



1 **Paleocene-Eocene age glendonites from the Norwegian Margin -**
2 **Indicators of cold snaps in the hothouse?**

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19 **Abstract**

20 The International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Expedition 396 to the mid-Norwegian margin
21 recovered >1300 m of pristinely preserved, volcanic ash-rich sediments deposited during the late
22 Paleocene and early Eocene, from close to the centre of the North Atlantic Igneous Province (NAIP).
23 Remarkably, many of these cores contain glendonites, pseudomorphs after the purported cold-water
24 mineral ikaite, from sediments dated to the late Paleocene, Paleocene – Eocene boundary and early
25 Eocene. These time intervals span some of the hottest climates of the Cenozoic, including the



26 Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM). Global deep ocean temperatures are not thought to
27 have dropped below 10 °C at any point during this time, making the occurrence of supposedly cold-
28 water (near-freezing temperature) glendonite pseudomorphs seemingly paradoxical. This study
29 presents a detailed sedimentological, geochemical, and microscopic study of the Exp. 396 glendonites,
30 and presents an updated model for the ikaite-to-calcite transformation for these glendonites.
31 Specifically, we show that early diagenesis of basaltic ashes of the NAIP appear to have chemically
32 promoted ikaite growth in the sediments in this region. Together with existing knowledge of late
33 Paleocene and early Eocene glendonites from Svalbard to the north, and early Eocene glendonites
34 from Denmark to the south, these new glendonite finds possibly imply episodic, short-duration, and
35 likely localised cooling in the Nordic Seas region, which may have been directly or indirectly linked to
36 the emplacement of the NAIP.

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Glendonites are pseudomorphs after the mineral ikaite, a metastable, hydrated form of calcium
39 carbonate ($\text{CaCO}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$), which is found today growing in a range of environments (alkaline lakes, sea
40 ice, concrete, in estuarine settings, deep marine sediments and more; Council and Bennet, 1993;
41 Buchardt et al., 2001; Dieckmann et al., 2008; Boch et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2015; Schultz et al., 2022;
42 2023). Certain physical and chemical conditions are necessary in order for ikaite to precipitate
43 preferentially over the more stable anhydrous CaCO_3 polymorphs (calcite, aragonite, vaterite). These
44 parameters may include low temperatures, high alkalinity, and a range of possible chemical inhibitors
45 of the anhydrous polymorphs (e.g. high aqueous Mg, phosphate, and/or sulphate concentrations;
46 certain dissolved organic compounds) (Council and Bennett, 1993; Buchardt et al., 2001; Zhou et al.,
47 2015; Purgstaller et al., 2017; Stockmann et al., 2018; Whiticar et al., 2022). Whilst laboratory studies
48 have successfully, if fleetingly, precipitated ikaite at warm temperatures (≤ 35 °C), temperatures
49 approaching zero are much more favourable for the precipitation, growth, and longevity of this
50 mineral (Purgstaller et al., 2017; Stockmann et al., 2018; Tollefsen et al., 2020). In nature, ikaite has
51 not been discovered growing above 7 °C (Suess et al., 1982; Dieckmann et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2015;
52 Boch et al., 2015; Stockmann et al., 2022).

53 Glendonites are found throughout the geological record in marine sedimentary settings, sometimes
54 associated with glacial deposits (e.g. Kemper, 1987; Alley et al., 2020), in sediments deposited during
55 periods of both icehouse and greenhouse climate (Rogov et al., 2021; 2023). The occurrence of
56 glendonites in Mesozoic marine sediments has fuelled the debate about whether ephemeral polar ice
57 sheets waxed and waned during this long-term global greenhouse climate (e.g. Kemper, 1987; de Lurio



58 and Frakes, 1999; Rogov et al., 2017; Vickers et al., 2019; Merkel and Munnecke, 2023). Across the
59 Cenozoic sedimentary record, glendonites are found at increasingly broader latitude ranges through
60 time, coincident with the growth of polar ice caps and global climate cooling (Rogov et al., 2021).
61 However, reports of glendonites – including the largest ever discovered on Earth – from successions
62 deposited in the Nordic Seas region during the early Paleogene greenhouse have been a topic of
63 controversy in the paleoclimate community (Huggett et al., 2005; Spielhagen and Tripathi, 2009). Deep
64 ocean bottom water temperatures were >10 °C across the globe, including the North Atlantic, during
65 much of the Paleocene and Early Eocene (Zachos et al., 2008; Dunkley-Jones et al., 2013; Westerhold
66 et al., 2020; Meckler et al. 2022), such that the presence of glendonites in marine sedimentary
67 sequences during this time appears paradoxical. Whilst the successful synthesis of ikaite at warm (≤
68 35 °C) temperatures in laboratory conditions raises the possibility of ikaite/glendonite formation at
69 much warmer temperatures than modern-day natural ikaites (Tollefsen et al., 2020), the conditions
70 under which this was achieved in the laboratory is unlike any natural setting. In addition, clumped
71 isotope temperature reconstructions for ikaite precipitation/transformation temperatures from a
72 Danish early Eocene succession suggest cold formation (or perhaps transformation) conditions for the
73 parent ikaite (0 - 9 °C) (Vickers et al., 2020). Given that the parent ikaite minerals grew from pore
74 waters in the shallow subsurface (e.g., Zhou et al., 2015; Schultz et al., 2022), this suggests that local
75 bottom water temperatures must have been at least this cold (Vickers et al., 2020), since temperature
76 increases with burial depth. Reconstructed sea surface temperatures from biomarkers for northern
77 Denmark also suggest that short-term cooling events of magnitude c. 5 - 7 °C may have punctuated
78 the late Paleogene to early Eocene (summarised in Jones et al., 2023). Whether these cooling events
79 reflect a localised as well as short-lived cooling is not understood, nor the mechanism by which such
80 cooling could occur, although these have been speculated upon (Schoon et al., 2015; Stokke et al.,
81 2020a; Vickers et al., 2020).

82 International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Expedition 396 to the Norwegian continental margin
83 (August – September 2021) recovered numerous glendonites in volcanic sediments dated as latest
84 Paleocene and earliest Eocene, including, remarkably, within those sediments deposited during the
85 Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM) hyperthermal event (Berndt et al., 2023; Planke et al.,
86 2023). Deep ocean bottom water temperatures may have reached 15 °C or more during the 150 – 200
87 kyr-long PETM hyperthermal (Röhl et al., 2007; Zachos et al., 2008; Murphy et al., 2010; Dunkley Jones
88 et al., 2013; Westerhold et al., 2020). This makes the discovery of pseudomorphs after a mineral
89 favoured by near-freezing conditions truly remarkable if the age of their formation and
90 recrystallisation coincided with the depositional age of the host sediments. If the parent ikaite grew
91 during the PETM or the hothouse earliest Eocene climate (e.g. as was the case for the well-studied Fur



92 Formation glendonites; Vickers et al., 2020), this raises questions about regional seaway connectivity,
93 thermal stratification in both the Nordic Seas and the open oceans, and could imply that current global
94 and regional temperature reconstructions based on biogenic carbonates and lipid biomarkers do not
95 represent the full spectrum of climate variability in the early Paleogene Northern Hemisphere.

96 This study documents and describes the glendonites in the stratigraphy of the Exp. 396 cores, and uses
97 microscopic and geochemical analyses along with sedimentological data to elucidate the timing,
98 climate, and chemical regimes that facilitated their formation.

99 2. Materials and Methods

100 2.1 Geological setting and sampling

101 IODP Expedition 396 drilled 21 boreholes along the mid-Norwegian continental margin during August
102 and September 2021, recovering igneous and sedimentary rocks ranging from lava flow fields to
103 hydrothermal vent complexes, including thick successions of upper Paleocene and lower Eocene strata
104 (Fig. 1A). Ship-board sedimentary logging was followed by a more detailed high-resolution study of
105 recovered cores stored at MARUM, Bremen, under refrigerated conditions (c. 4 °C). Two transects
106 sampled Paleocene-Eocene sedimentary successions at the Modgunn and Mimir localities (Fig. 1B and
107 C).

108 The Modgunn locality is a transect of boreholes (Sites U1567-U1568) that span the crater of a
109 Paleogene hydrothermal vent complex close to the rift axis of the Møre Margin (Fig. 1B; Planke et al.,
110 2023). These vents formed due to the violent expulsion of volatiles generated by contact
111 metamorphism of organic-rich sediments around igneous intrusions, and from magmatic degassing
112 (e.g. Svensen et al., 2004). The Modgunn crater is approximately 80 m deep compared to the paleo-
113 seafloor, with a 200-240m-wide feeder system that is rooted in a series of nested sill intrusions (Berndt
114 et al., 2023). The vent infill consists predominantly of laminated diatom-rich mud, mudstones, and ash
115 layers that rapidly accumulated to fill the bathymetric depression. The strata contain a negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
116 excursion and the biostratigraphic marker taxa *Apectodinium augustum* and *Hemiaulus proteus*. Based
117 on these biostratigraphic and chemostratigraphic constraints, Berndt et al. (2023) showed the vent
118 formed just before the PETM onset and was completely filled within the duration of the PETM CIE.

119 The Mimir High (Sites U1569-U1570) is a borehole transect through a marginal high on the Vøring
120 Transform Margin (Fig. 1C; Planke et al., 2023). Uplift and erosion of the marginal high has removed
121 any basalt cover (Berndt et al., 2001), providing a window to access stratigraphic successions below



122 the breakup volcanism. The strata dip to the north, so a transect of boreholes was designed to provide
123 a composite late Paleocene – early Eocene section with overlap between each hole. These strata
124 consist of a mix of mud, mudstones, carbonates, igneous units, and ash layers (Planke et al., 2023).

125 Core sampling, including sampling the glendonites, was undertaken in April 2022 and high-resolution
126 sediment logging of the glendonite-bearing core sections was undertaken in August 2022, at MARUM,
127 University of Bremen, Germany.

128 *2.2 Powder X-Ray Diffraction (PXRD)*

129 Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) was carried out on dried, powdered bulk sub-samples of five
130 glendonites from the Exp. 396 cores, using a Stoe StadiP transmission (thin-foil) diffractometer with a
131 copper anode at 30 mA, 40 kV and a germanium 111 monochromator to produce $K\alpha_1$ X-rays. The
132 diffracted beam was collected by an 18° 2θ Dectris Mythen1K silicon strip detector. Samples were
133 sandwiched between two thin cellulose acetate discs and mounted in a holder set to spin continuously
134 during data collection. Data sets were scanned from 5 to 65° 2θ stepping at 0.5° and 20 s/step. The
135 resultant raw data has a step of 0.015° 2θ . Machine alignment was monitored using an NBS silicon
136 standard. Phase analysis was undertaken using Bruker's 'Eva' program (Gates-Rector and Blanton,
137 2019) interfaced with the Powder Diffraction File provided by the International Centre for Diffraction
138 Data.

139 *2.3 Microscopy*

140 Four polished thin sections were made from three glendonites (those in U1569A-19R-2, U1570A-15R-
141 1, and U1567C-11X-1), and examined using a light microscope to compare to published data on
142 glendonite microfabric and look for different carbonate growth phases. A Hitachi SU5000 FE-SEM,
143 equipped with a Bruker EDS was used to examine porosity and spatial chemical variation across the
144 sub-samples.

