

1 **Stratigraphic influence on emplacement and 3-dimensional**
2 **structure of a large mafic sill in sedimentary strata**

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19 This paper is a non-peer reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv. This preprint was
20 submitted to peer-review journal Basin Research.

21

22 **Abstract**

23 Sills are fundamental elements of volcanic plumbing systems emplaced, among other, in
24 sedimentary basins. Even though sills are commonly considered simple, straight concordant
25 igneous sheets, they are actually complex 3-dimensional objects. The detailed knowledge of
26 the 3D structure of sills and their host rock is of primary relevance to better constraining the
27 emplacement mechanisms and the impacts of sills on sedimentary basins. This study describes
28 the results of 3-dimensional geological mapping of a large, well-exposed Early Cretaceous
29 dolerite sill in Central Spitsbergen, Svalbard, Arctic Norway, using a combination of digital
30 outcrop modelling and field mapping. The sill was emplaced within Upper Palaeozoic
31 sedimentary formations of Svalbard. It is made of distinct segments emplaced at different
32 stratigraphic levels of the host rock stratigraphy. The mapping shows a clear stratigraphic
33 control on the intrusion morphology. The sill segments emplaced at the boundary between two
34 formations, which marks a strong lithological boundary, are straight and very concordant.
35 Conversely, the segments emplaced within a more homogeneous formation exhibit more
36 complex, locally discordant shapes. The sill segments emplaced at distinct stratigraphic levels
37 are connected by vertical steps, which formed through vertical faulting between the tips of the
38 sill segments. The preferred NW-SE orientation of the steps and the thinning of the sill towards
39 the SE suggests a propagation direction of the magma towards the SE. Our study shows how
40 3-dimensional knowledge of igneous intrusions is key for revealing their emplacement
41 mechanisms.

42

43 **1 Introduction**

44 Sills are fundamental elements of volcanic plumbing systems emplaced, among other, in
45 sedimentary basins (e.g., Planke et al., 2005; Magee et al., 2016; Polteau et al., 2016; Galland
46 et al., 2018; Lombardo et al., 2024). Their potential effects on sedimentary basins and
47 properties in the subsurface are widely recognized both on local and regional scales (e.g.,
48 Einsele et al., 1980; Senger et al., 2017; Spacapan et al., 2018). Large sub-horizontal sill
49 intrusions emplaced in organic-rich shale formations can trigger fast maturation of organic
50 matter (Iyer et al., 2017; Spacapan et al., 2018) and the generation of large volumes of methane
51 and carbon dioxide (Svensen et al., 2004; Aarnes et al., 2010; Galerne and Hasenclever, 2019).
52 The catastrophic release of these gases into the atmosphere has triggered extreme climate
53 change and mass extinctions (Courtilot and Renne, 2003; Svensen et al., 2004; Svensen et al.,
54 2009). Conversely, sills can also act as fractured reservoirs for water or hydrocarbons
55 (Chevallier et al., 2001; Chevallier et al., 2004; Spacapan et al., 2020a; Spacapan et al., 2020b;
56 Rabbell et al., 2021) or as reservoir seals (de Miranda et al., 2018). Additionally, groundwater
57 exploration and CO₂ sequestration is affected by the presence of sills in a sedimentary basin
58 (Chevallier et al., 2001; Senger et al., 2013; Senger et al., 2017).

59 By definition, sills are concordant, straight igneous sheets, following strata of the host
60 rock. However, in reality, sills are made of concordant segments with locally discordant parts,
61 so that sills are complex 3-dimensional (3D) objects (Planke et al., 2005; Galland et al., 2018;
62 Galland et al., 2019; Magee et al., 2019). The overall concordant nature of sills lead to a general
63 consensus that their emplacement is controlled to a large extent by the layering (Kavanagh et
64 al., 2006; Thomson and Schofield, 2008; Galland et al., 2018). At large scale,

65 It has been observed on 3D seismic data that sills may consist of lobes connected by
66 steps or broken bridges, the orientation of which may indicate the propagation direction of the
67 intrusion (Figure 1B) (e.g., Thomson and Hutton, 2004; Hansen and Cartwright, 2006;

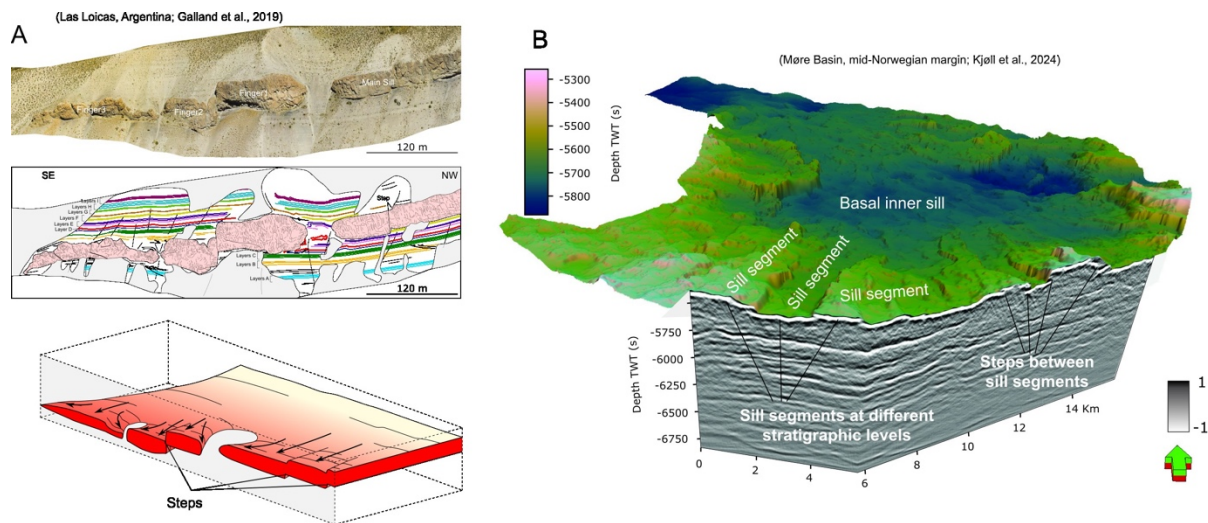
68 Thomson, 2007; Schofield et al., 2012; Magee et al., 2016; Schmiedel et al., 2017).
69 Observations show that overall concordant sills also exhibit local discordant segments or steps
70 that connect two concordant segments emplaced at different stratigraphic levels (Hutton, 2009;
71 Gürer et al., 2015; Eide et al., 2016; Galland et al., 2019; Magee et al., 2019; Kjenes et al.,
72 2022). It has been proposed that these steps mark sill propagation direction (Galland et al.,
73 2019; Magee et al., 2019; Arachchige et al., 2022). Rabbel et al. (2021) and Kjenes et al. (2022)
74 also demonstrated that subtle morphological variations in sill geometry can significantly
75 modify the fracture distribution both within and outside the emplaced body. Thus, the detailed
76 knowledge of the 3D structure of sills and their host rock is of primary relevance to better
77 constraining the emplacement mechanisms and the properties of sills and their surrounding
78 strata.

79 During the last two decades, the main tool for studying the 3D architecture of igneous
80 sills has been 3D seismic interpretation (e.g., Thomson and Hutton, 2004; Hansen and
81 Cartwright, 2006; Thomson, 2007; Schofield et al., 2012; Magee et al., 2016; Schmiedel et al.,
82 2017; Lombardo et al., 2024). Most of these studies provide additional evidence that sills in
83 3D may consist of lobes connected by steps or broken bridges, the orientation of which may
84 indicate the propagation direction of the intrusion (Figure 1B). Nevertheless, even though 3D
85 seismic images of sills are spectacular, the scales of sill-related structures are commonly below
86 seismic resolution (Mark et al., 2018; Rabbel et al., 2018), such that key elements might be
87 invisible in the seismic data. Conversely, field geology mapping appears limited to reconstruct
88 the 3D structure of large igneous sills. Most exceptional exposures of sills are displayed along
89 2-dimensional (2D) sections (Figure 1A) (Hutton, 2009; Eide et al., 2016; Rabbel et al., 2018;
90 Galland et al., 2019), so that the third dimension is challenging to infer. In the Karoo Basin,
91 South Africa, the top surfaces of some sills are exposed in 3D (Polteau et al., 2008; Galerne et

92 al., 2011), but the overburden is eroded and the host rock below the sills are scree-covered or
93 buried below the sills.

94 This study describes the results of a mapping campaign of the peninsula separating
95 Ekmanfjorden from Dicksonfjorden in central Spitsbergen, Svalbard, Arctic Norway (Figure
96 2). Here a large Early Cretaceous dolerite sill is exposed in steep, near-vertical cliffs (see
97 section 4) that we mapped using a combination of digital outcrop modelling and field mapping.
98 The mountain massif is deeply eroded by glaciers creating valleys which in turn allow 3D-
99 reconstruction of the sill and its relationship with the host rock strata.

