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Ultrastructural Perspectives on the Biology and Taphonomy of Tonian Microfossils From the Draken Formation, Spitsbergen

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Microfossil fragmentation across the Paleocene-Eocene transition at ODP Site 1209 (North Pacific): implication for reconstructing nannofossil fluxes.

4

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12 **Abstract**

The Paleocene-Eocene period was punctuated by several hyperthermal events likely triggered by massive injection of greenhouse gases, the best-known being the PETM (~56 Ma). Environmental changes during hyperthermals severely impacted planktonic organisms, especially calcareous nannoplankton producing tiny calcite platelets. These calcite platelets (coccoliths) accumulate at the sea floor and constitute a major component of deep-sea sediments. As calcareous nannoplankton contribute to the biological carbon pump and carbonate counter pump, a better knowledge of their production dynamics in surface ocean and their dissolution throughout the water column is pivotal to produce realistic carbon budgets across hyperthermal events. In this work, we quantitatively assessed calcareous nannofossil abundances and nannofossil fragments from deep sea sediments of late Thanetian to early Ypresian age (55.63-57.42 Ma) from ODP Site 1209 (North Pacific). We developed a new method, based on the shape and number of fragments, to reconstruct an

all-inclusive nannofossil absolute abundance (including entire specimens and fragments) in
26 the sediments. The reconstructed values of absolute abundance estimated integrating
fragments are on average 25% higher. We also analysed different dissolution proxies
28 (planktonic fragmentation, benthic/planktonic ratios, coarse fraction). The fragmentation of
planktonic foraminifera does not covary with nannofossil fragmentation, suggesting distinct
30 controlling factors. Foraminiferal proxies and nannofossil assemblages point to episodes of
intense dissolution across the PETM as well as during an event pre-dating the PETM by 300-
32 700 kyrs that we identify as the Late Paleocene Event (LPE).

34 Keywords: Carbon cycle, Paleocene-Eocene transition, Calcareous nannofossils, Dissolution,
Fragmentation

36

38 **1. Introduction**

The Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM; around 56 Ma) is considered as
40 one of the best analogues of the ongoing global warming and ocean acidification (Kennett
and Stott, 1991; Zachos et al., 2005; Luo et al., 2016; Westerhold et al., 2018). The PETM is
42 characterised by a global 3 to 4‰ negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion recorded in deep-sea calcium
carbonate (CaCO_3). It is associated with a sharp decrease in CaCO_3 content in deep-sea
44 sediments, which is interpreted as a result of shoaling of the lysocline and CCD (carbonate
compensation depth), following massive CO_2 injections and oceanic acidification (Zachos et
46 al., 2005; Zeebe et al., 2012). The PETM is preceded and followed by several other
hyperthermal events of smaller amplitude and shorter duration (Cramer et al., 2003; Barnett
48 et al., 2019).

Rapid environmental changes during the PETM impacted marine organisms, including
50 coccolithophores, unicellular photosynthetic algae using CO₂ for photosynthesis and
producing calcite platelets named coccoliths. Coccoliths, having a size range between 2 and
52 20 µm (Young and Ziveri, 2000), settle from the surface layers of the oceans down to the
surface sediment incorporated in faecal pellets or marine snow (e.g., Honjo, 1976), and
54 constitute a major component of pelagic carbonates. Coccolith carbonate represents
between 20 to 80% of the biogenic CaCO₃ burial, for a total annual CaCO₃ mass burial of
56 about 1.3E¹² kg (e.g., Baumann et al., 2004; Hay, 2004; Balch et al., 2007; Ziveri et al., 2007).
Hence, coccolith-produced carbonates represent one of the largest carbon sinks on Earth on
58 geological timescales. The burial of CaCO₃ is controlled by four distinct but complementary
mechanisms (e.g., Roth and Thierstein, 1972; Schlanger and Douglas, 1974; Honjo, 1976;
60 Honjo and Herez, 1976; Archer and Maier-Reimer, 1994; Milliman, 1999; Langer et al., 2007;
Cartapanis et al, 2018; Sulpis et al., 2021): I) the CaCO₃ production in the surface oceanic
62 layer, depending on environmental (nutrients availability, temperatures, salinity, alkalinity)
and biological (ecology of dominant groups) factors; II) the export of these particles to the
64 deep ocean, which is essentially dependent on biological factors (grazing, bacterial activities)
and temperature; III) dissolution processes within the water column and at the seafloor,
66 constrained by physico-chemical factors affecting the corrosivity of the deep-water masses
(depth, temperature, age of the deep water and sediment rate) and by organic coating
68 protecting some particles; IV) the burial depth and diagenesis.

Dissolution processes within the water column and at the sediment-water interface
70 have major effects on microfossil assemblages. Such effects have been intensively
investigated using foraminiferal proxies since the 1950s (e.g., Arrhenius, 1952; Berger, 1970;
72 Le and Shackleton, 1992). One of the most used dissolution proxy in pelagic sediments is the

planktonic foraminifera fragmentation as defined by Berger (1970). The latter and
74 subsequent studies showed that the fragmentation of planktonic foraminifera increases with
depth in the water column under the lysocline, until planktonic foraminiferal remains are
76 completely dissolved beneath the CCD.

The dissolution patterns of calcareous nannofossils have been also studied (e.g.,
78 Adelseck et al., 1973; Roth and Berger, 1975; Gibbs et al., 2004, 2010; Beaufort et al., 2007;
Jin et al., 2019) but nannofossil-based proxies have been much less frequently used than
80 foraminifera-based proxies to reconstruct deep water corrosivity (Bralower et al., 2014). The
relative abundance of calcareous nannofossils is routinely used as a paleoenvironmental
82 proxy, whereas their absolute abundances have been used to reconstruct changes in CaCO_3
accumulation through space and time with different methods (e.g., Geisen et al., 1999;
84 Beaufort et al., 2014; Bordiga et al., 2015; Suchéras-Marx et al., 2019a). One of the earliest
attempts to use nannofossil fragmentation as dissolution proxy only considered *Discoaster*
86 spp. fragments (Gibbs et al., 2004), which show no significant correlation with other, more
classical dissolution proxies. Nannofossil fragments have been also taken into consideration
88 in other studies (Dunkley Jones and Bown, 2007; Gibbs et al., 2010), which again show no
clear correlation with dissolution proxies.

90 A systematic quantification of nannofossil fragmentation has never been attempted
likely because it is a time-consuming approach. However, a quantification of the size and
92 abundance of these fragments may help in improving reconstructions of nannofossil
absolute abundance and hence their export and burial fluxes. Interestingly, some authors
94 reported that the amount of sedimentary carbonate estimated using the reconstructed
masses of entire coccoliths was systematically lower than the total amount of carbonate fine
96 fraction (Bornemann et al., 2003; Ziveri et al., 2007). These authors have already

hypothesised that such discrepancy might be largely attributed to the mass of nannofossils
98 fragments, which are not routinely estimated.

In this work, we present a new method for calculating the fragmentation and incorporate it
100 in total abundance estimates of early Paleogene calcareous nannofossils. Samples come
from deep-ocean sediment samples of ODP (Ocean drilling program) Site 1209, covering the
102 upper Thanetian to lower Ypresian (55.6 to 57.4 Ma according to Westerhold et al. 2018).
First, we carried out a detailed analysis of the size, nature, number of nannofossil fragments
104 and of entire specimens to quantify their temporal evolution in the studied interval, which
comprises several hyperthermal episodes including the PETM. Samples were analysed under
106 a light polarising microscope (LM) and a scanning electron microscope (SEM) in order to
compare both methods and detect the influence of possible methodological biases. The
108 fragmentation record was then compared to dissolution proxies based on planktonic
foraminifera for the same interval at ODP Site 1209. Finally, we propose a novel method to
110 reconstruct absolute abundances of calcareous nannofossils by including both entire
specimens and fragments.

112

2. Geological setting

114 Sample studied here come from ODP Site 1209 drilled during Leg 198 on the volcanic
submarine high of Shatsky Rise (32° 30.1081'N, 158° 30.3564'E), in the northwestern Pacific
116 Ocean (Bralower et al., 2002) (Fig. 1). Given its position far from land areas and its location in
the North Pacific Oceanic gyre, the site received very low detrital input during the
118 Paleogene.-Site 1209 was drilled at 2387 m corresponding to a paleodepth of around 1900 m
during the PETM (Takeda and Kaiho, 2007). The Paleogene sediments of this site were
120 intensively studied owing to their expanded and continuous sedimentary record (Bralower

et al., 2002). The sediments are mostly unconsolidated and mainly consist of nannofossil
122 ooze in the upper Paleocene (Thanetien) interval and of nannofossil ooze bearing
foraminifera during the lower Eocene (Ypresien) interval. Cores were acquired using APC
124 (Advanced Piston Core) method.