145 *2.4 Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (LA ICP-MS)*

146 Laser ablation trace element analyses were performed on polished thin sections of glendonites from
147 U1569A-19R-2, U1570A-15R-1, and U1567C-11X-1 at the Frankfurt Isotope and Element Research
148 Center (FIERCE) in the Institute of Geosciences at Goethe University Frankfurt. Different carbonate
149 phases were targeted. The system features a 193 nm RESOLUTION M-50 laser ablation (LA) system with
150 two-volume LaurinTechnic ablation cell connected to a ThermoScientific Element XR sector field
151 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS). All analyses were performed as 'spot'



152 measurements, utilising relatively low repetition rates to ablate through the thin sections analysed
153 here. Ablation took place with He in the outer cell (400 ml/min) and Ar sample gas from the ICP-MS
154 (1.025 l/min) mixed into the lower-volume inner cell. N₂ was admixed downstream of the ablation cell
155 (4.5 ml/min) to improve sensitivity (e.g. Durrant, 1994). The ICP-MS was fitted with a Ni jet sample
156 cone and Ni H skimmer cone and operated in medium resolution mode. Tuning of the system was
157 performed to maximise sensitivity (~6 M cps ²³⁸U in low resolution mode; NIST SRM612 60 μm, 6 Hz,
158 6 J/cm²) while maintaining the oxide and doubly charged production rate below 0.5% and 2%
159 respectively. Monitored masses included ¹¹B, ²³Na, ²⁴Mg, ²⁵Mg, ²⁷Al, ³⁹K, ⁵⁵Mn, ⁵⁶Fe, ⁸⁸Sr, ¹³⁸Ba, ²⁰⁸Pb,
160 and ²³⁸U.

161 Samples were ablated using a 50 μm diameter laser beam at 4 Hz with an on-sample fluence of 5
162 J/cm². Quantification was performed using ⁴³Ca as the internal standard and NIST SRM610 as the
163 external standard. Data processing was performed using an in-house Matlab script following
164 established procedures (Heinrich et al., 2003), described in detail elsewhere (Evans and Müller, 2018).
165 Briefly: all analyses were baseline corrected by subtracting the mean of the two adjacent gas-blank
166 datasets, normalised to ⁴³Ca, and standardised into element/Ca molar ratios using the analyte/⁴³Ca
167 count/concentration ratio from NIST SRM610. No significant drift in this count ratio was observed for
168 any relevant analyte for the session reported here such that standardisation was based on the mean
169 of all available NIST analyses. Down-hole elemental fractionation relative to Ca was corrected by
170 calculating least-squares 3rd-order polynomials through the NIST SRM610 element/⁴³Ca-depth data,
171 which were then used as the sweep-time specific ratios for sample quantification. The NIST SRM610
172 values of Jochum et al. (2011) were used in all cases except Mg, for which we use that of Pearce et al.
173 (1997) following the data analysis of Evans and Müller (2018).

174 Data quality was assessed via repeat analysis of the 'nanopellet' version of the CaCO₃ standards JcP-1
175 and MACS-3 (Garbe-Schönberg and Müller, 2014; Jochum et al., 2019), ablated in an identical manner
176 to the samples. Pooling together all analyses on both standards (n = 20) and comparing to the reported
177 values of Jochum et al. (2019) yields an accuracy of <5% for ¹¹B, ⁵⁶Fe, ⁸⁸Sr, <10% for ²³Na, ²⁴⁺²⁵Mg, ¹³⁸Ba,
178 ²³⁸U, 25% for ²⁷Al, 30% for ³⁹K, and 70% in the case of ⁵⁵Mn, comparable to the achievable long-term
179 data quality from a similar system (Evans and Müller, 2018, albeit using a quadrupole ICP-MS).
180 Precision (repeatability), defined as the 2SD of all individual analyses normalised to the reported value
181 was better than 10% in the case of ¹¹B, ²³Na, ⁸⁸Sr, ²³⁸U, <15% for ²⁴⁺²⁵Mg, ³⁹K, ⁵⁶Fe, ¹³⁸Ba, 45% for ²⁷Al,
182 and 130% for ⁵⁵Mn. We stress that all of these values are strongly concentration-dependent and may
183 under/overestimate sample data quality depending on the analyte concentration of a given sample
184 analysis.



185 *2.5 Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES)*

186 Minor element analyses for Mg, Sr, Na, Mn, Fe, S, P, Al and Rb were undertaken on selected
187 subsamples of dried, powdered, bulk glendonites using an Agilent 5110 VDV ICP-OES at the Camborne
188 School of Mines, University of Exeter, following the method detailed in Ullmann et al. (2020). The
189 minor element data are expressed as ratios to Ca and calibrated using certified single-element
190 standards mixed to match the chemical composition of the analysed samples. Precision and accuracy
191 of the analyses were measured and controlled by interspersing multiple measurements of
192 international reference materials, JLS-1 and quality control solutions (BCQ2 and BCQ3). Analytical
193 uncertainty of element/Ca ratios in these reference materials is less than 1 % (2 RSD) at concentrations
194 > 100 times the quantification limit (measured as 6 SD of the variability of blank solutions in a batch
195 run, n = 5). For lower concentrations, the uncertainty of individual measurements is similar to the
196 quantification limit, i.e. 6 µmol/mol for Mg/Ca, 0.2 µmol/mol for Sr/Ca, 0.02 mmol/mol for Na/Ca, 5
197 µmol/mol for Mn/Ca, 5 µmol/mol for Fe/Ca, 0.2 mmol/mol for S/Ca, 0.08 mmol/mol for P/Ca, 0.06
198 mmol/mol for Al/Ca, and 0.04 mmol/mol for Rb/Ca.

199 *3.6 Microprobe data, IODP Exp. 396 ashes*

200 A representative selection (n=13) of Exp. 396 ashes from holes U1567A, U1567C, U1568A, U1568B,
201 U1569A, and U1570D were analysed for their major element composition. Individual silicate glass
202 grains were picked and mounted in epoxy for matrix glass analysis. Polished and carbon coated grain
203 mounts were analysed on a Cameca SX100 electron microprobe with 5 wavelength dispersive
204 spectrometers (WDS) at University of Oslo. Analyses were conducted with an accelerating voltage of
205 15 kV and a 10 nA beam current using a defocused beam size of 10 µm. Counting times were 10 s for
206 Na, Si, Cl, K, S, Fe, Al, Mg, and Mn; and 20 for Ca and Ti.

207 *3.7 PHREEQC modelling*

208 The PHREEQC model (version 3; Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013) was used to calculate pore water
209 chemical speciation and saturation indices for Hole U1568A, based on multiple shipboard analyses of
210 interstitial water (Planke et al., 2023). Total alkalinity and pH were measured using an autotitrator,
211 and salinity using a refractometer (Planke et al., 2023). Selected anions (SO_4^{2-} , Br^- , and Cl^-) were
212 analysed using an ion chromatograph (IC), phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) and ammonium (NH_4^+) by
213 spectrophotometry, and a range of cations using inductively coupled plasma–atomic emission
214 spectrometry (ICP-AES) (Exp. 396 Methods, Planke et al., 2023). Several cations were also measured
215 using IC that showed a good correlation with the values obtained by ICP-AES, but the model input



216 values were those from the ICP-AES for consistency. The *in situ* pressures (in atm; 1 atm = 101 kPa)
217 were estimated using the measured water depth of 1707.4 m below surface (mbsl) and a pressure
218 gradient of 0.1 atm/m in the water column. In the subsurface, a pressure gradient of 0.2 atm/m was
219 assumed, giving a pressure of 209 atm at the deepest interstitial water sample depth (192.4 m). The
220 PHREEQC model was run as a batch reactor for each solution, such that pH and p_e were recalibrated
221 based on the chemical information available.

222

223 3. Results

224 3.1 Sedimentological context and hand sample description

225 The glendonites discovered by IODP Expedition 396 are found within several holes of the Modgunn
226 (U1567C and U1568B) and Mimir (U1569A and U1570A) transects (Fig. 2 and Table 1). For the
227 Modgunn transect, the glendonites are all found within the latest Paleocene and PETM-aged
228 hydrothermal vent infilling sediments (Unit IV, Fig. 2), in horizons with the most numerous and thickest
229 ash intervals (Fig. 2). Lithological Unit IV is described as “Dark greenish grey to very dark grey claystone
230 to siltstone, with common volcanic ash beds and light bioturbation” (Planke et al., 2023, p.10 Sites
231 U1567 & U1568). The glendonites in the Mimir cores are found in early Eocene-aged parts of the
232 succession, in Unit Va and Vb of U1570A, also in close association with numerous and thick ash layers.
233 In U1569A the glendonites are found at the very top of Unit Va, some 17 m above the thickest and
234 most numerous ash horizons, although notably in an interval with limited core recovery (Fig. 2), which
235 implies that these sediments may be extremely rich with unconsolidated ash horizons. The sediments
236 of Lithological Unit Va are described as “very dark grey mudstone with sparse parallel lamination and
237 slight bioturbation, with rare limestone intervals and common ash beds”; and those of Vb as “very
238 dark grey mudstone with sparse parallel lamination and slight bioturbation, with common ash beds
239 and diagenetic pyrite.” (Planke et al., 2023, p10 Sites U1569 & U1570). High-resolution logs (5-cm
240 scale) of the glendonite-bearing core sections and photographs of the *in situ* glendonites can be found
241 in the Supplementary Material.

242 3.2 Glendonite morphology

243 The glendonites are variable in size and appearance, with some being cemented or partially cemented
244 (Fig. 3C and F), and some present as an uncemented mush of smaller crystals (Fig. 3A,B,D,E). In some
245 cases, the crystal appears to have grown over and incorporated parts of the host sediment (Fig. 3F),



246 yet in others appears to have either displaced the sediment it was growing in (Fig. 3E), or grew up into
247 the water column with later sedimentation burying it (Fig. 3C). Most show the characteristic shape of
248 stellate or bladed 'crystals', although the individual blades are no longer a single crystal but rather a
249 heterogeneous mix of smaller crystals (Fig. 3). They are generally pale beige to brown in colour,
250 although cemented examples show distinct areas within a cut 'crystal' of grey or white-pale brown
251 carbonate (Fig. 3C,F). Some samples are only small fragments of glendonite, identified by their
252 characteristic bladed shape (e.g. Fig. 3A) and/or the open, porous texture of the carbonate (e.g. Fig.
253 3D). Most of the glendonites are found *in situ*, with the exception of sample U1567C-10X-3, where
254 glendonite fragments were identified entrained in the drill mud (Fig. 3A). Therefore, these fragments
255 could have originated from some short distance away from their final position within the core, likely
256 the large glendonite found in the core below (sample U1567C-11X-1; Fig. 3B).

257 3.2 PXR

258 The PXR analysis of the bulk composition of 5 different glendonites reveal that the glendonites are
259 mostly composed of calcite with a major to minor magnesian calcite component. Minor amounts of
260 quartz, halite, rhodochrosite (MnCO_3) and gypsum were also identified (Table 1 and Supplementary
261 Material Fig. S11).

262 3.3 Microscopy

263 Polished thin sections were examined by light microscopy and revealed several different carbonate
264 phases (Figs. 4 and 5). These have been grouped by appearance (colour, texture, relationship to other
265 phases) and geochemistry (Table 2). Where possible, these phase names are in keeping with previous
266 studies' description of ikaite carbonate phases (e.g. Huggett et al., 2005; Grasby et al., 2016; Vickers
267 et al., 2018; Mikhailova et al., 2021; Scheller et al., 2021; Schultz et al., 2023; Counts et al., *in review*),
268 with the main phase type assigned based on colour and sub-types based on microstructure and
269 geochemical data.

270 3.4 LA ICP-MS

271 The LA ICP-MS trace element data shows that Mg/Ca ratios are distinct on average between the
272 carbonate phases, with Type 1A \leq 1B \leq 2A = 2B \leq 0, albeit with substantial heterogeneity within a
273 phase such that the ranges overlap in most cases (Fig. 6). There is also substantial overlap between
274 types 1 and 2 for all other measured elemental ratios (Fe/Ca, Mn/Ca, Sr/Ca, P/Ca, S/Ca; Fig. 6). The
275 measurements made from the outer hard crust of the glendonite sample from core U1569A-19R-2



276 show the highest Mg/Ca contents of all, and distinctly higher S/Ca than all other carbonate phases.
277 Type 0 has significantly higher Mn/Ca and P/Ca than all other measured calcite phases, and
278 significantly lower S/Ca than other measured carbonate phases (Fig. 6).

