

Keywords

Rhaetian-Hettangian, Strontium isotope stratigraphy, Carbon isotopes, Facies architecture,
Ocean acidification

Abstract

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2 The Triassic-Jurassic boundary is marked by one of the 'big five' mass extinctions of the
3 Phanerozoic. This boundary event was accompanied by several carbon cycle perturbations,
4 potentially induced by the opening of the Central Atlantic and associated volcanism, and
5 accompanied by an ocean acidification event. Continuous carbonate successions covering
6 this interval of environmental change are however rare. Here data from a shallow-marine
7 equatorial mixed carbonate-siliciclastic succession is presented, that was studied on a
8 regional scale. Four sections that are 48 km apart were examined on the Musandam
9 Peninsula (United Arab Emirates and Sultanate of Oman). The system was analysed for its
10 sedimentology, vertical and lateral facies changes, and stable carbon and oxygen isotopes.
11 Strontium isotope analysis was used to determine the position of the Triassic-Jurassic
12 boundary horizon. The studied ramp experienced an episode of demise during the Late
13 Triassic, followed by a restricted microbialite dominated ramp, containing large amounts of
14 siliciclastic facies. During the Latest Triassic the diverse carbonate factory revived and
15 flourished across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary. No clear evidence for a biocalcification
16 crisis or an ocean acidification event across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary is visible. Lateral
17 facies heterogeneities can be observed across the studied interval, attributed to
18 hydrodynamic activity, including tropical storms, crossing the extensive shelf area. Although
19 evidence for synsedimentary tectonic activity is present, the vertical stacking pattern is largely
20 controlled by changes in relative sea level. The refined chronostratigraphy accompanied by
21 the detailed environment of deposition analysis allows for a refinement of the regional
22 palaeogeography. The neritic equatorial carbonate ramp has archived a negative carbon
23 isotope excursion preceding the Triassic-Jurassic boundary that has also been reported from
24 other study sites. The lack of evidence for a biocalcification crisis across the equatorial
25 Triassic-Jurassic boundary indicates that the Tethys did not experience a distinct global
26 acidification event.
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1. Introduction and aims

The Triassic-Jurassic transition is accompanied by one of the major mass-extinctions of the Phanerozoic, and is marked by drastic biotic and environmental changes (e.g. Hesselbo et al., 2007) preceded by a carbon cycle perturbation (Hesselbo et al., 2002). This perturbation of the carbon cycle is synchronous with the eruption of the Central Atlantic Magmatic Province (CAMP), producing large amounts of CO₂ and associated volcanic volatiles (Cohen and Coe, 2002; Marzoli et al., 2004). Ocean acidification as the result of the exhalation of CO₂ has been suggested as the main cause for the mass extinction and the associated crisis (Hautmann et al., 2008; Greene et al., 2012, Hönisch et al., 2012; Ikeda et al., 2015). The Arabian Peninsula was covered by an extensive carbonate platform during most of the Mesozoic. The sedimentary rocks of the Arabian Platform have the potential to serve as excellent archive for palaeoenvironmental change. It has however been postulated that a significant stratigraphic gap exists between the Triassic and the Jurassic sequences on most of the Arabian Peninsula, due to erosion or non-deposition (e.g. Al-Husseini, 1997; Sharland et al., 2001; Ziegler 2001). In Oman it has therefore only been possible to study the Upper Triassic shallow-water platform (Bernecker, 2005; 2007), the Liassic shallow-water platform, unconformably overlying the Triassic (Bendias and Aigner, 2015) or the deep-sea record of the Upper Triassic to Lower Jurassic interval (Blendinger, 1988; Blechschmidt et al., 2004). The Musandam Peninsula hosts the stratigraphically most complete shallow carbonate platform section across this time interval on the Arabian Platform, although the exact stratigraphic boundary positions and hiatuses within the Late Triassic and Early Jurassic sequences in this region still remain unclear (Maurer et al., 2008; 2015). The Musandam Peninsula was located at an equatorial position during the Late Triassic to Early Jurassic interval (Tanner et al., 2004; Golonka, 2007). A continuous sedimentary record across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary is rare (Greene et al., 2012 and references therein), and so the carbonate platform of the Musandam Peninsula offers a unique opportunity to examine a carbonate platform at an important palaeogeographic location, potentially affected by major environmental changes across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary.

The aims of this study are: (1) to construct a robust chronostratigraphic framework for the Upper Triassic to Lower Jurassic carbonate sequences on the Musandam Peninsula and

1 (2) to examine the evolution of an equatorial carbonate system across an interval of major
2 global environmental change. These findings are then used to evaluate implications for the
3 regional palaeoceanography and assess factors controlling the development of the carbonate
4 system at the Triassic-Jurassic boundary.
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11 **2. Study area and geological setting**

12 Four sections were selected for this study that are located on the Musandam Peninsula (Fig.
13 1A). The southern part of Musandam Peninsula is part of the United Arab Emirates (UAE)
14 and the northern area is part of the Sultanate of Oman. The Musandam Mountains on the
15 peninsula form the north western extension of the Oman Mountains and contain a well
16 preserved, ~3 km-thick succession of shallow-water carbonates (Maurer et al., 2009). The
17 eastern margin of the Arabian Plate was tectonically passive during the Permian and the
18 Mesozoic. The overall relative tectonic quiescence was interrupted by two events, one during
19 the Late Cretaceous when ophiolites were obducted on the Arabian plate, and the second
20 one during the Late Oligocene – Early Miocene when the Oman and Musandam Mountains
21 were formed during an initial collision phase of the Zagros orogeny (Glennie, 2005; Searle et
22 al., 2014). From the Pliocene onwards the eastern margin of the Arabian platform was in an
23 active continental setting and the Arabian plate is currently being subducted beneath the
24 Eurasian Plate (Sharland et al., 2001; Searle et al., 2014).
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40 The area of the Musandam Peninsula was located at an equatorial position during the
41 Late Triassic to Early Jurassic interval (Tanner et al., 2004; Golonka, 2007). The area was
42 covered by a shallow-marine carbonate platform during the Late Triassic and Early Jurassic
43 (Ziegler, 2001) (Fig. 1B). To the north, more open-marine conditions prevailed. Terrigenous
44 conditions existed to the south, with the coastline towards the west running roughly parallel to
45 its present day location (Ziegler, 2001). Most of the UAE, Oman and Qatar were
46 characterised by terrigenous to marginally marine environments, where shallow-marine
47 clastics, evaporites and coastal and deltaic sediments were deposited (Al-Husseini, 1997;
48 Ziegler 2001).
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58 The four sections are 48 km apart (Fig. 1A). The “Wadi Naqab section” lies on the
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1 northern side of Wadi Naqab, 13 km southeast of the city of Ras-Al-Khaimah (GPS
2 coordinates of the log base: N 25°43'5.7"; E 56°05'14.1"). The "Wadi Ghalilah section" is
3 located on the western flank of Wadi Ghalilah (GPS coordinates of the log base: N
4 25°58'23.1"; E 56°05'40.5"). The "Wadi Al-Ghabbah section" forms the northern extension of
5 Wadi Sha'am, to the northeast of the city of Sha'am and is in close proximity to the border
6 with Oman to the north (GPS coordinates of the log base: N 26°03'13.3"; E 56°08'32.6"). The
7 "Jabal Sall Ala section" is located on the seaward facing flank of the mountain by the village
8 Sall Ala in the Omani part of the Musandam Peninsula (GPS coordinates of the log base: N
9 26°01'46.6"; E 56°22'44.8").
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23 **3. Methods**

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25 The four sections were logged bed-by-bed using a Jakob's staff, and examined in the field for
26 their sedimentary features, fossil assemblages and texture. Textural classification of
27 carbonate facies followed Dunham (1962) and Embry and Klovan (1971). Palaeocurrent
28 directions were measured from a cross-stratified bedset in the basal Musandam Limestone in
29 Wadi Naqab using a geologic compass. Fist-size samples for petrography and stable isotope
30 analysis were taken every 2 to 5 m along the vertical transects, using a geological hammer,
31 and 51 representative thin sections were made. Half of each thin section was stained after the
32 method described by Dickson (1965), and subsequently analysed using a transmitted light
33 Zeiss Axioskop 40 microscope (plain and polarised light).
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44 Stable isotope measurements were performed in the Qatar Stable Isotope Laboratory
45 at Imperial College London. All measurements were performed on micrite as it is the most
46 common carbonate phase, and thin section analysis could be used to check the purity of the
47 micrite. Where it was not possible to sample the micrite phase, a bulk sample was analysed.
48 A total of 148 sample powders were obtained using an electrical dental drill, carefully avoiding
49 veins, fossils and recrystallized sections. Approximately 100 to 230 µg (one sample with a
50 relatively low CaCO₃ content) of sample powder were dissolved with 105 % orthophosphoric
51 acid at 70 °C in a Kiel IV carbonate device, and the resulting CO₂ gas was measured on a
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1 Thermo MAT 253 mass spectrometer. Data were corrected according to measurements of
2 the international standard NBS 19 and an in-house standard (ICM, Imperial College Carrara
3 Marble and processed for carbon and oxygen isotope drift using the software Easotope (John
4 and Bowen, 2016). Stable isotope values are reported using the standard δ notation relative
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6 to the VPDB (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite) standard. External precision for ICM (one standard
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8 deviation) on carbon and oxygen is better than 0.05 ‰ and 0.08 ‰, respectively. The
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10 precision for duplicate and triplicate sample measurements (one standard deviation) is better
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12 than 0.05 ‰ for carbon and better than 0.14 ‰ for oxygen.
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17 The strontium isotope analyses ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) were carried out at the Royal Holloway
18 University of London on selected oysters and brachiopods. The brachiopods were screened
19 for diagenetic alteration prior to the analysis at Imperial College London using petrographic
20 and cathodoluminescence (CL) microscopy. A CITL Cathodoluminescence Mk5-2 stage
21 mounted on a Nikon Eclipse 50i microscope was used. Operating conditions for the CL
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23 microscope were about 270 μA and 14 kV. Samples were acidified for one hour at 80 °C
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25 using 5 % HNO_3 solution. Strontium was then separated from the solution using EichromSr-
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27 spec resin and then loaded on single Re filaments with a TaF emitter. The $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ analyses
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29 were determined using the multidynamic procedure of Thirlwall (1991) and analysed on an
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31 Isotopx Phoenix Thermal Ionisation mass spectrometer. The standard SRM 987 analysed
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33 alongside samples gave a mean of 0.710237 ± 0.000006 (2sd, N=3) (Appendix), within error
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35 of the long-term mean of 0.710234 ± 11 (2sd, N=177).
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46 **4. Chronostratigraphic framework**

47 Consensus seems to prevail that Upper Triassic and a large portion of Lower Jurassic
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49 sediments are not preserved on much of the Arabian Platform due to erosion, or were never
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51 deposited due to exposure during a sea level lowstand (e.g. Alsharhan and Nairn, 1994; Al-
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53 Hussein, 1997; Le Nindre et al., 2003; Bendias and Aigner, 2015). Liassic deposits of
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55 Toarcian age occur on parts of the Arabian Shield due to a transgression and the subsequent
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57 creation of accommodation (Al-Husseini, 1997). On the Musandam Peninsula, a more
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1 complete stratigraphic record of the Triassic and Jurassic is present. The Triassic period is
2 only missing parts of the Carnian and Norian (Maurer et al., 2008). The Jurassic sedimentary
3 record is missing parts of the Hettangian and Sinemurian and parts of the Toarcian, the
4 Aalenian and the Tithonian (de Matos, 1997; de Matos and Walkden, 2000).
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8 The four sections comprise the top Sumra Member, the Sakhra and Shuba Members
9 as well as the basal Musandam Limestone (Fig. 2; 3A). The former are the upper members of
10 the Ghalilah Formation and the Musandam Limestone forms the Lower Musandam
11 Formation. The three members as well as the underlying Asfal and Sumra Members were
12 originally described by Hudson (1960) and attributed to the Triassic. Glennie et al. (1974)
13 later revised this and dated the Sakhra and Shuba Members as Early Jurassic, based on a
14 single *Orbitopsella* specimen, thus extending the Ghalilah Formation into the Jurassic. This
15 was supported by Maurer et al. (2008; 2015) and followed by Al-Suwaidi et al. (2016) based
16 on the last occurrence of Rhaetian corals in the uppermost Sumra Member and the absence
17 of fossils in the Sakhra and Shuba Members, which Maurer et al. (2008; 2015) attribute to the
18 end-Triassic mass extinction. De Matos et al. (1994) and de Matos (1997) studied the
19 Jurassic stratigraphy in Wadi Naqab extensively and, based on the macrofossil assemblage
20 described previously by Hudson and Jefferies (1961) and the stratigraphic study by Metwally
21 and Ali (1992), identified the contact between the Shuba Member and the basal Musandam
22 Formation as the Triassic-Jurassic boundary at Wadi Naqab. It is noteworthy that Metwally
23 and Ali (1992) assign an Early Jurassic age to the "cliff-forming limestones" (presumably the
24 basal Musandam limestone and not the Sakhra limestone, since the latter is only
25 approximately 25 m thick (Hudson, 1960)) based on a macrofossil assemblage containing the
26 ammonoid *Tragophylloceras numismale* and the echinoid *Scaptodiadema*. The ammonite *T.*
27 *numismale* points to a Pliensbachian age in the Euroboreal realm (Meister et al., 2012). It is
28 furthermore noted that Maurer et al. (2008), who focused on the Permian to Triassic
29 sequences of the Musandam Peninsula, place the Triassic-Jurassic boundary based on the
30 last occurrence of *Retiophyllia* corals in the Upper Sumra Member, as both the Sakhra
31 Member and most of the Shuba Member do not contain any age-diagnostic fauna. De Matos
32 (1997) performed a detailed biostratigraphic examination of the Upper Ghalilah and the
33 Musandam Formations in Wadi Naqab and neighbouring wadis and did not confirm the
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Orbitopsella find from Glennie et al. (1974) in the Shuba Member. The Triassic-Jurassic boundary was placed within the uppermost Shuba Member based on the presence of abundant Liassic *Balanocrinus subteroides* crinoids in the basal Musandam Limestone and an assemblage of Triassic shark teeth (*Acrodus* cf. *lateralis*) and, most likely, Triassic bivalves (*Pseudoplacunopsis* sp., *Plicatula radiata*, *Bakevillia* sp.) encountered in a correlatable section examined in Wadi Milaha (~ 8 km north of Wadi Naqab) in the Upper Shuba Member (de Matos, 1997).