100



101

102 Figure 1. A. Orthorectified image (top) and structural interpretation (middle) of outcropping
103 igneous fingers emplaced in organic-rich shale, Las Loicas, Neuquén Basin, Argentina
104 (Galland et al., 2019). Bottom: schematic 3D block diagram of the structure and emplacement
105 of the sill and fingers. B. 3D depth map of a sill that show fingers emplaced at different
106 stratigraphic levels, providing a stepped expression in the seismic cross-section and on the
107 corresponding mapped surface. Individual fingers are ca 2 km wide and ca 5-10 km long. Sill
108 is located in Møre Basin on mid-Norwegian margin and emplaced into Cretaceous aged strata
109 dominated by bathyal mudstones. Details of the seismic survey are described by Kjøl et al.
110 (2024). The color bar for the seismic profile is displayed such that black denotes an increase in

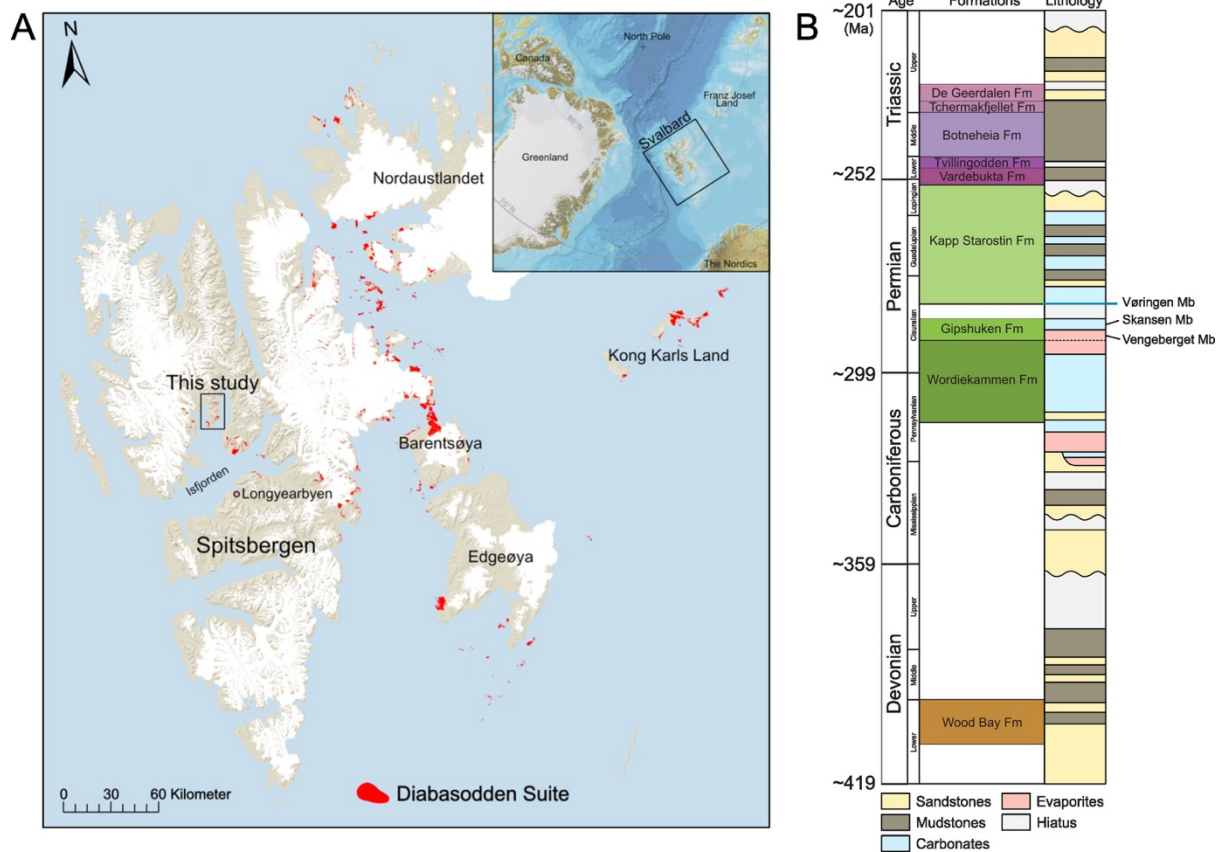
111 acoustic impedance. Scientific color bar for the 3D surface of the sill is “Batlow” from
112 (Cramer et al., 2020)

113

114 **2 Geological setting**

115 The study area is a mountainous peninsula outcropping in the northern part of Isfjorden
116 separating Ekmanfjorden and Dicksonfjorden (Figure 2). The studied sill is a dolerite intrusion
117 that belongs to the Diabasodden Suite (Dallmann, 1999; Maher, 2001; Senger et al., 2014a;
118 Dallmann, 2015; Senger and Galland, 2022; Sartell et al., revised). The Diabasodden Suite is
119 exposed throughout Svalbard (Figure 2) and comprises Early Cretaceous dolerite sills and
120 dykes emplaced predominantly in heterogeneous host rocks including metamorphic basement,
121 Paleozoic carbonates and Mesozoic shales (Senger et al., 2014b; Senger and Galland, 2022).
122 In a regional perspective, the Diabasodden Suite represents the Svalbard portion of the circum-
123 Arctic High Arctic Large Igneous Province (HALIP; e.g., Maher, 2001; Sartell et al., revised).

124



125

126 Figure 2. A. Map of Svalbard Archipelago, locating the study area (rectangle). White domains
 127 are glaciers. Red indicates distribution of dolerites of the Diabasodden Suite. The topographical
 128 map is based on the digital elevation model, glacier extent and land area from the Norwegian
 129 Polar Institute (2014b, a), and the extend of the Diabasodden Suite is modified from the
 130 Geological map of Svalbard (Norwegian Polar Institute, 2016). Inset: map of the Arctic
 131 locating Svalbard. The Arctic map is modified from the International Bathymetric Chart of the
 132 Arctic Ocean (IBCAO v 3.0) (Jakobsson et al., 2012). B. Selected stratigraphic column of
 133 Svalbard geology in the vicinity of the study area, modified from Sorento et al. (2020) and
 134 Olausen et al. (2025).

135

136 The geological evolution of Svalbard is well covered in the literature (e.g., Steel and
 137 Worsley, 1984; Worsley, 2008; Dallmann, 2015; Olausen et al., 2025) and includes several

138 tectono-magmatic events affecting the host rocks (Figure 2B). In this section we will focus on
139 the rock formations outcropping in the study area (Figure 2).

140 Following the Caledonian orogeny, the Devonian Old Red Sandstone succession,
141 which includes the Wood Bay Formation (Figure 2B), was deposited in major fault-bounded
142 basins exposed in northern Svalbard (Braathen et al., 2018). The Ellesmerian (locally called
143 Svalbardian) compressional event affected Svalbard during the Late Devonian (Piepjohn,
144 2000). The Late Carboniferous was dominated by localized rifting along major north-south
145 trending tectonic lineaments. Sedimentation in half grabens developed mixed siliciclastic-
146 carbonate-evaporitic strata of the Wordiekammen Formation (Smyrak-Sikora et al., 2018;
147 Smyrak-Sikora et al., 2021). A tectonically stable platform was established by the Permian and
148 lasted until the Late Jurassic. The transition from warm-water carbonates of the Gipshuken
149 Formation (Blomeier et al., 2009) to cold-water carbonates of the Kapp Starostin Formation
150 during the Permian was facilitated by Svalbard's rapid northward drift (Blomeier et al., 2013).
151 The Gipshuken Formation exhibits two members well visible in the field: a lower Vengeberget
152 Member dominated by evaporites, and the upper Skansen Member, dominated by carbonates
153 (Sorento et al., 2020). Sub-aerial exposure and erosion, followed by an abrupt shift in facies
154 towards brachiopod-dominated cool-water carbonates marks the lower boundary to the
155 overlying Vøringen Member and spiculitic chert of the upper Artinskian – upper Permian Kapp
156 Starostin Formation (Bond et al., 2018; Sorento et al., 2020).