279 3.5 ICP-OES

280 Bulk drill-sampled ICP-OES results find that the Exp. 396 glendonites have Mg/Ca ratios in the range
281 of c. 20 - 50 mmol/mol, comparable to the Fur Formation carbonates (Fig 7). Sr/Ca range from 1.5 -
282 1.8 mmol/mol; Fe/Ca from 1.6 - 38 mmol/mol, with an outlier of 165 mmol/mol (1568A 15X 4 55-58);
283 Mn/Ca ratios range from 0.4 - 8.4; P/Ca ratios range from 1.5 - 12.8 mmol/mol; and S/Ca ratios range
284 from 0.8 - 5.5 mmol/mol (Fig. 7).

285 3.6 Microprobe data, 396 ashes

286 The Exp. 396 ashes all have a basaltic tholeiitic composition, similar to the Fur positive series ashes
287 (Fig. 8). However, they have relatively high MgO content ranging from 4.3 to 9.6 wt%, which is
288 generally higher than that of the Fur positive series (3.3-7.1 wt%; Larsen et al., 2003; Stokke et al.,
289 2020b).

290 3.7 PHREEQC modelling

291 Results from the PHREEQC modelling for the interstitial waters are shown in Fig. 9 and in the
292 supplementary data.

293 4. Discussion

294 *Ikaite formation and transformation to glendonite*

295 The general microfabric of the glendonites is similar to that observed in previous work on glendonite
296 and transformed ikaite. Notably, areas of calcite blebs with Type 1A cores with 2A overgrowths are
297 also observed in glendonites from Cretaceous to Recent in age, and in modern transformed ikaites
298 (Huggett et al., 2005; Grasby et al., 2016; Vickers et al., 2018; Mikhailova et al., 2021; Scheller et al.,
299 2021; Schultz et al., 2023). The presence of a hardened carbonate rim is also a common feature of
300 glendonites (Fig. 4) (Grasby et al., 2017; Scheller et al., 2022; Schultz et al., 2023; Counts et al., *in*
301 *review*). However, the green Type 0 calcite identified in this study has not been observed in other
302 glendonite thin sections, and appears to be both visually and chemically distinct from the other calcite
303 phases measured in the Exp. 396 glendonites (Fig. 6).



304 Based on the geochemical data, we suggest the following model for the sequential formation of the
305 various calcite phases, as illustrated in Fig. 10:

306 Stage 1: The ikaite grew in the sediments, at or just below the sediment-water interface. The Type 0
307 phase appears to have grown directly onto/against the surface of an ikaite crystal, prior to its
308 decomposition, suggesting it may represent the earliest preserved phase present (Fig. 10).

309 Stage 2: Chemical and thermal conditions changed as burial continued, and the ikaite started to break
310 down (Fig. 10). The formation of 1A blebs began during the recrystallisation reaction, preferentially
311 excluding Mg from the crystal structure, leading to a highly localised increase of Mg^{2+} in the pore
312 waters. Where breakdown was rapid, larger areas of Type 1B formed, including more Mg in the
313 structure than 1A due to the rapidity of the reaction. Then, Types 2A and 2B grew, incorporating more
314 Mg into the calcite structure than the Types 1 due to its now higher concentration in the local waters.

315 Stage 3: An undetermined length of time later, after continued burial, Type 3 fibrous syntaxial and/or
316 isopachous sparry calcite forms in some of the pore spaces in the ikaite, growing from the surface of
317 Types 1 and/or 2 calcite phases (Fig. 10). Note that all phases grouped as Types 1 and 2 are believed
318 to have formed directly from ikaite (i.e. the $CaCO_3$ is believed to have been entirely or dominantly
319 sourced directly from the ikaite), whereas we propose that the Type 3 calcite formed from a later
320 diagenetic fluid (e.g. Vickers et al., 2020; Counts et al., *in review*). This is based on microfabric and
321 geochemical (elemental and isotopic) data that suggests a very different source fluid. There is very
322 little Type 3 calcite in the Exp. 396 glendonites; much less than is observed in those of the Fur
323 Formation (Vickers et al., 2020). The variable proportion of Type 3 calcite in glendonite is likely
324 responsible for the observed higher bulk Mg/Ca, Mn/Ca and P/Ca ratios than in transformed modern
325 ikaite (Fig. 7).

326 *Relationship to North Atlantic volcanism and timing of ikaite formation*

327 The glendonites of the Exp. 396 cores are found in latest Paleocene, PETM, and (post-PETM) early
328 Eocene-age sediments, within or just above the intervals containing the most numerous and thickest
329 ash layers (Fig. 2 and 11). The only other reported glendonites from this time interval (Paleocene and
330 early Eocene) are also found in the Nordic Seas region, close to the eruptive sites of the North Atlantic
331 Igneous Province (NAIP). Glendonites have been identified in both Paleocene and Eocene strata in
332 Svalbard (Spielhagen and Tripathi, 2009; Cui et al., 2021), and in early Eocene strata in northern
333 Denmark (Huggett et al., 2005; Vickers et al., 2020; Fig. 1). In the Danish Paleogene successions,
334 glendonites are only found within the early Eocene Fur Formation that contains over 140 macroscopic



335 ash layers of dominantly tholeiitic basalt composition (Fig. 11; Stokke et al., 2020b; Vickers et al.,
336 2020). The Fur Formation corresponds to the ash-rich Balder and Tare formations offshore in the
337 North Sea and Norwegian margin, respectively (King, 2016). The close stratigraphic association with
338 ash layers within the Nordic Basins suggests that ash deposition and/or diagenesis may play a critical
339 role in ikaite precipitation, in contrast to ikaites found in most modern settings. In modern marine
340 sedimentary settings, the breakdown of sedimentary C_{org} via sulphate reduction, and/or the anaerobic
341 oxidation of methane (AOM) are thought to play a key role in ikaite precipitation, largely because the
342 low $\delta^{13}C$ values measured in ikaites and glendonites suggest an organic or methanogenic source of
343 carbon (e.g. Rogov et al., 2021 and references therein), and also because these organic matter
344 decomposition processes generate DIC (Whiticar et al. 2022). Yet, for ikaite to be precipitated over
345 the more stable $CaCO_3$ polymorphs, factors inhibiting calcite and promoting ikaite precipitation are
346 also required. These may include high alkalinity, high concentrations of phosphate and/or Mg^{2+} , and
347 low temperatures (Rickaby et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2015; Purgstaller et al., 2017; Stockmann et al.,
348 2018). Volcanic eruptions and subsequent ash deposition may have played a key role in generating
349 such conditions, via both volcanically-driven, short-term climate cooling (e.g. Robock et al., 2000;
350 Schmidt et al., 2016; Stokke et al., 2020a), and through rapid diagenesis of these ashes generating the
351 chemical conditions in the pore waters that could have promoted ikaite precipitation (e.g. Gislason
352 and Oelkers, 2011; Olsson et al., 2014; Murray et al., 2018). Indeed, ikaite and other carbonates were
353 discovered as travertine in the Hvanná river in the vicinity of the Eyjafjallajökull volcano shortly after
354 eruptive activity began in Spring of 2010 (Olsson et al., 2014).

355 Compositional data from Exp. 396 shows that the ashes, like those from the Fur positive series (Stokke
356 et al., 2020b), are tholeiitic (Fig. 8). Basaltic volcanic material undergoes rapid chemical weathering
357 (e.g. Gislason and Oelkers, 2011), thus we suggest that the chemical alteration of these tholeiitic ashes
358 could have generated the chemical conditions which promoted ikaite formation, which may include
359 increasing alkalinity and $[Ca^{2+}]$, driving changes in aqueous Mg/Ca (e.g. Gislason and Oelkers, 2011;
360 Olsson et al., 2014; Purgstaller et al., 2017; Murray et al., 2018; Tollefsen et al., 2020). Pore waters
361 from recovered cores were taken on-board at low resolution and geochemically analysed (Planke et
362 al., 2023). These measurements reflect the conditions in the core interstitial waters today, some c. 55
363 million years since deposition, and therefore do not reflect conditions immediately prior to ikaite
364 precipitation. Nonetheless, these pore water profiles may provide remnant signatures of post-
365 depositional processes and therefore shed light on how ash diagenesis may have altered local pore
366 water chemistry, promoting ikaite precipitation.



367 The pore water profiles show a strong, sharp change in pH and carbon speciation across the ash-
368 bearing intervals, likely a retained signal of the dissolution/leaching of the ashes themselves (Fig. 11).
369 While pore water chemistry certainly continued to evolve over the last 55 million years, the signature
370 of ash diagenesis on early Paleogene pore waters may have been effectively retained, being buffered
371 against later fluid flow and associated later overprinting reactions by the over- and under-lying clay-
372 rich strata (Planke et al., 2023; Fig. 2). High smectite contents formed from the weathering of silicate
373 material such as basaltic ash both *in situ* and in terrestrial catchment areas, can result in ‘aquitard’
374 deposits characterised by very low permeability and low effective porosity (Hendry et al., 2015). This
375 allows large concentration gradients to develop within the sediment pile, as documented along ash-
376 rich margins globally (Torres et al. 1995 and references therein). The major fluctuations in pH,
377 alkalinity, and Ca/Mg ratios across these ash-rich intervals at Modgunn and Mimir (Longman et al., *in*
378 *review*; Planke et al., 2023) suggests that these pore waters are likely to have evolved in semi-isolation
379 from over- and underlying strata. Therefore, if the pore water system is closed, the evolution of the
380 pore water chemistry may be limited. Alternatively, long-term diagenesis of ash minerals may be
381 continually altering pore water chemistry across these intervals with some diffusive exchange across
382 the low-permeability clay boundaries, yet still providing an indication of the degree to which ash
383 alteration may impact fluid composition. Pore water measurements through selected cores show that
384 the glendonite-bearing levels associated with volcanic ash are coincident with relatively elevated pH
385 and lower alkalinity, although alkalinity change across ash-rich intervals is less abrupt (Fig. 11). The
386 carbonate chemistry of these pore waters is controlled by a complex balance between CaCO_3
387 dissolution/precipitation, respiration of organic carbon, and at these sites, probably by alkalinity
388 generation from the dissolution of ash (Longman et al. 2021). As such, it is difficult to ascribe the
389 observed pore water carbonate chemistry changes (Fig. 11) to any one process. However, the
390 relatively high pH and low alkalinity relative to the over- and underlying mud-rich sediments is
391 consistent with alkalinity generation via ash dissolution, resulting in increased TAlk and pH, being
392 counteracted by CaCO_3 precipitation, drawing down carbonate alkalinity. Our observation of abundant
393 CaCO_3 in the form of ikaite and later diagenetic phases in these ash-rich sediments is consistent with
394 this hypothesis. Further, PHREEQC simulations indicate a clear difference in carbonate speciation
395 across ash-rich, glendonite bearing intervals with lower $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{aq}}$, and higher $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$ and $[\text{CaCO}_3^0]$ (Fig.
396 9) compared with surrounding intervals. Aragonite and calcite saturation indices go from under- to
397 oversaturated, and dolomite shows enhanced oversaturation, across these intervals (Fig. 9).

