

U-Pb dating on calcite paleosol nodules: first absolute age constraints on the Miocene continental succession of the Paris Basin

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Abstract

Continental sedimentary successions are typically less complete and more poorly preserved than the marine record, leading to limited correlations between basins. Traditionally, intra-basin correlation employs radiometric dating of volcanic markers or relative dating based on the fossil record. However, volcanic markers may not always be present, and biostratigraphy relies on index fossils that are often sparse to absent in continental succession. Recent progress in carbonate U-Pb dating can improve correlations between continental successions by providing absolute age constraints on carbonate deposition and/or on syn- to post-depositional processes such as pedogenesis.

In this study, we analysed pedogenic calcite nodules within a continental Miocene succession in the southwestern Paris Basin (the important paleontological site at Mauvières quarry, France). Following multimethod petrographic characterisation of the samples, LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating was employed to obtain formation ages on the pedogenic calcite nodules. The Tera-Wasserburg intercept ages from five nodules from the same horizon ($19.3 \pm 1.3/1.4$ Ma, $18.8 \pm 2.7/2.7$ Ma, $19.11 \pm 0.84/0.94$ Ma, $19.0 \pm 2.3/2.3$ Ma and $19.4 \pm 2.7/2.7$ Ma) are in excellent agreement with previous biostratigraphic constraints on the sequence. Petrographic evidence points to a single crystallisation event, and we conclude that the formation of the calcite nodules occurred at $19.22 \pm 0.66/0.79$ Ma (central age from a radial plot of the five Tera-Wasserburg intercept ages). This calcite formation age is regarded to represent a minimum depositional age of the strata hosting the root nodules. It provides the first absolute age for the continental Miocene succession (and Neogene mammal zone MN3) of the Paris Basin and allows correlation with other continental basins independent of their fossil assemblages or where fossil content is absent.

29 **1 Introduction**

30 Biostratigraphy assigns relative ages to rock strata by using the fossil assemblages contained within them, with the goal of
31 showing that a particular horizon in a given section represents a similar period of time as an analogue horizon in a different
32 succession. It relies heavily on the presence of index fossils - fossils with a limited time range, wide geographic distribution,
33 and rapid evolutionary trends. The common absence of biostratigraphically-diagnostic index fossils in continental successions
34 is problematic, and absolute dating approaches often need to be applied to continental successions. Such approaches include
35 geochronology of volcanic horizons such as lava flows, ash beds, or cryptotephra (e.g., Rubidge et al., 2013; Smith et al.,
36 2017; Poujol et al., 2023), astronomic calibration (e.g., Kerr 1992, Montano et al., 2021), and magnetostratigraphic correlation
37 (e.g., Kalin and Kempf 2009). While volcanic horizons can provide accurate and precise absolute ages, they are not ubiquitous
38 in the sedimentary record. Carbonates are very common in terrestrial successions (except in humid climates) where they can
39 be classified as pedogenic or non-pedogenic, depending on whether they have formed by soil-forming processes (Zamanian et
40 al., 2016). Pedogenic carbonates comprise calcretes and dolocretes - paleosols that have been indurated by a pervasive calcitic
41 cement; pisoliths - globular nodules made of concentric calcitic spheres; and more generic calcitic nodules - indurated
42 concretions with a globular or cylindrical shape, often associated with calcitic cementation around plant roots (rhizocretions;
43 Zamanian et al., 2016).

44 The formation of carbonates nodules can be classified according to the morphology of the nodule and the postulated fluid
45 pathway that led to the formation of the nodule (Zamanian et al., 2016). *Perdescendum* models and *Perascendum* models
46 involve dissolution of carbonate with reprecipitation in a different horizon (a deeper horizon for *Perdescendum* and shallower
47 for *Perascendum*) while *in situ* models do not imply significant carbonate migration through the soil profile (Zamanian et al.,
48 2016). Biological models invoke absorption of Ca-enriched fluid by an organism, leading to calcification of Ca-bearing organs
49 or supersaturation that induces carbonate precipitation (Zamanian et al., 2016). These biological models include rhizolith
50 formation, whereby plant roots pump the water from Ca-enriched fluids leaving behind residual Ca^{2+} ions that react with the
51 CO_2 emitted by rhizomicrobial respiration, resulting in the earliest carbonate cements around the root (Zamanian et al., 2016).
52 After the root dies, the void created is filled (partially to completely) by calcite resulting from the activity of bacteria, algae,
53 or by dissolution of the early carbonate cement and reprecipitation into cavities (Aguirre Palafox et al., 2024). When
54 compaction starts, intergranular space and compaction cracks can create new cavities for carbonate precipitation. With burial,
55 the nodule can travel from the oxidising conditions of the vadose zone towards the more reducing environment of the phreatic
56 zone (Aguirre Palafox et al., 2024). This results in chemical changes (e.g. in Fe, Mn, and Pb) observable in
57 cathodoluminescence (CL) images but which also affect U-Pb geochronology (Aguirre Palafox et al., 2024).

58 U-Pb dating of calcium carbonate started in the late 1980s using isotope dilution (ID) – thermal ionisation mass spectrometry
59 (TIMS) methods (Smith and Farquhar, 1989; Roberts et al., 2020 and references therein). Most terrestrial U-Pb carbonate
60 dating studies have focused on non-pedogenic carbonates (e.g. speleothems, tufas, and lacustrine carbonates; see review in
61 Rasbury and Cole, 2009 and a more recent review by Rasbury et al., 2023). The first U-Pb dating studies applied to terrestrial

62 pedogenic carbonates took place in the mid-1990s on Paleozoic uranium-rich dolocretes, developed subaerially on top of
63 marine limestones (Hoff et al., 1995; Winter and Johnson, 1995). Over the following years, a series of ID-TIMS U-Pb dating
64 studies yielded meaningful subaerial exposure ages from 1) Late Paleozoic paleosol-derived sparry calcite developed on top
65 of marine carbonate cyclothems in the southwestern USA (Rasbury et al., 1997, 1998, 2000; Rasbury and Cole, 2009); 2) Late
66 Paleozoic dolocretes from Kansas, USA (Luczaj and Goldstein, 2000); 3) Late Paleozoic subaerially soil-modified palustrine
67 limestones in Ohio, USA (Becker et al., 2001); and 4) Triassic calcretes developed on top of fluvial siliciclastics deposits in
68 Connecticut, USA (Wang et al., 1998) (Table 1).

69 Since the mid-2010s, advances in laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) have allowed
70 U-Pb dating of calcite with the benefits of much greater spatial resolution, mineralogical context (being in-situ), and sample
71 throughput (e.g., Li et al., 2014; Roberts and Walker, 2016; Nuriel et al., 2017). While individual LA-ICP-MS spot ablation
72 U-Pb data are typically significantly less precise than ID-TIMS U-Pb analyses, the high spatial resolution of the approach
73 means it can commonly encounter both high and low U/Pb portions of the sample, resulting in age regressions with superior
74 precision compared to ID-TIMS U-Pb dating studies which employ bulk sampling (e.g., Li et al., 2014; Roberts et al., 2020).
75 The technique has been employed to date pedogenesis including 1) Eocene pedogenic calcite nodules from Montana, USA
76 (Methner et al., 2016), 2) an Upper Triassic continental succession with calcite nodules and interbedded volcanic markers from
77 Argentina (Aguirre Palafox et al., 2024), 3) Ediacaran dolomite from subaerially weathered volcanics in Ukraine (Liivamägi
78 et al., 2021) (Table 1), and 4) U-Pb geochronology on *Microcodium* calcite from the Spanish Southern Pyrenees that provided
79 more constraints on fluvial mobility during the Paleocene–Eocene Thermal Maximum event (Priour et al., 2024).

80 LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating requires chemically homogenous and large enough zones (typically, between 50 and 200 μm wide
81 circles or squares) to obtain sufficient U and radiogenic Pb signals to produce meaningful age results (Roberts and Holdsworth,
82 2022). Additionally, high U and low common Pb concentrations are required to produce precise U-Pb dates, but carbonates
83 typically incorporate low U abundances (unless the precipitation takes place in reducing environments, e.g Fournier et al.,
84 2004; Drake et al., 2018; Aguirre Palafox et al., 2024) and significant common Pb (Roberts et al., 2020). Carbonates in general
85 and pedogenic carbonates in particular, are also often heterogenous at the hundreds of micrometre scale or below (Zamanian
86 et al., 2016; Roberts and Holdsworth, 2022; Aguirre Palafox et al., 2024), partially explaining the paucity of reliable dating
87 results from pedogenic carbonates. More widespread absolute dating of pedogenic carbonates may provide valuable
88 chronostratigraphic constraints in continental successions, particularly those where volcanic horizons or index fossils are
89 absent. Aguirre Palafox et al. (2024) recently provided guidelines and strategies to improve the sampling and interpretation of
90 pedogenic carbonates, and addressed the influence of redox conditions on U concentrations and potential internal zonation.

Table 1: Summary of published U-Pb ages of terrestrial pedogenic carbonates (modified and updated after Rasbury and Cole, 2009).