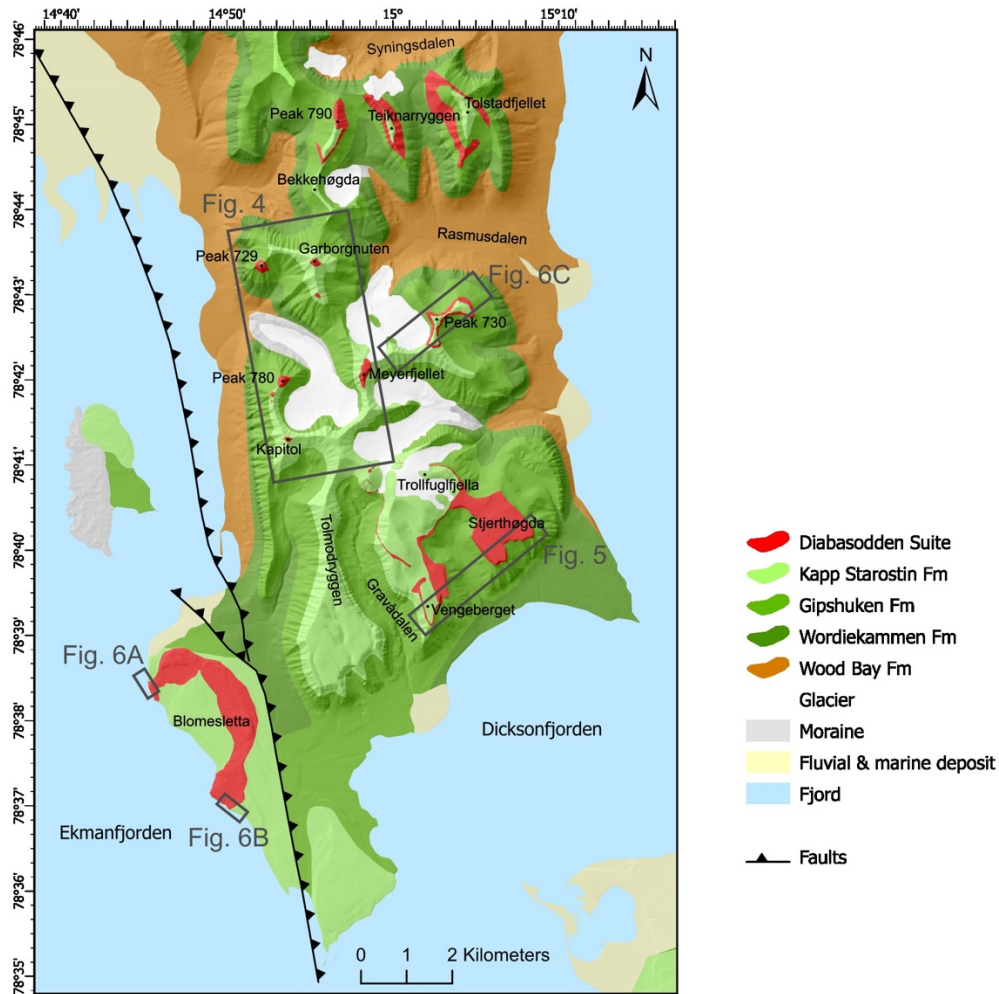
157 Large intrusions of the Diabasodden Suite were also emplaced in Triassic strata in the
158 vicinity of the study area (Senger and Galland, 2022). The Triassic was dominated by
159 siliciclastic deposition, beginning with Early Triassic deltaic to offshore
160 Vikinghøgda/Tvillingodden formations sourced largely from west (i.e. Greenland) (Dallmann,
161 2015). The Middle Triassic organic-rich mudstones of the Botneheia Formation form a major
162 host rock for the igneous intrusions of the Diabasodden Suite (Krajewski, 2013; Wesenlund et

163 al., 2021; Senger and Galland, 2022). Subsequently, Late Triassic-Early Cretaceous
164 sedimentation continued while Svalbard was moving northward.

165 The Early Cretaceous was marked by a shift in the sedimentary patterns, associated
166 with a regional southward tilting of Svalbard. This was caused by a major uplift to the north
167 during the Early Cretaceous, related to regional-scale thermal doming associated with HALIP
168 magmatism (Ineson et al., 2021). Igneous intrusions of the Diabasodden Suite are characterized
169 in detail in the vicinity of Longyearbyen, where they compartmentalize a reservoir-caprock
170 system envisioned for CO₂ storage (Senger et al., 2013; Senger et al., 2014a).

171 A major regional erosion removed the Upper Cretaceous (Maher, 2001). Reworked
172 pollen of Middle to Late Cretaceous age indicate that Upper Cretaceous strata were present in
173 Svalbard in the past (Smelror and Larssen, 2016). Paleogene strata were deposited in the
174 Central Spitsbergen Basin, a sedimentary basin formed in the foreland of the Paleogene West
175 Spitsbergen transpressive Fold-and-Thrust Belt located in the west (Bergh et al., 1997). The
176 entire igneous complex of the Diabasodden Suite was affected by this major tectonic event, as
177 evidenced by faulted and folded igneous intrusions at, for instance, Festningen and
178 Mediumfjellet. Neogene glaciations coupled with tectonic and glacio-isostatic uplift developed
179 hiatus and deeply serrated topography which exposes the studied outcrops (Lasabuda et al.,
180 2021). Constraining the sill's emplacement depth is complicated by these factors.

181



182

183 Figure 3. Detailed geological map of James I Land peninsula compiled from our field
 184 observations. The topographical map is based on the digital elevation model, glacier extents
 185 and land area from the Norwegian Polar Institute (2014b, a), and the extent of the Diabasodden
 186 Suite (red) is modified from the Geological map of Svalbard (Norwegian Polar Institute, 2016),
 187 based on our field observations. Grey boxes locate landscapes of Figures 4-6.

188

189 3 Methods and data

190 The fieldwork involved mapping dolerite sill outcrops across the entire study area bounded by
 191 Ekmanfjorden, Dicksonfjorden and Syningsdalen (Figure 3) during three summer field
 192 expeditions (2019, 2020 and 2021). Place names are given where peaks are named, while

193 unnamed peaks are referred to by their elevation in metres. Particular focus was on
194 documenting contacts of the intrusion and identifying in which stratigraphic level the dolerite
195 body was emplaced into. The mapping work integrated remote observations via drone surveys
196 and field observations to complement, calibrate and ground-truth the drone data.

197 The drone surveys were performed for processing 3D digital outcrop models (DOM)
198 of the study area using structure from motion and multiview stereopsis (SfM-MVS)
199 photogrammetric processing (Westoby et al., 2012). The drone used was a DJI Mavic 2 Pro
200 quadcopter, with a standard 20 MegaPixels (MP) RGB camera with 1” CMOS (complementary
201 metal oxide semiconductor) sensor. The photogrammetric processing of the drone images was
202 performed using Agisoft Metashape following the workflow outlined by Betlem et al. (2023),
203 and the DOM is openly available through the Svalbox database (Senger et al., 2020; Betlem et
204 al., 2023). The DOM was processed from 1886 photographs and covers an area of 56.2 km²
205 with a pixel resolution of 11.4 cm/pix.

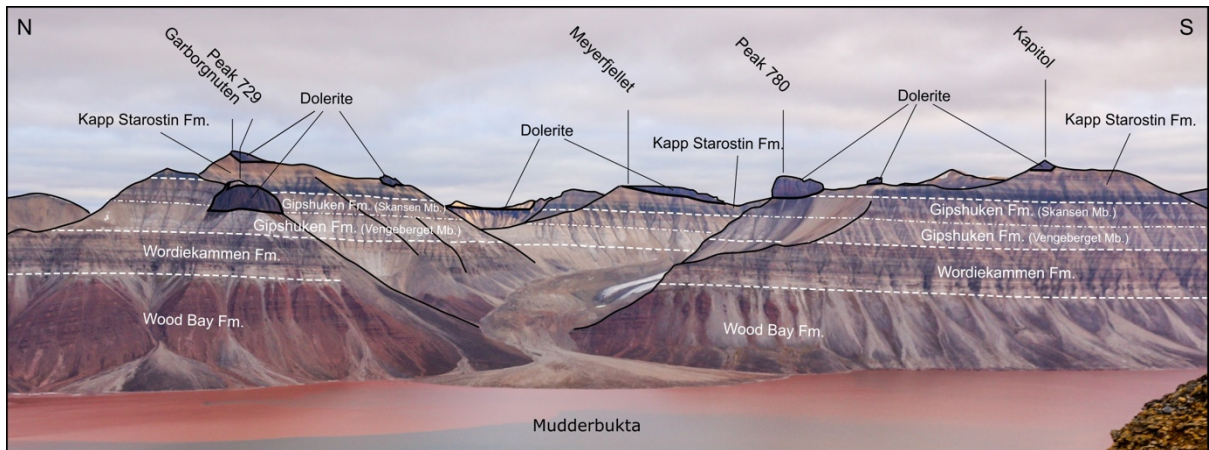
206 Using the combined DOM of the peninsula and observations from the field, the main
207 contacts between the sedimentary formations (Wordiekammen, Gipshuken, and Kapp Starostin
208 Formations, and the Vengeberget and Skansen Members of the Gipshuken Formation) and the
209 intrusive body were mapped. Only areas where the contacts and boundaries were well-defined
210 and visible were marked, and scree-covered slopes were avoided. The detailed geological map
211 was drawn using ArcGIS Pro (Figure 4). Additionally, the dolerite body thickness was
212 measured on the DOMs in Agisoft Metashape, where both the lower and upper contacts of the
213 sill were exposed. The spatial information from each image is included in the DOM, allowing
214 elevation comparison between the top and bottom contacts. At each location, several thickness
215 measurements were done and averaged.