398 *Timing and conceptual model for ikaite growth*



399 Zhou et al. (2015) examined modern marine sedimentary ikaite bearing sites and identified “Ikaite
400 Formation Zones” (IFZs) based on where the decreasing $[Ca^{2+}]$ downcore profile intersects the
401 increasing DIC profile (calculated by maximum $[Ca^{2+}] \times DIC$). The IFZ is thus highly variable, as it
402 depends on the amount of organic matter (carbon source) present, which in turn is linked to processes
403 such as sedimentation rate and primary productivity. In modern settings, this is generally between 2
404 – 15 m within the sediment pile (Zhou et al., 2015). In the early Paleogene Norwegian Margin, infill
405 sedimentation rates of hydrothermal vent complex craters were very high. Taking the very
406 conservative estimate of a hydrothermal vent infill duration of 43 kyr for the Modgunn crater (Berndt
407 et al., 2023), the glendonite-bearing horizons for the vent infill cores would have been at depths of
408 below 15 m within 8 kyr for Hole U1568A and 16.5 kyr for Hole U1567C. For sediments such as those
409 encountered in Modgunn and Mimir, the primary driver of DIC and $[Ca^{2+}]$ is believed to be diagenesis
410 of the ashes rather than organic matter (e.g. Gislason and Oelkers, 2011). Given that the diagenesis of
411 fresh volcanic material occurs very rapidly after deposition (on timescales of shorter than a month;
412 Hembury et al., 2012; Olsson et al., 2014), the ikaite formation zones are likely to have been much
413 shallower than 15 m at the time of ikaite precipitation, possibly near the sediment-water interface.
414 Observations on the relationship between the Exp. 396 glendonites and the host sediments support
415 this theory. For example, it can be seen that the pale grey sediment is displaced immediately around
416 the glendonite shown in Fig. 3E, yet an ash layer 2 cm above shows no displacement. In Fig. 3F, the
417 pale grey sediment that the glendonite has grown in is displaced, yet the ash that is deposited on top,
418 two thirds up the height of the glendonite, shows no displacement at the top, suggesting the top of
419 the ikaite crystal was potentially protruding into the water column from the seafloor at the time of
420 the ash fall. Therefore, it can be deduced that these parent ikaites grew in the soft sediment prior to
421 compaction, possibly just centimetres below the sediment-water interface. In the Danish succession,
422 similar “boudinage” textures are observed around both glendonites and tree branch fossils in the Fur
423 Formation (Schultz et al., 2022). This indicates that the ikaites grew at or close to the sediment-water
424 interface, as they exhibit the same relationship to the host sediment as tree branches that came to
425 rest on top of or sticking into the top few centimetres or decimetres of sediment. In case of the Exp.
426 396 glendonites, which occur in rapidly deposited sediments, the parent ikaites must have grown
427 quickly, on timescales of years, for these relationships to be observed. Modern ikaites have been
428 known to grow to cm-scale crystals on timescales of months to years (Boch et al., 2015; Schultz et al.,
429 2022, 2023), suggesting that this is indeed possible. In one case, one month after final construction of
430 a concrete riverbed in Alpine Austria, cm-thick ikaite crystal aggregates were discovered to have
431 formed (Boch et al., 2015); in another instance, ikaite crystals 3 cm long were found growing next to



432 a reservoir causeway in Utqiagvik, Alaska, some 3 years after its construction (Schultz et al., 2022;
433 2023).

434 Thus, we argue that the parent ikaite to Exp. 396 glendonites grew on geologically synchronous
435 timescales to the sediments in which they are found. Their occurrence and rapid growth during the
436 Paleocene-Eocene greenhouse climate were likely facilitated by the unique conditions near the active
437 NAIP. We propose a scenario in which the chemical environment that stabilised ikaite was provided
438 by the early and rapid diagenesis of the (frequent) ashes deposited from the NAIP. At the same time,
439 volcanism may have also played a critical role in driving short-term (c. sub-decadal
440 scale) cooling which additionally helped promote the formation of ikaite.

441 Paleotemperature estimates from carbonate clumped isotope thermometry of the glendonites from
442 northern Denmark, and via sedimentary lipid biomarkers, show intervals of cooling which are
443 apparently at odds with global records (e.g. Frieling et al., 2014; Evans et al., 2018; Sluijs et al., 2020;
444 Westerhold et al., 2020; Meckler et al., 2022). Specifically, clumped isotope temperatures from the
445 early Eocene Danish glendonites have been interpreted as recording cold bottom water temperatures
446 for this < 200 m deep basin (1 ± 5 and 9 ± 4 °C; Vickers et al., 2020), and sharp, short-lasting cooling
447 was found in reconstructed near-surface temperatures (reconstructed using lipid biomarker proxies)
448 in the Paleocene-Eocene of the Danish succession (near-surface temperatures dropped below 15 °C;
449 summarised in Jones et al., 2023). This has led to speculation that short, sharp, transient cooling
450 events occurred, possibly only on a regional scale, or most pronounced, in the Nordic Seas (Stokke et
451 al., 2020a; Vickers et al., 2020). Evidence for sudden/short duration cooling is absent from some
452 nearby sites from similar time periods (e.g. Belgian/Paris basin, Evans et al., 2018; West Siberian Sea
453 and the Arctic, Frieling et al., 2014 and references therein), all of which were characterised by SST of
454 ~20-30°C during this time. This further highlights that the very cool temperatures indicated by the
455 presence of glendonites in this region must presumably be a localised or extremely transient
456 phenomenon. Such regional cooling episodes may result from, for example, a series of short-lived
457 volcanic ‘winters’ caused by sulphur degassing during effusive and explosive eruptions (Robock et al.,
458 2000; Schmidt et al., 2016; Stokke et al., 2020a). Given the sub-decadal residence time of sulphur in
459 the atmosphere, this climate forcing would require many closely-spaced eruptions to maintain its
460 cooling effect on timescales of centuries to millennia (Jones et al., 2016). However, since ikaite appears
461 to have grown very rapidly in some of the successions in the Nordic Seas, a growth rate of this
462 magnitude does not seem implausible.



463 In addition to possible volcanically-driven regional climatic events, the unique paleogeography of the
464 region were likely critical for providing the conditions required for ikaite formation. The Nordic Seas
465 were a series of hydrographically and/or geographically semi-restricted, relatively shallow basins with
466 varying connectivity to the Atlantic, Tethys, and Arctic oceans across the Paleocene–Eocene interval
467 (Fig. 1), with several lines of evidence suggesting that maximum restriction occurred in the post-PETM
468 early Eocene (Zacke et al., 2009; Hovikoski et al., 2021; Jones et al., 2023). Such restricted conditions
469 could imply bottom waters in individual basins (simultaneously or at different times) may have been
470 effectively isolated from the global ocean. Without sufficient exchange with the global ocean, bottom
471 waters colder than the global deep ocean, that may have formed during transient cool conditions such
472 as volcanic winters, could have led to the formation of a cold bottom layer in a heavily stratified water
473 column in the Nordic Sea basins for a prolonged period. Finally, the thermal uplift and emplacement
474 of a continental flood basalt province created an extensive high-altitude plateau to the west of the
475 shallow seaways that marked the region, which is likely to have altered the positioning, oscillation,
476 and intensity of the Paleogene northern hemisphere jet stream (Jones et al., 2023). While no studies
477 have investigated this potential effect, it is reasonable to assume that a regional microclimate was
478 likely present in the Nordic Seas at this time. It is possible that a combination of factors led to a bias
479 towards the recording of winter temperatures in the bottom waters of the basin (Vickers et al., 2020).
480 If a long, severe cooling forcing such as a sustained volcanic winter occurred, cooling of the surface
481 waters could eventually have triggered a dense water cascade, bringing these cold, dense waters to
482 the bottom of the basin system. Being restricted and stratified, these cold waters could potentially
483 have remained at the bottom of the basin system for a long time (years) (e.g. Vickers et al., 2020) such
484 that, together with ample volcanic ash supply, it seems plausible that the local conditions coincided
485 to create the necessary conditions for ikaite growth in a hothouse climate.

486 5. Conclusions

487 Glendonites are found throughout the Late Paleocene and early Eocene sediments from the IODP Exp.
488 396 cores, including those deposited during the PETM, and closely associated with the volcanic ashes
489 from the nearby NAIP. High-resolution examination and sedimentary logging of these cores reveals
490 ten glendonite horizons, six in the post-PETM sections recovered from the Mimir transect, three from
491 the PETM interval of the hydrothermal vent infill collected in the Modgunn Transect, and one from
492 the pre-PETM interval of this hydrothermal vent infill. Observations of their relationship to their host
493 sediments suggest they grew within centimetres of the sediment-water interface, sometimes even
494 protruding into the water column. Based on known time-scales of ash diagenesis and ikaite growth,
495 we argue that the parent ikaites grew rapidly, within timescales of years to decades after ash



496 deposition. Examination of thin-sections of the glendonites via a number of geochemical methods
497 reveals that the Exp. 396 glendonites show a range of carbonate phases, including fabrics not
498 previously observed in other glendonites nor transformed natural ikaite. These features suggest that
499 their parent ikaite growth environment was unusual even for ikaite, and the leaching and rapid early
500 diagenesis of the NAIP volcanic ashes likely generated the required pore water conditions that
501 stabilised ikaite over other calcium carbonate polymorphs. Paleothermometry studies for the Nordic
502 Seas Region during this time suggest that seawater temperatures were punctuated by remarkably
503 cold, short-term events, although no such temperature deviations have been found outside of this
504 region. Glendonites are also found in the Paleocene and Eocene succession of Svalbard, and in the
505 early Eocene (post-PETM) succession of Denmark, but nowhere outside of this semi-enclosed shallow
506 basin.

507 The close association of glendonites to ash in the Exp. 396 succession, and likewise in the early Eocene
508 of Denmark, along with biomarker and clumped isotope thermometry evidence of episodic transient
509 cooling events, supports our theory that the eruptive phases of the NAIP led to ikaite precipitation in
510 the Nordic Seas region. This was both a chemical and thermal effect: the early diagenesis of the ashes
511 likely drove pore water conditions chemically favourable to ikaite, and the eruptions could have
512 caused transient volcanic winters that were much colder than the prevailing background climate of
513 the time. The unique paleogeography of the region may have led to the basin bottom waters being
514 biased towards these anomalously cold temperatures for years or even decades, allowing the ikaites
515 to grow to the centimetre to >decimetre sizes we observe. Further work is required to test this
516 hypothesis, including detailed, high resolution multi-proxy temperature reconstructions e.g. via
517 clumped isotope thermometry of the glendonites themselves, and biomarker and palynological
518 assemblage-based temperature reconstructions for the sediments of these cores.

519 **Figures and Tables**

520 **Figure 1: (A)** Paleogeographic map of the Nordic Seas region with North Atlantic Igneous Province
521 volcanism shown, after Jones et al. (2023). Location of all known Paleocene – Eocene glendonite
522 bearing sites marked – Exp. 396 Modgunn and Mimir cores (this study); Paleogene-Eocene sediments
523 of Svalbard (Spielhagen and Tripati, 2009), and early Eocene Fur Formation of northern Denmark
524 (Vickers et al., 2020). **(B)** High-resolution 3-D seismic data for holes 1568 and 1567 along the Modgunn
525 transect (from Planke et al., 2023). **(C)** High-resolution 3-D seismic data for holes 1569 and 1570 along
526 the Mimir Transect (from Planke et al., 2023). Holes from which glendonites were recovered are
527 shown in red. PETM intervals are shown in yellow.



528 **Figure 2:** Overview logs of the cores with glendonite horizons marked by the red glendonite cartoon.
529 (A) The Mimir (U1569 - U1570) transect, from Planke et al. (2023). For the correlations between cores,
530 all ties (solid black lines) are supported by lithologic change and biostratigraphic zonation. The dashed
531 line represents correlation by lithologic change within a biostratigraphic zone, aiming to tie Hole
532 U1570C to Hole U1570D (Planke et al., 2023). (B) The Modgunn (U1567 - U1568) transect, from Planke
533 et al. (2023). Core sections of PETM age are highlighted in yellow, and the hydrothermal vent infill
534 (e.g. Fig. 1B) is shown in grey. All correlations between cores are supported by lithologic change,
535 biostratigraphic zonation, and carbon isotope stratigraphy (Berndt et al., 2023).

536 **Figure 3:** Photographs of glendonites *in situ* in the cores from the Modgunn and Mimir transects. **(A)**
537 Glendonite fragments in drill mud from 1567C-10X-3 40-45 (MLV 86). **(B)** Glendonite from section
538 1567C-11X-1 94-95 (MLV 57, 97). **(C)** Cemented glendonite from section 1569A-19R-2 54-62 (MLV 90).
539 **(D)** Glendonite from section 1570A-15R-1 108-112 (MLV 92). **(E)** Glendonite fragment in 1570A-15R-1
540 22-25 (MLV 91). **(F)** Glendonite from section 1570A-25R-1 (MLV 93).