5. Results

5.1 Lithofacies associations

Nine different lithofacies associations (LF 1 to 9) were differentiated (Table 1). LF 1 comprises fenestral mud- and wackestones, containing peloids and bioclast fragments. Quartz grains as well as 2-5 cm long mudclasts are common in this facies. In some of these beds, subangular vugs with a diameter of up to ca. 15 cm are present (Fig. 3B). Some of these vugs are filled with nodular white cement, occasionally with a pink cement nucleus. Some of these vugs have irregular rims, resembling cauliflower (Fig. 3C). LF 2 comprises boundstones and mudstones containing laminae with fenestrae (Fig. 3D). The microbial laminites occur commonly as continuous beds and occasionally occur with domal structures, thus forming stromatolites. Tepee-structures are common within these laminites (Fig. 4A). The mudstones of LF 1 and 2 are frequently dolomitized. Two distinct types of crystalline dolomite occur. A fine-grained type with fine rhomb-shaped dolomite crystals (10 µm in diameter) cemented together and a coarser type where large dolomite rhombs (50 µm in diameter) float in a calcite cement matrix. LF 3 and LF 4 comprise wackestones, mudstones and packstones, containing few specimens of bivalves, gastropods, peloids, ostracods, echinoderms and dasycladalean algae fragments (*Paleodasycladus* sp., Fig. 4.3E, F). The wackestone facies is in some cases channelized (Fig. 4B). LF 4 is distinguished from LF 3 by the fact that the former contains quartz, and is occasionally partly dolomitised. LF 3 contains

1 no quartz grains. Bedding within the two lithofacies types is often irregular and nodular, and
2 occasional bioturbation occurs. LF 5 has a grainstone texture, typically containing ooids and
3 peloids (Fig. 4C). The nuclei of the ooids are mostly bioclasts, though quartz grains are also
4 abundant. Different bivalves, such as oysters are commonly present within this facies
5 association as well as different other bioclasts, including echinoderms. LF 5 additionally
6 frequently contains lithoclasts and aggregate grains (Fig. 4D). It is typically cross-stratified as
7 well as cross-laminated, and mud-drapes can be observed (Fig. 4E, F, G). LF 6 comprises
8 diverse packstones or sometimes rudstones with a rich fossil content. The fossil content
9 includes complete bivalve shells and fragments, and often oysters, gastropods, benthic
10 foraminifera, ostracods, echinoderms, peloids and coral fragments. These beds have often
11 been heavily bioturbated. The abundant ichnofossils are commonly *Rhizocorallium* and
12 *Chondrites*. LF 7 is characterised by the presence of corals. These can occur as branching
13 framestones, with the corals preserved in living position (Fig. 5A), massive coral heads (Fig.
14 5C, D) or coral debris rudstones (Fig. 5E). The matrix of the limestones around the corals is
15 formed of ooids and large gastropods. LF 7 is in places heavily bioturbated and contains cm-
16 sized vugs. The branching corals in the top part of the Sumra Member on the Musandam
17 Peninsula have been identified as *Retiophyllia* corals (Maurer et al., 2008). LF 8 comprises
18 siliciclastic facies of fine to medium sized quartz sandstones, which are typically cemented by
19 calcite (Fig. 5B). Occasional dolomite cement is present. These sandstones are often cross-
20 stratified and cross-laminated (Fig. 5F), exhibit nodular bedding, and sometimes show flaser-
21 bedding, lenticular bedding as well as wave ripples (Fig. 5G) and in one case hummocky
22 cross-lamination (Fig. 5H). Other clastic rock types included in this facies association are
23 monomictic and polymictic conglomerates (Fig. 5I). LF 9 comprises shales and marls that are
24 very abundant throughout the studied sections. These fine-grained sediments are brownish to
25 grey, red and green in colour and are typically finely laminated. Bioturbation is common,
26 mostly *Thalassinoides*.

5.2 Vertical stratigraphic stacking pattern

1 The base of the measured Wadi Naqab section is in the upper part of the Sumra Member
2 (Fig. 6). It is formed of bioclastic limestones (LF 6) and coral float- and rudstones (Fig. 5C, D,
3 E) (LF 7) interbedded with marl and shale beds (LF 9). The Sumra member is overlain by a ~
4 26 m thick oolite unit (LF 5), which forms the Sakhra Member. The oolite shows abundant
5 cross-bedding and cross-laminations. The top of this oolitic grainstone unit is marked by red
6 staining, as well as scours and fractures, containing red mudstone and oolite clasts (Fig. 7A).
7 The oolitic grainstone is overlain conformably by the Shuba Member. The Lower Shuba
8 Member is dominated by microbial and fenestral limestones (LF 2), fine sand- and siltstone
9 beds (LF 8), interbedded with marl and shale layers (LF 9). The upper half of the Shuba
10 Member contains mainly bioclastic and oolitic limestones interbedded with marls (LF 3, 5, 6
11 and 9). The uppermost beds of the Shuba Member are condensed, pale brown to yellowish,
12 ooidal grainstones, rich in oysters and crinoids (LF 5 and 6). The Shuba Member contains 19
13 discontinuity surfaces, which are marked by mineral crusts, red staining and occasionally by
14 abundant bioturbation. Two of these surfaces contain desiccation cracks (Fig. 7B). The basal
15 part of the overlying Musandam Limestones consists of a 7 m thick cross-stratified very
16 heterogeneous (Fig. 4E, F) ooidal grainstone unit (LF 5), containing one crinoidal packstone
17 bed (LF 6), dm thick layers of bioclastic pack- and grainstones (LF 6) and frequent 5 – 10 cm
18 thick mudstringers (Fig. 4G). The measured palaeocurrent directions from this cross-stratified
19 interval are NNE-SSE trending (Fig. 4E). The upper part of the section is marked by dm to 1.5
20 m thick mud- to wackestone beds (LF 3 and 6).

21 The oolites of the Sakhra Member form the basal part of the Wadi Ghalilah section
22 (LF 5) (Fig. 6). The Sakhra Member contains one channelized bed. The channels are
23 approximately 30 cm deep and filled with laminated mudstones (Fig. 7C). The cliff-forming
24 Sakhra Member is overlain by the Shuba Member, which comprise in its lower part
25 interbedded microbial boundstones (LF 2), bioclastic pack- to grainstones (LF 6) and ooidal
26 grainstone beds (LF 5). The upper part of the Shuba Member contains microbial
27 boundstones, fenestral mudstones (LF 2), interbedded with fine sand- to siltstones, one
28 monomictic conglomerate bed (Fig. 4.5I) (LF 8) and marl and shale layers (LF 9). One of the
29 fenestral mudstone beds contains small normal-fault blocks (55 m upsection, Fig. 7D). The
30 uppermost Shuba Member contains bioclastic limestone beds with several thin oyster
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1 packstone layers (LF 6), interbedded with marls and shales (LF 9). The topmost of these
2 beds is a coral float- to rudstone (LF 7), with some large, massive corals in growth position
3 (Fig. 5A). The coral limestone is overlain by several siliciclastic and quartz-rich limestone
4 beds (LF 8 and 4). The onset of the overlying Musandam Limestone is placed where the beds
5 are thicker and are more resistant to weathering. The lower part of the Musandam Limestone
6 forms the top part of the logged section and comprises mudstone (LF 3 and 4) and sand- and
7 siltstone beds (LF 8). The Shuba Member logged in Wadi Ghalilah contains 12 discontinuity
8 surfaces of which three are marked by desiccation cracks. The Lower Musandam Limestone
9 contains three such discontinuity surfaces.
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12 The base of the measured Wadi Al-Ghabbah section corresponds to the top at the
13 Sakhra Member, which forms a prominent ledge and consists of ooidal grainstone (LF 5) (Fig.
14 6). The basal part of the overlying Shuba Member consists of 12 m of microbial boundstones
15 (LF 2), mudstones (LF 3) and few bioclastic limestones (LF 6). This interval is overlain by 30
16 m of shales and marls (LF 9), which are interbedded with dm to metre-thick limestone (LF1, 2
17 and 3). The mudstones of LF 1 in this interval are characterised by abundant vugs with
18 diameters of around 10 cm, which are sometimes filled with white cement. The upper half of
19 the Shuba Member is dominated by marl and shale beds (LF 9). These are interbedded with
20 mainly metre-thick beds of mudstone (LF 3) and bioclastic wacke- and packstones (LF 6). A
21 noticeable 1.05 m thick cross-stratified sandstone bed, which is overlain by a thin polymictic
22 conglomerate, lies within this interval (60 m upsection, both LF 8). The conglomerate is only
23 present in depressions within the top of the underlying sandstone. It consists of grey and
24 ochre coloured mudclasts with diameters between 1 and 5 mm. Approximately 6.5 m up
25 section a second prominent, 2.35 m thick, cross-stratified and cross-laminated sandstone bed
26 (Lf 8) is present (67 m upsection, Fig. 5F). In its upper half it contains a horizon with lenticular
27 bedding and internally laminated wave ripples (Fig. 5G). This bed is in parts bioturbated
28 internally and on its surface. The top surface of the bed is a condensed layer, rich in bioclasts
29 and coloured pale brown- to yellowish with red stained patches. The overlying Musandam
30 Limestone above the Shuba Member is marked by thicker beds and contains an echinoid-rich
31 wackestone (LF 3) and two very quartz-rich beds (LF 4) in its basal part. These two beds are
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overlain by thickening-upwards mudstones (LF 1, 2 and 3). The Shuba Member in Wadi Al-Ghabbah contains 11 discontinuity surfaces of which one is marked by desiccation cracks.

The Jabal Sall Ala section consists of limestone beds (LF 3 and 6) interbedded with shales and marls of the Sumra Member in its basal part (Fig. 6). The uppermost Sumra Member contains two coral float- to rudstone beds with well-preserved branching corals (Fig. 5C, D, E) (LF 7) as well as two ooidal grainstone beds (LF 5). The overlying Sakhra Member is 25 m thick, and contains 5 thickening upwards, partly cross-stratified and cross-laminated ooidal grainstone beds (LF 5). The overlying Shuba Member contains microbial boundstones (LF 2) and silt- to fine sandstones (LF 8) in its lower half, interbedded with few thin shale and marl layers (LF 9). The upper half of the Shuba Member contains different types of limestone beds (LF 3, 4, 5 and 6), interbedded with shales and marls (LF 9). The basal Musandam Limestone is marked by a cross-stratified ooidal grainstone bed (LF 5), overlain by ooidal grainstone and by a relatively thick (> 3 m) bioclastic packstone bed (100 m upsection, LF 5 and 6). The Shuba Member of the Jabal Sall Ala section contains three discontinuity surfaces.

5.3 Stable carbon isotope record

The majority of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from the three sections lie between -3 and 2 ‰ (Fig. 6). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values lie between -7 and -1 ‰. A table containing all carbon and oxygen isotope results can be found in appendix. A cross-plot of stable isotope results from the three measured sections shows no significant trends between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. 8). The dataset could however be divided into two groups, one with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of between 0 and -2.7 ‰ and a second group with more depleted $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between -3 and -8 ‰. The longest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record generated from samples taken from Wadi Naqab ranges from the Upper Sumra Member to the basal Musandam Limestone with the largest values corresponding to the ooidal grainstone of the Sakhra Member.