216

217 **4 Sill distribution and characteristics**

218 This detailed mapping allowed us to constrain the shape of the studied sill and the stratigraphic
219 levels at which it was emplaced at high resolution. We primarily recognized (1) concordant sill
220 segments and (2) discordant steps.

221



222

223 Figure 4. Western side of Garborgnuten, Peak 729, Meyerfjellet, Peak 780 and Kapitol
224 mountains, seen from Koloseum. White dashed lines locate stratigraphic contacts between the
225 main lithostratigraphic units. Bold solid black lines indicate intrusive contacts of dolerite units.

226 See location in Figure 3.

227

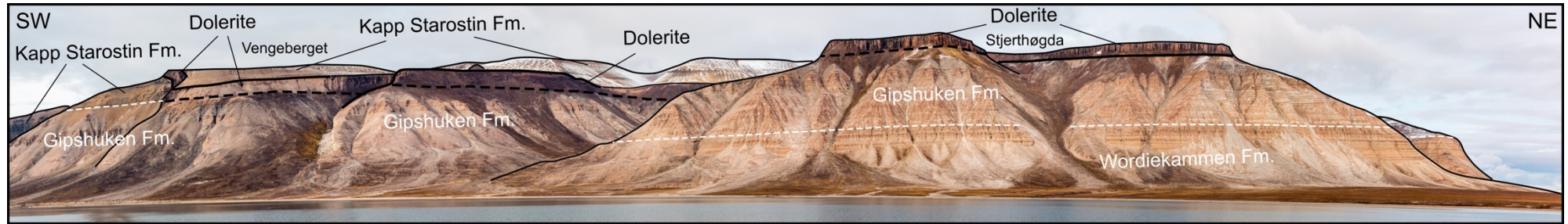
228 **4.1 Dominantly concordant sill segments**

229 The largest dolerite outcrops correspond to large concordant sill segments. These segments
230 occur as thick sheets that are continuous up to 3 kilometres. We recognised several concordant
231 sill segments emplaced at different stratigraphic levels.

232

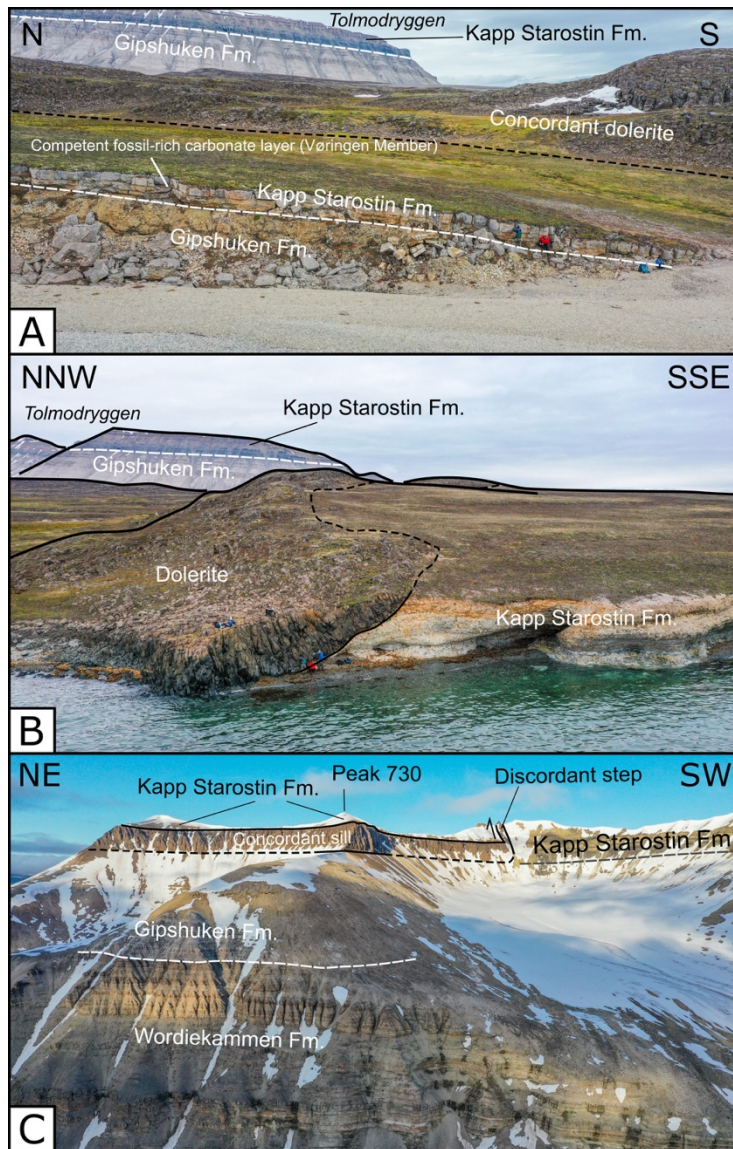
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236

237 Figure 5. Field photograph of south-eastern side of the study area between Vengeberget and Stjerthøgda mountains. White dashed lines locate
238 stratigraphic contacts between lithostratigraphic units. Thin solid black lines indicate observed intrusive contacts of the dolerite. Bold dashed black
239 lines indicate inferred intrusive contacts of the dolerite. See location in Figure 3.



240

241 Figure 6. Field drone photographs of studied sill. A. Northern concordant contact along the
 242 shore of Blomesletta. B. Southern discordant contact along the shore of Blomesletta. C. Drone
 243 photograph of summit east of Meyerfjellet displaying an exposed concordant sill segment and
 244 discordant step. Dashed white (and dark grey) lines locate stratigraphic contacts. Solid and
 245 dashed black line locate established and inferred, respectively, intrusive contacts. See locations
 246 in Figure 3.

247

248 The concordant sill segment emplaced in the deepest stratigraphic level is the intrusion
 249 that crops out west of Garborgnuten at peak 729 (Figure 4). The bottom intrusive contact was

250 emplaced near the contact between the lower (Vengeberget) and upper (Skansen) members of
251 the Gipshuken Formation (Figure 4). The roof of this sill segment is unreachable, and we infer
252 from drone images that the overburden rocks of the sill are metamorphosed carbonates of the
253 upper (Skansen) member of the Gipshuken Formation.

254 We mapped several concordant segments emplaced along the stratigraphic contact
255 between the Gipshuken and Kapp Starostin formations. The largest segment makes the dolerite
256 plateau of Stjerthøgda that also extends to the south to Vengeberget (Figure 5). The sill exposed
257 at Blomesletta also appeared to be emplaced at the same stratigraphic level (Figure 6). Note
258 that the sill contact exposed at the northern end of Blomesletta is concordant at the stratigraphic
259 contact between the Gipshuken and Kapp Starostin formations (Figure 6A), whereas the sill
260 contact exposed at the southern end is discordant through the chert deposits of the Kapp
261 Starostin Formation (Figure 6B). The third sill segment emplaced at the stratigraphic contact
262 between the Gipshuken and Kapp Starostin Formations is well exposed at the summit of Peak
263 730 east of Meyerfjellet (Figure 6C). South of Garborgnuten, on the other edge of the
264 Kapitolbreen glacier, another segment was emplaced at the same stratigraphic level (Figure 4).
265 Finally, the segments at the upper parts of Rasmusdalen were also emplaced along the
266 stratigraphic contact between the Gipshuken and Kapp Starostin formations (Figure 3).

267 Less extensive sub-concordant segments were emplaced within the Kapp Starostin
268 Formation and crop out at the summits of several mountains, including Garborgnuten, Kapitol
269 and Meyerfjellet (Figure 4). Even though these segments are much smaller than the
270 aforementioned concordant segments, their shapes are more complex. At Garborgnuten, the
271 bottom contact of the dolerite body is concordant to the south, and discordant (40-50° angle,
272 southward dipping) to the north (Figure 4). At Kapitol, the bottom contact is concordant to the
273 north and discordant (40-50° angle, northward dipping) to the south (Figure 4). At Meyerfjellet,

274 the bottom contact of the dolerite is overall discordant with a shallow angle to the host rock
275 layering (Figure 4).