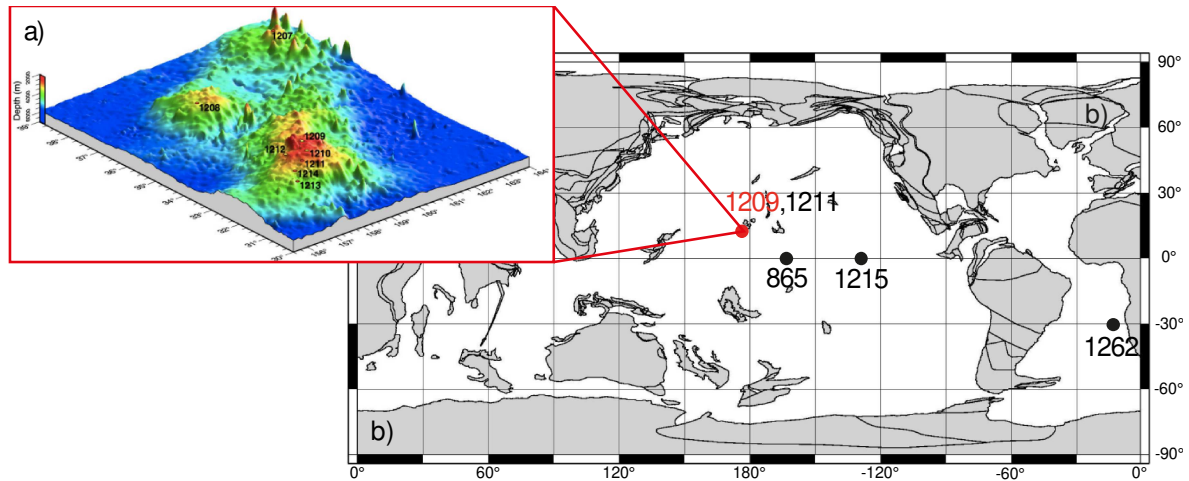


Fig. 1. Location of ODP Site 1209. a) Bathymetry of Leg 198 sites at Shatsky Rise (Bralower et al., 2002); b) Location of ODP Site 1209 (in red) during the PETM and other ODP Sites (in black) cited in the text (56 Ma; www.odsn.de)

126 **3. Material and methods**

3.1 Nannofossil samples

128 Fifty-six samples from holes A, B, and C, dated from the upper Thanetian (Paleocene)
to lower Ypresian (Eocene) were studied. Samples from hole A and C (n=46) were selected to
130 cover the entire interval studied, from around 216.8 to 225.0 revised meter composite
depth (rmcd) with an average sample resolution of 18 cm. Samples from hole B (n=10), from
132 around 217.7 to 218.1 rmcd covering the PETM onset (218.01 rmcd) were taken with an
average sample resolution of 3 cm.

134

3.2. Slide preparation

136 Slides were prepared for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and polarized-light
microscope observations (LM) using a slightly modified version of the settling method
138 described by Beaufort et al. (2014). Two cover slides (3.2 x 2.4 cm) and a SEM cover slide
(diameter 1.2 cm) were simultaneously placed in the same Petri dish. The two cover slips
140 were weighed before and after settling using a precision microbalance (± 0.00001 g). Dried
sediment (5-6 mg) was weighed using the precision microbalance, transferred into a 50 mL
142 Falcon tube and mixed with 40 mL of water. After homogenization, the solution was poured
in the Petri dish and let to settle for 4 hours. The water was carefully sucked up with a
144 water-pump and the cover slides were oven-dried at 45°C overnight. Cover slides were glued
to microscope slides using Rhodopass B (polyvinyl acetate). The SEM cover slide was fixed to
146 a SEM plot covered by a carbon adhesive. A total of 56 samples were coated with gold-
palladium 3nm thick using a Leica EM ACE 200 coater, and were analysed with a Phenom
148 SEM G2 PRO SEM. Among these samples, 28 were analysed with an optical microscope Leica
DM 750 P (x1000 magnification).

150 3.3. Nannofossil observation

Particle count was performed on pictures taken directly with the SEM or with a Leica
152 EC3 camera mounted on the optical microscope using the LAS EZ V.3.4.0 software.
Nannofossils on SEM and LM pictures were measured with the ImageJ software. Particle
154 counts for SEM and LM were made on a minimum surface of 0.0756 mm². This area is
considered as representative of the sample, owing to the preliminary rarefaction curve
156 analysis (Appendix A. Raw data). On average, 900 nannofossils and fragments were counted
in each sample in LM and SEM. Different categories of nannofossils and fragments
158 (representing half or less than that of the original nannofossil specimen) were considered.
The genera *Discoaster*, *Fasciculithus*, *Sphenolithus* and their fragments have been
160 differentiated (Appendix B1-B2. Supplementary data). Placoliths, numerically representing
the majority of the assemblages, are divided into two size groups (<7µm and ≥7µm; 7µm
162 being around the average size for Paleocene-Eocene assemblages according to Herrmann
and Thierstein, 2012). The different genera of placolith were not differentiated. We divided
164 placolith fragments into six different categories (Table 1). The smallest placolith fragments
that could be counted are estimated to be around 3% of an entire coccolith, and correspond
166 to a small part of the rim composed of the radial array of crystallites. The different fragment
categories allow the reconstruction of a theoretical number of nannofossils represented by
168 fragments. In the following, the reconstructed nannofossil abundance calculated using entire
specimens plus the fragments is referred to as “R”. In the analysed sediments, a very small
170 number of reworked Cretaceous specimens are present (less than 0.1% of the assemblage).

	Fragment sizes	Proportion of the originale palcolith	Main placolith genera	SEM pictures
172	Category 1	<7µm	(3-10%)	
174	Category 2	<7µm	(11-25%)	
176	Category 3	<7µm	(26-50%)	
178	Category 4	≥7µm	(3-10%)	
180	Category 5	≥7µm	(11-25%)	
182	Category 6	≥7µm	(26-50%)	

Table. 2. Description of the six different categories of placolith fragments. From the left to the right column are listed: the size of the placolith fragment counted in µm, the percentage that the fragment represents compare to the original placolith in %, the main placolith genera to which the fragments could belong across the late Paleocene at ODP Site 1209, and the SEM pictures of the placolith fragment categories. Scale bar corresponds to 5µm.

3.4. Fragment size distribution

In a given sample, N_1 , N_2 and N_3 correspond to the number of fragments counted from respectively 3-10% (categories 1 and 3), 11-25% (categories 2 and 4), 26-50% (categories 3 and 6) of the original placolith whatever the fragment size in µm. From these measurements and assuming that there are no fragments smaller than $s_{min} = 0.03$ (namely 3%), we can compute the cumulative fraction $P(s)$, defined as the fraction of fragments that are larger than the relative size s :

$$(1) P(0.03) = 1, P(0.10) = (N_2+N_3)/(N_1+N_2+N_3) \text{ and } P(0.25) = N_3/(N_1+N_2+N_3)$$

196 Where N is the number of fragments of a given size and $P(s)$ the cumulative fraction of
fragment of a given size s .

198

We assume that the actual Fragment Size Distribution (FSD) can be described by the
200 continuous function $n(s)$ giving the number of fragments of size between s and $s+ds$. If this
FSD follows a power law, which is a common pattern in various fragmentation processes
202 (e.g., Åström, 2006), then:

204
$$(2) n(s) = k \cdot s^{-m} \cdot ds$$

206 Where m is the power law index and k a normalizing constant, consequently the predicted
form for the cumulative fraction is (Appendix B3. Supplementary data):

208

$$(3) P(s) = (S_{max}^{1-m} - S^{1-m}) / (S_{max}^{1-m} - S_{min}^{1-m})$$

210

Where $P(s)$ is the cumulative fraction of fragment of a given size s and m the power law
212 index.