5.4 Strontium isotope stratigraphy and chronostratigraphy at Wadi Naqab

$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ isotope analysis was performed on oysters and a single brachiopod from Wadi Naqab (the positions of the samples are indicated in Fig. 6 and 10A). Only specimens that display little or no luminescence were selected for the Sr analysis as this implies low Mn^{2+} and Fe^{2+} concentrations (Boggs and Krinsley, 2006). The brachiopod sample (WN 193 Br3) was taken from the top of the Asfal Member (the lowest member of the Ghalilah Formation) approximately 40 m stratigraphically below the base of the studied section. The specimens are thicker than 500 μm and the foliated texture is well-preserved (Fig. 9A, B). The sample WN 168 Oy was taken from a fossil-rich bioclastic rudstone in the top of the Shuba Member. The selected specimen is relatively thin and contains luminescent cracks (Fig. 9C, D). Samples WN TJ B2 and WN TJ B3 were taken from an ooidal grainstone bed, rich in oysters and crinoids, two beds above. The selected specimens have relatively thick shells and have a well-preserved internal foliation (Fig. 9E, F). A table containing all strontium isotope results can be found in Appendix A.4. The Asfal Member was unequivocally deposited during the Late Triassic and is therefore younger than ~232 Ma (de Matos, 1997; Maurer et al., 2008; 2015). Using the LOWESS best fit-curve by McArthur et al. (2001), the strontium isotope analysis yields in a numerical maximum age of ~208.3 Ma for the brachiopod sample, which corresponds to the Rhaetian (Fig. 10B) (Cohen et al., 2013). The bed containing sample WN 168 Oy was deposited significantly above the bed from which the brachiopods were taken and is thus younger in age. Its measured $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value yields in a minimum stratigraphic age of ~203.8 Ma and a maximum age of ~208 Ma. Due to the shape of the LOWESS best-fit curve an unequivocal age determination using the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value is not possible around the inferred Triassic-Jurassic boundary (dated at ~201.3 Ma, Cohen et al., 2013). The two samples WN TJ B2 and WN TJ B3, taken from the same bed, show overlapping $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values. The numerical maximum age according to the LOWESS best-fit curve is ~201.5 Ma and the minimum age is ~195.8 Ma. This theoretically implies an age difference between the bed with the two samples WN TJ B and the bed containing WN 168 Oy, separated by one bed, of between 2.3 to 12.2 Myr (Fig. 10B). Based on the texture of sample WN 168 Oy showing luminescent cracks this sample is tentatively excluded from the age determination

1 (Fig. 9C, D). Using the numerical age derived from the radiogenic strontium isotope analysis
2 alone does thus not allow an unambiguous placement of the boundary.
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4 Despite often being incomplete and prone to diagenetic alteration, the sedimentary
5 sections from this neritic setting contain distinct shifts and has most likely archived the
6 characteristic “initial” negative carbon isotope excursion and the following positive shift
7 (Hesselbo et al., 2002) (Fig. 11) A lithologic control on the stable carbon isotope signal can
8 however not be fully excluded. This is complemented by the biostratigraphic observations
9 made by de Matos (1997) with the last occurrence of Triassic shark teeth and bivalves (see
10 section 4 and Fig. 6) in the uppermost Ghalilah Formation. The dasycladalean algae
11 described here (Fig. 3E, F) could only be identified at the genus level and do therefore not
12 allow for a detailed age assignment. The genus *Paleodasycladus* has however been
13 frequently reported from the Liassic in the western Tethys (e.g. Barattolo and Bigozzi, 1996;
14 Di Stefano et al., 1996). The Triassic-Jurassic boundary interval is therefore placed at the
15 transition zone between the Shuba Member and the Musandam Limestone, above the
16 horizon containing the last Triassic taxa, based on the combined strontium-derived numerical
17 age, the carbon isotope pattern as well as available biostratigraphic markers.
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38 **6. Discussion and implications**

39 **6.1 Environments of deposition (EOD)**

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41 Based on field observations and microfacies analysis, palaeoecological and hydrodynamic
42 interpretations, five main environments of deposition (EODs) were identified: (i) floodplain or
43 tidal flat, to intertidal zone; (ii) restricted, shallow-marine ramp; (iii) high-energy, shallow-
44 marine ramp; (iv) open marine ramp and (v) subtidal middle ramp (Table 1). LF 1 and LF 2
45 were deposited on mudflats or tidal flats within the intertidal, shallow-marine realm. Tepee
46 structures within the microbialite layers and desiccation cracks marking some of the
47 discontinuity surfaces, which frequently cap these facies types, serve as evidence for regular
48 subaerial exposure. The cauliflower-shaped vugs (Fig. 3B, C) filled with white calcite cement
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1 that are present in some of these beds are interpreted as former evaporite nodules, which
2 were dissolved and later filled with calcite cement. The precipitation of evaporites, such as
3 anhydrite indicates a very shallow, intertidal and at least at times restricted or supratidal
4 environment (e.g. Warren and Kendall, 1985). The occurrence of intertidal fenestral
5 limestones and occasional domal stromatolites, interbedded with subtidal shales and
6 limestones resembles the vertical stacking pattern of Lofer cycles, with the fenestral and
7 microbial limestone facies being typical tidal flat deposits (e.g. Fischer, 1964; Satterley and
8 Brandner, 1995; Enos and Samankassou, 1998). The finely laminated marls and shales (LF
9 9) are also mud- or tidal flat facies, since they are interbedded with the intertidal facies. The
10 sandstones of LF 8 that contain wavy, and lenticular bedding (Fig. 5G) as well as cross-
11 stratification (Fig. 5F) were most likely all deposited within the shallow-marine realm or even
12 on mud or tidal flats. LF 3 and 4 contain little or no bioclasts, displaying a low faunal diversity,
13 typically either bivalves, gastropods or echinoderms. LF 4 contains quartz grains, while LF 3
14 lacks quartz. These facies types represent a relatively restricted environment, either
15 deposited within the shallow-marine or subtidal open ramp. No sedimentary structures could
16 be observed to allow a more differentiated interpretation. The ooidal grainstones of LF 5 were
17 deposited within the high-energy, shallow-marine realm. The facies contain no micrite and are
18 typically cross-stratified and contain various bioclast fragments, such as oysters and other,
19 unidentified bivalves, gastropods, echinoderms and lithoclasts. The coral bearing facies (LF
20 7) are attributed to a shallow- to more open-marine, high-energy carbonate ramp, as the
21 corals are frequently associated with ooidal, grainy matrices and were likely to form reefs
22 within the shallow-marine environment. The open marine EOD is dominated by lithofacies
23 associations with diverse fossil assemblages such as pack- and rudstones of LF 6, containing
24 bivalves, gastropods, benthic foraminifera, ostracods, echinoderms, oysters, peloids and
25 coral fragments. The ichnofossils *Rhizocorallium* and *Chondrites* point to a slightly deeper
26 marine EOD, compared to the restricted and fossil-lean deposits of LF 3 and 4. The
27 hummocky cross stratification in one sandstone bed in the top Shuba Member at Wadi Al-
28 Ghabbah is interpreted as being produced by storm-induced currents. These sands were
29 most likely deposited between storm- and fair-weather wavebase. The finely laminated shales
30 and marls of LF 9, often exhibiting nodular bedding and bioturbation (typically *Thalassinoides*)
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are deposits of a relatively deep, calm environment, and thus represent the deepest deposits within the studied sections.

6.2 Sequence stratigraphic framework

The sequence stratigraphic scheme used in this study follows concepts proposed by Strasser et al. (1999). The workflow allows for a descriptive analysis of vertical stacking patterns in shallow environments, especially for mixed, carbonate-clastic systems. The high-resolution analysis groups units into sequences based on vertical facies trends and interpreted bathymetric changes. This has proven useful when age constraints are relatively loose and the exact duration of sequences is difficult or impossible to assess, and has been applied in various studies (e.g. Immenhauser et al., 2004; Amour et al., 2013; Gomez and Astini, 2015). Two different scales of sequences were recognised within the studied strata based on the cyclical, vertical facies evolution. Small-scale sequences are typically a few metres to tens of metres thick, and the large-scale sequences have thicknesses of maximum 30 m. When the vertical facies evolution indicates deepening-upwards, the sequence is interpreted to record increasing sediment accommodation and a relative sea level rise, while a relative shoaling-upwards sequence is interpreted to have recorded decreasing accommodation and a relative sea level fall. Sequence boundaries were placed at surfaces containing evidence for breaks in sedimentation, such as discontinuity surfaces, some showing evidence for subaerial exposure such as desiccation cracks and palaeokarsts, or where breaks in the trend of relative sea level change are evidenced. The application of the described workflow allows the identification of sequences for the four studied sections as follows (Fig. 12): The measured Wadi Naqab section is divided here into seven sequence sets. Each of these sequence sets consists of a deepening and a shoaling-upwards sequence. The top of the Sakhra Member oolites is strongly karstified and thus for example forms a sequence boundary (Fig. 7A). De Matos (1997) has previously described the Jurassic succession in Wadi Naqab. The sequence "He1", corresponding to the basal Musandam Limestone (de Matos, 1997), is approximately equivalent to the top two and a half sequences in the new sequence stratigraphic scheme presented here. The Wadi Ghalilah section consists of six and a half

1 sequence sets. The Wadi Al-Ghabbah section consists of eight complete sequence sets. The
2 basal oolitic unit marks the top of a shoaling-upwards sequence and the uppermost beds of
3 the section mark the beginning of a deepening-upwards sequence. The Jabal Sall Ala section
4 consists of seven sequence sets. Sequences were grouped into larger order sequences in a
5 composite sequence stratigraphic framework for all four studied sections (Fig. 12). This
6 results in a shoaling-upwards sequence ranging from the Sumra Member to the top of the
7 Sakhra Member. The overlying Shuba Member and Musandam Limestone are interpreted as
8 a deepening upwards – shallowing-upwards sequence set, with the relatively deepest
9 deposits within the top Shuba Member.
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21 **6.3 Regional correlation**

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24 The four sections are correlated based on a combined stratigraphic approach. The Wadi
25 Naqab section is used as regional reference section as its chronostratigraphic age has been
26 constrained by bio- and isotope stratigraphy. All three $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ curves show broad negative
27 trends in their lower parts followed by a positive shift with amplitudes of 3.5 – 4 ‰. The
28 relatively heaviest value at Wadi Naqab (WN 3 – WN 4, Fig. 6) comes from to the basal
29 Musandam Limestone and the Triassic-Jurassic transition zone. The heaviest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
30 following the 3.5 – 4 ‰ shifts at Wadis Ghalilah (WG 2 – WG 3, Fig. 6) and Al-Ghabbah
31 (within WA 4, Fig. 6) are interpreted to correspond to the heaviest value recorded at Wadi
32 Naqab. The heavy $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at Wadis Ghalilah and Al-Ghabbah occur within the basal
33 Musandam Limestone. The Jabal Sall Ala section is correlated to the Wadi Naqab section at
34 the Lower Musandam Limestone. This combined $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and lithostratigraphy correlation line is
35 used as datum in the regional correlation panel and corresponds to the Triassic – Jurassic
36 boundary horizon (Fig. 12).
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55 The chronostratigraphic framework established for the four sections allows for
56 regional correlations and examination of inferred EODs, as deduced from lithofacies
57 associations, as well as the regional correlation of sequences. The broad EODs are
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1 continuous across the entire study window. It changes from high-energy, open marine
2 environment to the shallow-marine, intertidal to tidal flat zone. This tidal- or mudflat EOD
3 contains an abundant siliciclastic fraction, especially in the eastern Wadi Naqab and Jabal
4 Sall Ala sections. The environment then shifts to open-marine, represented by diverse
5 bioclastic limestones of the Upper Shuba Member. The Lower Jurassic is marked by open-
6 marine and high-energy facies in the eastern sections while the western sections (Wadis
7 Ghalilah and Al-Ghabbah) contain facies types deposited on a restricted part of the carbonate
8 ramp. Siliciclastic as well as tidal- or mudflat facies are present within this restricted EOD that
9 are however not continuous between the western sections. The overall thickness of the
10 Shuba Member as well as of the recorded EODs present within that member changes
11 markedly laterally. While the Shuba Member is approximately 50 m thick in the eastern
12 sections (Wadi Naqab and Jabal Sall Ala sections) it is ~ 60 m thick at Wadi Ghalilah and ~
13 75 m thick in Wadi Al-Ghabbah. The Wadi Al-Ghabbah section also contains more sequences
14 than the other sections and is therefore regarded as the stratigraphically most complete out of
15 the four sections. The general thickening towards the west could be the result of larger
16 sediment accommodation in the west, potentially induced by an overall extensional tectonic
17 regime, as evidenced by synsedimentary normal faults in a bed within the Shuba Member in
18 Wadi Ghalilah (Fig. 7D), or by differential subsidence and the subsequent creation of more
19 accommodation towards the west. Conversely local erosion in the eastern locations could
20 account for the missing cycles. This is supported by the abundance of erosional surfaces at
21 Wadi Naqab. The Jabal Sall Ala section however lacks these surfaces (Fig. 6). A locally
22 different palaeotopography with a palaeolow towards the west could be postulated but is at
23 present not possible to assess, as the base of the underlying Sakhra Member could not be
24 measured in Wadi Al-Ghabbah.