276

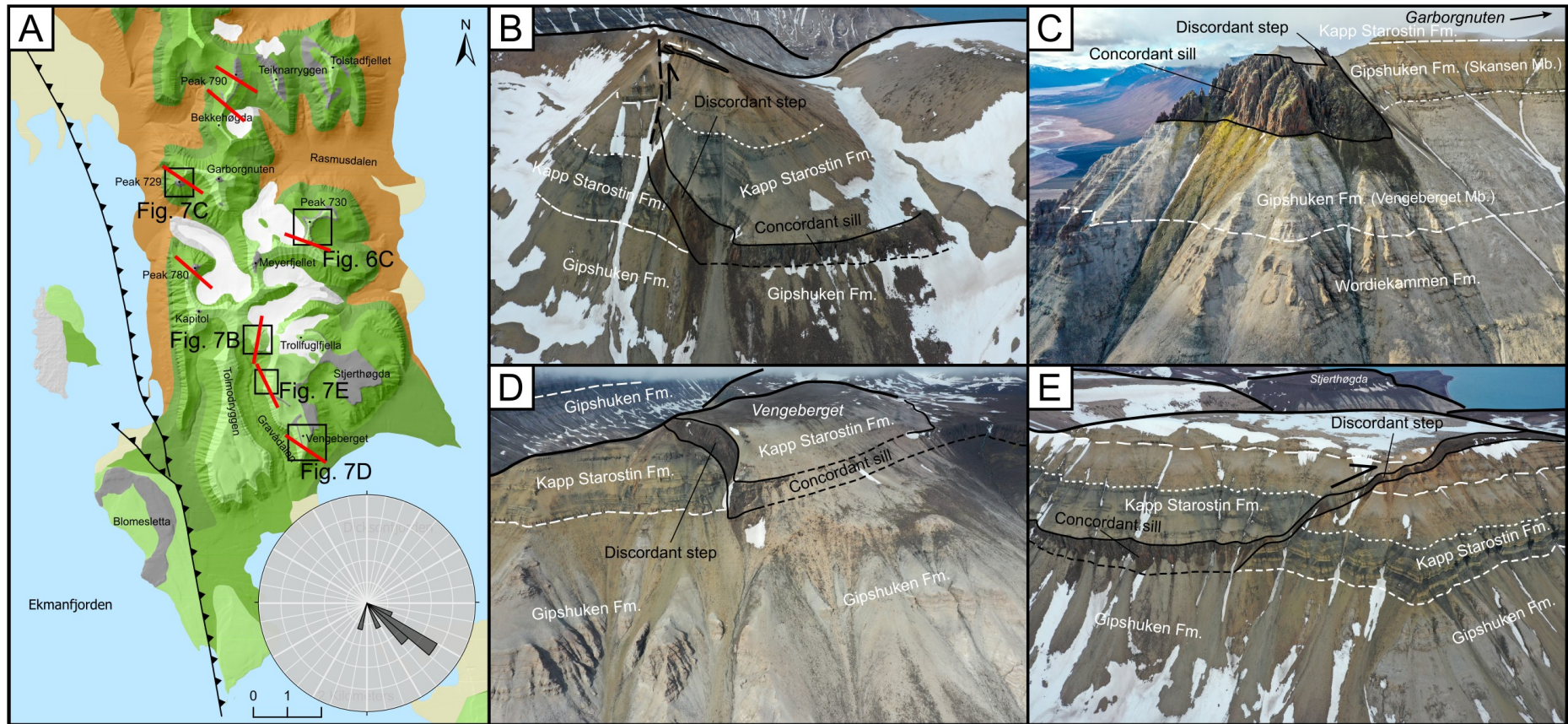
277 **4.2 Discordant steps and irregularities**

278 In addition to the large concordant sill segments described above, our mapping highlighted
279 discordant structures.

280 The bottom contacts of the sill segments emplaced within the Kapp Starostin Formation
281 are irregular and only partly concordant (Figure 4). At the top of Garborgnuten, the bottom
282 contact is concordant in its southern part and climbs obliquely in its northern part. This small
283 segment may be connected to the dolerite outcropping to the south along the same ridge (Figure
284 4). At Meyerfjellet, the exposed bottom contact is straight but discordant with the host rock
285 strata, gently dipping toward the south. Finally, at the top of Kapitol, the bottom contact is
286 concordant in its northern part and climbs obliquely southward (Figure 4). Despite the limited
287 extent of these outcrops, these observations suggest that the sill segments emplaced within the
288 Kapp Starostin Formation are much more irregular than the straight concordant segments
289 emplaced at the stratigraphic contact between the Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin
290 formations.

291 Steeply-dipping to vertical sheets shoot off from one edge of concordant sill segments
292 (Figure 7). These stepping structures accommodate an abrupt sill thickness variation. For
293 example, the discordant step structure at the intrusion west of Garborgnuten (Figure 7C)
294 accommodates a sharp transition from a thick concordant sill to no sill in a few tens of meters.

295



297

298 Figure 7. A. Simplified geological map of study area (same as Figure 3) locating field photographs of this figure and of Figure 6C. Red lines
 299 indicate location and orientation of intrusive steps. B. Drone photograph of exposed concordant sill segment and discordant step to the east of
 300 Trollfuglfjella. C. Drone photograph of well exposed concordant sill segment and discordant step to the west of Garborgnuten mountain. D. Drone

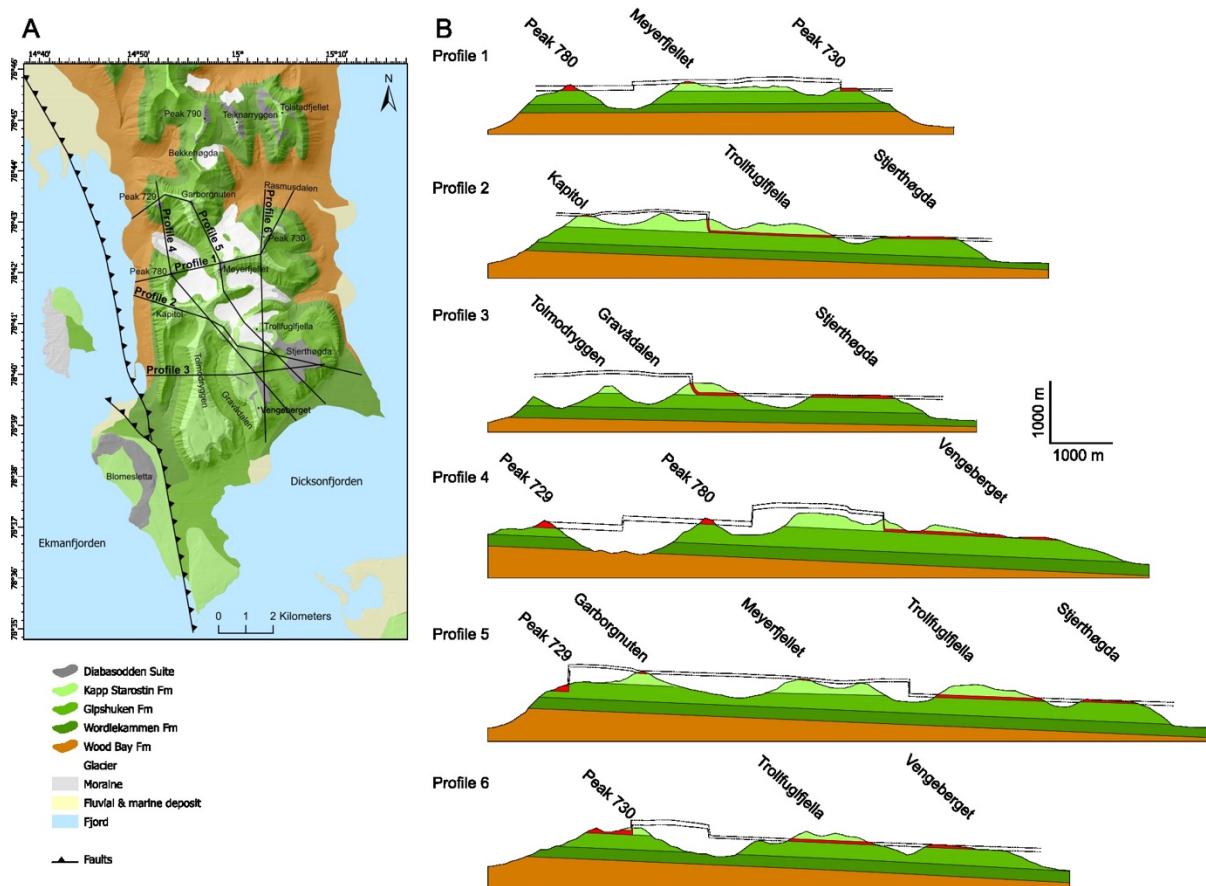
301 photograph of concordant sill segment and discordant step at Vengeberget. E. Drone photograph of concordant sill segment and discordant step
302 northwest of Vengeberget. Text indicating igneous segments is in black font, text indicating host rock formation is in white font.
303

304

305 The stepping structures exposed along Gravådalen exhibit structures that help
306 constraining the mechanisms of steps formation. On the eastern flank of Gravådalen, the
307 concordant sill segment emplaced between the Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations
308 climbs as a step toward Vengeberget (Figure 7E). At the southern tip of the concordant sill
309 segment, the bottom contact correlates laterally with the stratigraphic contact between the
310 Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations; there the sill feeds a sub-vertical sheet (Figure
311 7E). On both sides of the sub-vertical sheet, the stratal units of the Kapp Starostin Formation
312 can be recognised, however they are offset: the members of the Kapp Starostin Formation are
313 higher above the concordant sill segment (left in Figure 7E) than in the section without the sill
314 (right in Figure 7E). We infer that the step structure accommodates both upward propagation
315 of the magma and the thickening of the concordant sill segments:

316 The mapping of the steps indicate that their orientation is unevenly distributed. Overall,
317 all mapped steps exhibit orientations from N/S to E/W, with a predominant orientation being
318 NW/SE (Figure 9).