Age	$\pm 2\sigma$	MSWD	Max. U	Technique	Material dated			Soil protolith	Reference
					Country	Rock	Mineral		
39.5	1.4	0.89	3.25	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	USA	Pedogenic nodule	Cal	clastics & volcanics - continental	Methner <i>et al.</i> , 2016
40.1	0.8	1.15	3.44	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	USA	Pedogenic nodule	Cal	clastics & volcanics - continental	Methner <i>et al.</i> , 2016
52.9	15	4.1	?	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	Spain	Microcodium	Cal	sandstones - fluvialite	Prieur <i>et al.</i> , 2024
72	11	0.011	?	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	Spain	Microcodium	Cal	sandstones - fluvialite	Prieur <i>et al.</i> , 2024
80.9	11	30	0.6	ID-TIMS	USA	Rhizolith	Cal, blocky	clastics - fluvialite	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 1998
211.9	2.1	2.67	2.7	ID-TIMS	USA	Calcrete	Cal, micritic	clastics - fluvialite	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 1998
212.4	3.4	3.4	2.5	ID-TIMS	USA	Calcrete	Cal, micritic	clastics - fluvialite	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 1998
228.4	5	1.7	7	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	Argentina	Pedogenic nodule	Cal	clastics & volcanics - fluvialite	Aguirre Palafox <i>et al.</i> , 2024
230.5	2.2	1.1	40	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	Argentina	Pedogenic nodule	Cal	clastics & volcanics - fluvialite	Aguirre Palafox <i>et al.</i> , 2024
233.6	3.9	0.89	120	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	Argentina	Pedogenic nodule	Cal	clastics & volcanics - fluvialite	Aguirre Palafox <i>et al.</i> , 2024
254	29	504	29	ID-TIMS	USA	Dolocrete	Dol	carbonates - marine	Luczaj and Goldstein, 2000
275	6	?	?	ID-TIMS	USA	Paleosol	Cal	carbonates - lacustrine?	Becker <i>et al.</i> , 2001
282	28	417	32.5	ID-TIMS	USA	Dolocrete	Dol	carbonates - marine	Hoff <i>et al.</i> , 1995
294	6	?	?	ID-TIMS	USA	Paleosol	Cal	carbonates - lacustrine?	Becker <i>et al.</i> , 2001
294.9	8.6	2.2	~27	LA-Q-ICP-MS (map)	USA	Calcrete	Cal, sparry	carbonates - marine	Rasbury <i>et al.</i> , 2023
298.1	1.4	0.9	8.6	ID-TIMS	USA	Calcrete	Cal, sparry	carbonates - marine	Rasbury <i>et al.</i> , 1997, 1998, 2000, 2009
306	2.6	0.6	-	ID-TIMS	USA	Calcrete	Cal, sparry	carbonates - marine	Rasbury <i>et al.</i> , 1998
512	10	314	1.24	ID-TIMS	USA	Dolocrete	Dol	carbonates - marine	Winter and Johnson, 1995
548	19	1.3	0.57	LA-SF-ICP-MS (spots)	Ukraine	Weathered volcanics	Dol, blocky	volcanics - basalts, tuffs	Liivamägi <i>et al.</i> , 2018

Abbreviations: Cal = Calcite, Dol = Dolomite, ID-TIMS = Isotope Dilution Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometer, LA-(SF-/Q-)/ICP-MS = Laser Ablation (Sector Field/Quadrupole) Inductively Coupled Mass Spectrometry

93 A recent and innovative LA-ICP-MS U-Pb carbonate dating protocol, based on the selection and pooling of pixels from 2D
94 elemental and isotopic ratio maps (Drost *et al.*, 2018; Roberts *et al.*, 2020; Chew *et al.*, 2021) is now commonly employed as
95 a U-Pb dating strategy (e.g. Monchal *et al.*, 2023; Rasbury *et al.*, 2023; Subarkah *et al.*, 2024). This in-situ technique allows
96 for the selection of chemically homogenous zones within a chemically heterogeneous ablated 2D map area, reducing the risk
97 of incorporating U-Pb data from non-carbonate inclusions or different generations of carbonates (Drost *et al.*, 2018). In
98 addition, this method optimises the spread of data points in Tera-Wasserburg (TW) space increasing the precision of the results
99 (Drost *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, this mapping-based technique is well suited to U-Pb dating and elemental characterisation of
100 paleosol calcite, and can help alleviate some of the issues caused by microheterogeneity in pedogenic carbonates. A late
101 Paleozoic paleosol calcite, already dated by ID-TIMS (298.1 \pm 1.4 Ma; Rasbury *et al.*, 1998) has been successfully dated using
102 this approach (294.9 \pm 8.6 Ma; Rasbury *et al.*, 2023).

103 Continental sedimentary successions are often barren or poor in index fossils, which makes dating and intra-basin correlation
104 difficult. Mammal remains have been used to create terrestrial biostratigraphic scales, such as the Neogene mammal (MN)
105 scale in Western Europe (Mein, 1975; Agustí *et al.*, 2001). The European MN scale is similar to the North American Land
106 Mammal Ages (NALMAs) and South American Land Mammal Ages (SALMAs) scales (see the review of Hilgen *et al.*, 2012).
107 However, mammal fossils are not ubiquitous in the sedimentary record, thus the MN and other mammal scales cannot always
108 be employed. When compared to marine biostratigraphic records (which have index fossils such as planktonic foraminifera,
109 ammonites, graptolites, etc.), they also exhibit diachronicity and a poorer temporal resolution. The poor temporal resolution,
110 particularly in the early stages of the MN scale (see Discussion) is well illustrated by the MN3 biozone, which has a duration
111 of between 2.8 and 5.4 Myr, depending on the absolute age chosen for the top and bottom boundaries (Mein, 1999; Steininger,
112 1999; Aguilar *et al.* 2003; Raffi *et al.*, 2020). For comparison, the Paleogene calcareous nannofossil scale biozones all have a
113 duration lower than 2 Myr, with most lower than 1 Myr (Agnini *et al.*, 2014). The LA-ICP-MS calcite U-Pb geochronology

114 approach adopted in this study has the potential to constrain the age of continental sedimentary horizons where pedogenic
115 nodules are present. This approach may improve inter-basin correlations, temporal resolution of the MN scale, as well as
116 potentially highlighting regional diachronism if more extensive sampling campaigns were conducted. In this study, we apply
117 the LA-ICP-MS U-Pb mapping technique along with spot analysis to obtain absolute ages from pedogenic calcite nodules
118 from a terrestrial Miocene succession in the Paris Basin, France, whose age is hitherto poorly constrained in terms of absolute
119 dating.

120 **2 Geological setting**

121 **2.1 Regional geology**

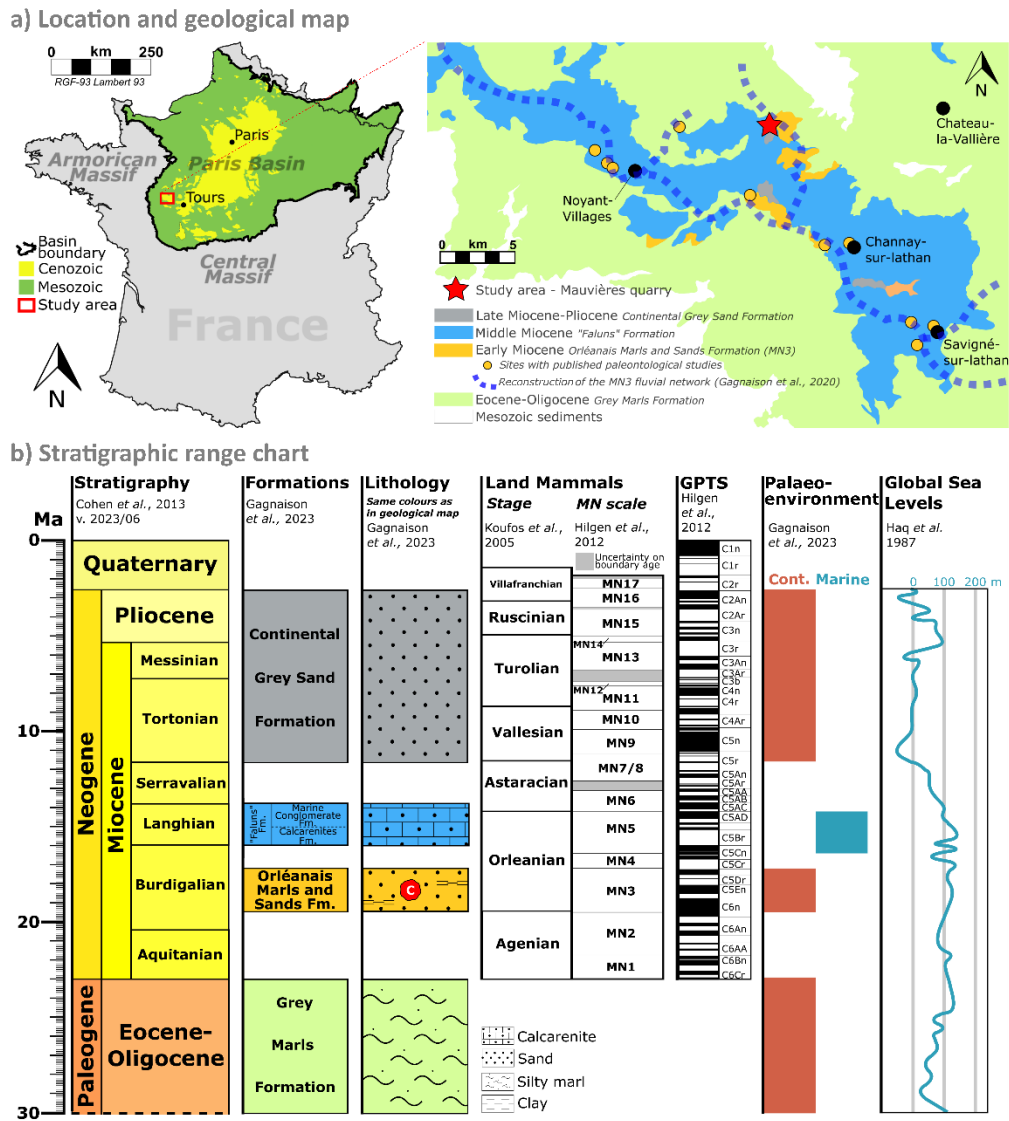
122 The Mauvières paleontological site is located in the SW of the Paris Basin (France), a Mesozoic-Cenozoic intracontinental sag
123 basin (Guillocheau et al., 2000). The site is on the northeast margin of the Neogene outcrops, which comprise continental and
124 marine sedimentary rocks unconformably deposited on Paleogene continental sedimentary rocks (Figure 1a). Regionally, the
125 Cenozoic sedimentary sequence reflects a dominantly continental paleoenvironment with occasional marine transgressions
126 during the Miocene (Figure 1b, Gagnaison, 2020).