51 **6.4 Implications for palaeogeography**

52 The broad palaeobathymetric configuration during the Rhaetian and Hettangian of the
53 northeastern Arabian Peninsula shows a deepening towards the (Neo)-Tethyan ocean in the
54 northeast (Fig. 13A). The area of the Musandam Peninsula was part of a large bay, covered
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1 by a shallow-marine carbonate platform, with shallower clastics and evaporites being
2 deposited in more proximal settings towards the Arabian Craton (Al-Husseini, 1997; Ziegler,
3 2001). Based on the findings of this study, a differentiation between the Late Triassic and the
4 Early Jurassic is necessary as the EOD distribution markedly changed through time (Fig. 12).
5 The Shuba Member contains multiple exposure surfaces as well as some evaporite beds in
6 its lower half across the entire study area. The shallow-marine clastic and evaporite EOD
7 must have extended at least to the northern end of the Musandam Peninsula during parts of
8 the Rhaetian (Fig. 13B). This is supported by facies descriptions acquired from cores onshore
9 and offshore of Abu Dhabi, where clastic deposits have been reported (Loufti and Sattar,
10 1987; Hassan, 1989). This shallow-marine clastic and evaporites EOD potentially extended
11 as far as Iran during the Late Triassic according to facies descriptions from Alavi (2004).
12 Since equivalent subsurface data from the Persian Gulf is scarce, this remains a hypothesis
13 at present. The sedimentary record from the Musandam Peninsula is proposed as being more
14 complete than that of the western Arabian Peninsula (Maurer et al., 2008) and a Late Triassic
15 – Early Jurassic stratigraphic gap is frequently mentioned (e.g. Sharland et al., 2001). The
16 Triassic and Jurassic facies distribution on the Musandam Peninsula is more heterogeneous
17 than that of the underlying Shuba Member. It comprises oolitic dunes in the eastern sections
18 and sandbodies that are in one case connected between the logged sections. Evaporites as
19 well as an abundant siliciclastic component are present in the western sections (Wadis
20 Ghalilah and Al-Ghabbah). The broad EODs are however continuous across the study area
21 and switch to a shallow- to open marine carbonate system, containing no evidence for
22 subaerial exposure. The western sections however contain more restricted EOD facies types
23 (Fig. 12). The palaeogeographic map for the Early Jurassic is thus similar to previously
24 published maps (Fig. 13C). A closer look at the EOD and facies distribution reveals
25 heterogeneity at the scale of tens of kilometres, similar to what has been previously
26 established for the hundreds of metre to kilometre scale in shallow-marine carbonates from
27 Middle Jurassic strata on the Musandam Peninsula (Hönig and John, 2015).
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54 **6.5 Controls on the regional development of the platform**

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1 The overall EOD across the study area shifts from a shallow-marine carbonate system with
2 diverse facies associations containing corals, different bioclasts and ooids to a microbialite-
3 dominated mud- or tidal flat with abundant siliciclastic material and frequent exposure events,
4 back to a deeper, more open-marine carbonate system, which contains only one local
5 exposure surface. The demise of the ooid-dominated high-energy carbonate ramp, followed
6 by an intertidal microbialite-dominated system was either induced by changes in
7 oceanographic conditions or by a drop in relative sea level (James, 1997; Pomar and Hallock,
8 2008). The top of the Sakhra Member oolite at Wadi Naqab is marked by a karstified surface,
9 which favours the model of a major relative sea level drop followed by a hiatus lasting long
10 enough to form this karstified surface. There is however no evidence for karstification of the
11 top Sakhra present within the other sections, despite the drastic facies and EOD change. At
12 Wadi Ghalilah one horizon within the Sakhra Member oolite exhibits a strongly mottled
13 surface as well as a palaeokarst. An abrupt drop in relative sea level, followed potentially by
14 an omission phase is postulated. Restricted oceanographic conditions favouring microbialite
15 growth, such as increased salinity (e.g. Vennin et al., 2015 and references therein) might
16 have prevailed locally on the extensive shelf area. The Shuba Member contains bioclastic
17 and ooidal limestones in its lower part in the western sections (Wadis Ghalilah and Al-
18 Ghabbah), so restricted conditions could have not prevailed across the entire shelf initially,
19 following the relative sea level drop causing the demise of the Sumra and Sakhra Member
20 carbonate system. Environmental stress might have increased during the deposition of the
21 Shuba Member, favouring microbialite growth.

22 The second switch, back to a healthy carbonate system and slightly preceding the
23 Triassic-Jurassic boundary is the result of a relative sea level deepening, evidenced by
24 deeper, more open-marine facies types as well as the absence of regional subaerial exposure
25 within the Upper Shuba Member and the Musandam Limestone. It could have only been
26 caused by either an increased subsidence rate or by a eustatic rise.

27 Two orders of cycles have been recognised within the studied strata. An even higher-
28 frequency cyclicity in the Liassic of Wadi Naqab as well as the nearby Oman Mountains was
29 previously interpreted as the result of orbital forcing (de Matos, 1997; Walkden and de Matos,
30 2000; Bendias and Aigner, 2015). The observed medium- and large-scale cycles also

1 represent changes in relative sea level, most prominently marked by various exposure
2 stages, of which some from within the Lower Shuba Member are continuous across the entire
3 region (Fig. 12). Although autocyclic variations might have played a role in the production of
4 the stratigraphic pattern, they are not able to produce long lasting stages of exposure
5 (Burgess, 2001). The inferred oscillations of relative sea level on the investigated scale were
6 either induced by eustasy or tectonic processes. Although the eastern margin of the Arabian
7 Plate is considered a passive margin during much of the Mesozoic (Searle, 1988; Glennie,
8 2005), evidence for synsedimentary extension is present within the Shuba Member (Fig. 7D).
9 An overall extensional regime with multiple subsiding fault blocks provides an explanation for
10 the larger accommodation available in the north western part of the study area, as evidenced
11 by overall larger cycle thicknesses within the Wadi Al-Ghabbah section. This would have
12 furthermore resulted in a variable palaeotopography across the shelf.
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24 The tidal flat, the open-marine and the restricted marine EODs contain lenses of marl
25 and shale deposits that are mostly discontinuous over the entire study area (Fig. 12). This
26 has also been reported for the subsurface of the emirate of Abu Dhabi. The age-equivalent
27 reservoir formations that lie in the immediate proximity in the UAE are the Minjur and Marrat
28 Formations onshore, and the Gulailah, Hamlah and Izhara Formations offshore. The
29 published sedimentological data on these units is still relatively scarce. Marls and shales are
30 especially abundant within the Marrat Formation, where gamma ray peaks often cannot be
31 correlated over more than a few tens of kilometres (Taher et al., 2012). The shale beds are
32 especially prominent within the shallow, restricted EOD in the Lower Shuba Member (Fig. 12).
33 Clastic material is transported from the hinterland and the interfingering marl and shale
34 deposits are thus a function of clastic supply onto the carbonate-dominated ramp and the
35 availability of accommodation with calm hydrodynamic conditions, especially to deposit the
36 fine grained sediments. This clastic supply from the hinterland could be induced by increased
37 continental runoff at times. Consequently climatically induced changes could also have
38 played an important role in the distribution of clastic deposits on the carbonate ramp. The
39 coarser silt- and sandstones contain evidence for both current, possibly tidal, and occasional
40 storms crossing the shelf. It is postulated that these coarser grained and well-sorted
41 sandbodies would have been shifted across the shelf by different hydrodynamic processes
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1 and deposited wherever hydrodynamic and bathymetric conditions favoured deposition. The
2 coarser material can be found in the studied sections irrespective of the interpreted relative
3 sea level, as they are also present within the more open-marine Jurassic strata, unlike the
4 shales and marls. A climatically induced clastic input, i.e. a switch from humid to arid
5 conditions, would have resulted in the entire termination of clastic input. The finer clastic
6 components during the Late Triassic and Early Jurassic were most likely transported to more
7 distal parts of the shelf, where hydrodynamic quiescence prevailed. The Lower Jurassic
8 deep-sea record of the Eastern Oman Mountains contains turbidite successions and silt- and
9 sandstones, supporting the assumption of constant siliciclastic runoff (Blendinger, 1988;
10 Blechschmidt et al., 2004).

23 **6.6 Responses to global changes**

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26 Observing evidence for an ocean acidification event is however difficult, especially in deep
27 time (Greene et al., 2012). The global carbon cycle perturbations, in the form of stable carbon
28 isotope excursion around the Triassic-Jurassic boundary, have been recorded by the shallow
29 carbonate sections of the Musandam Peninsula (Fig. 11). The overall sedimentation is mostly
30 continuous across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary interval on the Musandam Peninsula. The
31 Wadi Naqab section is an exception, with a local subaerial exposure surface just below the
32 Triassic-Jurassic transition marked by a very condensed interval. Carbonate sedimentation
33 remains largely constant across the boundary and the studied sections provide no evidence
34 for a biocalcification crisis. A reduced carbonate content or increase in the amount of
35 siliciclastic material, as reported from coeval continuous carbonate successions around the
36 Triassic-Jurassic boundary in Eastern Europe (Pálffy et al., 2001; Rožič et al., 2009; Korte and
37 Kozur, 2011) and Western Europe (e.g. Felber et al., 2015) could also not be observed on a
38 regional scale.

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53 The major carbonate system changes observed within the studied section are most
54 likely caused by changes in relative sea level. The analysed sequences allow for a
55 construction of long and a short-term relative sea level curves (Fig. 14). The constrained
56 chronostratigraphic age allows for a comparison with other sea level curves to establish
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1 potential eustatic controls. The Triassic-Jurassic transition broadly falls into a period of
2 eustatic sea level rise (Fig. 2). This is also the case for the Musandam Peninsula. Eustatic
3 changes are thus a potential mechanism to produce the vertical stratigraphic architecture. It is
4 noteworthy that both main observations (no evidence for a biocalcification crisis and a relative
5 sea level highstand) associated here with the Triassic-Jurassic boundary at Wadi Naqab
6 would also be valid if the Triassic-Jurassic boundary lies at the transition between the Sumra
7 Member and the Sakhra Member, despite a marked carbonate factory change at this
8 transition (Fig. 6, 12).
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17 **7. Conclusions**

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20 A shallow-marine equatorial mixed, siliciclastic carbonate ramp was studied on a regional
21 scale on the eastern Arabian Platform. Strontium isotope analysis on well-preserved oysters
22 and brachiopods allows the placement of a Triassic-Jurassic boundary horizon, while
23 acknowledging previous biostratigraphic studies. The studied system changes on a regional
24 scale from an open-marine, diverse-fauna carbonate ramp, to an intertidal microbialite
25 dominated system with abundant siliciclastic material and regional exposure stages during
26 the Late Triassic. The Latest Triassic is marked by a revival of an open-marine, diverse-fauna
27 carbonate ramp, which succeeds into the Early Jurassic. All sediments were deposited within
28 the neritic part of the shallow-marine ramp. The sections thus serve as shallow-marine
29 carbonate archive, which is regionally continuous across the Triassic-Jurassic boundary. A
30 combination of stable carbon isotope stratigraphy and lithostratigraphy allows the regional
31 correlation between the different study sites. The acquired carbon isotope record is
32 furthermore correlatable to global coeval reference curves, which highlights the capability of
33 neritic carbonate successions in the Middle East to archive global environmental changes,
34 and merits further exploration.
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50 The findings of the study have led us to modify the regional palaeogeographic map of
51 the region in accordance with available subsurface data. This implies that especially the
52 distribution of shallow-marine, clastic facies types during the Late Triassic could extend
53 further north in the region than previously thought. The findings of this study thus might
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1 provide information on the regional distribution of potential reservoir and/or seal facies
2 distribution.

3
4 The observed vertical carbonate system changes on the Musandam Peninsula were
5 most likely caused by eustatic sea level changes. Lateral heterogeneities were governed by
6 hydrodynamic action, including occasional tropical storms, on the extensive shelf, as well as
7 the local palaeotopography. A comparison between the constructed regional sea level curve
8 and global eustatic sea level curves reveals that the studied system was controlled by
9 eustatic changes, accompanied by a locally extensional tectonic regime. The ramp
10 development across the Triassic-Jurassic transition was governed by a transgression, as
11 observed at other Tethyan localities. No clear evidence for a biocalcification crisis marking the
12 Triassic-Jurassic boundary, potentially induced by a global acidification event, is present
13 regionally within the studied succession.
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27
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35 well as associate editor Ian Somerville are thanked for their detailed and constructive reviews.
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16 17 18 19 20 21 22 **Figure captions**

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26 **Fig. 1 - A)** Location map of the study area. **B)** Palaeogeographic setting of the Tethyan realm
27 during the Early Jurassic (modified from Pierre, 2006; after Thierry and Barrier, 2000).

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32 **Fig. 2 -** Late Triassic – Early Jurassic chronostratigraphy and different biostratigraphic
33 frameworks from the Musandam Peninsula combined with chemostratigraphic data (strontium
34 and carbon isotopes) and different sea-level curves. The red font indicates taxa identified as
35 part of this study.

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42 **Fig. 3 - A)** Panoramic view of the studied formations in Wadi Naqab. **B)** Abundant vugs within
43 a brown dolo-mudstone bed. **C)** White calcite cement nodule with pink dolomite cement in the
44 centre (both from within the Shuba Member at Wadi Al-Ghabbah) **D)** Whitish microbial
45 laminite overlain by fenestral limestone (from the Shuba Member at Wadi Naqab). **E, F)**
46 Dasycladalean algae *Paleodasycladus* sp. (from the Upper Shuba Member at Wadi Naqab;
47 pen is 14.5 cm long).