214 3.5. Reconstructed abundance of nannofossils based upon entire specimens and fragments

The reconstructed nannofossil abundance ($\Delta\%$) is the ratio in percent of the
216 reconstructed nannofossils over the total number of entire nannofossils. It was calculated
using the following formula:

218

$$(4) \Delta\% = (rn_x/n_x)*100$$

220

Where $\Delta\%$ is the reconstructed nannofossil abundance in %, n_x is the number of specimens
 222 of a given taxon and rn_x is the number of specimens reconstructed on the basis of the
 fragments of the taxon x . If the FSD follows a power law of index m , we can reconstruct the
 224 initial number of specimens before fragmentation (rn_x) by calculating the average size and
 counting the number of fragments within each size class (Appendix B4. Supplementary
 226 data):

$$(5) rn_x = ((1-m)/(2-m))*((N_1*((0.10^{2-m}-0.03^{2-m})/(0.10^{1-m}-0.03^{1-m}))+N_2*((0.25^{2-m}-0.10^{2-m})/(0.25^{1-}$$

$$m-0.10^{1-m}))+N_3*((0.50^{2-m}-0.25^{2-m})/(0.50^{1-m}-0.25^{1-m})))$$

230

Where rn_x is the number of specimens reconstructed based on the fragments of the taxon x ,
 232 N is the number of fragments of a certain size and m the power law index.

234 3.6. Nannofossil fragments and abundance

The proportion of nannofossil fragments (NF%) was calculated according to the
 236 planktonic foraminifera fragmentation index of Berger (1970):

$$(6) NF\% = (nf/n)*100$$

240 Where NF% is the proportion of nannofossil fragments in %, nf is the number of fragments
 and n is the total number of entire nannofossils and fragments.

242

Relative abundances of the different nannofossil and fragment groups were calculated using

244 the following formula:

$$246 \quad (7) \text{ RA}_x = (n_x/n) * 100$$

248 Where RA_x is the relative abundance (%) of a given group, n_x is the number of specimens from the taxon x , and n is the total number of entire nannofossils or fragments, respectively.

250 The nannofossil absolute abundances, expressed as the number of particles per gram of sediment (n/g), was calculated using a polarized-light microscope (LA_x) and a scanning
252 electron microscope (EA_x).

$$254 \quad (8) \text{ LA}_x = (n_x * l * h) / (m * A)$$

256 Where LA_x is the nannofossil absolute abundance (n/g) of a given group based on counts performed under the light microscope (LM); n_x is the number of entire specimens of the
258 taxon x ; l is the length; h is the width of the microscope cover slide in cm; m is the sediment mass on the cover slide in grams and A is the studied area in the slide (cm^2).

260

$$(9) \text{ EA}_x = (n_x * \pi * r) / (m * A)$$

262

Where EA_x is the nannofossil absolute abundance (n/g) of a given group based on counts
264 performed under the SEM and r is the radius of the SEM cover slide in cm.

266 The nannofossil absolute abundances considering entire nannofossils and reconstructed
nannofossil (n/g), was calculated using a LM (LAR_x) and a SEM (EAR_x).

268

$$(10) LAR_x = ((n_x + rn_x) * l * h) / (m * A)$$

270

Where LAR_x is the nannofossil absolute abundance considering entire nannofossils and
272 reconstructed nannofossils using a LM (n/g) of a given group; n_x is the number of entire
specimens of the taxon x ; rn_x is the number of specimens reconstructed on the basis of the
274 fragments for the taxon x ; l is the length; h is the width of the microscope cover slide in cm;
 m is the sediment mass on the cover slide in grams and A is the studied area in the slide
276 (cm²).

278

$$(11) EAR_x = ((n_x + rn_x) * \pi * r) / (m * A)$$

280 Where EA_x is the nannofossil absolute abundance using a SEM (n/g) and r is the radius of the
SEM cover slide in cm.

282

3.7. Coarse fraction, benthic/planktonic ratio and planktonic foraminifera fragmentation

284 A total of 45 samples (15 of which are the same as the ones used for nannofossil
analyses; Appendix A. Raw data) have been analysed for their foraminiferal content. Around
286 1 g of sediment was soaked in water for 24 hours and sieved at 63 μ m. Sample residues
were oven-dried at 70°C and weighed using a microbalance (\pm 0.0001 g) to calculate the
288 amount of coarse fraction (CF%) relative to the bulk sediment. Sediment residues were
sieved again at 150 μ m and the planktonic foraminifera (entire specimens and fragments) as

290 well as benthic foraminifera were counted under a stereomicroscope. A minimum of 500
planktonic foraminifera were counted for each sample. Planktonic foraminifera
292 fragmentation (PFF%) was calculated using the formula of Berger (1970), i.e. the number of
planktonic foraminifera fragments divided by the total number of planktonic foraminifera
294 particles (entire specimens plus fragment). Benthic/planktonic ratios (Benthic%) is the
number of benthic foraminifera shell divided by the total number of foraminifera (Arrhenius,
296 1952).

298 3.8. Geochemical analyses

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of bulk carbonates (73 samples, comprising 5 replicates; Appendix
300 A. Raw data) were measured using an automatic sampler Multiprep coupled with a dual inlet
GV isoprime™ isotope ratio mass spectrometer at the Laboratoire de Géologie de Lyon. On
302 average, a 500 μg aliquot of each sample was weighed with a microbalance (± 0.000001 g)
and was reacted with anhydrous phosphoric acid at 90°C for 20 min. Sample measurements
304 were adjusted to the international standard NIST NBS 18 (-5.014 ± 0.076 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{V-PDB}}$; -
 23.200 ± 0.146 ‰ $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{V-PDB}}$ $n=12$) and to an in-house Carrara Marble (2.025 ± 0.058 ‰ $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{V-}}$
306 PDB ; -1.841 ± 0.069 ‰ $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{V-PDB}}$ $n=21$).

308 3.9. Statistical errors

Statistical errors in relative abundances are given with 95% confidence intervals as
310 described in Suchéras-Marx et al. (2019b) using the software Past4. Statistical errors (95%
confidence intervals and weight error) were propagated to the group absolute abundances.
312 For total absolute abundances, an error bar of 2σ is proposed, where:

314

$$(12) \sigma = (1/\sqrt{n})$$

316 With σ the standard error and n is the total number of nannofossils.

Using the software Past4, a One Way ANOVA (analysis of variance) was performed to

318 compare the abundance of the nannofossil groups and the fragment groups calculated for

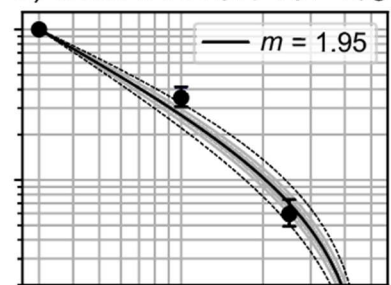
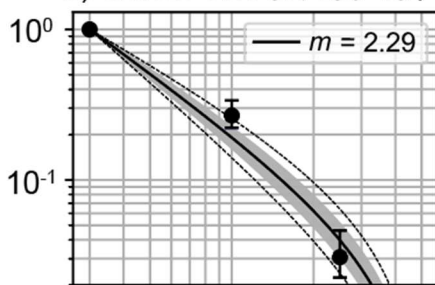
common

320 SEM

a) 1209C 11H 3A 130-131

b) 1209A 22H 3W 107-108

and LM



samples

322 (28 in

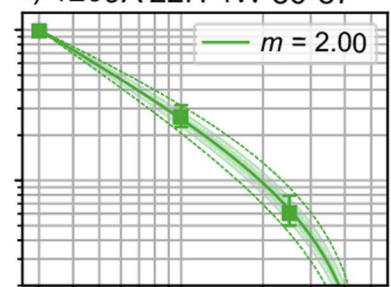
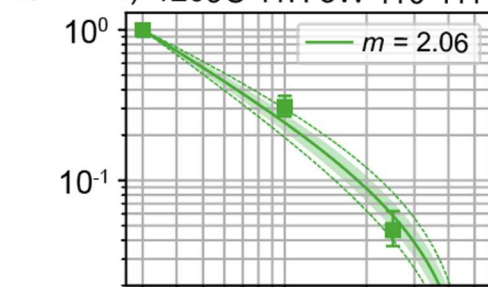
total).

324 4.

c) 1209C 11H 5W 110-111

d) 1209A 22H 4W 86-87

Results



Fragment

326 4.1.

size

● SEM ■ LM

distribution (FSD)

328

330

332

334

336

338 Fig. 2. Proportion of fragments with a size larger than s , $P(s)$, in four samples according to the size (s) of fragment:
a) SEM 198-1209C-11H-3A, 130-131; b) SEM 198-1209A-22H-3W, 107-108; c) LM 198-1209C-11H-5W, 110-111; d)
LM 198-1209A-22H-4W, 86-87. The straight lines correspond to the best fit given by equation (3), shaded areas to
the standard deviation σ in the value of m , while dotted lines correspond to the 2σ envelop. Error bars
correspond to nannofossil count uncertainty.