541 **Figure 4:** Photomicrographs of polished thin sections from selected Exp. 396 glendonites. The blue
542 background colour is derived from the resin rather than the glendonite. **(A)** and **(B)** show the typical
543 harder outer rim with more porous centre characteristic of transformed ikaite (e.g. Schultz et al.,
544 2023). Red dots labelled 8, 9 and 10 are spots where LA ICP-MS analysis was performed. The
545 glendonites commonly show areas of different calcite types defined by colour, which are often hard
546 to place into the “traditional” carbonate phase types seen in other glendonites (e.g. Huggett et al.,
547 2005; Vickers et al., 2018). **(C)** shows a distinct boundary between white Type 2B calcite and brown
548 Type 1B calcite, neither of which show zoning defined by colour or porosity. **(D)** shows the sharp
549 boundary between green Type 0 carbonate, with black dendritic surface growth, and other calcite
550 phases. The shape of the sharp boundary that Type 0 defines on one side suggests that Type 0 grew
551 on the surface of and out from an ikaite crystal, which later broke down to leave void space and
552 patches of Type 1B with 2B overgrowths. **(E)** and **(F)** show patches of more typical zoned calcite blebs,
553 here labelled 1A and 2A, which appear to fit into the traditional categories of “Type I” (zoned brown
554 calcite forming the centre of the blebs) and “Type II” (zoned pale overgrowths on Type I; e.g. Vickers
555 et al., 2018; Schultz et al., 2023). **(G)** Apparent reversal of the “typical” glendonite fabric, whereby the
556 central area of the calcite blebs is pale/white Type 2B and the overgrowth brown Type 1B calcite. This
557 contrasts with **(H)** which shows dark Type 1A with white Type 2A overgrowths.

558 **Figure 5:** Light microscopy, SEM photomicrographs and EDS element maps from thin sections of
559 glendonites at 1569A-19R-2 and 1567C-11X-1. **(A)** Overview under plane polarised light of the area



560 examined for glendonite at 1569A-19R-2, with the carbonate phases labelled. **(B)** BSE image of the
561 same area. Higher porosity in the Type 1 can be seen. **(C)** BSE image of zoomed in area of Type 2B with
562 Type 1B overgrowth. Higher porosity of Type 1 is again clear. **(D)** EDS map showing Mg distribution
563 across calcite types 1B and 2B, overlaid on the BSE photomicrograph. **(E)** The same map without the
564 BSE photomicrograph **(F)** EDS map showing Mg distribution across calcite types 1A, 2A and 2B. **(G)**
565 Overview under plane polarised light of the area examined for glendonite at 1567C-11X-1. **(H)** BSE
566 image of the same area, with pop-out **(I)** showing the microcrystalline nature of Type 0. **(J)**
567 Magnification of the same area with types 1B and 2B calcite under BSE. **(K)** EDS element map showing
568 the Mg distribution across the same area.

569 **Figure 6:** LA ICP-MS element/Ca data for points across the Exp. 396 glendonite polished thin sections.
570 The data have been grouped according to the calcite types described in the main text and in the
571 preceding figures. Photomicrograph showing the location points 8 – 11 from outer edge inwards are
572 shown bottom right, and also in Fig. 4A. Photomicrographs showing the location of all the individual
573 points measured may be found in the Supplementary Material.

574 **Figure 7:** Element/Ca ratios of the Exp. 396 glendonites and associated calcites compared to published
575 ICP-OES data for other glendonite-bearing sites.

576 **Figure 8: (A)** A Total Alkali Silica (TAS) plot comparing the Exp. 396 ashes (this study) to published data
577 for both positive (Stokke et al. 2020b) and negative (Larsen et al., 2003) ash series of the Fur Formation
578 in northern Denmark. The Exp. 396 ashes and Fur positive series fall into the basaltic fields, whereas
579 the Fur negative series show much more variation and have overall more felsic compositions. Note
580 that while the Fur positive series data are microprobe analyses of matrix glass, the Fur Negative series
581 data are whole rock data. However, the whole rock samples were leached of clay prior to analysis and
582 no significant dilution is expected. **(B)** Ternary Alkali-Iron-Magnesium (AFM) diagram showing that the
583 basaltic ashes from both the Exp. 396 sites and the Fur positive series are tholeiitic basalts. Note that
584 many of the Exp. 396 ashes have higher MgO content than the Fur positive ashes.

585 **Figure 9:** PHREEQC simulation results for the U1568A core, which spans the hydrothermal vent infill
586 (grey highlight labelled 'HTV'). Note that HCO_3^- (the major species) is not shown.

587 **Figure 10:** Schematic of ikaite transformation in the Exp. 396 cores, adapted from Counts et al. (*in*
588 *review*) based on observed textural relationships and geochemistry of the calcite phases in the Exp.
589 396 glendonites.



590 **Figure 11: (A)** Relative position of glendonites in the Paleocene-Eocene sediments of selected cores
591 from the mid-Norwegian Margin, Exp. 396, compared to measured ash thicknesses. Pore water
592 alkalinity and pH data (Planke et al., 2023) are also shown. Pale grey indicates the PETM-aged intervals
593 in the stratigraphy. Note that for U1569A, core recovery was poor, particularly in the bottom, ash-
594 bearing part (see Fig. 2). High ash contents lead to lower core recovery as they are coarse-grained and
595 unlithified; therefore it is likely that there were much more numerous and thicker ash horizons in the
596 interval between 18R and 37R (c. 180 – 340 mbsf). (B) Relative position of glendonites in the
597 Paleocene-Eocene sediments of Northern Denmark, compared to ash thicknesses per metre (Jones et
598 al., 2023). Glendonite horizons for the Fur Formation are from Vickers et al., (2020) (solid lines) and
599 dashed line as identified by Henrik Friis, pers. comm. Pale grey indicates the end of the body of the
600 PETM carbon isotope excursion (Jones et al., 2023). The recovery phase is between ashes -33 and -
601 21a. SC = Stolleklint Clay.

602 **Table 1:** Glendonites of the Exp. 396 cores, PXRD data from bulk glendonite analysis, element/Ca
603 ratios.

604 **Table 2:** Descriptions of the different carbonate phases observed within the glendonites through thin
605 section microscopic and geochemical analysis (light microscopy, SEM, EDS and LA-ICP-MS).

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611 **Author contribution**

612 MLV designed the study, undertook sampling and high-resolution logging, photographed and
613 examined thin-sections under a light microscope and SEM, co-ran LA-ICPMS analysis, lead the writing
614 of the manuscript.

615 MTJ undertook PHREEQC modelling, assisted in the interpretation of the data and co-wrote the
616 manuscript.

617 JL undertook the ash thickness measurements, assisted in the interpretation of the data, co-wrote the
618 manuscript and assisted with the logging and sampling.



619 DE ran the LA-ICPMS and assisted in the interpretation of the data and writing of the manuscript.

620 CVU undertook the ICP-OES analysis.

621 ES carried out microprobe analysis of the ashes and plotting of this data.

622 MV undertook the PXRD analysis.

623 JF assisted in the interpretation of the data and co-wrote the manuscript.

624 DTH assisted in the interpretation of the data and co-wrote the manuscript.

625 VJC assisted in the interpretation of the pore-water data and co-wrote the manuscript.

626 IODP E396 S: undertook drilling of the cores, all shipboard analysis, and sampling.

627 **Competing interests**

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

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641 contribution No. 136.

642 **References**



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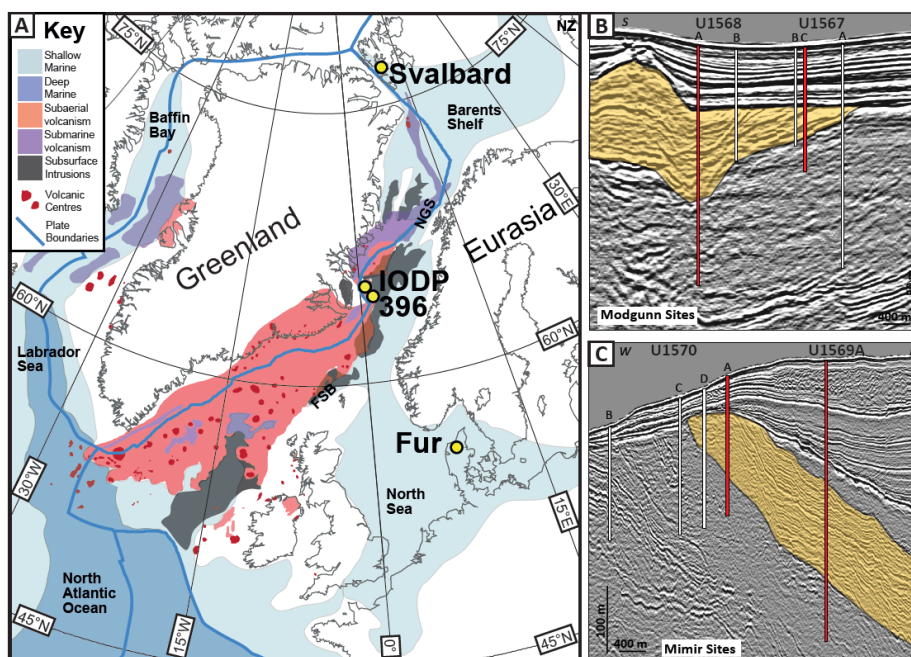


Figure 1: (A) Paleogeographic map of the Nordic Seas region with North Atlantic Igneous Province volcanism shown, after Jones et al. (2023). Location of all known Paleocene – Eocene glendonite bearing sites marked – Exp. 396 Modgunn and Mimir cores (this study); Paleogene-Eocene sediments of Svalbard (Spielhagen and Tripathi, 2009), and early Eocene Fur Formation of northern Denmark (Vickers et al., 2020). (B) High-resolution 3-D seismic data for holes 1568 and 1567 along the Modgunn transect (from Planke et al., 2023). (C) High-resolution 3-D seismic data for holes 1569 and 1570 along the Mimir Transect (from Planke et al., 2023). Holes from which glendonites were recovered are shown in red. PETM intervals are shown in yellow.