127 **2.2 Paleoenvironment and origin of the calcite nodules**

128 The pedogenic nodules were sampled from the Early Miocene (early to middle Burdigalian) Orléanais Marls and Sands
129 Formation (Figure 1b), a few meters-thick succession of coarse and fine-grained clastic sediments (Figure 2). This Formation
130 rests unconformably over a Paleogene lacustrine silty marl (the Eocene-Oligocene Grey Marls Formation) and is overlain by
131 Middle Miocene marine shelly carbonate sands, known locally as “*faluns*” (Gagnaison et al., 2023) (Figure 1b and Figure 2).
132 The Early Miocene continental sequence at Mauvières consists of a series of eight clastic beds (numbered s1 to s8; Gagnaison
133 et al., 2023; Figure 2a). The pedogenic nodules were found in the basal bed s1, which overlies Eocene-Oligocene silty marls
134 (Figure 2). The s1 bed is comprised of a very coarse light grey-orangey quartzitic sand with minor feldspar, in-situ terrestrial
135 vertebrate fossils, poorly preserved *Unio* shells (a freshwater mussel), and in-situ calcite nodules and cylinders. The sand also
136 contains reworked material, including Cretaceous calcareous and siliceous pebbles, altered glauconite grains, and Cretaceous
137 and Oligocene / Early Miocene vertebrate fossils. The sand is loosely cemented with a clayey and calcareous matrix
138 (Gagnaison et al., 2023). Some rare *Unio* shells have been found with both valves still connected, indicating both a low-energy
139 environment and that they are in-situ (i.e. not reworked from older beds).

140 The occurrence of 1) hollow calcite cylinders and nodules interpreted as rhizcretions, 2) root tracks in the matrix, 3) iron
141 oxides that give the sand its orange colour, and 4) microvacuoles interpreted as products of subaerial microbial activity, suggest
142 the presence of a paleosol (Gagnaison et al., 2023). The nodule-bearing s1 bed is interpreted as a water-transported, low-energy
143 fluvial sequence with prograding sand bars, with phases of lacustrine floodings and development of paleosols. The sequence
144 was subsequently subaerially exposed and followed by the development of a vegetated soil (Gagnaison et al., 2023). The

145 pedogenic nodules are consequently interpreted as in-situ and not reworked from older horizons. Rasbury et al. (1997) have
 146 shown that the calcite spar typically forms rapidly following paleosol development, and therefore absolute dating of the
 147 nodules should provide robust age constraints on the minimum age of the s1 bed. Based on detailed petrography including CL
 148 imaging, Aguirre Palafox et al. (2024) provided more information on the environmental factors that influence the timing of
 149 nodule formation (e.g. redox conditions, burial, water table levels) that can in turn help refine the interpretation of
 150 geochronological results.



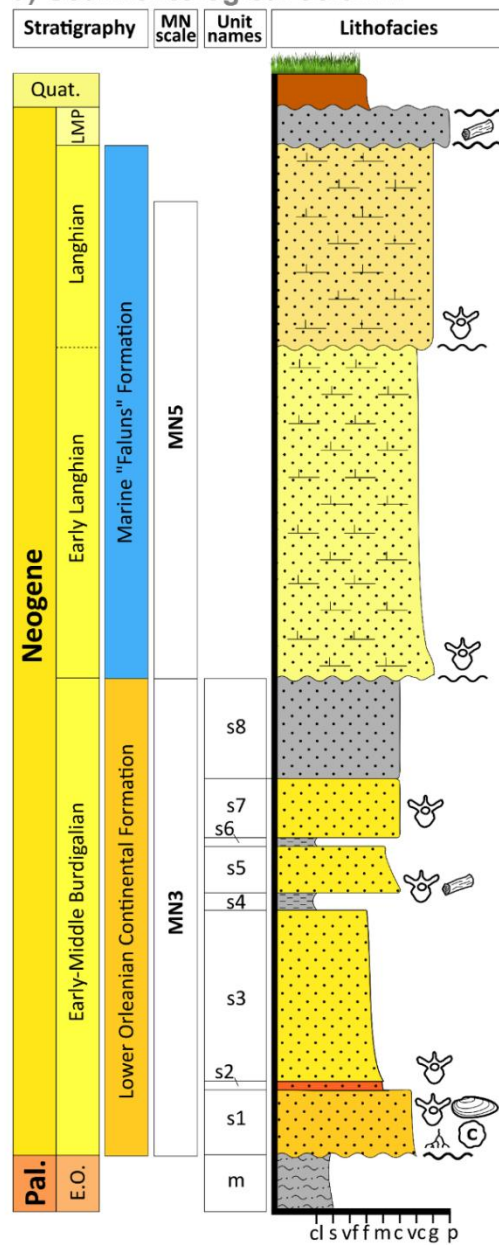
151 **Figure 1: Geological context of the Mauvières section. a) Location of the Mauvières quarry and regional geology based on the**
 152 **BRGM 1/50,000 unified vector geological map of France (InfoTerre), modified after Gagnaison et al. (2020). b) Stratigraphy of the**
 153 **Mauvières section. The nodules (red symbol with a C) come from the Orléanais Marls and Sands Formation attributed to the MN3**
 154 **biozone (Gagnaison et al., 2023). V. 2023/06 : The 6th International Chronostratigraphic Chart of the International Commission of**
 155 **Stratigraphy (2023). GPTS : Geomagnetic Polarity Time Scale.**

156 **2.3 Biostratigraphic age of the continental sands and nodule-bearing s1 bed**

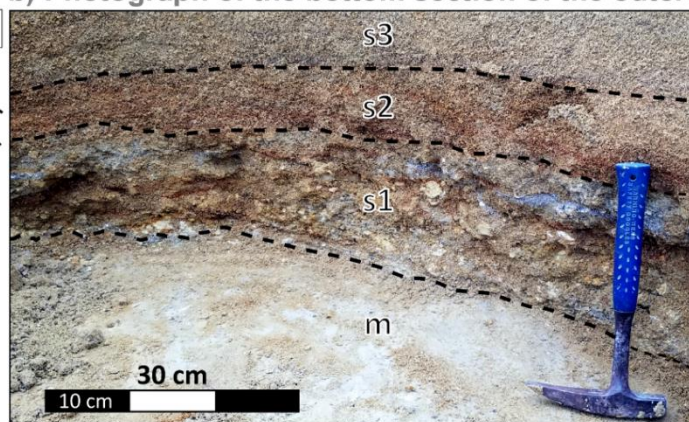
157 MN biozones were defined as a tool for inter-basin faunal comparisons (Mein, 1999). Limits of the zones are defined by 1)
158 steps in mammalian evolutionary lineages (local evolution), 2) First Appearance Datum and/or Last Appearance Datum of
159 species, 3) dispersal of taxa, and 4) faunal assemblages (Mein, 1999; Steininger, 1999). As discussed by Mein (1999), even
160 when relatively inaccurate, the MN-zones are still a useful tool for regional correlation. For example, where local mammalian
161 biozones are developed (e.g. the Mongolian Mammalian biostratigraphy proposed by Daxner-Höck et al., 2017), the MN
162 system can still be employed since Europe and Asia often share taxa (Wang et al. 2013). However, we should keep in mind
163 that correlation using the MN timescale is affected by ecological limits, latitudinal disparities, general diachronism in the
164 dispersion of taxa, the presence of immigrant taxa (Mein 1999; Steininger, 1999) and local differences in taxa (even between
165 neighbouring basins; Engesser and Mödden 1997).

166 Regionally, both the continental and marine Miocene sediments are known for their rich fauna of vertebrate fossils, including
167 mammal taxa (Ginsburg, 2001). At Mauvières, vertebrate remains have been found within four horizons within the Orléanais
168 Marls and Sands Formation (Figure 2a). The majority of fossils (>95%) are fresh and thus interpreted as syn-sedimentary and
169 not reworked from older beds. In total, 53 taxa have been identified, most of them present in the s1 bed, the richest of the four
170 fossiliferous horizons. The taxa are typical of the middle of the MN3 biozone (Gagnaison et al., 2023) (Figure 1b and Figure
171 2a).

a) Sedimentological column



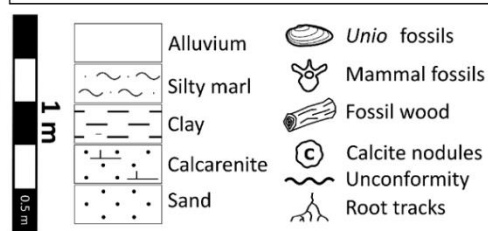
b) Photograph of the bottom section of the outcrop



c) Photograph of s1 bed nodules and clasts



d) Calcite nodules from bed s1



172 Figure 2: Geology of the Mauvières section. a) Sedimentological log and bed nomenclature (modified after Gagnaison et al., 2023).
 173 The calcite nodules are found in the Early-Middle Burdigalian basal sand s1. b) Photograph of the basal section of the outcrop,
 174 showing the basal Paleocene-Eocene silty marls unconformably overlain by an orange, very coarse fluvial sand with mammal
 175 remains, freshwater mussel shells, root tracks and pedogenic calcite nodules. c) Granule and pebble fraction after sieving of the s1
 176 bed. The fraction is dominated by pale-coloured calcite nodules. d) Photographs of representative calcite nodules from the s1 bed
 177 showing both spherical and cylindrical irregularly-shaped nodules of varying colour.

178

179 **3 Materials and methods**

180 **3.1 Samples**

181 Between 2020 and 2022, a series of geological sampling campaigns were undertaken at the Mauvières site. The sample material
182 was sieved, washed, and dried. From the coarse separate (>2 mm), numerous nodules were collected and identified as vadose
183 calcite nodules (Gagnaison et al., 2023). The nodules are spherical to oblong, with a yellow-orange colour and a coarse aspect.
184 Five of these nodules were selected for SEM elemental analysis and U-Pb dating (P00, P01, P02, P04, and P14), three nodules
185 for powder X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD), and one nodule was prepared as a thin section for detailed microscopic analysis
186 (MIOC4). For XRD analysis, each selected nodules were crushed in an agate mortar to create a fine powder. The five other
187 nodules selected for U-Pb dating were sawn in half to reveal an internal surface. One half of each nodule was mounted in a 25
188 mm mould, mounted in epoxy resin, cured and polished, with the final polishing step employing 1 μm diamond suspension
189 polishing fluid. The epoxy resin mounts were cleaned in an ultrasonic bath of deionized water for three minutes and imaged
190 by optical microscopy. LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating was undertaken on sample P00 to see if high quality age data can be obtained
191 from the sample suite. Following LA-ICP-MS analysis of sample P00, it was repolished to remove the ablation rasters, cleaned
192 in an ultrasonic bath of deionized water and carbon coated for SEM analysis. The other four samples were first carbon coated
193 for SEM analysis, and later polished and then cleaned to remove the carbon before subsequent LA-ICP-MS analysis.