340

The variation of $P(s)$ with fragment size s for 4 different samples is illustrated in Figure 2.

342 Data points were adjusted by equation (3) on the figure 2, the power law index m being the
only free parameter. The FSD of the studied samples can be correctly described by a power
344 law distribution (Fig. 2). The power law index found for the SEM and the LM sample analyses
varies from 1.57 to 2.28, with an average value of 1.92 (Fig. 2; Appendix A. Raw data). The
346 average m index is higher in LM samples (1.99), than in SEM samples (1.88). This observation
unpredictably indicates that the FSD of LM samples is slightly more dominated by small
348 fragments than in the SEM samples.

350 4.2. Stable isotope measurements

The bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data are consistent with previous measurements of the Paleocene
352 interval at Shatsky Rise (e.g., Cramer et al., 2003; Colosimo et al., 2005; Penman et al., 2014)
and extend the record to the upper Paleocene interval. These data notably show repeated
354 shifts toward lower values that correspond to a series of hyperthermal events identified in
other deep-sea and hemipelagic successions (e.g., Cramer et al., 2003; Agnini et al., 2016;
356 Luciani et al., 2016; Gutjahr et al., 2017; Westerhold et al., 2018; Barnet et al., 2019). The
hyperthermal events are placed according to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{bulk}}$ (Fig. 3a) as defined by Cramer et al.

358 (2003). The D1 and D2 events, previously identified by Westerhold et al. (2018) using benthic
foraminifera $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and XRF Fe records, are not seen in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{bulk}}$ record shown here.

360

4.3. Absolute nannofossil abundances

362 Absolute nannofossil abundances calculated with a LM (LA) and with a SEM (EA)
follow the same trends, although LA values are systematically lower by about 1×10^9 n/g than
364 EA values (Fig. 3b, c). The absolute abundance including the reconstructed nannofossils with
light and electronic microscopy (LAR and EAR) is, as expected, systematically higher than the
366 absolute abundance of entire nannofossils (from 11 to 63% with an average of 21 and 29%
for LM and SEM counts, respectively; Appendix A. Raw data) (Fig. 3b, c). EA and LA are
368 especially low during the PETM with a minimum at around 0.7×10^9 n/g.

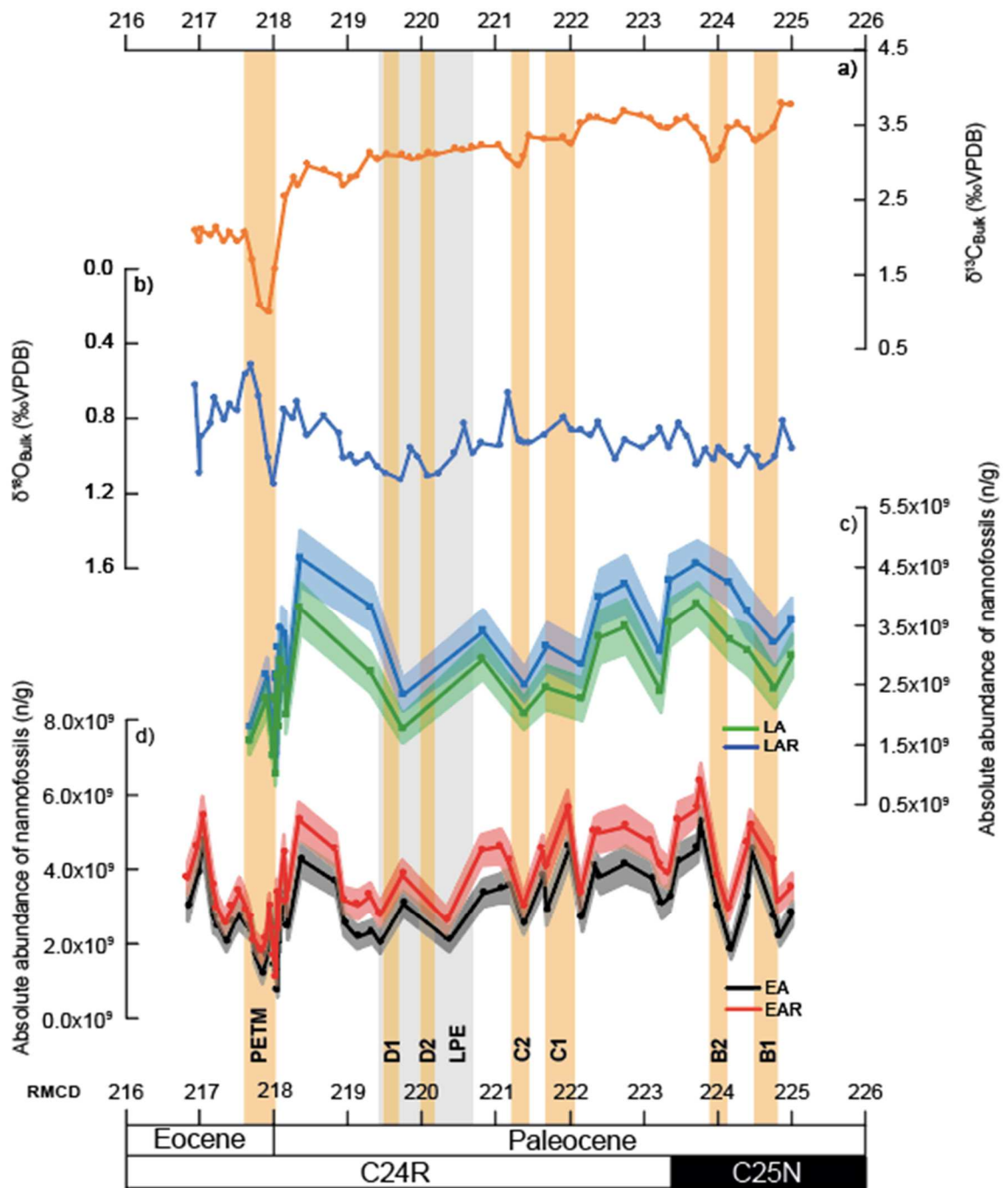


Fig. 3. Geochemical data and nannofossil abundance across the Paleocene-Eocene transition at ODP Site 1209: a) $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Bulk}}$ (‰VPDB) record; b) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Bulk}}$ (‰VPDB) record; c) absolute abundances of whole (green) and reconstructed (blue) calcareous nannofossils, as estimated using light microscope; d) absolute abundances of whole (black) and reconstructed (red) calcareous nannofossils as calculated using SEM. Shaded areas correspond to 2sigma as described in section 3.9. Shaded bars in orange indicate the hyperthermal events and shaded bar in grey correspond to the late Paleocene Event (LPE).

370

372

374 4.4. Nannofossil assemblages

4.4.1. Relative and absolute abundances of entire nannofossil groups

376 The absolute abundances of entire specimens issued from SEM and LM counts are
similar (Fig. 4a, c, d, e, h, j), except for large placoliths (Fig. 4b, g), which show lower values
378 in LM counts ($p < 0.01$). The SEM counts indicate that small (23-63%) and large (21-51%)
placoliths, constitute the bulk of the nannofossils assemblages (Fig. 4f, g). RA of small
380 placoliths broadly show minimum values at the PETM onset (35%) and between 219.4 and
220.7 rmcd (23%), in correspondence of the new event detected in this account and named
382 the “Late Paleocene Event” (LPE) (Fig. 4f).

EA of small placoliths show minimum values through the LPE and the PETM onset
384 (around 0.5×10^9 n/g and 0.3×10^9 n/g, respectively) (Fig. 4a).

The RAs of *Discoaster* spp. and *Fasciculithus* spp., calculated in SEM (Fig. 4h, i) follow
386 comparable trends for most of the studied interval. The highest values are recorded across
the LPE and at the PETM onset (up to 11 and 20.5% and 10.5 and 17.5% for *Discoaster* spp.
388 and *Fasciculithus* spp. for the LPE and the PETM, respectively). The RA of *Sphenolithus* spp.
(Fig. 4j) shows minimum values across the LPE (0.5%). The EAs of *Discoaster* spp.,
390 *Fasciculithus* spp. and *Sphenolithus* spp., estimated in SEM broadly show comparable trends
compared to their RA (Fig. 4c-e).