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56 **Fig. 4 - A)** Tepee structure within a microbial laminite bed (from the Shuba Member at Wadi
57 Naqab). **B)** Channelized bioclastic wackestone (from the Shuba Member at Wadi Ghalilah;

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1 hammer is 28 cm long). **C)** Stained thin section image of an ooidal grainstone. **D)** Thin
2 section image of a bioclastic grainstone. **E)** Detailed panorama of the oolitic, cross-stratified
3 dune at the base of the Musandam Limestone, including a rose diagram of the palaeocurrent
4 measurements. **F)** Detailed view of the oolitic dune shown in E. Black lines indicate bedding
5 planes. Red lines indicate cross beds. **G)** Detailed view of at the contact between a bedding
6 plane and a cross bed with a mudstringer in between (all from Wadi Naqab).
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Fig. 5 - A) Branching coral in living position from the Shuba Member in Wadi Ghalilah. **B)**
14 Stained thin section image of calcite-cemented quartz sandstone. **C)** Large coral head, top
15 Sumra Member at Wadi Naqab. **D)** Branching corals from the top Sumra Member at Wadi
16 Naqab. **E)** Well-preserved coral fragments (from the top Sumra Member at Jabal Sall Ala (all
17 corals *Retiophyllia* (?), sensu Maurer et al., 2008). **F)** Cross-laminated sandstone from the top
18 of the Shuba Member at Wadi Al-Ghabbah. **G)** Lenticular bedding in a sandstone bed at the
19 top of the Shuba Member at Wadi Al-Ghabbah. **H)** Hummocky cross-stratification in a
20 sandstone bed at the top of the Shuba Member at Wadi Al-Ghabbah. **I)** Monomictic
21 conglomerate from the Shuba Member in Wadi Ghalilah (pen is 14.5 cm long).
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Fig. 6 - Detailed sedimentological sections from the four study sites, including stable carbon
34 isotope curves. The chronostratigraphic boundaries for the Wadi Naqab section are placed in
35 accordance with strontium isotope results obtained in this study and biostratigraphic markers
36 (positions of samples used for Sr isotope analysis are indicated on the Wadi Naqab log; ¹
37 from Maurer et al., 2008; ² from de Matos, 1997; ^{2*} from de Matos, 1997 - observed in Wadi
38 Milaha; m: marl; M: mudstone; W: wackestone; P: packstone; G: grainstone; F: floatstone; R:
39 rudstone; B: boundstone).
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Fig. 7 - A) Karstified and stained top of the Sakhra Member oolite, Wadi Naqab. **B)**
51 Desiccation cracks on a bedding surface from the Shuba Member in Wadi Ghalilah. **C)** Karst
52 infill within the Sakhra Member oolite at Wadi Ghalilah. **D)** Synsedimentary normal fault within
53 a fenestral mudstone bed of the Shuba Member in Wadi Ghalilah (hammer is 28 cm long).
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2 **Fig. 8** - Crossplot between all $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements from the three measured
3 sections.
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6 **Fig. 9 - A)** Thin section image of a brachiopod from sample WN 193. **B)**
7 Cathodoluminescence image of A. **C)** Thin section image of an oyster from sample WN 168
8 Oy. **D)** Cathodoluminescence image of C. **E)** Thin section image of an oyster from sample
9 WN TJ B. **F)** Cathodoluminescence image of E. The scale bar in all images is 500 μm long.
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16 **Fig. 10 - A)** Detailed sample positions selected for Sr isotope analysis from the Wadi Naqab
17 section (see Fig. 4.6 for the facies colour code and Dunham texture abbreviations). **B)**
18 Measured $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data (left side of the plot) used for numerical age determination via the
19 Late Triassic to Early Jurassic part of the LOWESS best-fit curve (McArthur et al., 2001).
20 Values from the LOWESS best-fit curve within the 95 % confidence level are shown.
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28 **Fig. 11** - Comparison of selected $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reference curves compared to the composite $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
29 curve from the Musandam Peninsula. Potential correlation patterns are marked with coloured
30 arrows and lines. A lithological control on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal of section measured on the
31 Musandam Peninsula cannot be fully excluded. The “initial” and “main” carbon isotope
32 excursions (Hesselbo et al., 2002) are indicated (A: Williford et al., 2007; B: Bachan et al.,
33 2012; C: Hesselbo et al., 2002).
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42 **Fig. 12** - South to North correlations between environments of deposition across the
43 Musandam Peninsula between the studied sections, based on chemo- and lithostratigraphic
44 correlations. Medium- and large-scale sequences are indicated (see Fig. 4.6 for the Dunham
45 texture abbreviations).
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52 **Fig. 13 - A)** Palaeogeographic map of the Arabian Peninsula for the Late Triassic - Early
53 Jurassic interval. **B)** Detailed and refined palaeogeographic map of the north-eastern Arabian
54 Peninsula, incorporating published well data from Abu Dhabi during the Late Triassic. **C)**
55 Detailed and refined palaeogeography during the Early Jurassic.
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2 **Fig. 14** - Chronostratigraphic framework from the Musandam Peninsula with a relative sea
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4 level curve, based on the interpreted accommodation space changes.
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8 **Table 1** - Description, dimensions and interpretation of the nine observed lithofacies
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10 associations (LF); (m: marl; M: mudstone; W: wackestone; P: packstone; G: grainstone; F:
11 floatstone; R: rudstone; B: boundstone).
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18 **Appendices** (separate Excel file)

19
20 - C and O isotope raw data

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22 - Sr raw data
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Figure 1

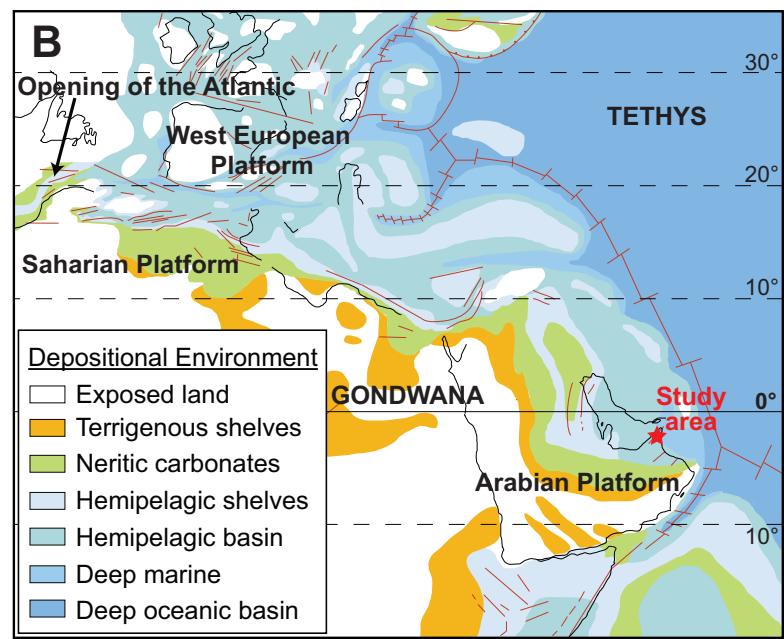
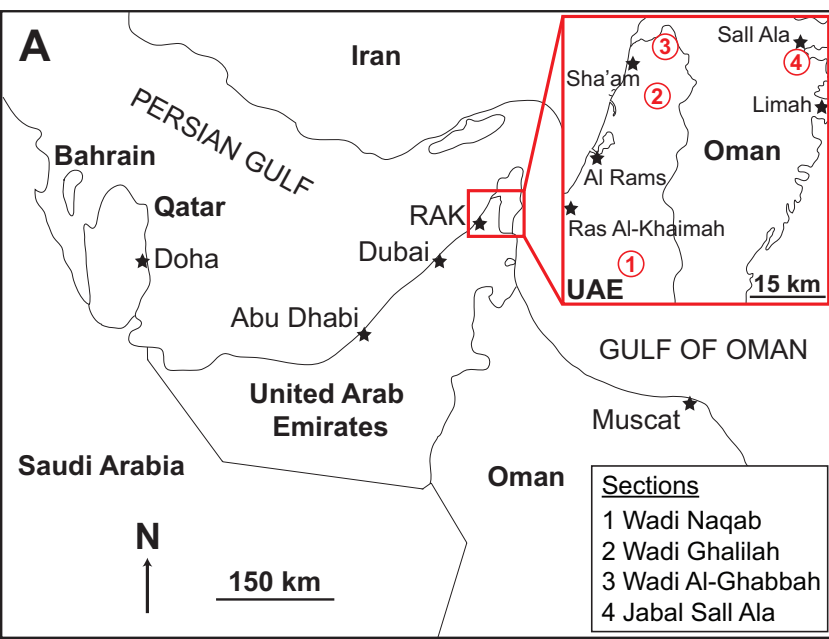


Figure 2

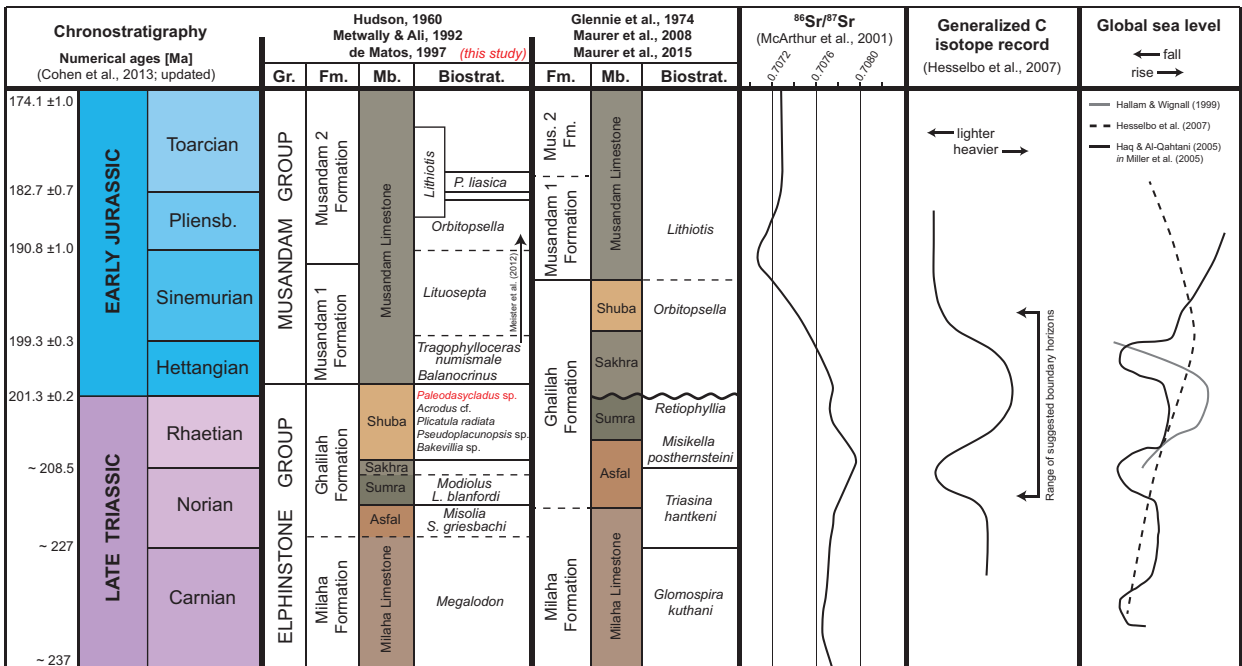


Figure 3
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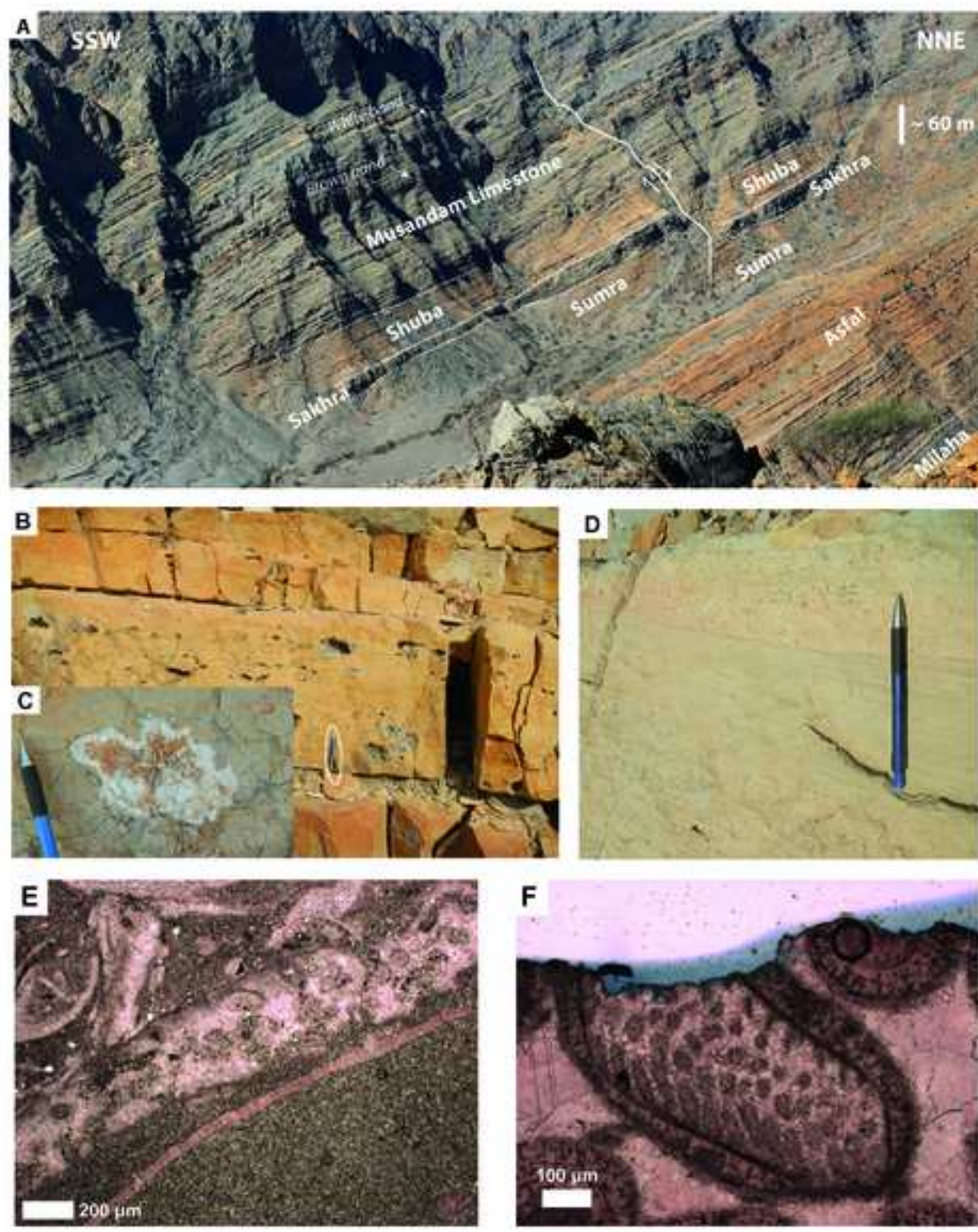