194 **3.2 Optical microscopy**

195 The resin pucks were imaged under reflected light using a Nikon Eclipse LV100 at the iCRAG Lab@TCD, Trinity College
196 Dublin. Images were acquired at 5x magnification using a Nikon DS-Ri2 camera. Each tiled image is comprised of multiple
197 frames stitched together by the Nikon NIS-Elements software. Each frame was taken with a square field of view of c. 2.8 mm
198 in width and with an overlap of 10%. Transmitted and plane-polarised light images were also acquired for thin section MIOC4.

199 **3.3 XRD**

200 The powders were analysed using a Siemens/Bruker D5000 power X-ray diffractometer (Cu $K\alpha$ radiation, 0.01° step $^{-1}$ from
201 5 to $60^\circ 2\theta$ at 1° min $^{-1}$, 4.5 hours per sample). Mineral identification was undertaken with DIFFRAC.EVA (Bruker) using
202 the Powder Data File (PDF-4, The International Centre for Diffraction Data) (Gates-Rector and Blanton, 2019). XRD results
203 and its interpretation are available in the Supplementary Materials.

204 **3.4 SEM**

205 The SEM analyses were carried out at the iCRAG Lab@TCD (Trinity College Dublin, Ireland) on a Tescan TIGER MIRA3
206 FEG-SEM equipped with a backscatter electron detector (BSE), two Oxford Instruments Ultim Max 170 mm² SSD EDX
207 detectors and an X4 pulse processor. Scanning electron (SE) and BSE imaging and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
208 (EDS) analyses were acquired using an accelerating voltage of 20 kV and a working distance of 15 mm above the carbon-

209 coated pucks. The images and maps were processed using the AZtec version 6.1 X-ray microanalysis software suite (Oxford
210 Instruments).

211 **3.5 Cathodoluminescence**

212 Polished and uncovered carbon-coated thin sections for each sample were imaged using optical CL microscopy. CL images
213 were acquired at University College Dublin (UCD) using an HC5-LM hot-cathode CL microscope from Lumic Special
214 Microscopes, operated at 12.2 kV with a current density of 0.24 mA.mm⁻². No staining solution was applied prior to the
215 imaging.

216 **3.6 LA-Q-ICP-MS**

217 Laser ablation Q(quadrupole)-ICP-MS U-Pb dating was performed at the iCRAG Lab@TCD, Trinity College Dublin,
218 employing an Iridia 193 nm ArF excimer LA system (Teledyne Photon Machines, Bozeman, MT, USA) coupled to an Agilent
219 7900 Q-ICP-MS via 1.016 mm ID PEEK tubing and a medium pulse interface. One sample (P00) was dated using a mapping
220 approach and follows the U-Pb imaging technique described in Drost et al. (2018), while the remaining samples (P00-repeat,
221 P01, P02, P04, P14) were analysed by static spot analysis. For the latter, signal smoothing was achieved by inserting a mixing
222 chamber (Glass Expansion) between medium pulse interface and torch. Details on the specific analytical protocol and operating
223 conditions are given in the supplementary material (Supplementary Table 1-6 and Supplementary Document 1). This includes
224 the selection criteria, regions of interest, map dimensions and time-equivalents for all selected pixels and pixel groups ('pseudo-
225 analyses') for the sample analysed with the mapping approach, and the laser pit locations of the samples analysed by spot
226 ablation. Supplementary Tables are available on the Zenodo repository system (Monchal et al., 2024) while Supplementary
227 Document and Figure are available with the online version of this manuscript.

228 Samples were first screened for suitability using line scans. Samples and sample area yielding high initial Pb concentrations
229 and low μ throughout were omitted from further analysis. Similarly, samples areas with $U \leq 10$ ppb were ignored as the young
230 sample age would result in very low concentrations of radiogenic Pb. Final locations for U-Pb analysis were selected according
231 to the results of the test line scans in combination with mineralogical and textural observations from optical microscopy and
232 from chemical information obtained by SEM-EDS mapping. In each dated nodule, we targeted calcite zones with minimal
233 incorporation of other phases. For the mapping experiment, this resulted in multiple groups of raster lines spread out across
234 the nodule surface. Final ROIs for data extraction were chosen to represent zones that may be interpreted as cogenetic and thus
235 a single age population constraining cementation. However, samples P01, P02, P04, and P14 did not feature large enough
236 coherent calcite areas with Pb/U ratios favourable for efficient and reproducible use of the mapping protocol. Spot analysis
237 was subsequently performed on those samples, using the chemical information from the SEM and LA-ICP-MS maps to help
238 site the spot analyses. Additionally, the U-Pb mapping data from sample P00 was also augmented by a static spot ablation
239 experiment.

240 The mapping session employed a laser spot size of 80 μm square, a repetition rate of 50 Hz and a fluence of 2.5 J/cm² while
241 moving the sample along successive linear rasters with 30 $\mu\text{m/s}$ under the static laser beam. Samples were bracketed by NIST
242 SRM 614 glass as the primary standard, WC-1 calcite for matrix-matching the ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U ratio (Roberts et al., 2017) and Duff
243 Brown Tank limestone as quality control material (Hill et al., 2017). The total analysis time for sample P00 was c. 34 minutes.
244 Spot analysis employed 85 μm diameter spots, a repetition rate of 12 Hz, 480 shots (40s) and a fluence of 2.2 J/cm². Again,
245 NIST SRM 614 was used as the primary standard, but Duff Brown Tank limestone was used for matrix-matching of the
246 ²⁰⁶Pb/²³⁸U ratio as it is closer in U concentration and age to the samples than WC-1. Gas settings (optimised daily), analyte
247 menus and integration times for all analytical sessions are reported in Supplementary Doc 1 along with the data processing
248 protocols used.

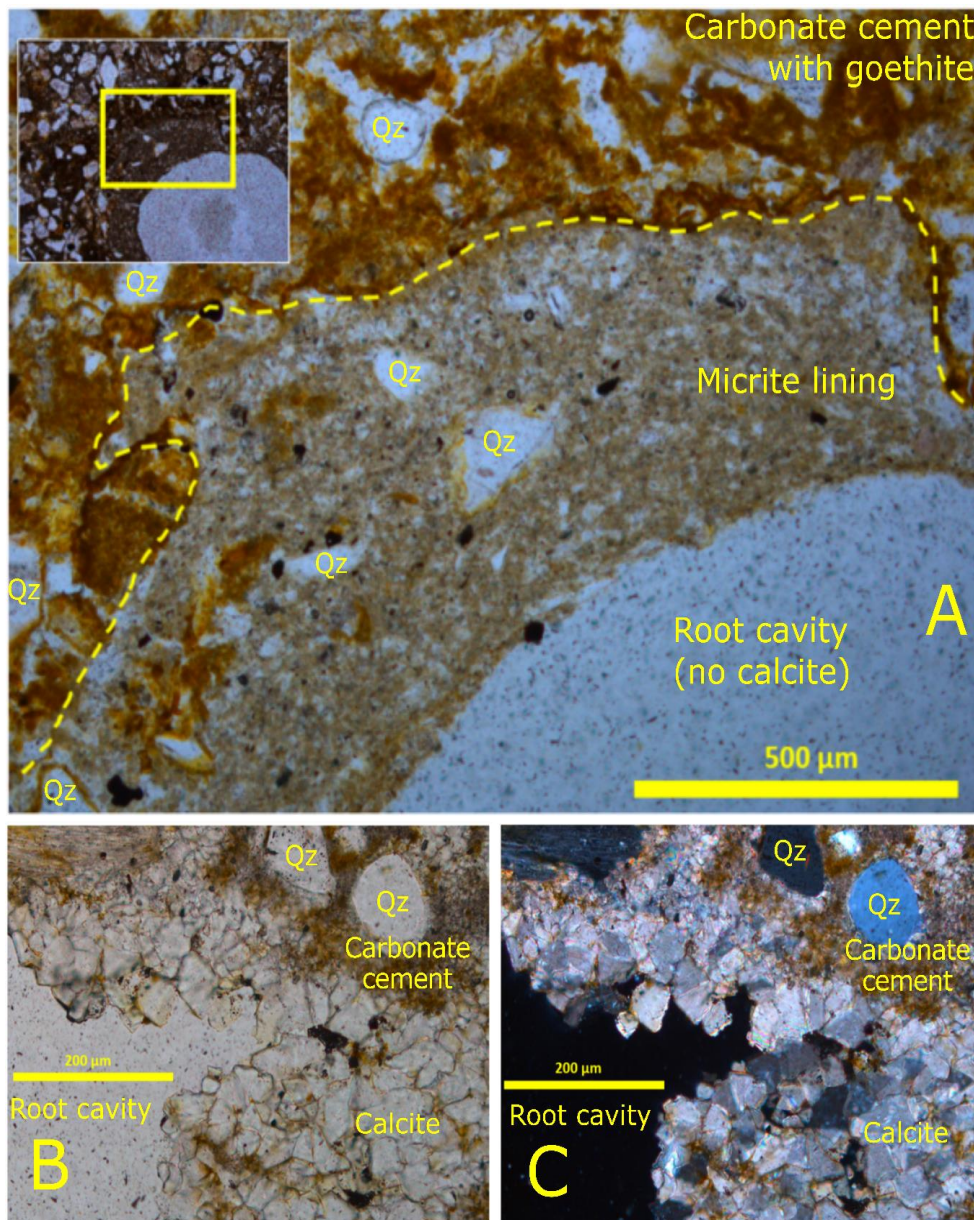
249 Uncertainties on dates in the text and figures are quoted at the 2 σ or 95% confidence level, respectively. The geochronological
250 results are presented with two uncertainties; the first is an estimate of the session uncertainties, while the second is propagated
251 with full systematic uncertainties (e.g., the uncertainty on the reference age of WC-1 (maps) or DBT (spots) respectively, the
252 decay constant uncertainties, and the 2% long-term reproducibility of secondary age reference materials in the laboratory; see
253 Supplementary Document 1).