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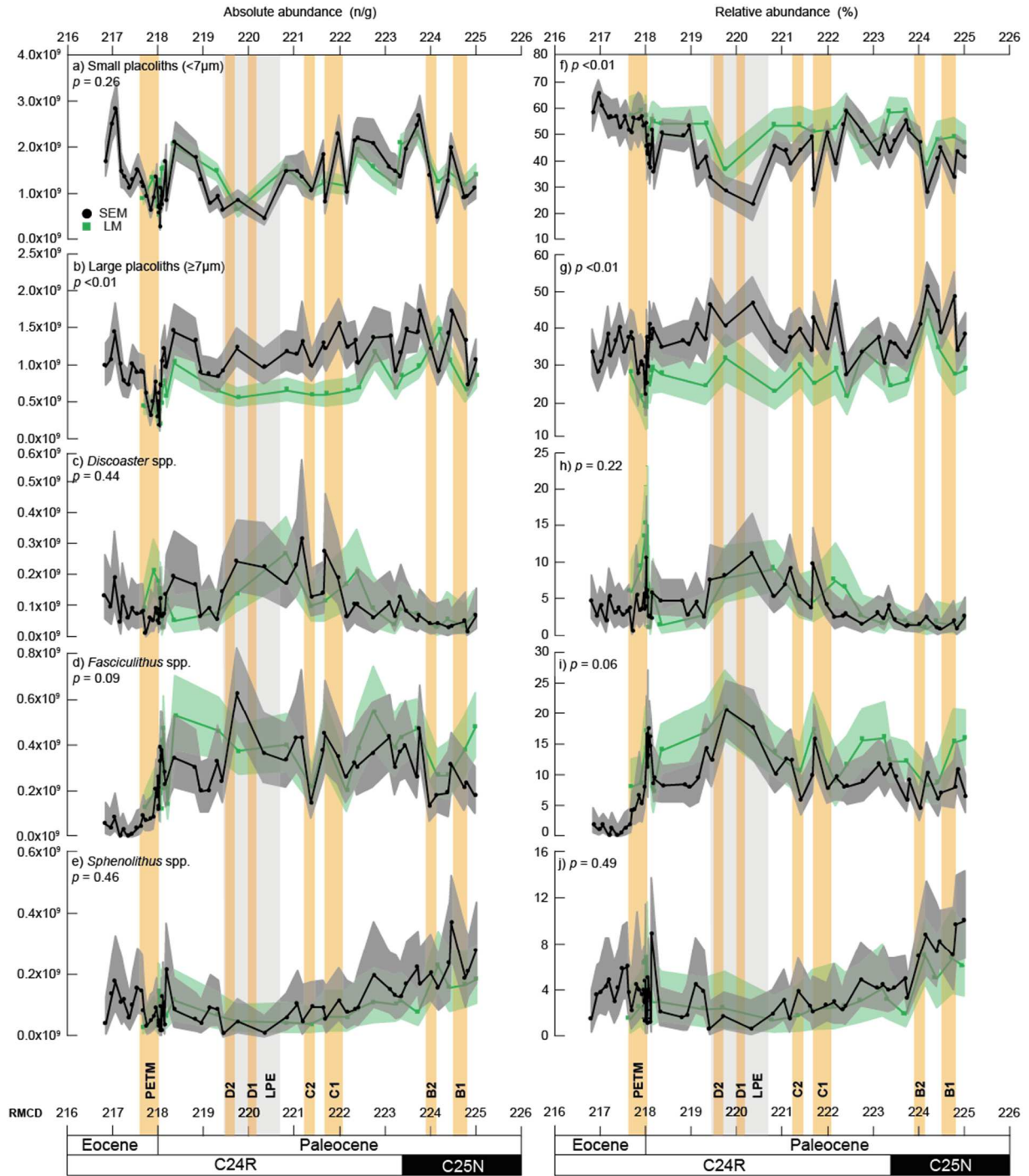


Fig. 4. Absolute (a-e) and relative (f-j) abundances of calcareous nanofossil estimated using SEM (black dots) and light microscope (green squares) counts across the Paleocene-Eocene transition at ODP Site 1209. a, f) small placoliths (<7µm); b, g) large placoliths (≥7µm); c, h) *Discoaster* spp.; d, i) *Fasciculithus* spp.; e, j) *Sphenolithus* spp.. Grey and green shaded areas correspond to the 95% confidence intervals (section 3.9). P values are given for each group of nanofossil as described in section 3.9. Shaded bars in orange show the hyperthermal events and the shaded bar in grey indicates the Late Paleocene Event (LPE).

4.4.2. Relative and absolute abundances of nannofossil fragments

402 The RAs of different groups of fragments calculated in LM and SEM are similar (Fig.
5h, i, j, l), except for fragments of categories 1 and 6 that show distinct variations ($p < 0.10$)
404 (Fig. 5g, k). Fragments of categories 1 and 2 dominate the assemblage of nannofossil
fragments (50-77% and 14-39% respectively) (Fig. 5g, h).

406 Fragments of category 1 show in SEM minimum and maximum values (50 and 77%) across
the LPE and at the base of PETM interval, respectively. EA of fragments of categories 1-3
408 (Fig. 5a-c) shows in general similar variations between each-other with very low values
across the PETM and, to a lesser extent, within the LPE.

410 The RAs of fragments of categories 5-6 and *Discoaster* spp. fragments follow relatively
similar trends (Fig. 5d-f), with the highest values recorded across the LPE and at the PETM
412 onset. EAs of fragments of category 5 and *Discoaster* spp. fragments present similar trends
(Fig. 5d, f).

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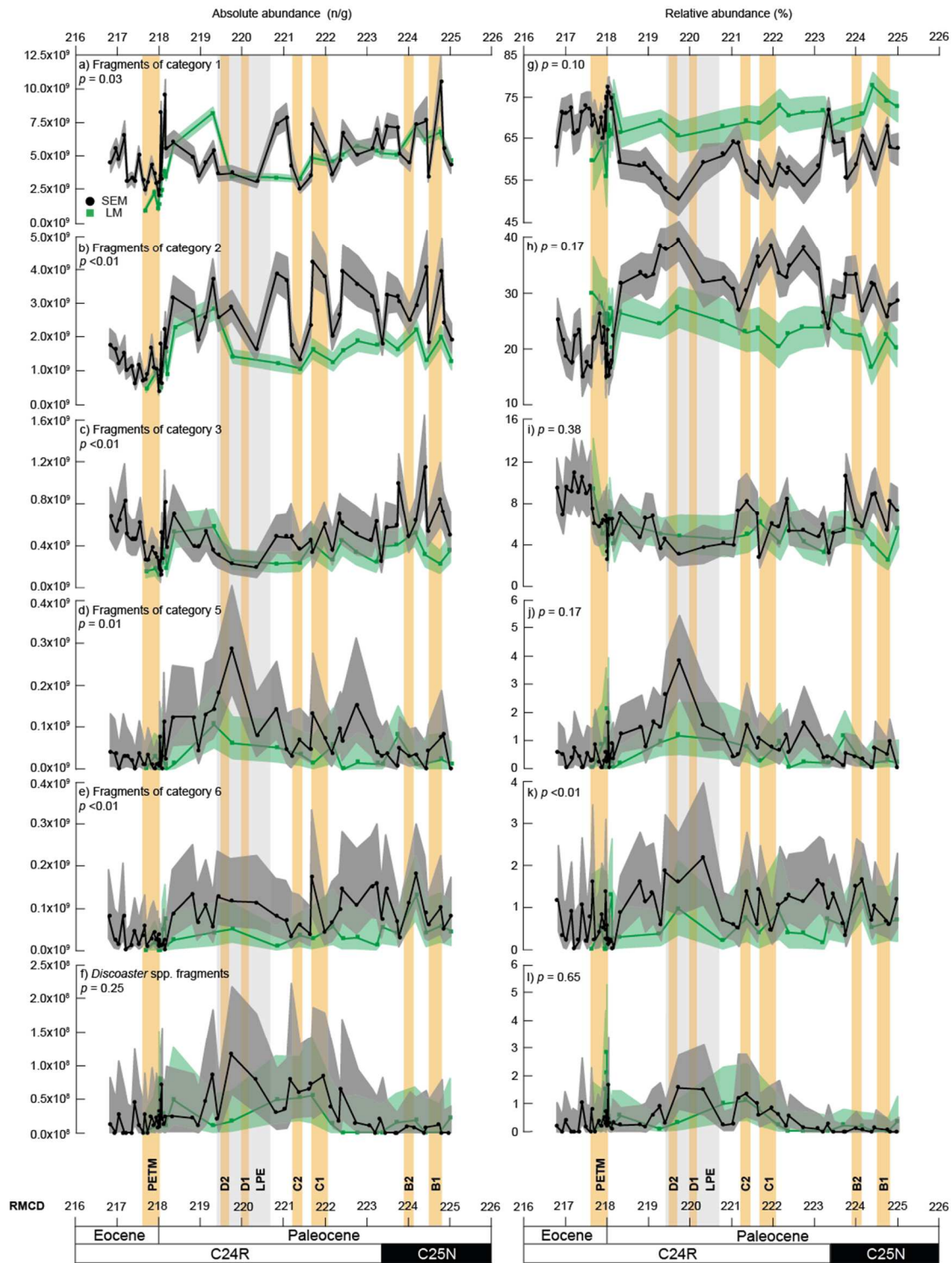