319



320

321 Figure 8. A. Geological map of the study area (same as Figure 3) locating geological cross
 322 sections of B. B. Geological cross sections constructed from the DOMs and geological field
 323 observations.

324

325 4.3 Intrusion thickness

326 At Peak 729 (Figure 7C), Peak 780 and Peak 730 (Figure 6C), both the bottom and top
 327 contacts of the concordant sheets are well exposed. From NW to SE, the intrusion thickness at
 328 Peak 729 is 105 m, at Peak 790 the thickness is 96 m, and at Peak 730 the thickness is 70 m.

329 At Sjerthøgda, the bottom contact of the sill is well exposed locally, but the top contact
 330 is not preserved. Nevertheless, the Sjerthøgda plateau is flat and parallel to the exposed bottom
 331 contact. We assume that if significant erosion of the upper part of the sill took place, the
 332 Sjerthøgda plateau would not be so flat, but instead dissected by valleys. We consequently

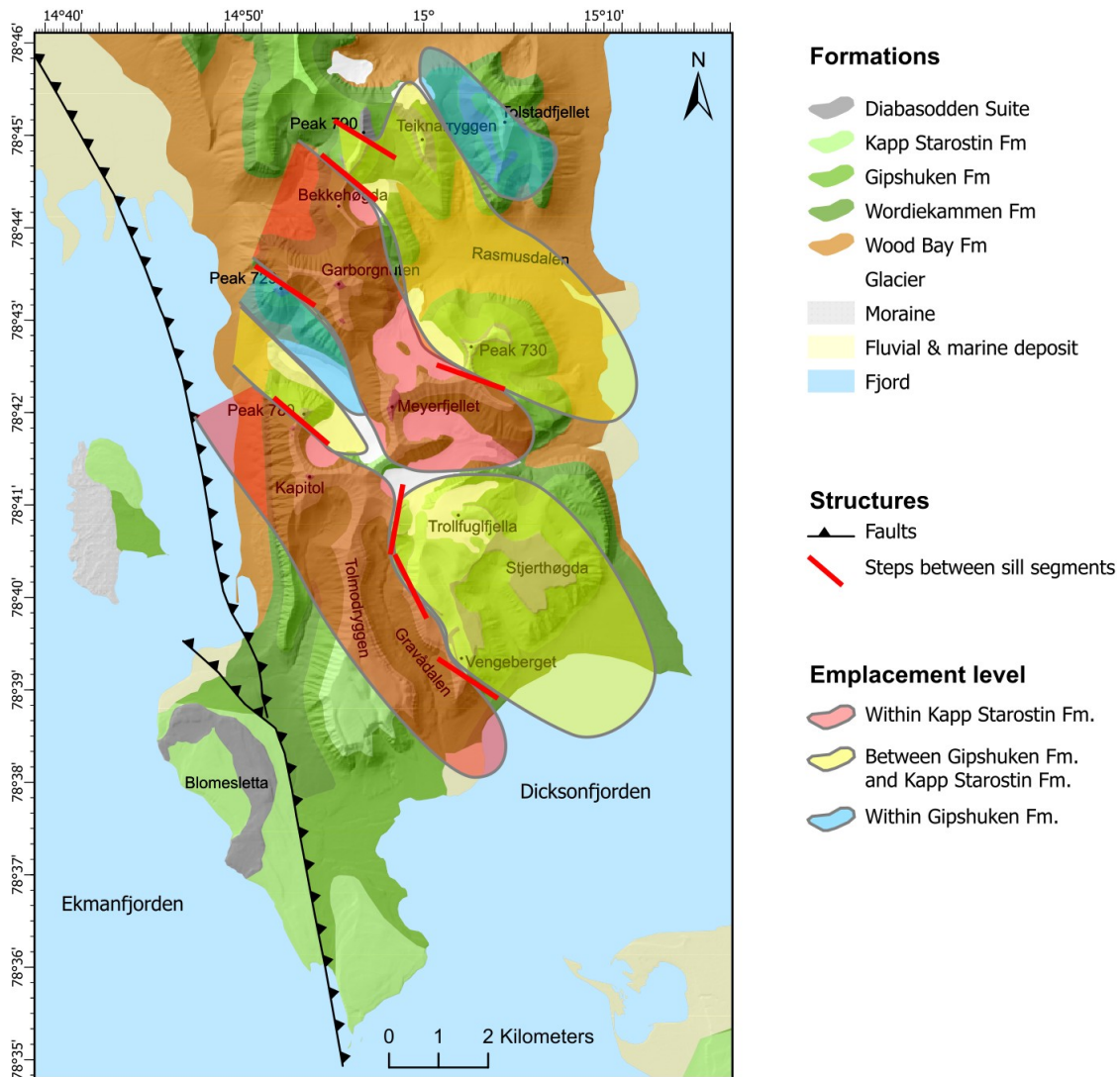
333 infer that the top of the Stjerthøgda plateau is a good proxy for the top contact of the sill exposed
334 there. The sill is 45 m thick along its southwestern edge and 36 m along its easternmost edge.

335 Along the eastern flank of Gravådalen, the top contact of the concordant sill is well
336 exposed, but the bottom contact is covered (Figure 7B and E). Nevertheless, where the
337 intrusion climbs to an inclined sheet, the overlying Kapp Starostin Formation is offset vertically
338 (Figure 7B and E). We interpret that the offset is a good proxy for the thickness of the
339 underlying concordant sheet (see interpretation section 5.4), and measure it to 42 m.

340 Finally, at the northern end of Gravådalen, the concordant sill segment emplaced
341 between the Gipshuken Formation and the Kapp Starostin Formation exhibits a step, across
342 which the Kapp Starostin Formation is vertically offset. Similarly to the estimate described in
343 above, the vertical offset of 42 m is assumed to be a good proxy of the thickness of the
344 concordant sill segment. Note that due to local tilting related to the step formation, the offset
345 estimate is likely less precise.

346 The measurements highlight a systematic thinning of the sill segments from the
347 northwest to the southeast.

348



349

350 Figure 9. Geological map of study area (same as Figure 3) highlighting the interpolated sill
 351 segments with colours reflecting their stratigraphic level of emplacement to highlight the
 352 elongated lobe morphology of the segments.

353

354 5 Interpretation

355 5.1 Continuity and structure of the sill

356 The studied sill crops out discontinuously near the top of several mountains, so that the
 357 continuity displayed in the geological cross sections of Figure 8 is an interpretation.
 358 Nevertheless, several elements support this interpretation: the mapped sill segments were

359 emplaced at similar stratigraphic levels separated by a few kilometres distance, the mapped
360 steps provide a structural explanation of how sill segments emplaced at distinct stratigraphic
361 levels can be connected (Figure 7), and the geochemical compositions and U-Pb ages of the
362 studied sill segments are very similar (Sartell, 2021; Sartell et al., revised).

363 Note that the sill segment at Blomesletta was emplaced at the stratigraphic boundary
364 between the Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations (Figure 3, Figure 6), i.e. the same
365 stratigraphic level as those of several segments of the mapped sill. Even though the sill at
366 Blomesletta crops out at much lower elevations than the segments mapped high in the
367 mountains, it is likely that the sill exposed at Blomesletta is part of the studied sill, but in an
368 offset position due to the Blomsletta fault (Blinova et al., 2013) in between the main peninsula
369 and Blomesletta (Figure 3).

370 The distribution of the sill segments, their stratigraphic levels of emplacement, and the
371 steps connecting them allows reconstructing the shape of each segment on map view (Figure
372 9). Overall, each segment appears elongated along a NW/SE direction. In addition, the
373 subvertical steps connecting the sill segments are located along the lateral edges of the
374 segments, i.e. the edges are sub-parallel to the long segment axes (Figure 9).