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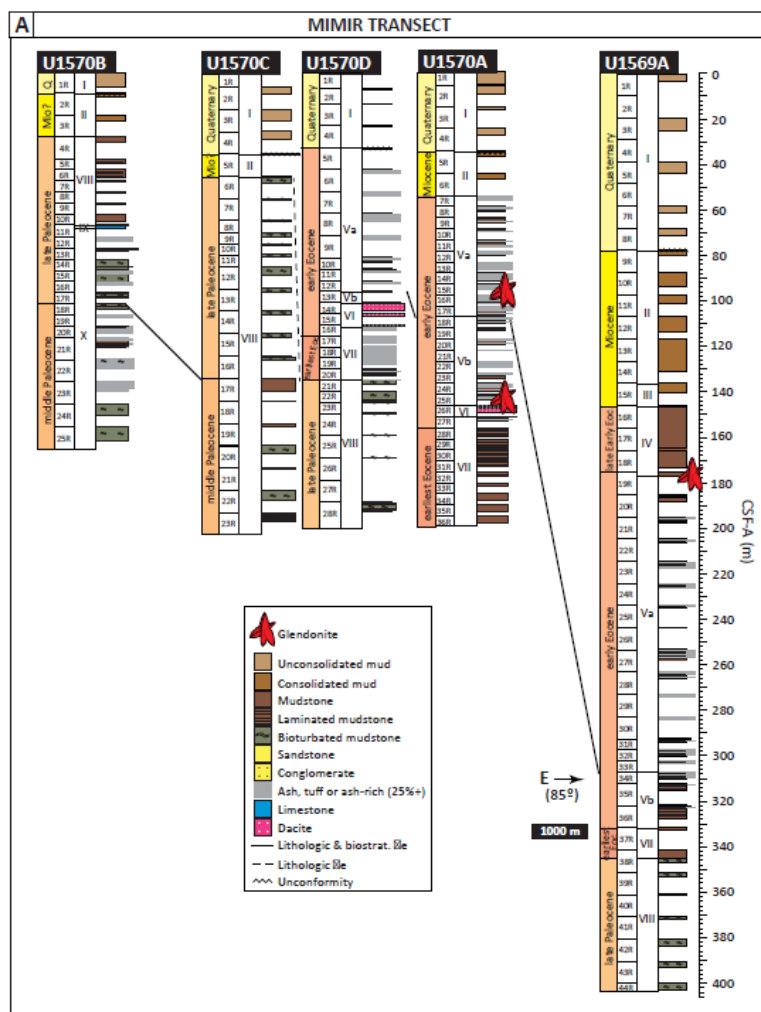
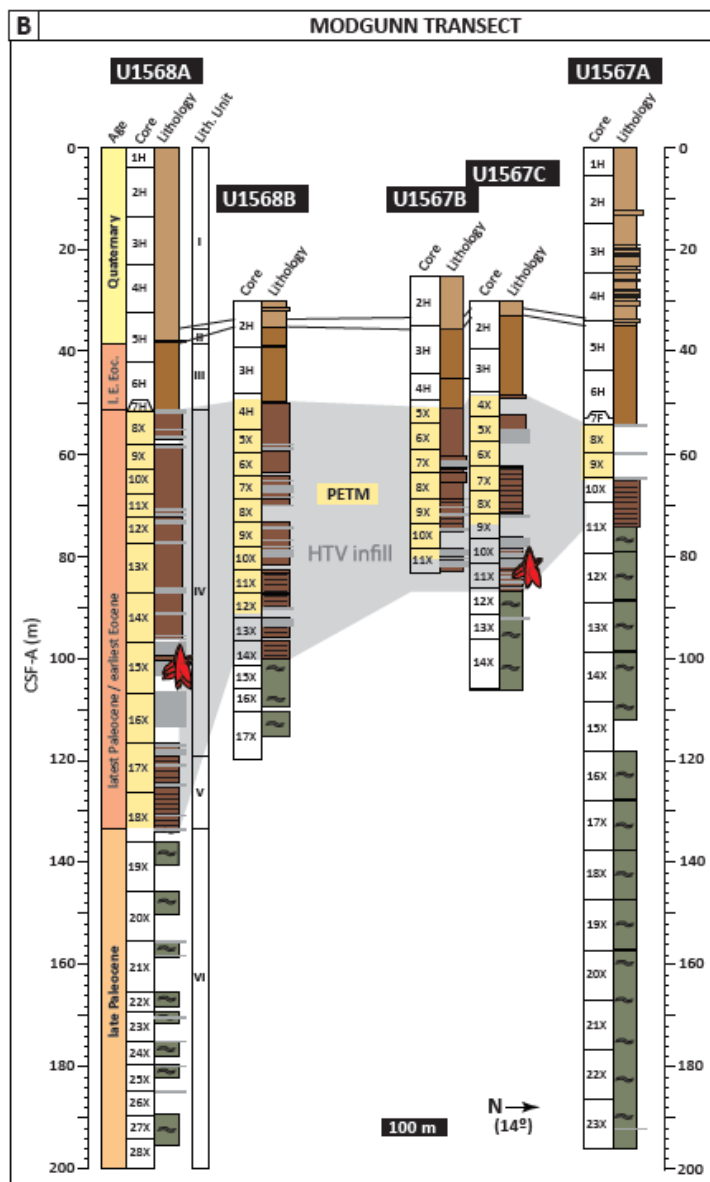


Figure 2: Overview logs of the cores with glendonite horizons marked by the red glendonite cartoon. (A) The Mimir (U1569 - U1570) transect, from Planke et al. (2023). For the correlations between cores, all ties (solid black lines) are supported by lithologic change and biostratigraphic zonation. The dashed line represents correlation by lithologic change within a biostratigraphic zone, aiming to tie Hole U1570C to Hole U1570D (Planke et al., 2023). (B) The Modgunn (U1567 - U1568) transect, from Planke et al. (2023). Core sections of PETM age are highlighted in yellow, and the hydrothermal vent infill (e.g. Fig. 1B) is shown in grey. All correlations between cores are supported by lithologic change, biostratigraphic zonation, and carbon isotope stratigraphy (Berndt et al., 2023).



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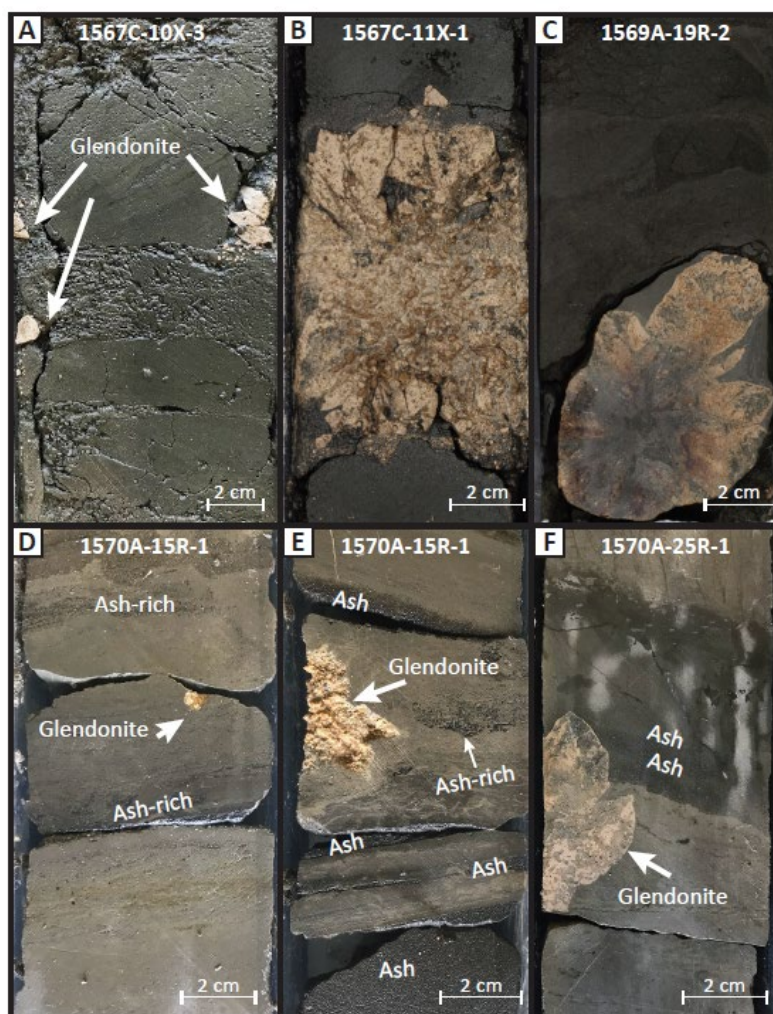
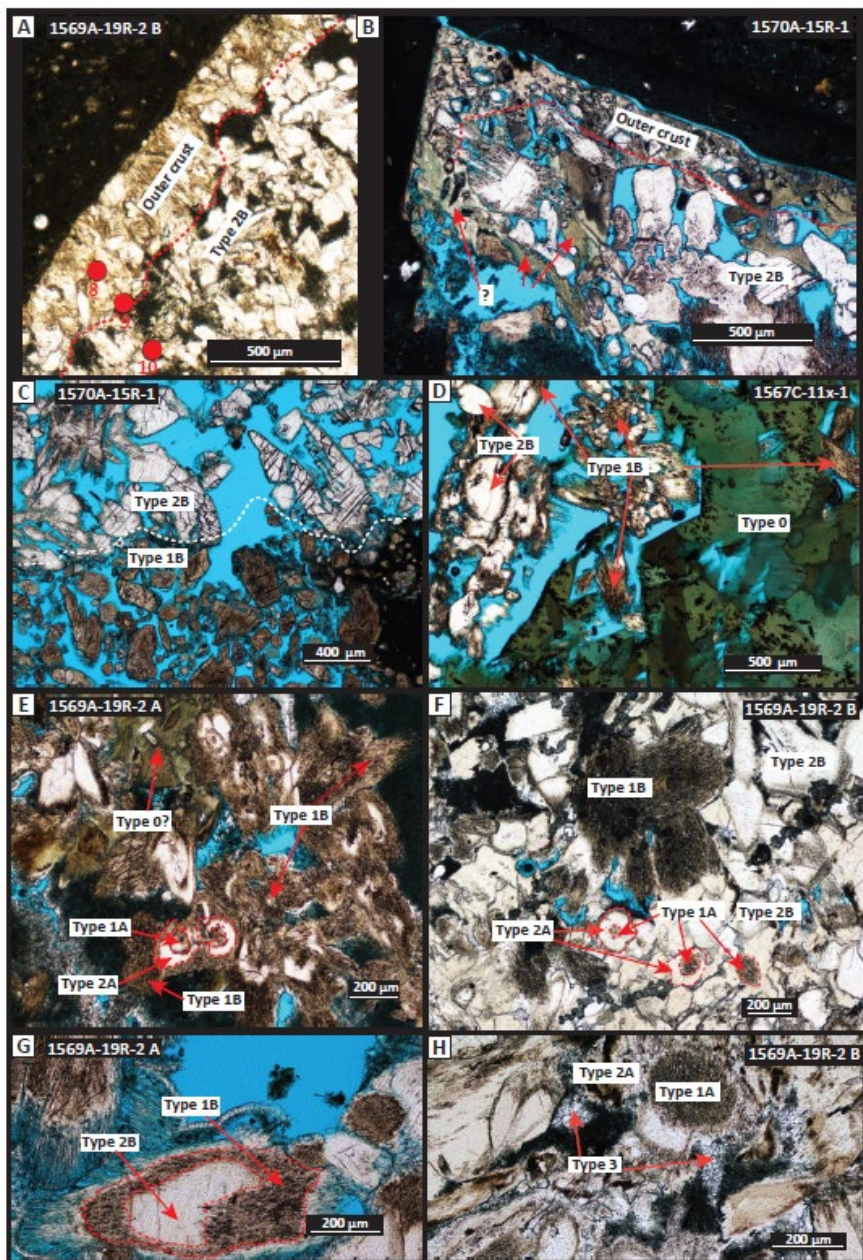


Figure 3: Photographs of glendonites *in situ* in the cores from the Modgunn and Mimir transects. **(A)** Glendonite fragments in drill mud from 1567C-10X-3 40-45 (MLV 86). **(B)** Glendonite from section 1567C-11X-1 94-95 (MLV 57, 97). **(C)** Cemented glendonite from section 1569A-19R-2 54-62 (MLV 90). **(D)** Glendonite from section 1570A-15R-1 108-112 (MLV 92). **(E)** Glendonite fragment in 1570A-15R-1 22-25 (MLV 91). **(F)** Glendonite from section 1570A-25R-1 (MLV 93).



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Figure 4: Photomicrographs of polished thin sections from selected Exp. 396 glendonites. The blue background colour is derived from the resin rather than the glendonite. **(A)** and **(B)** show the typical harder outer rim with more porous centre characteristic of transformed ikaite (e.g. Schultz et al., 2023). Red dots labelled 8, 9 and 10 are spots where LA ICP-MS analysis was performed. The glendonites commonly show areas of different calcite types defined by colour, which are often hard to place into the “traditional” carbonate phase types seen in other glendonites (e.g. Huggett et al., 2005; Vickers et al., 2018). **(C)** shows a distinct boundary between white Type 2B calcite and brown Type 1B calcite, neither of which show zoning defined by colour or porosity. **(D)** shows the sharp boundary between green Type 0 carbonate, with black dendritic surface growth, and other calcite phases. The shape of the sharp boundary that Type 0 defines on one side suggests that Type 0 grew on the surface of and out from an ikaite crystal, which later broke down to leave void space and patches of Type 1B with 2B overgrowths. **(E)** and **(F)** show patches of more typical zoned calcite blebs, here labelled 1A and 2A, which appear to fit into the traditional categories of “Type I” (zoned brown calcite forming the centre of the blebs) and “Type II” (zoned pale overgrowths on Type I; e.g. Vickers et al., 2018; Schultz et al., 2023). **(G)** Apparent reversal of the “typical” glendonite fabric, whereby the central area of the calcite blebs is pale/white Type 2B and the overgrowth brown Type 1B calcite. This contrasts with **(H)** which shows dark Type 1A with white Type 2A overgrowths.