Fig. 5. Absolute (a-f) and relative (g-i) abundances of calcareous nannofossil fragments estimated using SEM (black dots) and under optical microscope (green squares) across the Paleocene-Eocene transition at ODP Site 1209. a, g) fragments of category 1; b, h) fragments of category 2; c, i) fragments of category 3; d, j) fragments of category 5; e, k) fragments of category 6; f, l) Fragments of *Discoaster* spp.. Grey and green shaded areas correspond to the 95% confidence intervals (section 3.9). P values are given for each group of fragments as described in section 3.9. Shaded bars in orange show the hyperthermal events and the shaded bar in grey indicates the Late Paleocene Event (LPE)

418 4.6. Dissolution proxies and nannofossil fragmentation

The sediment coarse fraction (CF%) we calculated follows the same trend previously
420 published by Westerhold et al. (2018) (Fig. 6f) and generally shows opposite trends with
respect to planktonic foraminifera fragmentation (Fig. 6e). PFF%, and Benthic% show high
422 values from around 219.4 to 220.7 rmcd corresponding to the LPE (Fig. 6d-f).

The NF% values are slightly higher in SEM counts than in LM counts. SEM-based NF% values
424 show an average value of 70% of the total particle content (e.g., fragments plus entire
nannofossil specimens). A marked increase to 85% is recorded slightly before the PETM
426 onset (Fig. 6a). Nannofossil fragments do not co vary well with CF%, PFF% and benthic%
(Fig. 6d-f). Fragmentation of small and large placoliths seem to better co-variate with
428 foraminifera-based dissolution proxies than NF% across the LPE (Fig. 6b, c).

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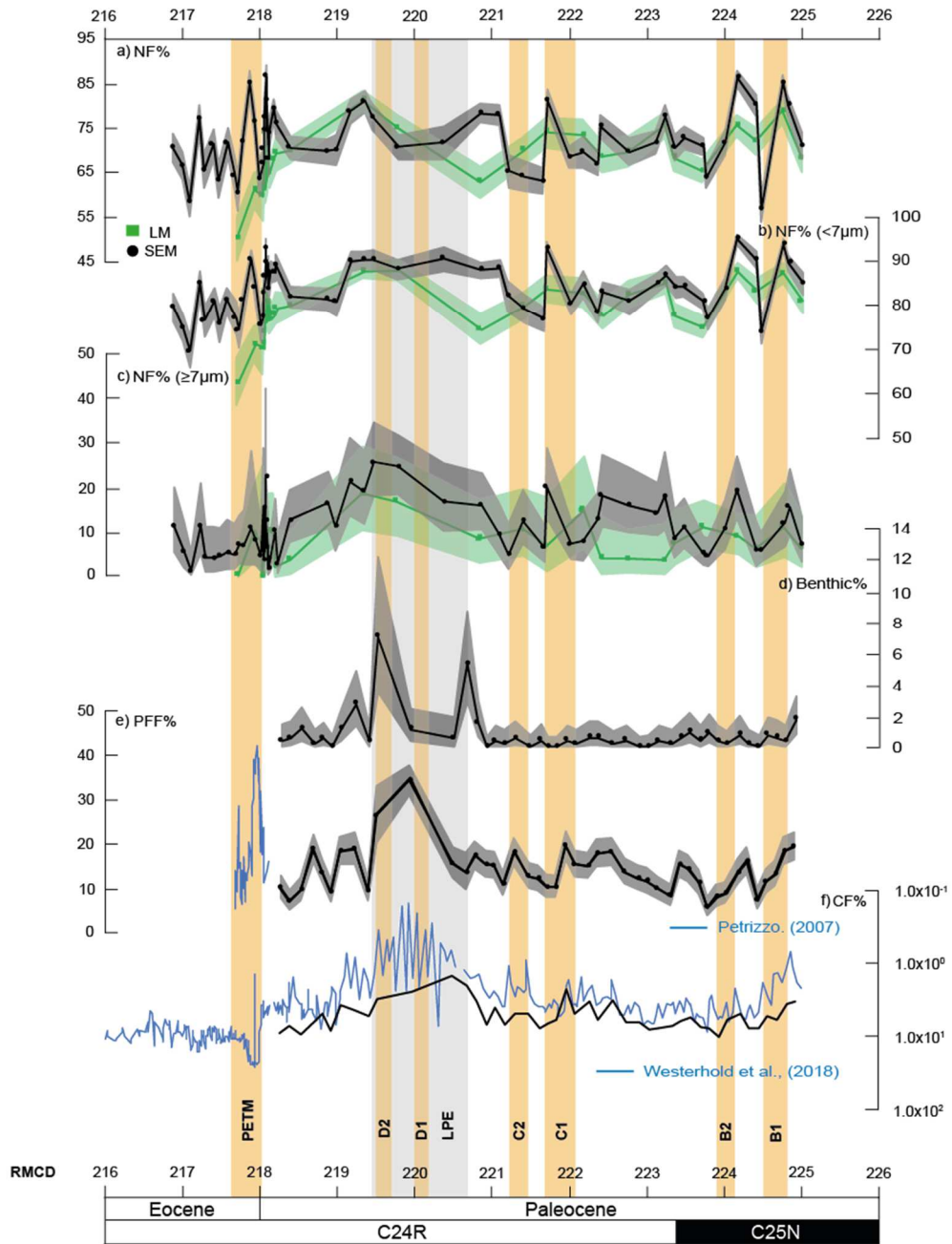


Fig. 6. Comparison between nanfossil fragmentation and dissolution proxies across the Paleocene-Eocene transition at ODP Site 1209: a) nanofossil fragmentation (NF%) as calculated using SEM (black dots) and LM (green squares); b) small placolith fragmentation (NF% <7µm); c) large placolith fragmentation (NF% ≥7µm); d) Benthic foraminifera index (Benthic%); e) Planktonic foraminifera fragmentation (PFF%) and *Morozovella* spp. fragmentation (blue) from Petrizzo (2007); f) Coarse fraction (CF%) from this study (black) and from Westerhold et al. (2018)(blue). Grey and green shaded areas correspond to the 95% confidence intervals (section 3.9). Error bars for coarse fraction related to weighing, being very small, are given in Appendix A. Raw data. Shaded bars in orange indicate the hyperthermal events and shaded bar in grey corresponds to the Late Paleocene Event (LPE).

460 **5. Discussion**

5.1. A new approach to reconstruct nannofossil abundance

462 The SEM and LM counts of placolith fragments in the Thanetian-Ypresian interval
provide us a useful method to reconstruct an all-inclusive absolute abundance of
464 nannofossils (entire nannofossils and reconstructed nannofossils using fragments). Ziveri et
al. (2007) and Bornemann et al. (2003) noticed that the nannofossil CaCO₃ wt.% estimates
466 based upon the masses and absolute abundances of entire nannofossils were systematically
lower (1.5 to 4 times lower) than the bulk-rock CaCO₃ wt.% measured in sediments. These
468 authors suggested that this systematic underestimation of nannofossil contribution to the
carbonate fine fraction is largely due to the occurrence of fragments, which are not routinely
470 counted.

Our results demonstrate an underestimation of the nannofossils absolute abundance
472 by 29% and 21% on average according to estimations made under SEM and LM, respectively
(minimum and maximum values: 11% to 63%; Fig. 7), when only entire nannofossils are
474 considered. The $\Delta\%$ between the abundance calculated using LM and SEM shows an
excellent correlation with nannofossils fragmentation (Fig. 7). Our data shows an excellent
476 agreement with the theoretical relation between $\Delta\%$ and NF% predicted from the FSD
power-law model (Fig. 7; see Appendix B3-4 for details):

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$$(12) \Delta\% = (NF\% / (\eta(100 - NF\%))) * 100$$

480

With η a dimensionless parameter (as defined by equation (10) of the Appendix B3.
482 Supplementary data).