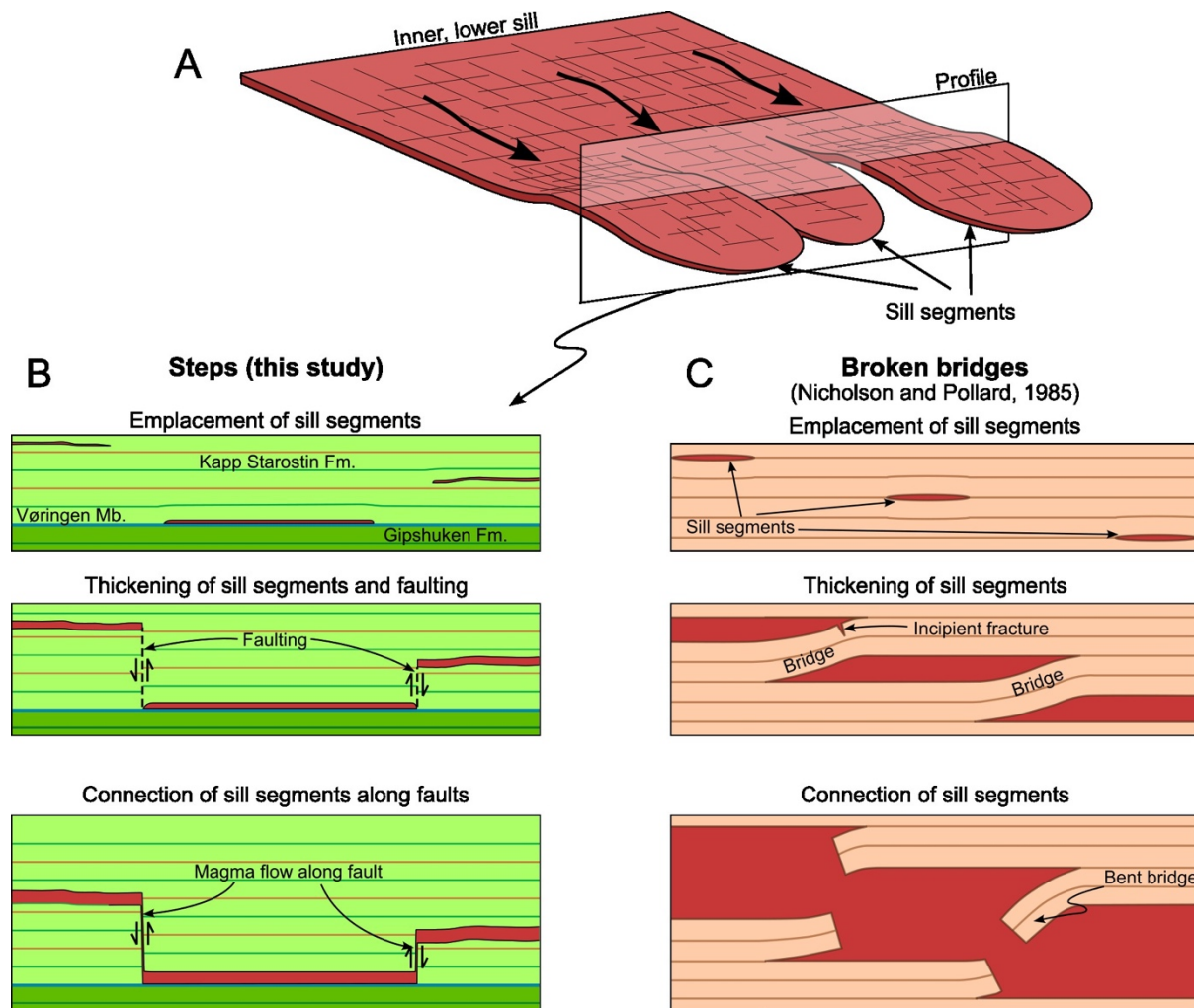
375

376 **5.2 Volume estimate of the exposed sill**

377 In this section we provide only a rough volume estimate of the studied sill. By estimating the
378 area highlighted in Figure 9 on Google Earth, and multiplying this area ($\sim 70 \text{ km}^2$) by the
379 average thickness of our thickness measurements (65.7 m), a simple volume estimate
380 calculation of the mapped sill yields $\sim 4.6 \text{ km}^3$. If we include Blomesletta in the measured area
381 (see section 5.1), this yields an estimated sill volume of $\sim 6.7 \text{ km}^3$. Finally, on the western flank
382 of Ekmanfjorden at the summit of Kolosseum, a dolerite sill was emplaced within the Kapp
383 Starostin Formation (Dallmann, 2015), suggesting it is part of the sill described in this study.

384 If we extend the area of the sill to Kolosseum, this yields an estimated sill volume of ~11.4
 385 km³. It is likely that the studied sill extends far beyond the study area, so that this estimate is
 386 an underestimate of the actual intrusion volume.

387



388

389 Figure 10. A. 3D block diagram drawing of the structure of the sill described in this study. Bold
 390 arrows indicate main magma flow direction from NW to SE. Transparent rectangle indicates
 391 location of cross sections of B. B. Time sequence of cross sections located in A (perpendicular
 392 to propagation direction) illustrating the formation of steps between sill segments emplaced at
 393 different stratigraphic levels. C. Time sequence of cross sections illustrating the formation of
 394 broken bridges, perpendicular to the main intrusion propagation direction, as described by
 395 Nicholson and Pollard (1985).

396

397 **5.3 Stratigraphic control on emplacement mechanisms**

398 Our mapping highlights that sill segments emplaced along the stratigraphic boundary between
399 the Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations are straight and concordant, and are
400 terminated laterally by a subvertical step structure (Figure 6C, Figure 7 and Figure 8).
401 Conversely, the small outcrops of the sill segments emplaced within the Kapp Starostin
402 Formation exhibit irregular shapes (Figure 4, Figure 8). Our data thus highlight a correlation
403 between the intrusion morphology and the stratigraphic level of emplacement.

404 The boundary between the Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations is marked by
405 both (1) a thick and competent fossil-rich carbonate layer (Vøringen Member; Figure 6) and
406 (2) a sharp lithological transition from evaporite-rich to clay-rich formations below and above,
407 respectively. This stratigraphic level thus likely corresponds to a strong mechanical layering
408 that may have controlled the very flat morphology of the concordant sill segments. In contrast,
409 the more homogeneous package of the Kapp Starostin Formation may have favoured the
410 emplacement of more irregular segments of the sill, similarly to large sills emplaced in the
411 Triassic organic-rich shale in Svalbard (Senger and Galland, 2022).

412

413 **5.4 Mechanics of step formation**

414 Most steps mapped in the study area exhibit subvertical channel shape connecting the lateral
415 edges of two sill segments emplaced at distinct stratigraphic levels (Figure 7 and Figure 9).
416 Such connections have been commonly observed on 2D outcrops (Hutton, 2009; Eide et al.,
417 2016; Kjenes et al., 2022). A key feature to reveal the mechanics of step formation is the offset
418 strata of the host rock on both sides of the steps, in between the two sill segments (Figure 7).

419 From these observations, we infer the following mechanism. When the lateral edges of
420 two sill segments emplaced at different stratigraphic levels are superimposed vertically, the

421 opening of both segments produce shearing of the host rock between the sill segment tips
422 (Figure 10B). In our study area, the shearing is such that the host rock fails along a vertical
423 fault plane. This magma-induced faulting likely weakened the host rock and channelled the
424 subsequent magma propagation (Figure 10B). The thickening of the lower sill segment is then
425 accommodated by vertical offset along the fault plane, resulting in vertical offset of the host
426 rock strata (Figure 7), only in between the sill segments. With this model, the measured offset
427 can thus be considered as a good proxy for the thickness of the lower sill segment.

428

429 **5.5 Magma flow direction**

430 The mapped subvertical steps exhibit a NW-SE to NNW-SSE preferred orientation. These
431 steps have been interpreted in the literature as markers of magma flow direction parallel to the
432 step orientation (Thomson, 2007; Hutton, 2009; Magee et al., 2019). We infer from the steps
433 that the magma likely flowed either from the NW-NNW to the SE-SSE, or reverse.

434 Sill emplacement models predict that sills thin from their feeders toward their tips
435 (Pollard and Johnson, 1973; Kerr and Pollard, 1998; Galland and Scheibert, 2013). The
436 systematic thinning of the sill from the NW to the SE thus suggests that the magma source was
437 located northwest of the study area, and that the magma flowed toward SE-SSE.

438 A last point of consideration is the depth of the segments. The deepest segment mapped
439 in the study area is exposed at Peak 729, i.e. in the NW sector of the study area (Figure 3). This
440 again suggests that the sill is fed from the NW, where the feeder is expected to bring the magma
441 from depth.

442

443 **6 Discussion**

444 **6.1 Sill structure**

445 The structure of the interpolated parts of the sill in Figure 8 derives from the field
446 observations. The mapped segments emplaced along the boundary between the Gipshuken and
447 the Kapp Starostin formations are systematically straight (Figure 8). Thus the extrapolated
448 segments emplaced at the same stratigraphic levels are inferred to be straight too. Conversely,
449 the short outcropping segments emplaced within the Kapp Starostin Formation exhibit locally
450 discordant contacts (Figure 4). In addition, the different altitudes of these segments from
451 mountain top to mountain top supports an overall irregular shape of the segments emplaced
452 with the Kapp Starostin Formation, as suggested in Figure 8.