254 **4 Results**

255 **4.1 Petrographic observations**

256 The samples are composed of transparent, mostly rounded quartz grains with some more angular crystals, set in a pale orange-
257 yellow cement with vein-like cavities, partially filled with calcite crystals (Figure 3). The majority of the samples exhibit a
258 main cavity that in some cases branches out *via* micro-cracks, typical of alpha type paleosol (Wright, 1990). We can
259 distinguish two stages of formation. The first stage involves the formation of sedimentary concretions around roots. The
260 concretions are rich in quartz and cemented by clear carbonate as observed under the optical transmitted light microscope
261 (Figure 3). After decomposition of the roots, sparry calcite crystals precipitated predominantly into free space producing a
262 brown layer on the edge of the cavity and filling the micro-cracks. The host-rock is composed of touching or floating
263 terrigenous clastic elements such as quartz in a clotted carbonated matrix with authigenic goethite. The host-rock is also cross-
264 cut by rhizolith root tubules, traces of which are still visible (Figure 3A). These relics of paleo-roots are expressed by the stack
265 of several layers of dark microbial micrite linings (Figure 3A) and some holocrystalline microsparite. The presence of
266 holocrystals is dependent on the degree of microbial activity and the root structure (i.e. main axis *vs* lateral roots). These early
267 pedogenic carbonate crystals (e.g. the calcite crystals in Figure 3B-C) are classically found in many paleosols (e.g. Wright,
268 1987; Esteban and Klappa, 1983; Bain and Foos, 1993; Alonso-Zarza, 2003).

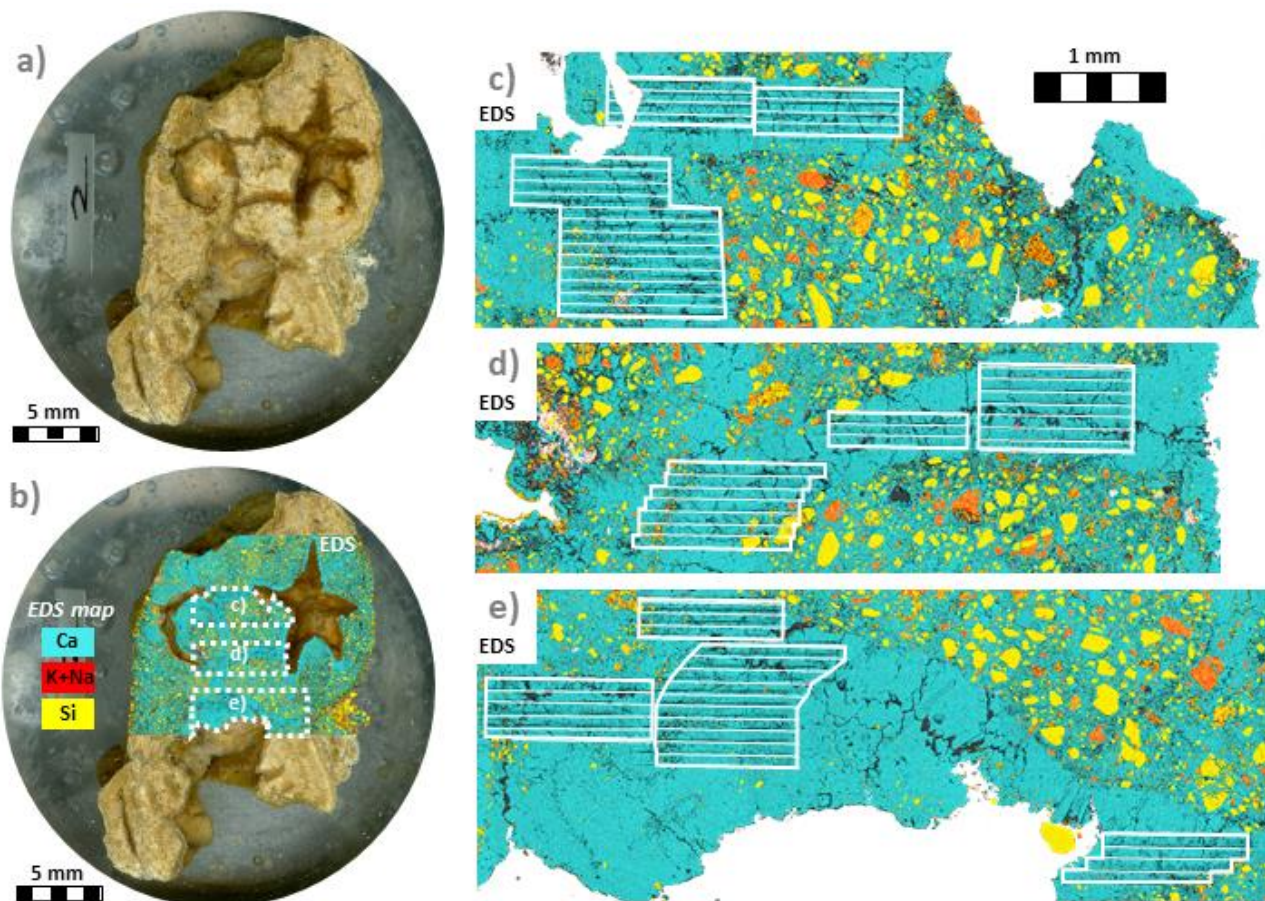
269 Sample MIOC4 is a representative nodule from the s1 bed that exhibits evidence of primarily calcified root traces (Figure 3;
270 see also Gagnaison et al., 2023). No evidence of later crystallisation nor recrystallisation was detected, with the calcite spar
271 homogeneous and unzoned (Figure 3B-C). Moreover, micro-cracks and alveolar structures are commonly found without
272 calcite crystallisation (Figure 3A), especially where the primary root was located. When calcite crystals are present, they are
273 typically associated with lateral roots.



274 **Figure 3: Optical microscope photography of sample MIOC4. A) Primary root structure with a dark microbial micrite lining –**
275 **dashed yellow line highlights the boundary of the external part of the microbial micrite lining. An alveolar structure can be seen on**
276 **the zoomed out insert at the top of the microphotograph (PPL). B) Sparry calcite crystals; a lateral root perforation is on the lower**
277 **left side of the microphotograph (PPL) and C) (XPL). Q = Quartz.**

278 **4.2 SEM-EDS elemental mapping**

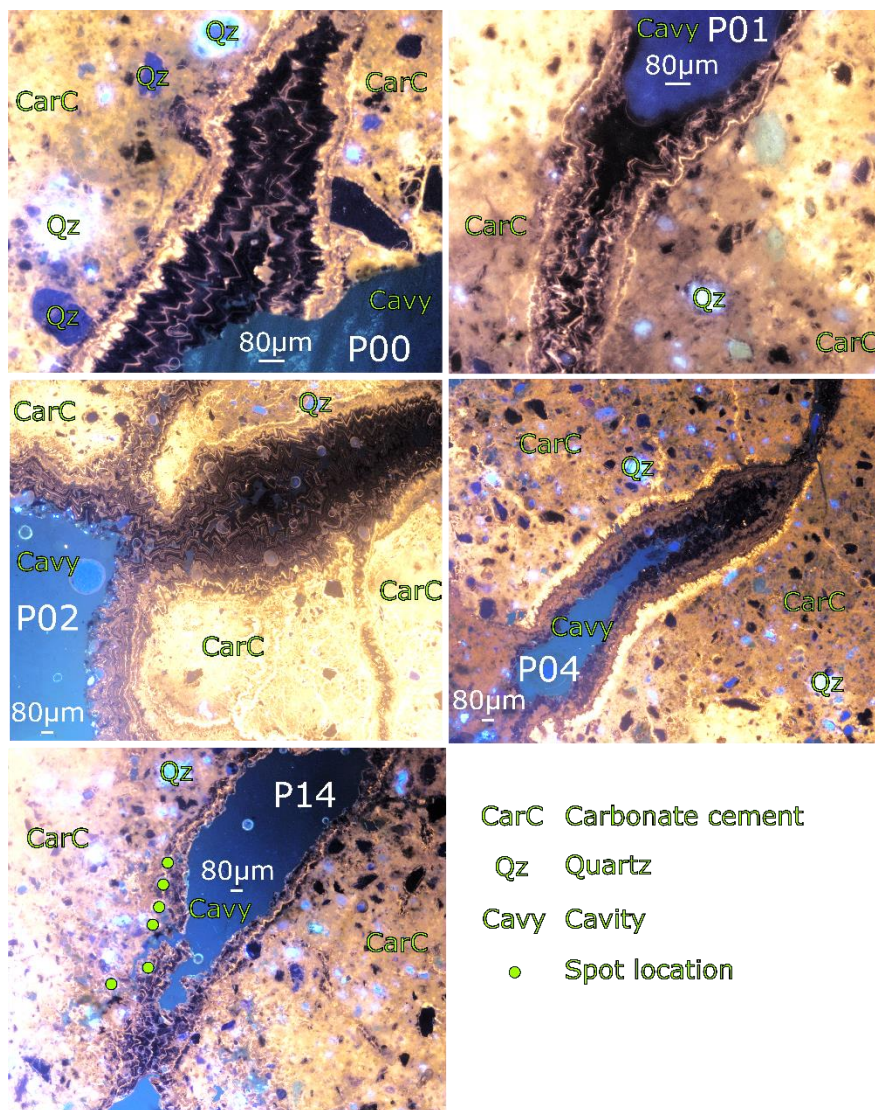
279 The SEM-EDS maps of the five dated nodules reveal that the nodules are composed of poorly sorted angular Si-rich minerals
280 cemented by a Ca-rich phase (Figure 4). The two phases are interpreted respectively as quartz and calcite based on optical
281 microscopy and the PXRD results. The cemented sand also contains grains rich in Si and K, Na interpreted as feldspar and in
282 agreement with the results of PXRD. Large cavities, mostly branching or rounded are present in all the nodules. These cavities
283 are lined by a pure Ca-rich phase interpreted as calcite that precipitated into the free cavity space. In some locations, quartz-
284 free calcite crystals have filled the cavities entirely. These zones of pure calcite were subsequently targeted for LA-ICP-MS
285 U-Pb dating.



286 **Figure 4: Photographic montage of nodule P00 in a polished resin puck. a) optical microscopy image b) the same image overlain by**
287 **a partial EDS map of the nodule showing Ca (a proxy for calcite, blue), Si (a proxy for quartz, yellow), and K+Na (a proxy for**
288 **feldspar, red). The location of the EDS maps in c), d), and e) are represented by the dashed white polygons. c), d), and e) EDS maps**
289 **showing the LA-ICP-MS ablation zones and line scans for the P00 nodule. Pure calcite veins were targeted, avoiding the zones of**
290 **calcite-cemented quartz-rich sand. See Supplementary Materials for pictures and EDS map of the other samples (Supplementary**
291 **Figure 1).**

292 **4.3 Cathodoluminescence imaging**

293 The calcite-cemented sands in the concretions show a complex pattern of dull brown and orange to bright yellow luminescent
294 calcite cementing quartz and minor feldspars which are highly (and variably) luminescent. Sparry calcite crystals infilling
295 cavities and fractures show strong oscillatory CL zonation at the <10 µm scale (Figure 5). The calcite growth in the fractures
296 oscillates between non-luminescent, dull brown to orange luminescence, and bright yellow and orange luminescence. Growth
297 morphologies from CL are euhedral to occasionally subhedral blocky with no recrystallisation of the oscillatory zonation
298 observed.