A key implication of this finding is that absolute abundances can be calculated using
 484 the equation in Fig. 7, without requiring a detailed counting of distinct fragment classes,
 provided future work confirms that the fragmentation process of placoliths universally
 486 follows the power law FSD of index $m \sim 2$ found for Paleogene strata at Site 1209. As
 fragmentation of placoliths appears to follow a breakup law commonly found in various
 488 physical processes (e.g., Bitelli et., 1999; Aström et al., 2004), changes in nannofossil
 assemblages should theoretically influence the proportion of fragments in the assemblage

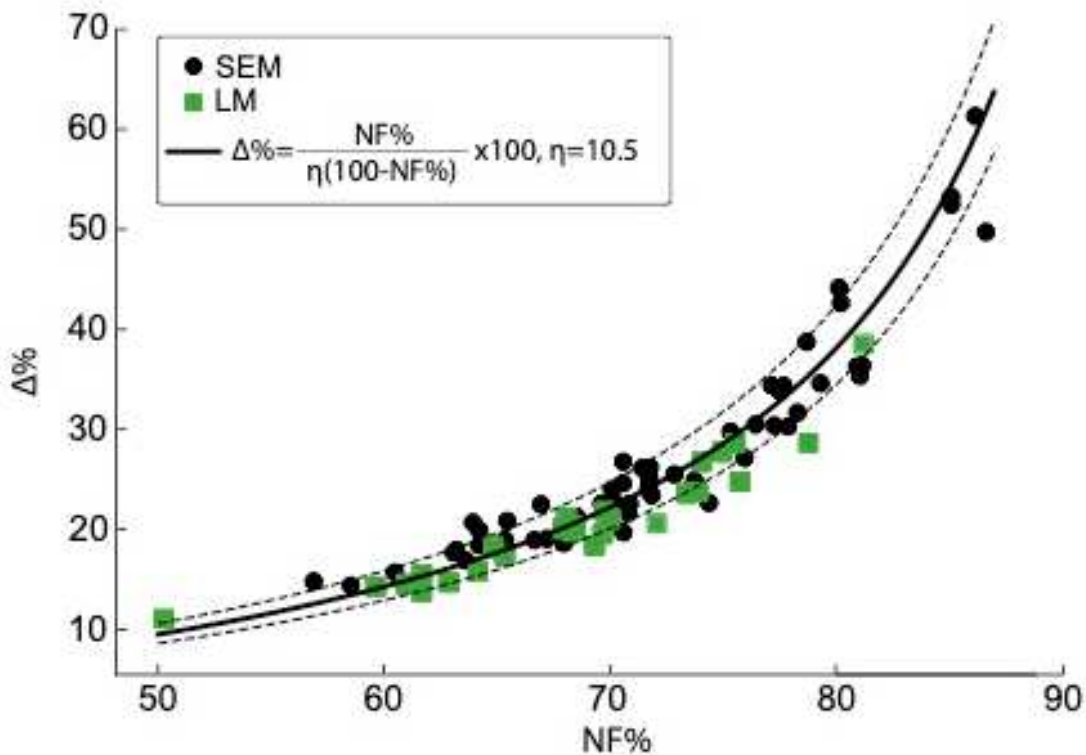


Fig. 7. Relationships between $\Delta\%$ (the reconstructed nannofossil abundance in %) and the nannofossils fragmentation (NF%) for SEM and LM observations. Equation 5 (see section 3.5) is used to calculate the number of reconstructed nannofossils and thus $\Delta\%$ (equation 4). Since 99% of the nannofossil fragments are placolith fragments (Appendix A. Raw data), we assume here that the nannofossil fragments follow the same break-up law as the placolith fragments. The black line corresponds to the theoretical prediction of equation (12) with $m = 1.92$ (see section 4.1). The best fit by the same expression with η as a free parameter leads to $\eta = 10.8$, very close to the theoretical prediction. For sake of clarity, this curve is not plotted here. Average 95% confidence intervals are given in the Appendix A. Raw data. Black dotted lines correspond to equation with m
 490 $\pm \sigma$ (NF%) but not the relationship between the nannofossils fragmentation and the reconstructed nannofossil abundance in % ($\Delta\%$).

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494

5.2. Stratigraphic changes in fragment distribution and nannofossil assemblages across the

496 Thanetien-Ypresien interval

5.2.1. Dissolution proxies, nannofossil fragments and assemblages across hyperthermal

498 events

The studied interval records several greenhouse gas-driven hyperthermal events
500 during which the CCD and lysocline likely shoaled globally (e.g., Kirtland Turner et al., 2014;
Westerhold et al., 2018). There is a general agreement that the carbonate coarse fraction in
502 deep-sea sediments decreases with increasing dissolution due to the preferential breakup
and dissolution of planktonic foraminifera (Bassinot et al., 1994). At Site 1209, stratigraphic
504 changes in the coarse fraction (this study; Westerhold et al., 2018) correlates well with
foraminiferal-based dissolution proxies (this study; Hancock and Dickens, 2005; Petrizzo,
506 2007). As Petrizzo (2007) used a 125 μm sieve for the fragmentation of *Morozovella*, only a
relative comparison of PFF% is relevant.

508 There is no systematic increase in the nannofossil fragmentation, coarse fraction and the
planktonic foraminifera fragmentation observed during the hyperthermal events B1, B2, C1
510 and C2, described by Cramer et al. (2003). D1 and D2 events being included in the Late
Paleocene Event, they are not considered here.

512 All dissolution proxies (CF%, PFF% and Benthic%) display similar temporal changes,
and point to a maximum in dissolution over a 1.3 m-thick interval (from 219.4 rmcd to
514 around 220.7 rmcd) in the upper Paleocene. This interval of high dissolution, pre-dating the
PETM (55.93 Ma) by about 300 to 700 kyrs (corresponding to around 56.27 to 56.66 Ma
516 according to the age model of Westerhold et al., 2008; 2018), was previously identified

based on a lower-resolution record (Hancock and Dickens, 2005; Westerhold et al., 2011),
518 but never examined in detail.

The NF% values are relatively stable or, even, they slightly decrease across the LPE interval
520 where all foraminiferal fragmentation proxies point to maximum dissolution (Fig. 6). The
decrease in NF% values is due to the increase of large taxa (*Discoaster* spp. and *Fasciculithus*
522 spp.) (Fig. 4.c, d). However, NF% of small and large placoliths NF% are both high across the
LPE (Fig. 6b, c).

524 An increase in nannofossil fragmentation could reflect higher dissolution due to bottom
water corrosivity (Beaufort et al., 2007), higher zooplankton grazing in the water column
526 (Honjo 1976; Knappertsbusch and Brummer, 1995; Broerse et al., 2000), or increased
lithostatic pressure during burial (Feazel et al., 1985, Hirano et al., 2001). The intensity of
528 zooplankton grazing is yet poorly quantifiable for fossil samples and the lithostatic
diagenesis intensity can be assumed as relatively constant over the short (<9m) studied part
530 of the Paleocene (Appendix B5. Supplementary data). The high placolith fragmentation
recorded during the LPE could be related to dissolution in agreement with dissolution
532 proxies (Fig. 6b, c). Such an explanation is consistent with the increased of *Discoaster* spp.
percentages across the LPE, along with the decrease in relative abundance of small
534 placoliths. Indeed, as dissolution is selective, an early dissolution may drive a partial or total
disaggregation of the elements composing a given nannofossil (Adelsek et al., 1973; Hill,
536 1975; Honjo 1975, 1976; Roth and Berger, 1975; Thierstein, 1980). *Discoaster* spp. was
reported to be more resistant to dissolution than other nannofossils (Adelsek et al., 1973;
538 Gibbs et al., 2004; Raffi and De Bernardi, 2008). These latter studies have even suggested
that *Discoaster* spp. specimens tend to become overgrown (receptors) along with increasing
540 dissolution of solution-susceptible coccoliths (donors). Thierstein (1980) reported similar

dissolution susceptibility for small nannoliths of Late Cretaceous-Early Paleogene age. Thus,
542 the ratio small placoliths/*Discoaster* spp. could represent a valuable dissolution proxy, as
suggested by D'Onofrio et al. (2016) who used the *Toweius* spp./*Discoaster* spp. ratio to
544 track dissolution events in lower Eocene sediment from Italy. The relative increase in
percentage of *Fasciculithus* spp. across the LPE interval appears similar to that seen in
546 *Discoaster* spp. and could also be partially due to its resistance to dissolution. Nevertheless,
a very similar increase in *Fasciculithus* spp. was reported in several contemporaneous sites
548 recording very different dissolution conditions (Site 1262), suggesting that this increase at
least partially reflects evolutionary or ecological trends. In this regard, the ratios between
550 nannofossil taxa, classically used to establish indices of past ecological parameters, should
be ideally used with independent dissolution proxies (e.g., this study, Gibbs et al., 2004).