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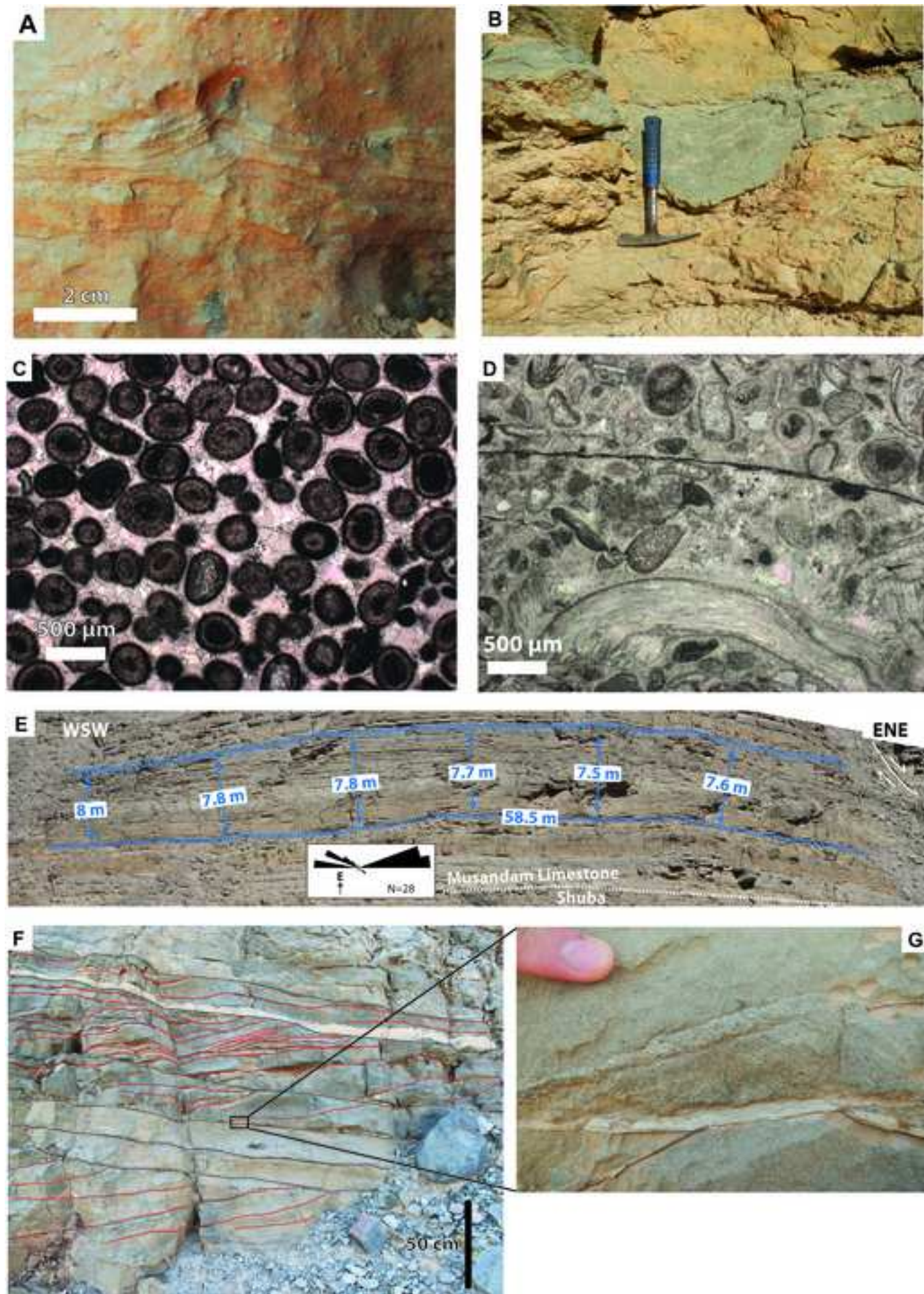


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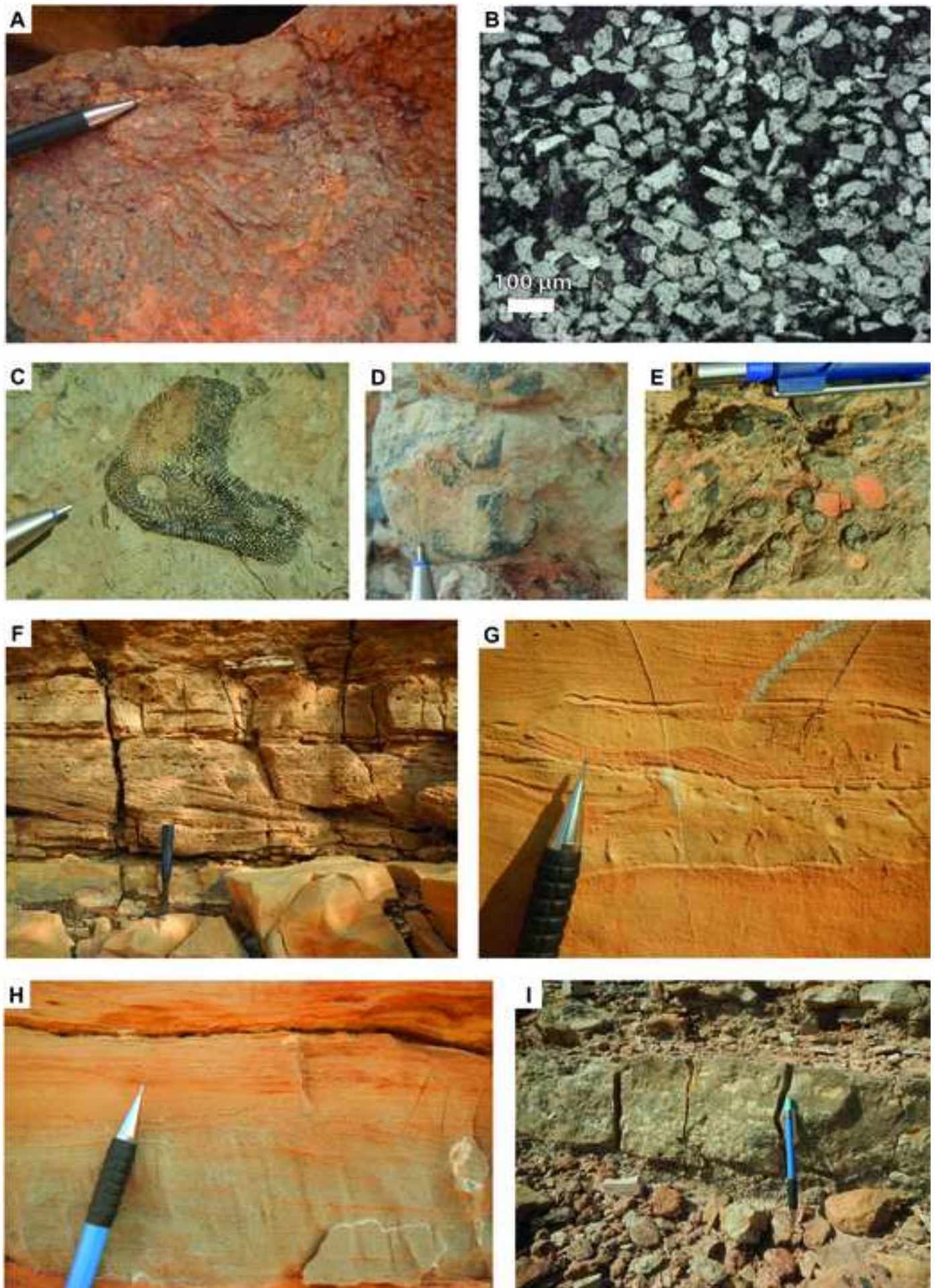


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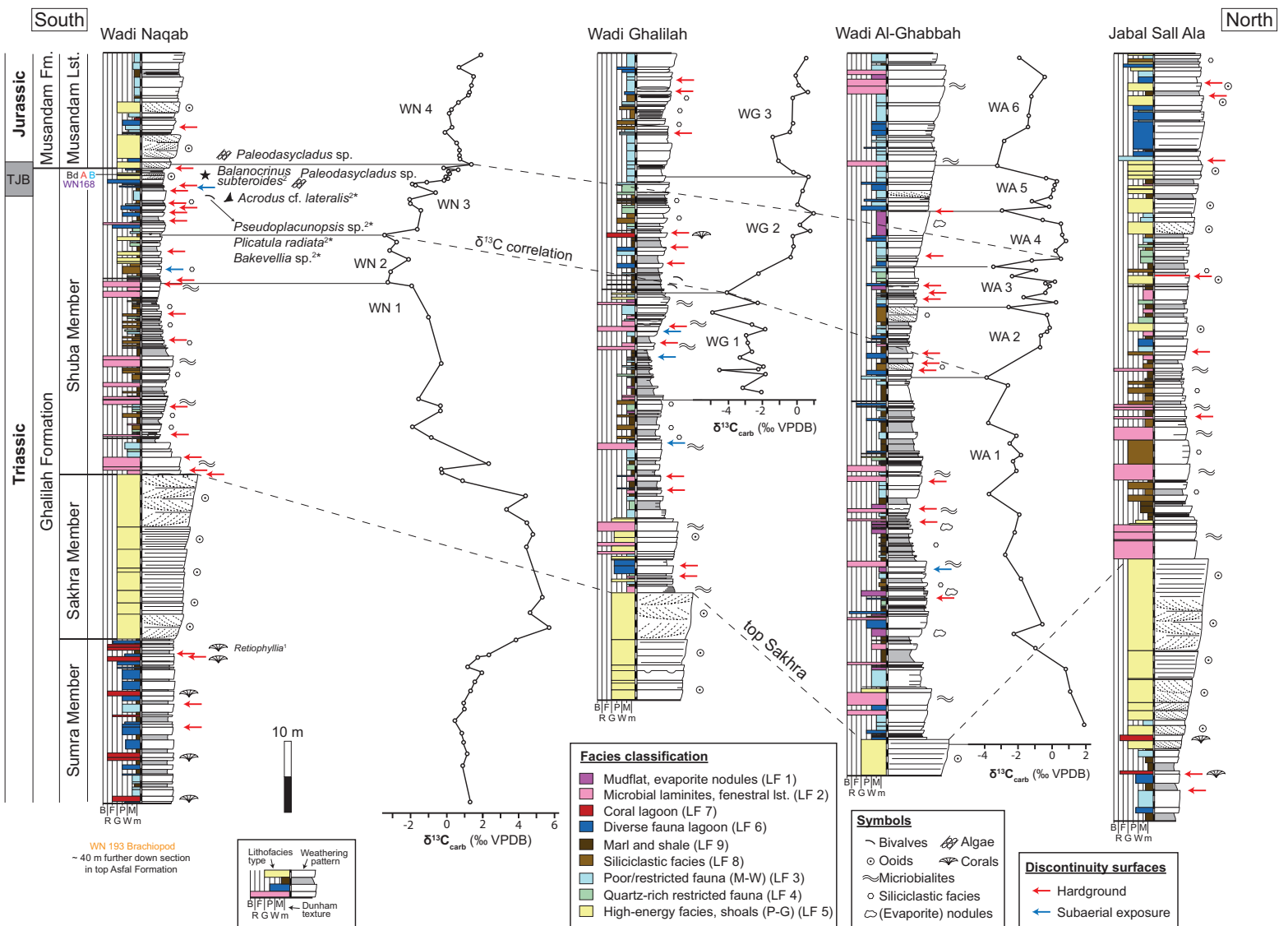


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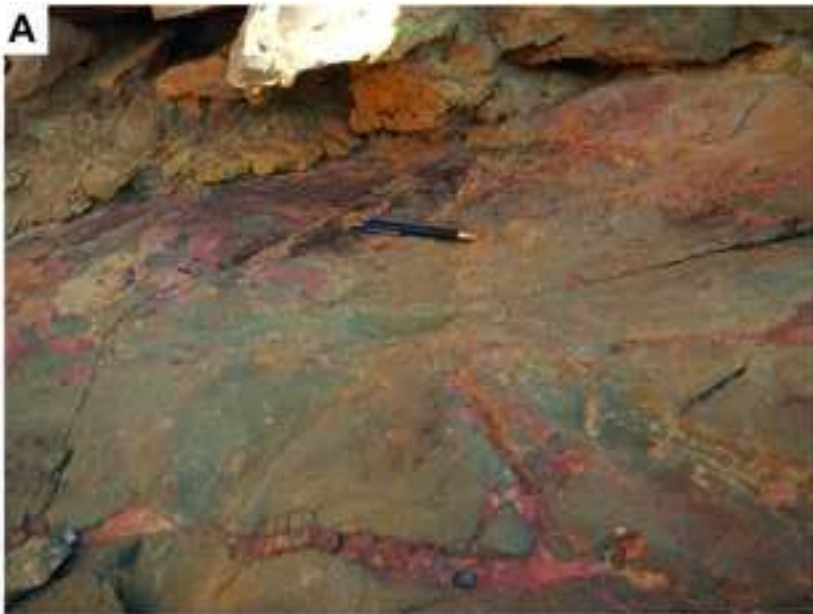