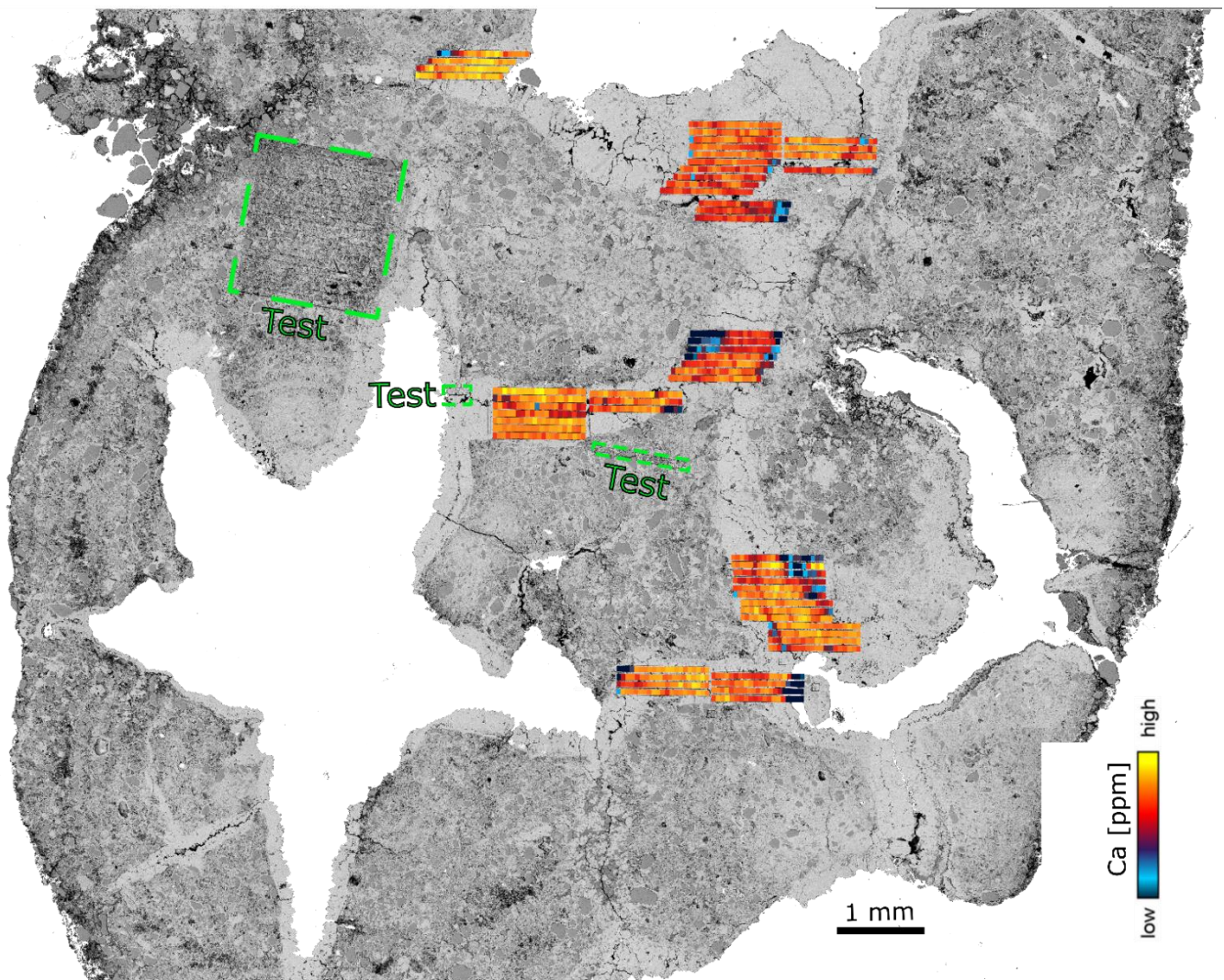


299 **Figure 5: Cathodoluminescence images from the samples at 5x (P02/P04/P14) or 10x (P00/P01) magnification illustrating the**
300 **oscillation between non-luminescent dull brown and orange luminescent zonation in the calcite crystals. Spot locations are shown**
301 **on the P14 photo showing that the outer margins of the calcite zones were ablated.**

302 4.4 LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating

303 Calcite crystals that have precipitated freely inside the cavities were targeted for geochronology analysis (Figure 6) as they are
304 assumed to have precipitated rapidly after the formation of the paleosol (see section 2.2 and Rasbury et al., 1997). The mapped
305 areas in P00 targeted zones of pure calcite based on the SEM-EDS mapping. A Ca filter (e.g. retaining pixels with Ca > 350
306 000 ppm) was applied on the P00 map to exclude any inclusions, cracks, epoxy resin or the host sedimentary rock and this
307 filter removed c. 7% of the pixels from the maps. The average U content is ~ 10 µg/g (ranging from 9 to 13 µg/g), while the
308 average Th content is ~ 0.7 µg/g (ranging from <0.1 to 2.5 µg/g; see Supplementary Table 1) resulting in Th/U ratios of <0.01
309 to <0.2. Significant initial Pb concentrations (~0.44 to 33 µg/g) and the long half-life of Th in combination with the young age
310 of the samples render the radiogenic ingrowth of ^{208}Pb negligible ($^{208}\text{Pb}_{\text{common}}/^{208}\text{Pb}_{\text{radiogenic}} \sim 2800$ to 12000). Therefore, we
311 used the empirical cumulative distribution function of the $^{238}\text{U}/^{208}\text{Pb}$ channel for pooling of the filtered pixel data into pseudo-
312 analyses. The $^{238}\text{U}/^{208}\text{Pb}$ channel is a good estimate of the μ ratio between parent U (^{238}U) vs initial Pb (^{204}Pb) as the total ^{208}Pb
313 concentration is a robust proxy for the initial $\text{Pb}_{\text{common}}$ component.

314 The spot U-Pb data were corrected post-analysis for any ablation that went through the calcite. This correction employ the
315 visual inspection of peaks for a significant change in Ca, Pb, Th or U composition that indicate a change in the phase ablated.
316 The U-Pb spot analyses on samples P01, P02, P04 and P14 yielded dates of $18.8 \pm 2.7/2.7$ Ma, $19.11 \pm 0.84/0.94$ Ma, 19.0
317 $\pm 2.3/2.3$ Ma, $19.4 \pm 2.7/2.7$ Ma, respectively, while sample P00 yielded dates of $19.3 \pm 1.3/1.4$ Ma (mapping) and $19.7 \pm 1.5/1.6$
318 Ma (spots) (Figure 7). A radial plot and weighted average age were calculated using the five dates from spot analysis and their
319 respective internal uncertainties (session estimates) featuring a Mean Square Weighted Deviation (MSWD) and chi-square
320 ($p[\chi^2]$) test representing how good the results are fitting to the statistic value. The full systematic uncertainties (section 3.6)
321 were propagated onto the resultant age (radial plot or weighed average) calculation. The radial plot in Figure 8 shows a single
322 age group at $19.22 \pm 0.66/0.79$ Ma ($p[\chi^2] = 0.96$) and a weighted average age was calculated at $19.21 \pm 0.64/0.77$ Ma
323 (MSWD=0.16; $p[\chi^2] = 0.96$; see Figure 8). All U-Pb spot data were also plotted in the same Terra-Wasserburg space with
324 their individual propagated uncertainties providing a result of $19.1 \pm 0.56/0.71$ Ma. The radial plot single group age of
325 $19.22 \pm 0.66/0.79$ Ma is the preferred age adopted in this study as discussed in section 5.2.



326 **Figure 6: BSE image of P00 overlain by the LA-ICP-MS line rasters used to extract the age. This figure shows that the pristine**
 327 **calcite was targeted by our analysis.**

328 **5 Discussion**

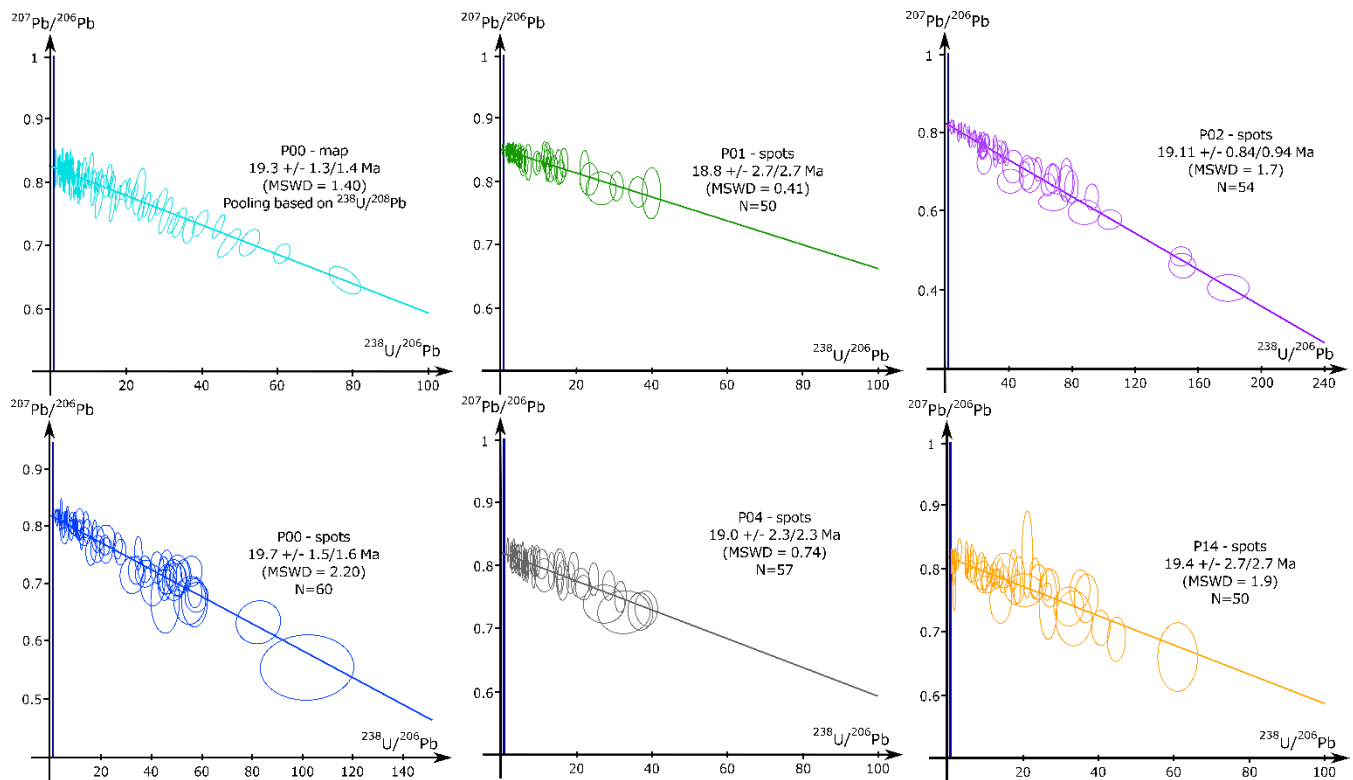
329 **5.1 Accuracy and precision of the U-Pb ages**