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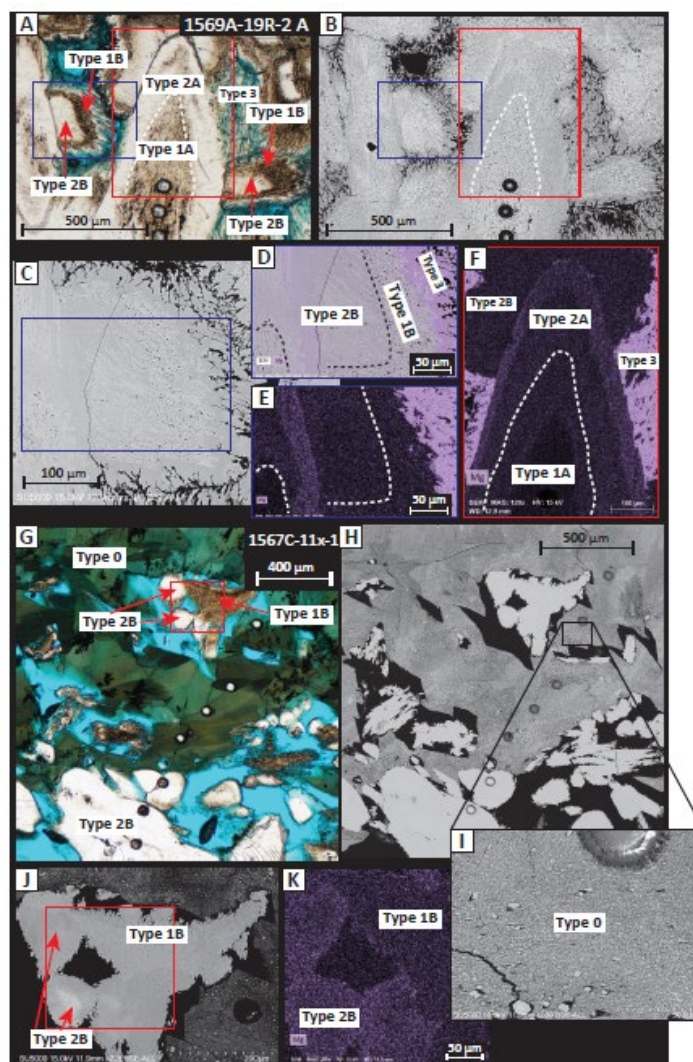


Figure 5: Light microscopy, SEM photomicrographs and EDS element maps from thin sections of glendonites at 1569A-19R-2 and 1567C-11X-1. **(A)** Overview under plane polarised light of the area examined for glendonite at 1569A-19R-2, with the carbonate phases labelled. **(B)** BSE image of the same area. Higher porosity in the Type 1 can be seen. **(C)** BSE image of zoomed in area of Type 2B with Type 1B overgrowth. Higher porosity of Type 1 is again clear. **(D)** EDS map showing Mg distribution across calcite types 1B and 2B, overlaid on the BSE photomicrograph. **(E)** The same map without the BSE photomicrograph **(F)** EDS map showing Mg distribution across calcite types 1A, 2A and 2B. **(G)** Overview under plane polarised light of the area examined for glendonite at 1567C-11X-1. **(H)** BSE image of the same area, with pop-out **(I)** showing the microcrystalline nature of Type 0. **(J)** Magnification of the same area with types 1B and 2B calcite under BSE. **(K)** EDS element map showing the Mg distribution across the same area.



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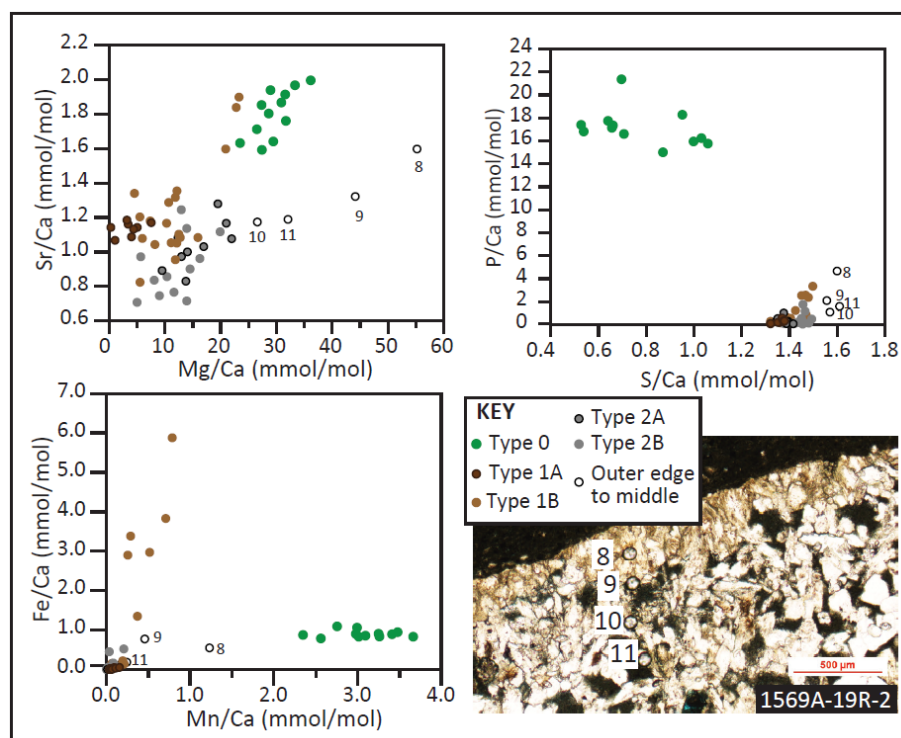


Figure 6: LA ICP-MS element/Ca data for points across the Exp. 396 glendonite polished thin sections. The data have been grouped according to the calcite types described in the main text and in the preceding figures. Photomicrograph showing the location points 8 – 11 from outer edge inwards are shown bottom right, and also in Fig. 4A. Photomicrographs showing the location of all the individual points measured may be found in the Supplementary Material.

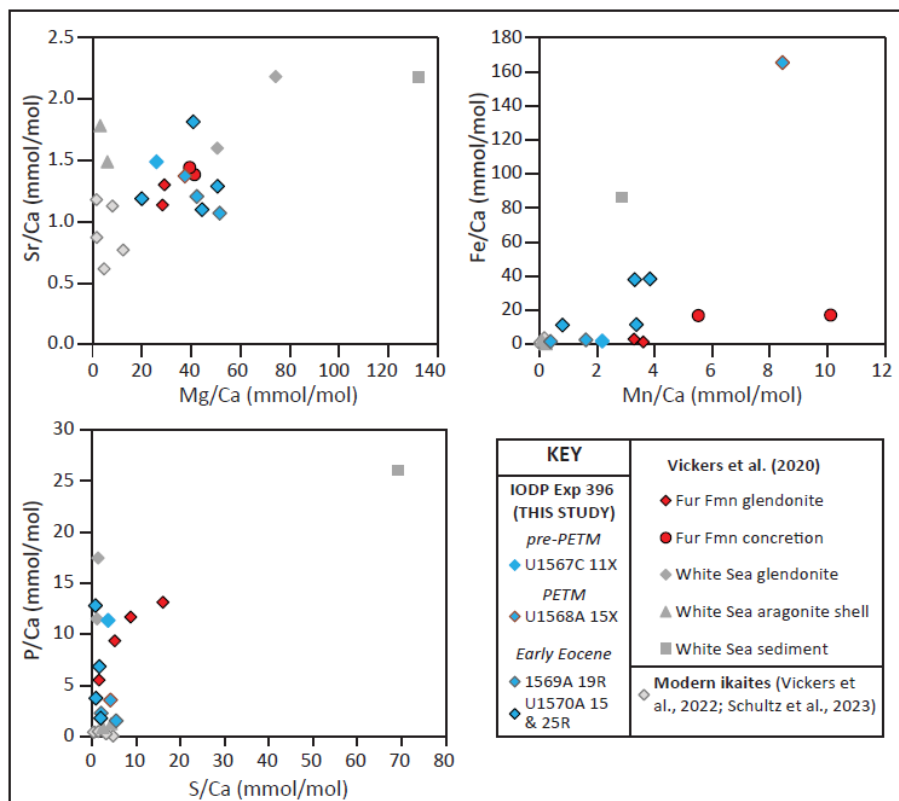


Figure 7: Element/Ca ratios of the Exp. 396 glendonites and associated calcites compared to published ICP-OES data for other glendonite-bearing sites.



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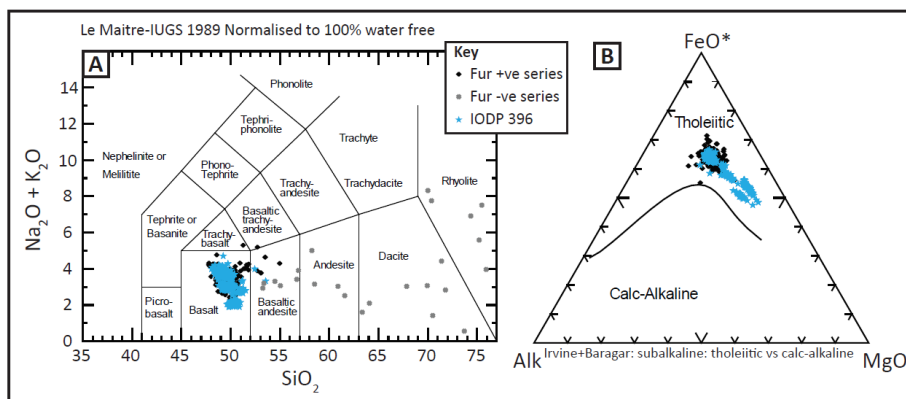


Figure 8: (A) A Total Alkali Silica (TAS) plot comparing the Exp. 396 ashes (this study) to published data for both positive (Stokke et al. 2020b) and negative (Larsen et al., 2003) ash series of the Fur Formation in northern Denmark. The Exp. 396 ashes and Fur positive series fall into the basaltic fields, whereas the Fur negative series show much more variation and have overall more felsic compositions. Note that while the Fur positive series data are microprobe analyses of matrix glass, the Fur Negative series data are whole rock data. However, the whole rock samples were leached of clay prior to analysis and no significant dilution is expected. (B) Ternary Alkali-Iron-Magnesium (AFM) diagram showing that the basaltic ashes from both the Exp. 396 sites and the Fur positive series are tholeiitic basalts. Note that many of the Exp. 396 ashes have higher MgO content than the Fur positive ashes.