Figure 8

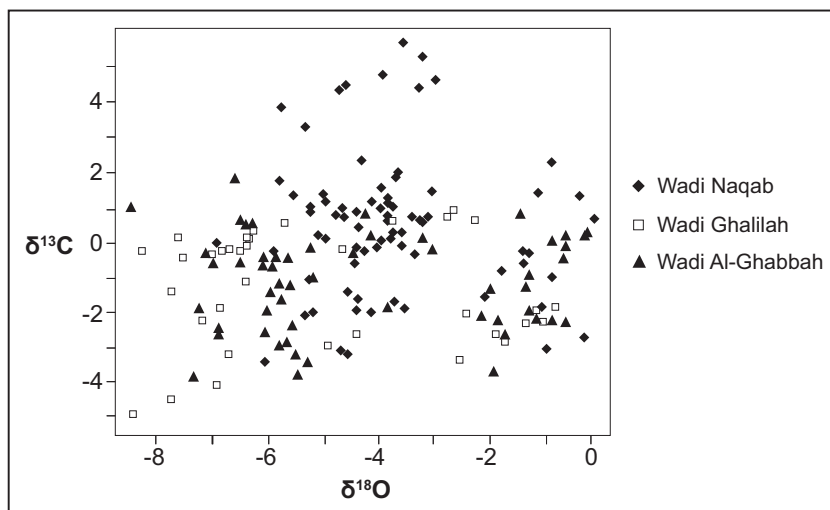


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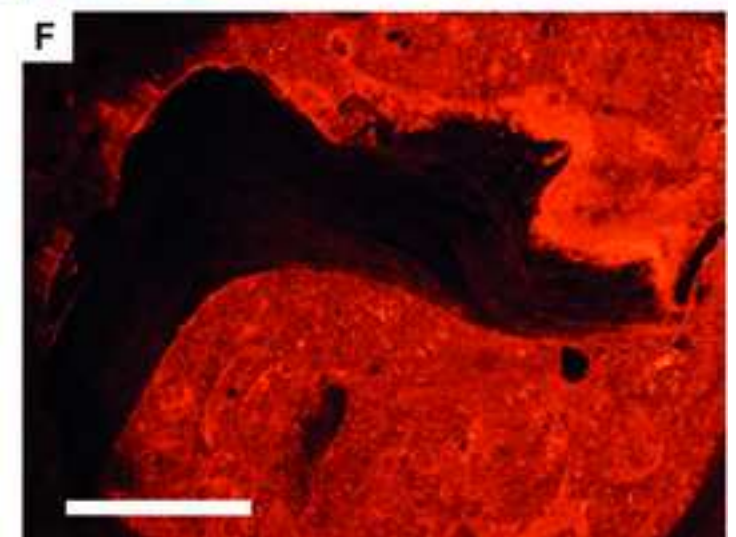
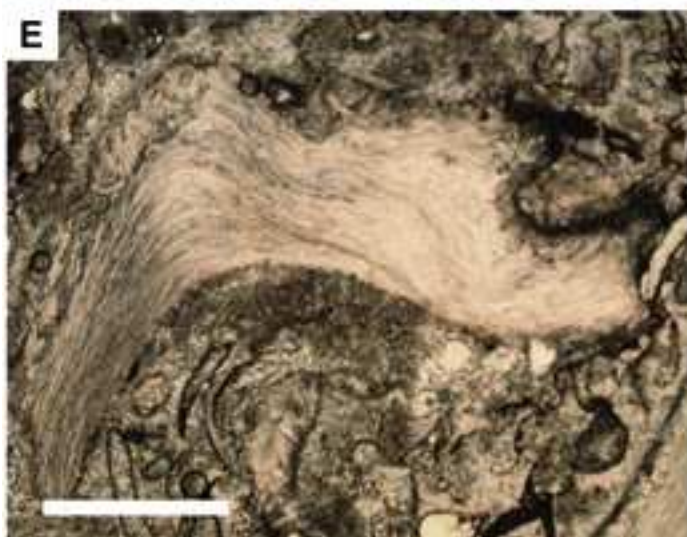
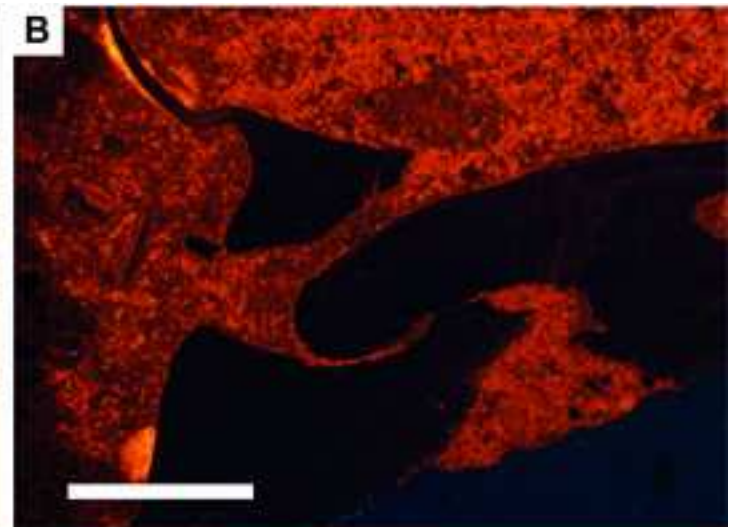
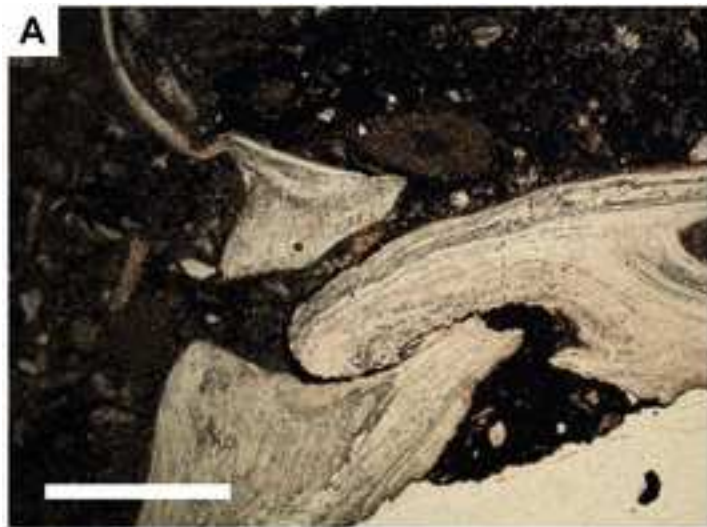
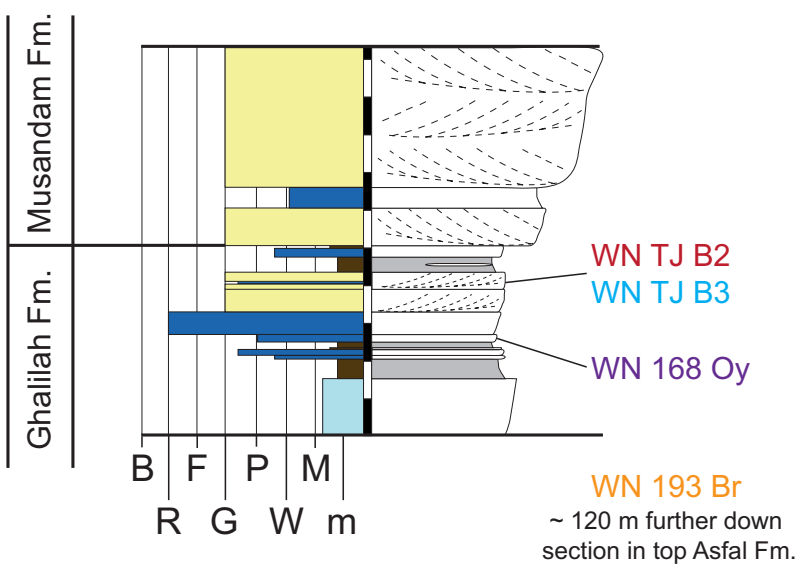


Figure 10

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B

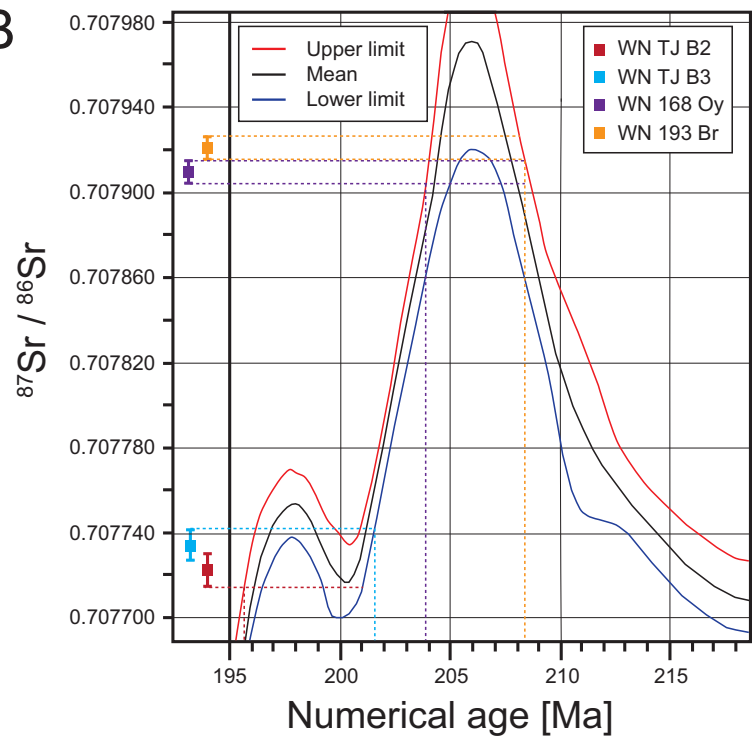
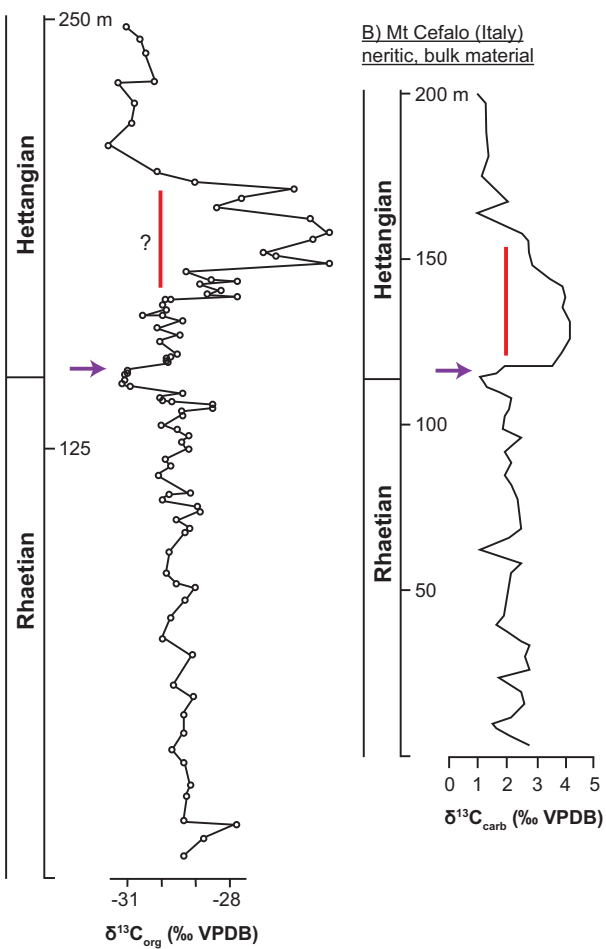
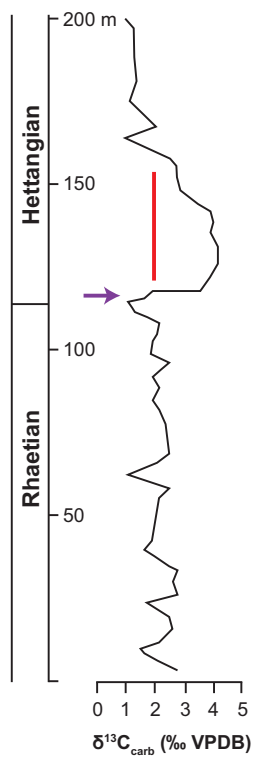


Figure 11

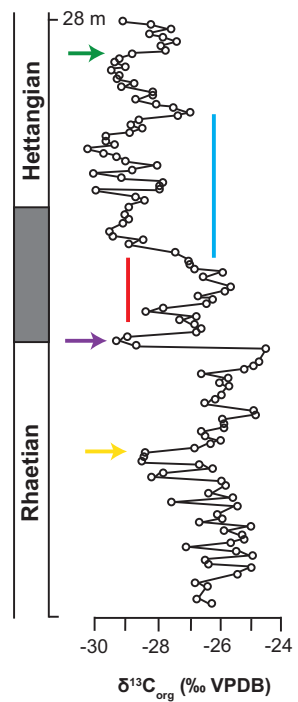
A) Graham Island (Canada)
pelagic, bulk material