330 The imaging techniques (optical microscopy, SEM-EDS and LA-ICP-MS mapping) have differentiated zones of pristine
 331 calcite and the pervasive cementation of the nodules. Optical microscopy evidence favours the hypothesis of preservation of
 332 pristine calcite in our samples (see Results section 4.1). In addition, prior to their extraction from the s1 bed, all the pedogenic
 333 nodules (along with clasts and fossil material) were coated with an impermeable clay layer, which likely hindered subsequent
 334 passage of fluid into the nodules. The clay coating is interpreted as syn-sedimentary (see figures 2b-d and Gagnaison et al.,

335 2023). This sealed system is another argument in favour for the preservation of pristine calcite (Perry and Taylor, 2006) in the
336 nodule interiors (See Figures 4 and 5). The nodule morphology is preserved (not rolled or broken) and does not feature any
337 sign of compaction nor internal collapse which supports the hypothesis of non-reworked nodules. Tubular nodules have also
338 been found perpendicular to the stratigraphy, thus clearly marking the former position of the root. The Eocene-Oligocene marls
339 (m on Figure 2) below the s1 bed do not contain nodules, further supporting the hypothesis that the nodules found in the s1
340 bed are in-situ.

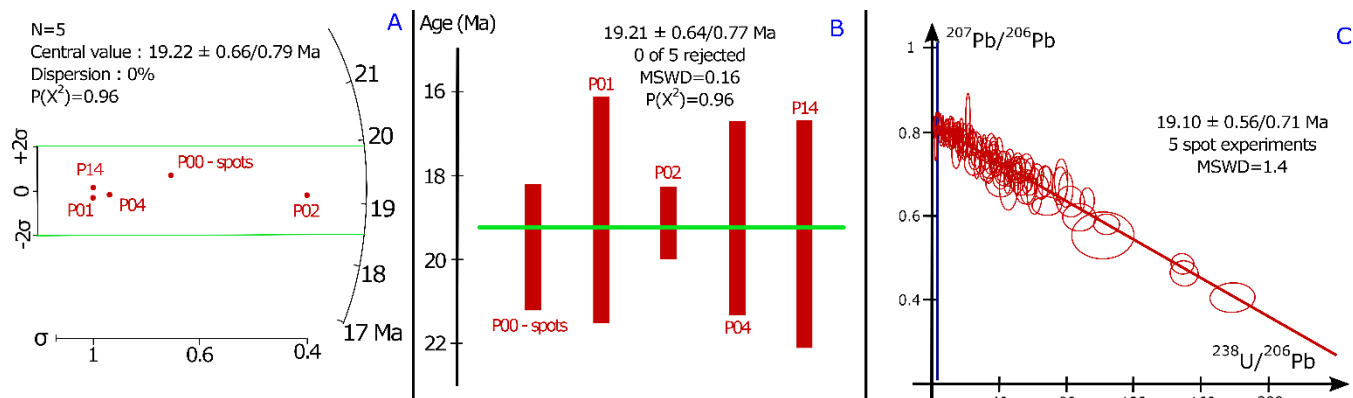
341 The growth morphologies from optical and CL microscopy indicate gradual growth competition took place, indicative of a
342 crystallisation in a cavity that remained open (e.g. Wendler et al., 2016; Prajapati et al., 2018). The oscillatory zoning with
343 multiple bright concentric subzones observed under CL (Fe is the main CL quencher and Mn the main activator) can be
344 explained by small yet rapid variations in Eh/pH conditions accompanied by changes in oxidation state (e.g., Pagel et al.,
345 2000). With increasing oxidation, Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} sensitized by Pb^{2+} and/or Ce^{3+} (Pagel et al, 2000) are replaced by Fe^{3+} and
346 Mn^{3+} or Mn^{4+} ions (e.g. Richter et al., 2003; Boggs and Krinsley, 2006). A plot of $\log [\text{Fe}]/\log [\text{Mn}]$ ppm can predict if calcite
347 will be bright, dull or non-luminescent in CL (Machel and Burton, 1991; Boggs and Krinsley, 2006) (see Supplementary
348 Material). The specific CL patterns are consistent with redox fluctuations caused by water table fluctuations in a vadose or in
349 a fluid-saturated environment (Mason, 1987; Barnaby and Rimstidt, 1989), which is also in agreement with the previous paleo-
350 environment reconstitutions for the s1 bed (Gagnaison et al., 2023). Given the above observations and since the oscillatory
351 zoning is continuous, we interpret a single continuous event of calcite formation to have occurred inside the nodules. The
352 differing thickness of the CL bands appears related to the size of each cavity in the nodules, with P00/P01/P02 having the
353 largest cavities and bands while nodules P04 and P14 have thinner bands.

354



355 **Figure 7: Tera-Wasserburg concordia diagrams and lower intercept ages of all samples. For the map analysis of P00, the pooling**
 356 **was based on the ECDF $^{238}\text{U}/^{208}\text{Pb}$. For the spot analysis, the number of spots is indicated by N.**

357 The LA-ICP-MS mapping technique adopted herein is recognised for its potential (see Rasbury et al., 2023) in dating
 358 pedogenic nodules by allowing the selection of only pristine calcite in the extraction and processing of the U-Pb data. However,
 359 only one sample had large enough coherent zones of pristine calcite with Pb/U ratios suitable for U-Pb dating and a spot
 360 analysis strategy was used to date the remaining four samples. All six results yield ages with a precision of 5 to 14%, which is
 361 considered precise for LA-ICP-MS calcite U-Pb dating of such young samples (Roberts et al., 2020). The accuracy of our data
 362 set can be assessed by the fact that the five samples provide the same age and initial $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ within uncertainties, along
 363 with the radial plot confirming that there is only one age group (Figure 8). The accuracy of the mapping experiment is also
 364 demonstrated by the similar dates (within uncertainties) yielded using three different isochron approaches. The mapping
 365 approach data for sample P00 (using $^{238}\text{U}/^{208}\text{Pb}$ as the pooling channel) yields $19.3 \pm 1.3/1.4$ Ma for the TW intercept age,
 366 $19.6 \pm 1.7/1.8$ Ma for the $^{238}\text{U}/^{208}\text{Pb}_{\text{common}}$ isochron (e.g., Getty et al., 2001) and an 86TW age (Parrish et al., 2018) of
 367 $19.4 \pm 1.6/1.7$ Ma (section 3.4 and Supplementary Table 1).
 368



369 **Figure 8: A) Radial plot and B) weighted average of the samples used in this study. Radial plot central value and the weighted**
 370 **average value are indicated with 2σ internal uncertainties (session estimates). The full systematic uncertainties (section 3.6) were**
 371 **propagated onto the resultant age calculations with the same method as for the individual sample ages. C) Tera-Wasserburg**
 372 **concordia diagram of all five spot ablation experiments. See text for the interpretation and discussion of the data.**

373 5.2 Age of the nodules and paleosol

374 Our age data are compatible within uncertainty with the proposed biostratigraphic age of the continental biozone MN3, which
 375 is correlated with the Burdigalian marine stratigraphic age (20.44 - 15.98 Ma; Cohen et al., 2013 [updated 2023/09]) and the
 376 Orleanian continental stratigraphic age (19.5 - 14.2 Ma; Hilgen et al., 2012). Dating the pedogenic calcite should provide a
 377 minimum age for the paleosol formation (Rasbury et al., 1997). The nodules are found within the same sedimentary layer
 378 (section 2.2) and we can therefore reasonably assume that the crystallisation of the calcite inside each nodule arose from the
 379 same process(es). Even if these process(es) involve multiple phases of growth, we do not see any evidence of incremental
 380 growth of more than one generation of calcite from petrography, CL and SEM-EDS mapping. The U/Pb dates obtained on
 381 these five nodules are identical within age uncertainty of our method (Fig. 8) and do not exhibit evidence for more than one
 382 stage of calcite growth, diachronous growth across different nodules or a substantial time span between initiation and
 383 termination of calcite formation. We therefore assume that formation of the analysed nodules (which are identical within age
 384 uncertainty of our method) was effectively synchronous.