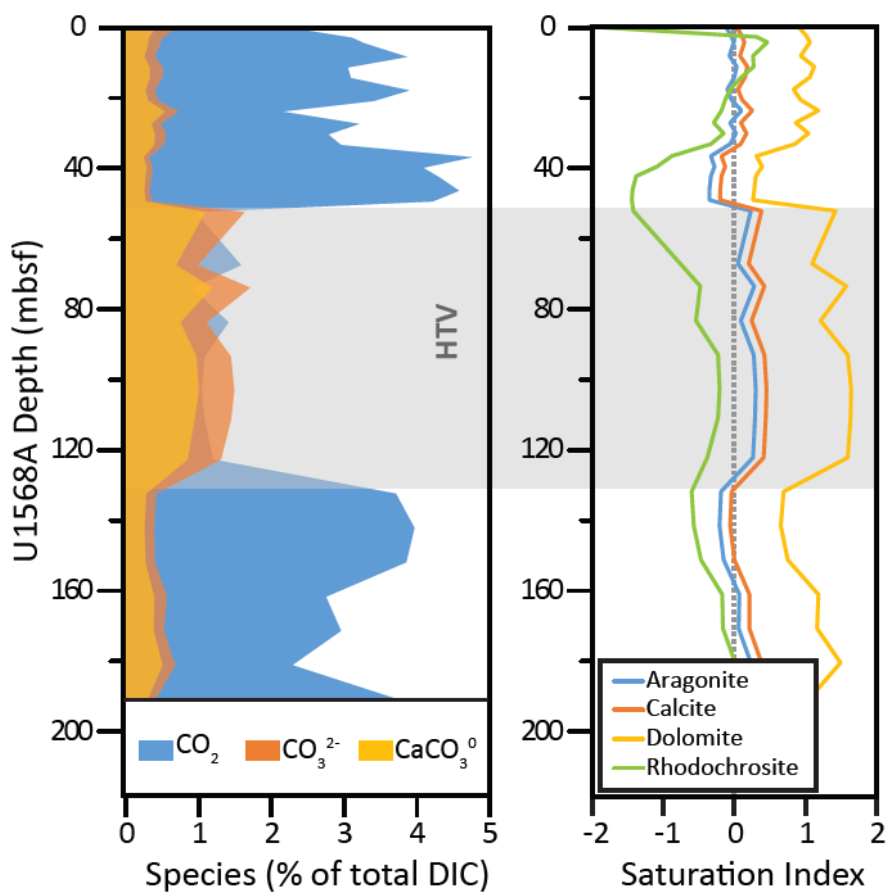


Figure 9: PHREEQC simulation results for the U1568A core, which spans the hydrothermal vent infill (grey highlight labelled 'HTV'). Note that HCO₃⁻ (the major species) is not shown.



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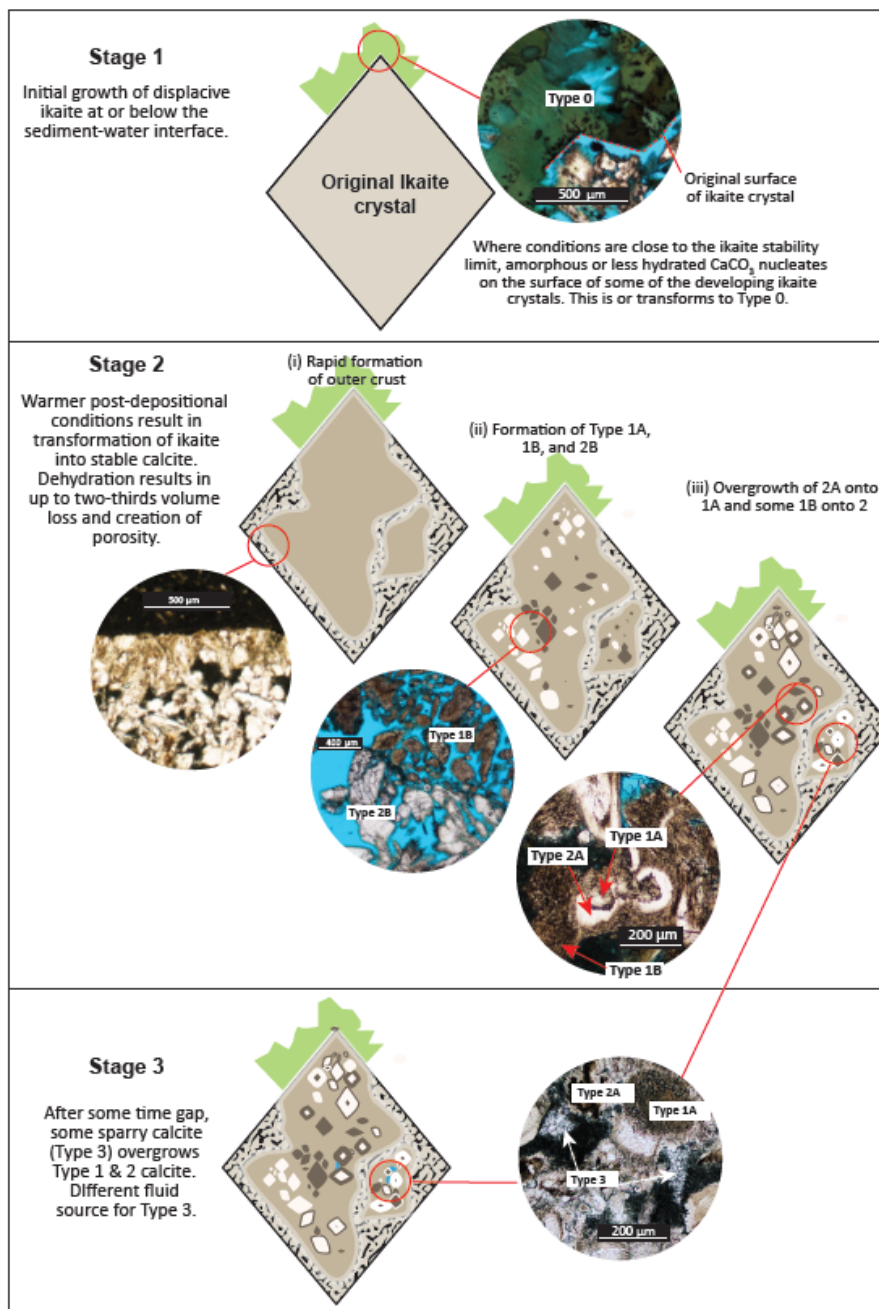


Figure 10: Schematic of ikaite transformation in the Exp. 396 cores, adapted from Counts et al. (*in review*) based on observed textural relationships and geochemistry of the calcite phases in the Exp. 396 glendonites.



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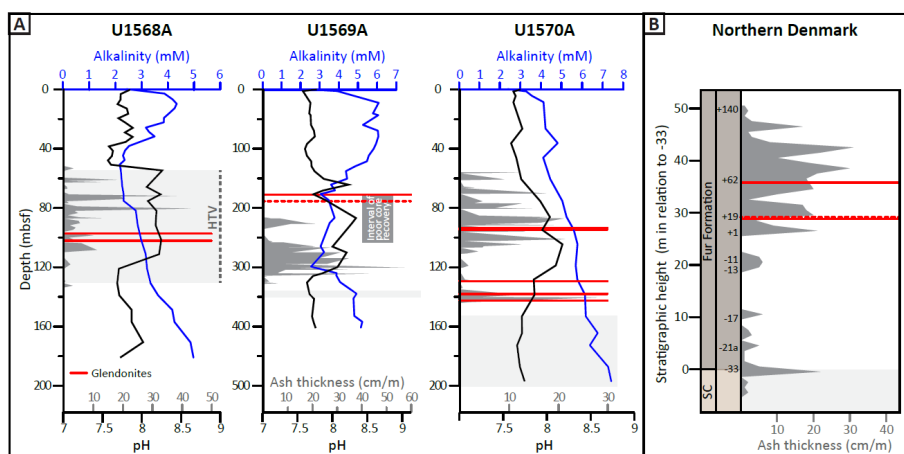


Figure 11: (A) Relative position of glendonites in the Paleocene-Eocene sediments of selected cores from the mid-Norwegian Margin, Exp. 396, compared to measured ash thicknesses. Pore water alkalinity and pH data (Planke et al., 2023) are also shown. Pale grey indicates the PETM-aged intervals in the stratigraphy. Note that for U1569A, core recovery was poor, particularly in the bottom, ash-bearing part (see Fig. 2). High ash contents lead to lower core recovery as they are coarse-grained and unlithified; therefore it is likely that there were much more numerous and thicker ash horizons in the interval between 18R and 37R (c. 180 – 340 mbsf). **(B)** Relative position of glendonites in the Paleocene-Eocene sediments of Northern Denmark, compared to ash thicknesses per metre (Jones et al., 2023). Glendonite horizons for the Fur Formation are from Vickers et al., (2020) (solid lines) and dashed line as identified by Henrik Friis, pers. comm. Pale grey indicates the end of the body of the PETM carbon isotope excursion (Jones et al., 2023). The recovery phase is between ashes -33 and -21a. SC = Stolleklint Clay.



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Site	Hole	Core	Core type	Section	Top depth (cm)	Bottom depth (cm)	mbsf top	PXRD mineralogy	Remarks
1567	C	10	X	3	40	45			Displaced (in drill mud)
1567	C	11	X	1	83	93	82.03	Calcite, minor halite, Qz	Not cemented
1568	A	15	X	1	29	31	97.3		Porous calcite in cement
1568	A	15	X	4	49	51	102.0		Not cemented
1568	A	15	X	4	55	58	102.1	Calcite, minor Qz, rhodochrosite	Not cemented
1569	A	19	R	2	54	62	177.3	Calcite, Mg-calcite, minor Qz, gypsum, halite	Partially cemented
1570	A	15	R	1	22	25	93.6		Not cemented. Small fragment
1570	A	15	R	1	108	112	94.5	Calcite, minor Qz + halite	Not cemented, half glendonite
1570	A	22	R	2	89	91	129.3		Cemented glendonite fragment (tip of crystal)
1570	A	24	R	1	96	98	138.1		Uncemented glendonite fragments
1570	A	25	R	1	50	55	142.5	Calcite, minor Mg-calcite, Qz	Cemented (in Imst)

Table 1: Glendonites of the Exp. 396 cores, PXRD data from bulk glendonite analysis, element/Ca ratios.



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Carbonate phase	Description
Type 0	Green-brown carbonate phase, not observed in all glendonites (Fig. 4). Heterogeneous colour distribution from browner to greener areas, not visibly zoned under plane polarised light (Fig. 4B and F). Commonly shows black dendritic surface patterns. SEM imaging revealed Type 0 to be composed of micro-grains of carbonate, rather than being a single crystal (Fig. 5).
Type 1A	Forms dark brown, zoned, with zoned overgrowths of paler calcite (Fig. 4). The BSE SEM shows it has higher porosity than the calcite overgrowths, and EDS mapping shows some chemical zoning defined by its Mg concentration (Fig. 5). Equivalent to Type 1 (I) of Huggett et al. (2005), Vickers et al. (2018), Schultz et al. (2023), and Counts et al. (<i>in review</i>).
Type 1B	Uneven colour from brown to dark brown. Generally overgrows, or intergrows with pale, non-porous Type 2A. Type 1B is indistinguishable from Type 1A except that it grows over Type 2A rather than the other way around, and generally has slightly higher [Mg] than 1A. Type 1B is not visibly zoned, and makes up larger patches/areas (Fig. 4 C – F; Fig. 5).
Type 2A	White calcite (under plane polarised light) that directly overgrows Type 1A, showing Mg-zoning (Fig. 4), and generally higher Mg than Type 1A (Fig. 5). Low/no porosity compared to Type 1A&B (Fig. 5). Equivalent to Type 2 (II) of Huggett et al. (2005), Vickers et al. (2018) and Schultz et al. (2023) and Type 2A of Counts et al. (<i>in review</i>).
Type 2B	Very similar to Type 2A, white, homogenous calcite with no colour or porosity zoning; but unlike 2A also lacking chemical zoning (Fig. 5). Type 2B calcite is generally characterised by a higher Mg than Type 1A&B calcite phases (Fig 5).
Type 3	Isopachous sparry or fibrous epitaxial calcite overgrowths to Types 1 and 2; higher [Mg] than types 1 and 2 (Figs. 4H and 5).

Table 2: Descriptions of the different carbonate phases observed within the glendonites through thin section microscopic and geochemical analysis (light microscopy, SEM, EDS and LA-ICP-MS).