B) Mt Cefalo (Italy)
neritic, bulk material



C) St. Audrie's Bay (UK)
neritic to hemipelagic, bulk material



— Main isotope excursion
— Initial isotope excursion

D) Musandam Peninsula
neritic, bulk material

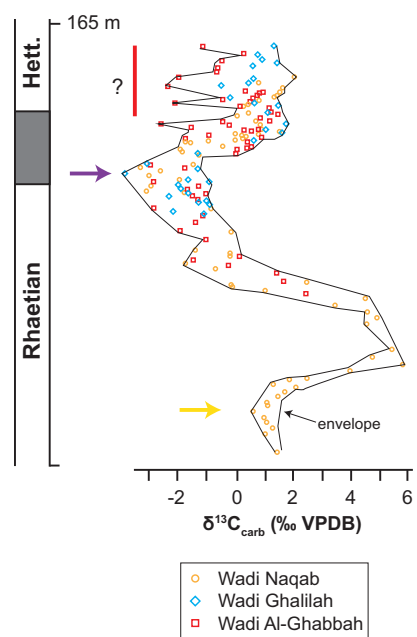


Figure 12

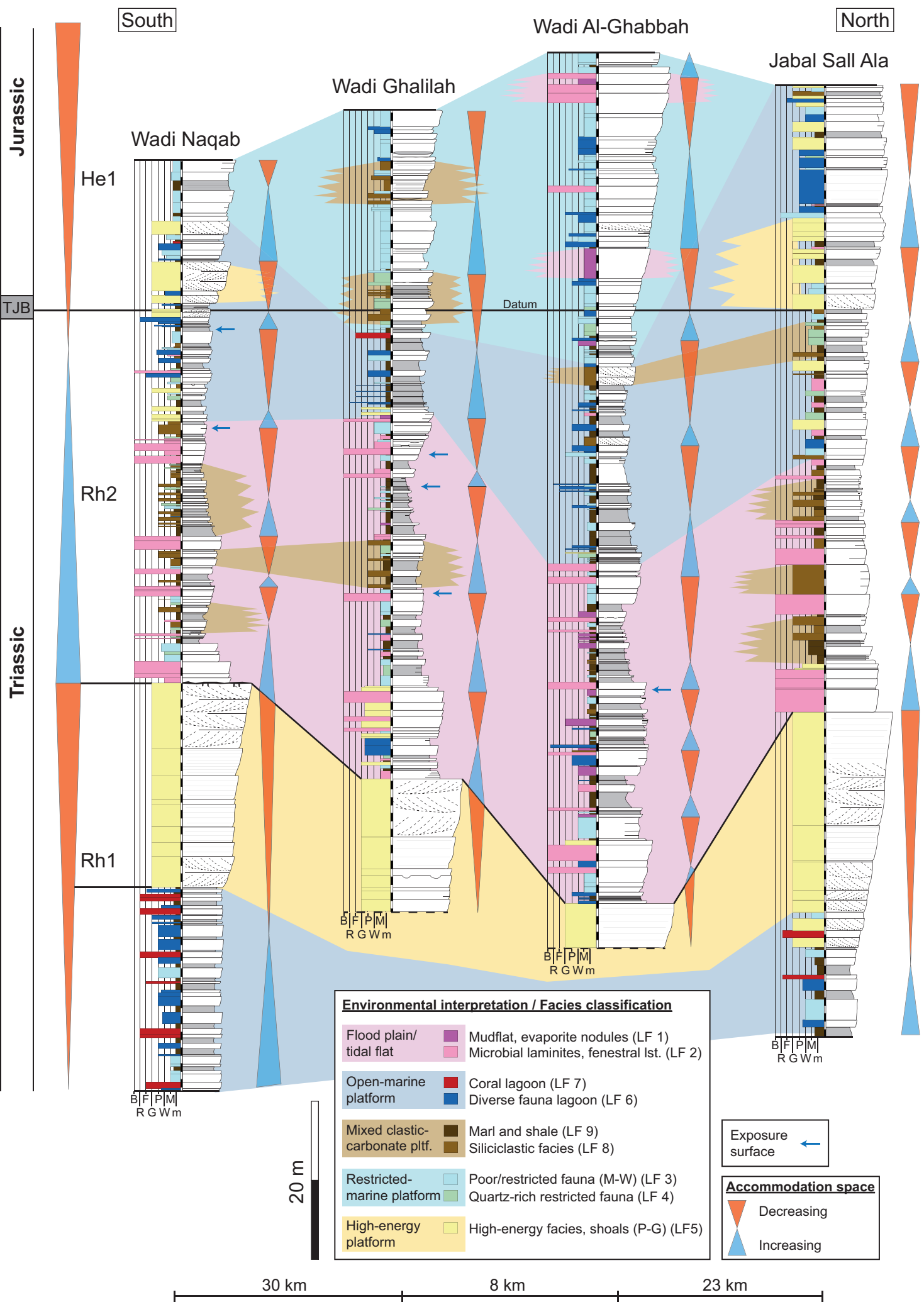
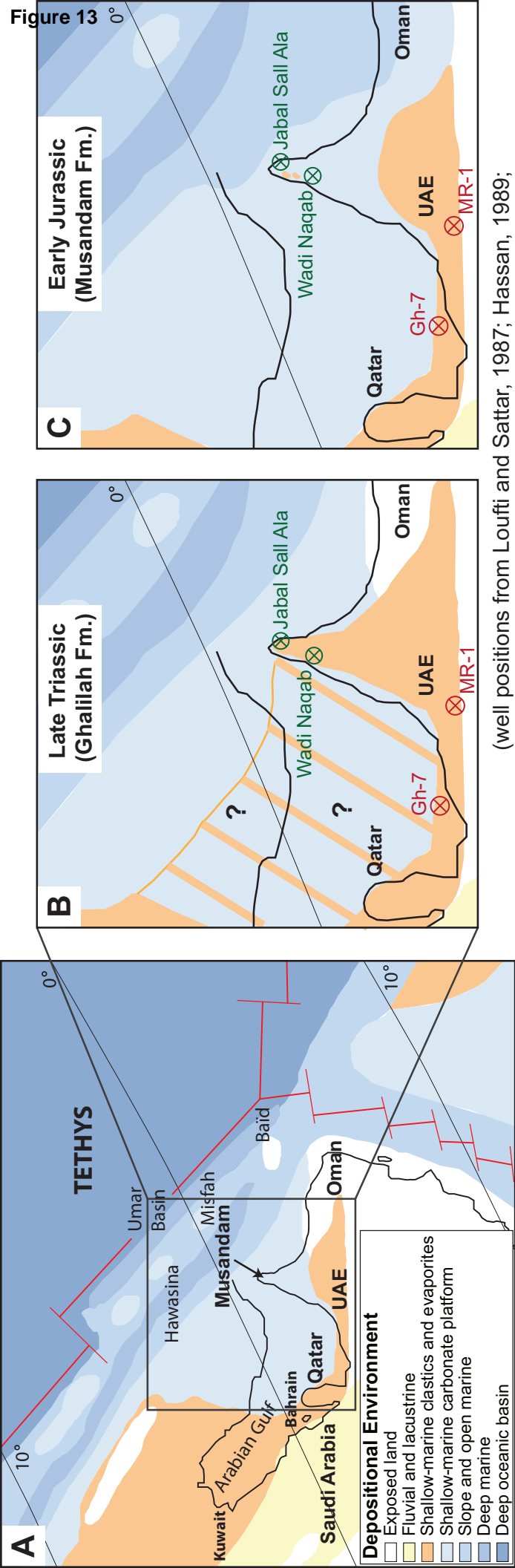


Figure 13



(modified after Al-Husseini, 1997; Ziegler, 2001; Rousseau et al., 2005)

(well positions from Loufti and Sattar, 1987; Hassan, 1989; in accordance with Bendias and Aigner, 2015)

Figure 14

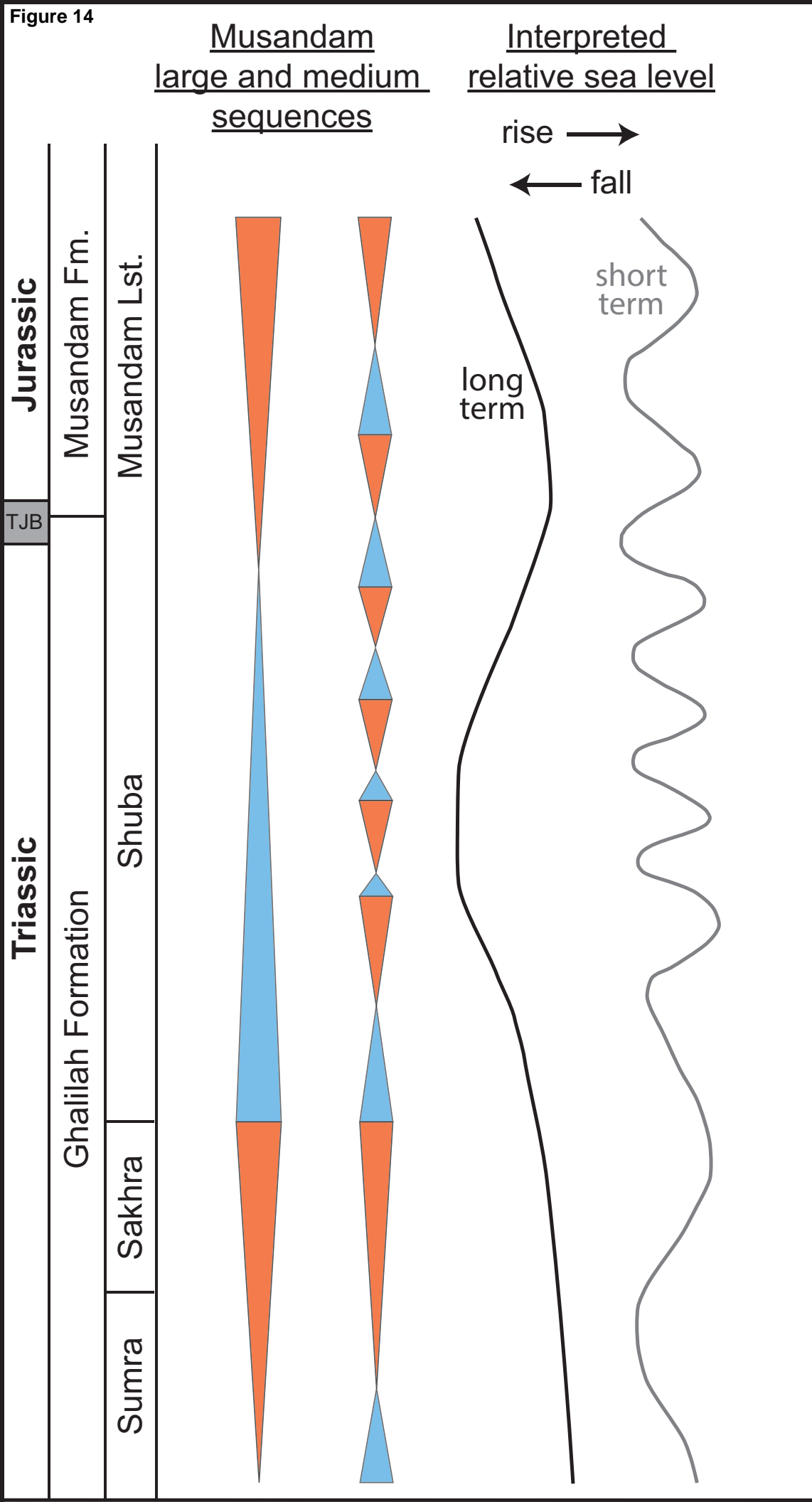


Table 1

LF	Facies	Dunham Texture	Main Components	Sedimentary Features	Depositional Environment	Dimensions
1	Mudflat facies	M M-W	Fenestrae, peloids, bioclasts fragments, calcite nodules, quartz, mudclasts	Nodules, lamination, mudclasts	Flood plain, maybe tidal flat	Thickness: 0.1 – 3.8 m Max. lateral extent: < 8 km
2	Microbial laminite	B M	Microbial mats, stromatolite, fenestrae, often dolomitised	Domal structures, tepees, mud-streaks, bioturbation (<i>Skolithos</i>)	Flood plain, maybe tidal flat or intertidal zone	Thickness: 0.15 – 2 m Max. lateral extent: 46 km
3	Restricted fauna	M W W-P	Bivalves, gastropods, peloids, echinoderms, lithoclasts, ooids	Irregular, nodular bedding, bioturbation	Restricted platform	Thickness: 0.05 – 2.7 m Max. lateral extent: 30 km
4	Quartz-rich restricted fauna	W W-P	Bivalves, quartz, gastropods, ostracods, echinoderms, peloids partly dolomitised	Irregular, nodular, channelised	Restricted platform	Thickness: 0.1 – 1.2 m Max. lateral extent: 23 km
5	High-energy facies	G	Ooids, peloids, bivalves, oysters, lithoclasts, aggregate grains, echinoderms, dasycladacean algae	Cross-lamination and – stratification, mud-drapes	High-energy platform; open marine platform; intertidal zone	Thickness: 0.15 – 26 m Max. lateral extent: 46 km
6	Diverse fauna	P R	Bivalve fragments, gastropods, foraminifera, ostracods, echinoderms, oysters, peloids, coral fragments	Bioturbation (e.g. <i>Rhizocorallium</i> , <i>Chondrites</i>)	Open marine platform	Thickness: 0.05 – 3.7 m Max. lateral extent: 46 km
7	Coral facies	R B	Large massive corals, grainy ooidal matrix, gastropods	Bioturbation, vugs	Subtidal zone; open platform	Thickness: 0.2 – 0.9 m Max. lateral extent: 46 km

8	Siliciclastic facies	-	Quartz, calcite-cemented, occasional dolomite cement, conglomerate (monomictic and polymictic)	Cross-lamination and – stratification, nodular bedding, flaser-bedding, red Fe/Mn nodules, lenticular bedding, wave ripples, hummocky cross-stratification	Intertidal zone; open platform	Thickness: 0.1 – 3.8 m Max. lateral extent: 30 km
9	Shale and marl	m	Marls brown-grey, red, green, laminated shales, nodules	Lamination, nodules, bioturbation, (e.g. <i>Thalassinoides</i>)	Deep, open platform	Thickness: 0.1 – 3.8 m Max. lateral extent: 30 km

Supplement Isotope data

[Click here to download Raw research data \(under CC BY license; see above\): Supplement Raw isotope data.xlsx](#)