385 To determine the minimum age of nodule formation, there are several possible approaches: 1) the U/Pb date with the lowest
 386 uncertainty (P02: 19.11±0.84/0.94 Ma), 2) the date derived from the combined TW regression of spot analyses from all five
 387 samples (Fig. 8C; 19.10±0.56/0.71 Ma), 3) a weighted mean of the U/Pb dates from all analysed samples (Fig. 8B;
 388 19.21±0.64/0.77 Ma) or 4) the radial plot age (Fig. 8A; 19.22±0.66/0.79 Ma). The former two methods may introduce some
 389 bias as they may overly rely on the data points with the highest $^{238}\text{U}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratios coming all from the same sample (P02), while
 390 the latter two methods put more emphasis on the similarity of the results associated with individual samples. The radial plot
 391 shows only one age group, and the central age from the radial plot and the weighted mean of the TW intercept ages are identical
 392 within age uncertainty. The weighted mean age calculation assumes the data follows a normal distribution, while the radial
 393 plot assumes that the log of the values follows a normal distribution curve (Vermeesch, 2018). Geochronological data are less

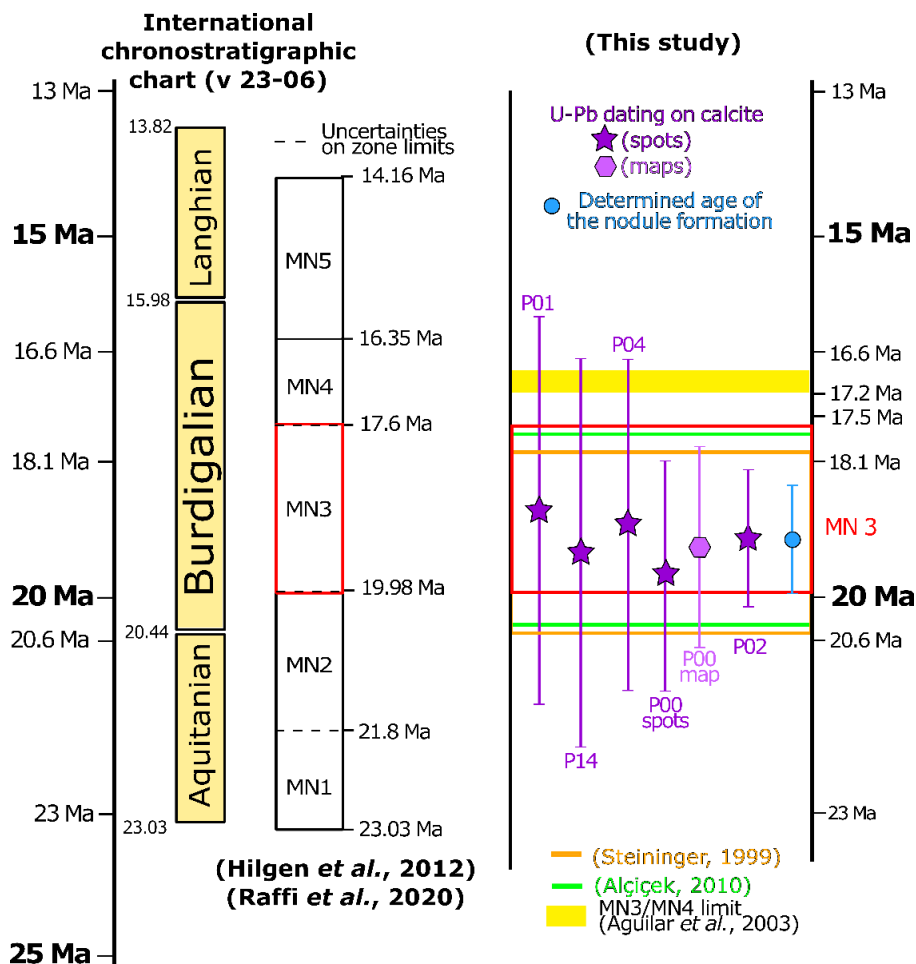
394 likely than other data to conform to a normal distribution due to the presence of outliers and the range of age values must be
395 positive, thus the distribution is asymmetric (Vermeesch, 2018). The log of the outliers used in radial plots will smooth these
396 deviations and heteroscedastic variation (unequal uncertainties) and make it fit to the normal distribution curve (Galbraith et
397 al. 1999), which is why the radial plot central age is preferred. This age of $19.22 \pm 0.66/0.79$ Ma for the s1 bed allows precise
398 correlation with other dated sequences, independently of the lithofacies or fossil assemblages present. This age is the first
399 absolute age for the continental Miocene facies of the Paris Basin and to the best of our knowledge the youngest U-Pb age
400 from pedogenic carbonates in the literature (Table 1).

401 **5.3 Biostratigraphic significance**

402 The MN stratigraphic timescale is based on faunal calibration. The appearance and disappearance of taxa result in a given
403 combination of species that can be linked to a given time (Mein, 1999). The MN scale incorporates a stratigraphic component
404 as well as classical stratigraphic correlations and magnetostratigraphy to help refine the age control (Hilgen et al., 2012). MN
405 units were initially defined without boundaries or clearly defined limits (e.g. Mein, 1975), but nowadays the scale is often
406 presented alongside a chronostratigraphic scale, with an absolute age associated with each biozone boundary (e.g. Agustí et
407 al., 2001; Van Dam et al., 2001; Aguilar et al., 2003; Gagnaison et al., 2023). The absolute ages of the boundaries remain
408 debated (see the example of MN3 below) due to diachronicity and incomplete paleontological and magnetostratigraphical data
409 (Fortelius et al., 2014; Ezquerro et al., 2022). Each zone is characterised by a specific fauna found at a reference locality (for
410 Europe these are mainly in Teruel and Ebro Basin [Spain], Paris Basin [France], and North Alpine Foreland Basin [Germany])
411 that can be asynchronous by up to 1 - 2 Myr in the Late Miocene (Van der Meulen et al., 2012; Fortelius et al., 2014; Ezquerro
412 et al., 2022). The majority of the MN zones have uncertainties attached to their age boundaries (Figure 9), while the application
413 of the MN timescale typically involves comparison to the most proximal and well-constrained reference section to circumvent
414 potential diachronicity. Local modifications to the MN timescale are thus often adopted for selected biozones (Hilgen et al.,
415 2012; Van der Meulen et al., 2012; Fortelius et al., 2014; Ezquerro et al., 2022).

416 To improve the precision of this scale, the incorporation of magnetostratigraphy has helped to better define the MN unit
417 boundaries within basins (e.g. Agusti et al. 2001; Kálin and Kempf 2009). Steininger (1999) used magnetostratigraphic data
418 to propose that magnetochron C6r (20.5 Ma) represented the base and C5Dr the top (18.5 Ma) of MN3. The top boundary of
419 MN3 was then extended to chron C5Cn.2r, dated between 16.6 and 17.2 Ma, based on magnetostratigraphy of sections in the
420 North Alpine foreland (Agusti et al., 2001). The MN3 faunal reference site was defined as Wintershof-West with a sedimentary
421 succession dated between 17.5 and 18.5 Ma (Hilgen et al., 2012) thus only partially covering the time interval defined by the
422 magnetochron ages. The MN3 boundaries were refined by magnetochron ages for C6r (19.979 Ma) and C5Dr (18.007 – 17.634
423 Ma), which are the chrons defined by Steininger (1999) as bracketing the MN3 biozone, the ages of these magnetochrons are
424 subsequently updated by Raffi et al. (2020). It should be noted that magnetostratigraphy requires thick sections (typically >10
425 m thick profiles) and cannot always be employed. Our results are compatible within uncertainties with the different

426 magnetochron ages proposed for MN3 and are not challenging the actual consensus around the absolute age of the base or the
 427 top of MN3 (Figure 9).
 428 Absolute U-Pb dating of in-situ pedogenic carbonates enables a better understanding of the spatio-temporal distribution and
 429 evolution of continental mammalian faunas. This method is not affected by the limits detailed above (i.e. diachronicity, index
 430 fossil scarcity, insufficient profile thickness), thus offering a reliable opportunity to improve the local constraints on the MN
 431 scale. Our age is compatible with an early Orleanian stage assignment (Figure 1) and the MN3 unit (Hilgen et al. 2012). The
 432 age constraints on the Mauvières fossil locality are thus significantly improved by our results, but it should be noted that an
 433 age for one locality does not improve the precision of the MN3 boundaries at a European scale. Therefore, more studies
 434 employing similar method are needed for further improvement of the MN scale, especially zones with large uncertainties such
 435 as MN3.



436 **Figure 9: Overview of MN timescales in the literature compared to the age data from this study. The red box defining the currently**
 437 **accepted boundaries of the MN3 biozone is taken from Raffi et al. (2020) by taking the base of magnetochron C6r at 19.979 Ma and**
 438 **the top of C5Dr as 17.634 Ma. The age of nodule formation is the result of the radial plot using the six U-Pb geochronology dates**
 439 **and their respective internal uncertainties; the full systematic uncertainty was propagated on to the radial plot result age calculation**
 440 **(see sections 4.4 and 5.2).**

441 **6 Conclusions**

442 The application of LA-ICP-MS U-Pb dating of calcite pedogenic nodules as employed in this study is a robust and reliable
443 way to provide absolute age data for terrestrial strata. Our samples yield a precise and accurate age of 19.22 ± 0.79 Ma in
444 accordance with earlier biostratigraphic estimates (Orleanian), demonstrating the suitability of the method and confirming the
445 feasibility of the technique to dating continental sedimentary facies that do not contain any index fossils or volcanic horizons
446 such as lavas or ash beds.

447 Our results are in good agreement with the biostratigraphic age (MN3 of the Neogene Mammalian timescale) of sedimentary
448 horizon s1 from Mauvières (Gagnaison et al., 2023) and represent the first absolute age constraint for the MN3 unit in France.
449 This absolute dating approach has the potential to advance chronostratigraphy and climatic reconstructions (Liivamägi et al.,
450 2021) by improving inter-basin correlations in continental successions and extending such correlations to the marine
451 sedimentary record. In order to refine the geochronological constraints, the use of a more precise reference material would
452 decrease the external uncertainties (i.e. ASH15, Nuriel et al., 2021; JT, Guillong et al., 2020; RA138, Guillong et al., 2024).
453 The protocol for U-Pb dating of carbonate nodules proposed by Aguirre Palafox et al. (2024) offers a uniform approach and a
454 basis for comparisons between studies. While their study was published during the review process of this manuscript, it should
455 be noted that our study nevertheless broadly conforms with this protocol.

456 **Author contribution**

457 VM contributed to the conceptualisation, the formal acquisition, the investigation, the methodology, the project administration,
458 the visualisation and the writing (initial draft and edits). RR contributed to the conceptualisation, the formal acquisition, the
459 investigation, the methodology, the project administration, the visualisation and the writing (edits and part of initial draft). KD
460 contributed to the methodology, the supervision and the writing (edits). CG and BM contributed to the resources, the
461 conceptualisation and the writing (edits). RT contributed to the writing (edits). DC contributed to the supervision, the funding
462 acquisition and the writing (edits).

463 **Competing interests**

464 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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