552 Another interesting aspect of the studied interval at Site 1209 is the sharp rise of the
planktonic foraminifera fragmentation pattern reported by Petrizzo (2007) across the PETM
554 onset, which indicates an intense episode of dissolution. Conversely, the same interval
records a marked increase in CF% (blue curve in Fig. 6f; Westerhold et al., 2018), suggesting
556 a sharp decrease in dissolution. The latter is at odds with the increase in dissolution across
the PETM, which was interpreted based on several pieces of evidence in many oceanic sites
558 (e.g., Zachos et al., 2005; Luciani et al., 2007; Petrizzo, 2007; Alegret et al., 2009; Gibbs et al.,
2010; Kelly et al., 2010). This anomalous abundance of CF% at Site 1209 at the onset of
560 PETM interval could therefore reflect a peculiar sedimentary pattern, such as the
preferential winnowing of the fine-grained nannofossil-ooze fraction resulting from a
562 transient increase in bottom current intensity (Bralower et al., 2014). A similar mechanism
was also suggested to explain the rise in CF% recorded at ODP Site 865 (Arreguin-Rodriguez
564 et al., 2016). The CF% peak at Site 1209 could also be explained by a higher planktonic

foraminifera flux (Battacharya et al., 2021). As an alternative explanation, we suggest that
566 this increase in CF% could reflect a transient episode of low nannoplankton productivity or
export.

568 A strong increase in NF% is only observed in SEM across the PETM onset, which could result
from an intense dissolution. LM data show a peak of NF% during the PETM but the sampling
570 resolution is lower than for the SEM analysis. The PETM onset is associated with the increase
in RA of *Discoaster* spp., which parallels the decrease in percentage of small placoliths.
572 *Discoaster* spp. overgrowth intensity is also higher during the PETM than across the rest of
the studied interval (Appendix B5. Supplementary data). All together these observations
574 point to an episode of strong dissolution in the water column or within the sediment across
the PETM onset, suggesting that the CCD shoaling might have been more important than
576 commonly interpreted for ODP Site 1209 (Colosimo et al., 2005; Zeebe and Zachos, 2007;
Westerhold et al. 2018).

578

5.2.2. The Late Paleocene Event, causes and extent

580 The nannofossil assemblages studied in this work show a marked increase in the RAs
of *Discoaster* spp. and *Fasciculithus* spp. and a decrease in RA of small placoliths in the
582 interval between 219.4 m and 220.7 m, corresponding to the LPE (Thanetian; Fig. 4f, h, i). A
very similar increase was reported in the work of Alvarez et al. (2019) for Discoasterales
584 during the LPE at the same site. Raffi et al. (2005) also recorded an increase in the
abundance of *Discoaster* spp. at ODP Site 1215 (North Pacific). This interval at Site 1209
586 records a maximum in foraminiferal fragmentation, Benthic%, and very low CF% values (this
study; Hancock and Dickens, 2005; Westerhold et al., 2018). The LPE shows therefore

588 changes similar to the PETM for the majority of the considered parameters, with the
exception of CF% (see section 5.2.1.).

590 Hancock and Dickens (2005), based on a lower resolution PFF%, CF% and Benthic% proxies
from ODP Site 1209 and from the nearby ODP Site 1211, reported a similar period of
592 dissolution over the LPE. Conversely, the coarse fraction record at Site ODP 1262 (South
Atlantic; Littler et al., 2014) does not show any marked decrease during the interval
594 correlative to the LPE. The LPE might then be a relatively local event restricted to the North
Pacific. The stable isotope record of benthic foraminifera *Nuttallides truempyi* and of the
596 bulk sediment generated at site 1209 (this study; Westerhold et al., 2018) shows no abrupt
change in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values during this interval, nor significant decrease in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ which would
598 indicate a warming event. Given the extremely low amount of organic matter content at site
1209 (Bralower et al., 2002), dissolution related to CO_2 released by organic matter
600 degradation is unlikely. Benthic foraminiferal assemblages as an index of deep-water
oxygenation were analysed at DSDP site 577 (Shatsky Rise) but the low resolution does not
602 allow to draw any conclusions (Kaiho, 1991). At ODP Site 865 (equatorial Pacific), dysoxic or
anoxic condition were not recorded based upon benthic foraminifera assemblages during
604 the LPE (Arreguin-Rodriguez et al., 2016).

Because of its limited geographic extent, ocean acidification related to massive carbon
606 release during the LPE seems unlikely to be the main cause for carbonate dissolution.
Alternatively, the LPE could have been caused by a shift from young to old deep-water
608 masses, the latter being richer in CO_2 and hence more corrosive against carbonates.
However, such an enrichment in CO_2 due to the influx of older bottom-water masses should
610 have led to a ^{13}C depletion recorded by benthic foraminifera calcite. This depletion is not
evident when looking at the benthic isotope data compiled by Westerhold et al. (2018).

612 Additionally, the low-resolution neodymium isotope records of the Pacific Ocean (Thomas,
2004; Thomas et al., 2008; 2014) indicate rather stable deep-water circulation in the late
614 Paleocene. Nevertheless, we cannot discard the possibility that the LPE resulted from two
initially distinct events (D1 and D2), which were homogenised by bioturbation into a
616 stratigraphically broader event. This would imply that D1 and D2 were much more intense in
the Pacific than in other sites (e.g., Walvis Ridge). This is key to determining location and
618 duration of intense dissolution events, as it could give us insights into the cause of
hyperthermal like the PETM. The drop in nannofossil and fragment absolute abundances
620 (Figs. 4-6) show a larger magnitude at the PETM than that recorded across the LPE, but the
latter occurs over a much wider stratigraphic interval. It seems, therefore, that these two
622 events of increased dissolution were driven by different mechanisms and biogeochemical
feedbacks.

624

6. Conclusions

626 The detailed analysis of nannofossil fragments in the studied Paleocene-Eocene samples
indicates that nannofossil absolute abundances of entire specimens underestimate by ~25%
628 the actual number of nannofossils contained in the sediment, i.e., those represented by all
nannofossil particles, including small fragments. This finding has strong implications for
630 reconstructions of past nannofossil export and burial fluxes. The reconstructed abundances
of whole specimens show an excellent relationship with nannofossil fragmentation in
632 stratigraphic data, implying that nannofossil break-up follows a general physical law. Thus,
all-inclusive nannofossil abundances per gram of sediment can be easily calculated by
634 applying this relationship on raw fragment and whole nannofossil counts, i.e., without a
detailed counting of different-sized fragment. Although very promising, this relationship was

636 however established on samples from a single locality, covering a relatively short time
interval. The methodology proposed herein should therefore be applied to different
638 nannofossil assemblages from different localities and ages, containing distinct coccolith and
nannolith morphologies, before it can be safely extrapolated to other assemblages.

640 The percentage of nannofossil fragments across the Paleocene-Eocene transition at ODP Site
1209 does not show a clear relationship with the well-established foraminiferal dissolution
642 proxies (PFF%, CF%, Benthic%), confirming that nannofossil fragmentation represents a poor
tracer of dissolution. By contrast, the fragmentation of large placoliths and the small
644 placoliths/*Discoaster* spp. ratio seem to be more reliable markers for dissolution, which
complement the well-established foraminiferal dissolution proxies. Together, the
646 foraminiferal and nannofossil assemblage data at ODP Site 1209 indicate a marked rise in
dissolution across the PETM onset and during a longer-lived episode referred to in this study
648 as the LPE (Lower Paleocene Event), which predates the PETM onset by about 300-700 kyrs
and includes the hyperthermal D1 and D2. This hitherto poorly documented event differs
650 from the PETM in that it seems more restricted geographically, it is not associated with
evidence for global warming nor massive carbon injection, and was clearly longer-lived.

652

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662

664 **Author Contributions**

666 **Nicolas Pige:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis (overgrown quantification,
isotope, nannofossil reconstruction), Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft,
668 Review **Guillaume Suan:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing, Review, Funding
acquisition **Eddy Buiron:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis (stratigraphic
670 nannofossil counts), Investigation **Vincent Langlois:** Methodology, Formal analysis
(nannofossil reconstruction), Writing, Review **Alyssa Mehir:** Formal analysis (foraminiferal-
672 based dissolution proxies) **Arnaud Vinçon-Laugier:** Formal analysis (isotope), Review
Emanuela Mattioli: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing, Review, Funding acquisition

674 **Declaration of Competing interest**

None

676

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