453 All in all, the individual segments of the mapped sill were likely fed from a common
454 feeder structure (Figure 10). The sill imaged on 3D seismic data in Figure 1 exhibits a deep
455 basal sill connected, and likely feeding, sill segments emplaced at different stratigraphic levels.
456 A similar structure is expected for the studied sill, suggesting that a large basal sill may have
457 fed the mapped intrusion from northwest.

458 The splitting of a single sill to slightly offset segments have been observed on 3D
459 seismic data (e.g., Schmiedel et al., 2017; Magee et al., 2019) and produced in 3D laboratory
460 models (Arachchige et al., 2022). Such a splitting of a sheet to distinct segments is actually a
461 general phenomenon associated with the emplacement of igneous sheet intrusions, including
462 dykes (Pollard et al., 1982; Takada, 1990; Sigmundsson et al., 2015; Schmiedel et al., 2021).
463 This splitting is expected to spontaneously occur when instabilities form at the propagating
464 front of a sheet intrusion when the magma overpressure or influx is expected to be large
465 (Takada, 1990).

466

467 **6.2 Structure of the steps**

468 The vertical steps exhibit a relatively simple geometry, with a vertical channel connecting the
469 tips of horizontal sill segments. In cross section, these steps appear like a mathematical
470 Heavyside step function (Figure 10B). Such a structure differs from the structure of broken
471 bridges between sill and dyke segments (Figure 10C)(Nicholson and Pollard, 1985; Hutton,
472 2009; Magee et al., 2019). Broken bridges connect overlapping intrusion tips, with a piece of
473 host rock (a bridge) sheared in between the overlapping tips. When shearing is sufficient, the
474 bridge breaks and a channel connects the two segments. The breakage of the bridge can occur
475 as a single channel or through brecciation of the bridge, resulting in many magmatic splays
476 (Kjenes et al., 2022).

477 The different structures between the observed steps in our study and broken bridges
478 described in the literature highlight different mechanisms. Broken bridges are likely opening
479 by tensile/shear failure of the bridges (Figure 10C)(Nicholson and Pollard, 1985; Magee et al.,
480 2019), whereas our observations suggest that the steps form by vertical faulting in between the
481 connecting sill segments (Figure 10B). The parameters controlling one or the other mechanism
482 are currently unknown. We note here that the gaps between the sill segments connected by
483 steps are larger than the thickness of the sill segments, which may explain why sill segments
484 do not connect through broken bridges.

485

486 **6.3 Stratigraphic control on magma emplacement**

487 The remarkable feature of the studied sill is the straight shape of the segments emplaced along
488 the boundary between the Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations (Figure 5, Figure 8).
489 Such structure contrasts with the more irregular shapes of the segments emplaced within the
490 Kapp Starostin Formation (Figure 4, Figure 8). This systematic difference suggests a
491 stratigraphic control on the emplacement and resulting shapes of the sill segments.

492 An intuitive interpretation would be that the competent Vøringen Member between the
493 Gipshuken and the Kapp Starostin formations (Figure 6) makes a strong mechanical layering
494 that may have controlled the very flat morphology of the concordant sill segments at this
495 stratigraphic level. Nevertheless, the discussion in the paragraph below suggests a different
496 interpretation.

497 Classic elastic models of dyke and sill emplacement in the layered crust predict that
498 when a dyke reaches the base of a stiffer layer, the dyke is blocked and turns into a sill
499 underneath the stiff layer (Rivalta et al., 2005; Gudmundsson and Philipp, 2006; Kavanagh et
500 al., 2006). If this process was at work, we would expect the sill segments to be emplaced
501 underneath the Vøringen Member. However, the observed straight sill segments were
502 systematically emplaced above the Vøringen Member, even sometime a few meters above,
503 within softer sediments, in contradiction with the predictions of the elastic models. A similar
504 configuration has been observed in the Neuquén Basin, Argentina, where sills were emplaced
505 almost systematically at the interface between an underlying stiff carbonate layer and
506 overlaying soft organic-rich shale (Spacapan et al., 2018; Palma et al., 2024). This
507 configuration suggests that the emplacement of the straight sill segments was governed by the
508 rheological contrast between the underlying stiff, elastic carbonate layer and the overlaying
509 soft, likely inelastic clay/chert deposits of the Lower Kapp Starostin Formation. Further
510 understanding requires mapping emplacement-related deformation structures in the host rock
511 (Spacapan et al., 2017; Galland et al., 2019), which were not visible in the field.

512 In contrast, the more irregular shape of the sill segments emplaced within the Kapp
513 Starostin Formation correlates with the apparently more homogeneous clay/chert/carbonate
514 package of the host rock formation.

515

516 **6.4 Sill volume**

517 The simple volume estimate between 4.6 and 11.4 km³ (see section 5.2) for the studied sill is
518 likely an underestimated volume. Yet, such volume is significantly larger than the very large
519 majority of basaltic lava eruptions during Holocene. As a matter of comparison, the infamous
520 1783-1784 Laki and 934 Eldgjá eruptions, Iceland, erupted with volumes of ~14 km³ and ~19
521 km³, respectively (Thordarson and Self, 1993). The volume of the studied sill has a similar
522 order of magnitude as those of Laki and Eldgjá eruptions, which are considered to be the two
523 largest basaltic eruptions of historical times. In addition, the estimated volume of the studied
524 sill is slightly smaller than that of the Golden Valley Sill, South Africa, the thickness and area
525 of which are ~100 m and ~200 km², respectively, so the estimated volume being ~20 km³
526 (Galerne et al., 2010; Galerne et al., 2011). Thus, the volume of the mapped sill is of the same
527 order of magnitude as those of (1) sills formed in a Large Igneous Province and (2) unusually
528 large basaltic eruptions. The studied sill thus resulted from an emplacement event of significant
529 magnitude, in agreement with the HALIP magmatic context.

530 Note that the volume provided in this study is only an estimate. It would be possible to
531 calculate a more precise volume of sill with, e.g. Petrel, if the base and top contacts of the sill
532 are mapped over large areas, and if the reconstruction of the base and top contact surfaces
533 requires little interpolation. However, even if the top contact of the studied sill crops out
534 extensively, its base contact is only exposed at a few localities, allowing only a few thickness
535 measurements.

536

537 **7 Conclusions**

538 This study describes the results of 3-dimensional geological mapping of a large Early
539 Cretaceous dolerite sill exposed in steep, near-vertical cliffs using a combination of digital
540 outcrop modelling and field mapping. The main results of this study are the following.

- 541 • The sill is made of distinct segments emplaced at different stratigraphic levels of the
542 host rock stratigraphy.
- 543 • The sills segments emplaced at the boundary between the Gipshuken and Kapp
544 Starostin formations, which marks a strong lithological boundary, are straight and very
545 concordant. Conversely, the segments emplaced within the more homogeneous Kapp
546 Starostin Formation exhibit more complex, locally discordant shapes.
- 547 • The sills segments emplaced at distinct stratigraphic levels are connected by vertical
548 steps, which formed through vertical faulting between the tips of the sill segments.
- 549 • The preferred NW-SE orientation of the steps and the thinning of the sill towards the
550 SE suggests a propagation direction of the magma towards the SE.
- 551 • The sill volume estimate between 4.6 and 11.4 km³ suggests an emplacement event of
552 large significance, in agreement with the High Arctic Large Igneous Province setting.

553 All in all, our study shows how 3-dimensional knowledge of igneous intrusions is key for
554 revealing their emplacement mechanisms.

555

556 **8 Acknowledgements**

557 Fieldwork was mostly funded through Arctic Field Grants (AFGs; Research in Svalbard ID
558 11397, Norwegian Research Council project nr. 310709; Research in Svalbard ID 11619,
559 Norwegian Research Council project nr. 322464) plus additional funding for fieldwork from
560 NOR-R-AM2, Norwegian Research Council project nr. 309477, ARCEX, Norwegian Research

561 Council project nr 228107 and UArctic. The fieldwork benefited from logistical support of the
562 UArctic (drones), Czech Arctic Research Station/Clione and UNIS logistics, NFR (SSG
563 project). Schlumberger and Cegal provided academic licences for Petrel and Blueback toolbox,
564 respectively. Nil Rodes processed some of the drone images. Field expeditions involved field
565 assistants (From the 2020 expedition: Peter Betlem, Marjolein Gevers, Tereza Mosočiová).
566 HJK: was funded by Aker BP through the project “80-40 Palaeocene”. AMRS's PhD position
567 was funded by the University of Helsinki. RKH's PhD position was funded by Norwegian
568 Centre for Integrated Earth Science Education - iEarth, The University Centre in Svalbard, and
569 the Norwegian Ministry of Education.

570

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