

Submarine landslides around volcanic islands: A review of what can be learned from the Lesser Antilles Arc

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Abstract

 IODP Expedition 340 successfully drilled, for the first time, large, and likely tsunamigenic, volcanic island-arc landslide deposits. These cores provide evidence and tests of previous hypotheses for the composition, origin and mode of transport of those deposits. Sites in the medial to distal parts of the landslide deposits offshore Montserrat and Martinique recovered seafloor sediment, comprising turbidites and hemipelagic deposits, and lacked the coarse and chaotic subaerial volcanic debris avalanche material. This supports the concepts that i/ the volcanic debris avalanche component of these landslides is restricted to proximal areas, and tend to stop at the slope break, and ii/ emplacement of volcanic debris avalanches in marine settings can trigger widespread and voluminous failures of pre-existing, low-gradient seafloor sediment. The most likely mechanism for generating these large-scale seafloor sediment failures appears to be the propagation of a décollement, from proximal areas that are loaded and incised by a volcanic debris avalanche. These results have implications for the magnitude of tsunami generation by volcanic island landslides. Volcanic island landslides comprised of mainly seafloor sediment may form smaller magnitude tsunamis than equivalent volumes of subaerial block-rich mass flows rapidly entering water.

1. Introduction

 Prodigious submarine landslides offshore volcanic islands have been widely recognized worldwide, such as offshore the Hawaiian Archipelago (Lipman et al., 1988; Moore et al.*,* 1989), La Réunion (Labazuy, 1996; Le Friant et al., 2011; Oehler et al., 2008), and in the Canary Islands (Holcomb & Searle, 1991; Krastel et al., 2001; Masson et al., 2002, 2006; Urgeles et al., 1997; Watts & Masson, 1995). Individual landslide deposits can contain hundreds to thousands of cubic kilometers of material and can extend over a distance of hundreds of kilometers (Moore et al., 1989). Over the last decades, increasing numbers of marine geophysical surveys, along with modern marine geophysical techniques, have revealed our ability to identify such deposits around volcanic islands, recognizing flank collapses as a common and important process during the evolution of volcanic edifices (Glicken, 1986; Ida & Voight, 1995; McGuire, 1996; Voight, 2000). The landslide deposits, recognized both in oceanic intraplate setting or subduction zone context, are related to landslides that affected the subaerial and/or submarine parts of the volcanoes, and have similar features suggesting that common processes control volcano instability and landslide behavior across all settings. These catastrophic events represent a range of significant volcanic hazards, which also includes the related explosive eruptions (Siebert, 1984; Glicken, 1986) and tsunamis (Løvholt et al., 2008), which can be triggered by relatively small events. Understanding where submarine landslide deposits are coming from and how they were emplaced offshore is crucial, since emplacement dynamics determine the magnitude of the associated tsunamis. The potential magnitude of volcanic landslide-generated tsunamis is the subject of an intense debate, mainly due to uncertainties associated with slide physics and dynamics to describe how collapsed material enters the ocean (Cassidy et al., 2014; Hunt et al., 2011; Løvholt et al., 2008; Masson et al., 2006; Mattioli et al., 2007; Slingerland & Voight, 1979; Ward & Day, 2001; Watt et al., 2012a,b, 2014). While some studies indicate that volcanic landslides often generate large (10- 100 m high) tsunamis (e.g., Frohlich et al., 2009; Nomanbhoy & Satake, 1995; Ward & Day, 2003), other studies (Gardner, 2010; Hornbach et al., 2015; Moore et al., 1994) suggest that many of these volcanic landslides may deform incrementally, via creep, and therefore represent only a limited tsunami hazard. These mechanisms – creep versus catastrophic failure – are not mutually exclusive, as both might occur during volcanic flank collapse (e.g., McGuire, 1996). Unfortunately, the very few direct observations of volcanic island landslide processes are limited to small historical events (e.g., Stromboli, Tinti et al., 2006) and we are not able yet to directly monitor submarine landslide processes. Studies on landslide deposits geometry allow some authors to propose conceptual models on the emplacement dynamics of submarine landslides. Bull et al. (2009) presented a review of kinematic indicators from mass transport complexes, while Frey-Martinez et al. (2006) defined two categories of submarine landslides depending on the existence of an emergent frontal ramp. Watt et al. (2014) focused on volcanic- island landslides and provided new constraints and models on the emplacement dynamics for down-slope propagation of submarine deformation, for different scenarii: (i) erosion and loading of seafloor sediment by volcanic debris avalanche (e.g., Deplus et al., 2001), (ii) loading of seafloor sediment by an over-running volcanic debris flow (e.g., Watt et al., 2012a,b), (iii) self-loading by down-slope propagating seafloor sediment failure (e.g., Watt et al., 2012b), and (iv) décollement propagation from DAD loading (e.g., Watt et al., 2012a,b, 2014). However, the impacts of volcanic island landslides are not readily assessed from the final landslide deposits without a good knowledge and understanding of the components that make up the deposits.

 Previous ODP Legs in Hawaii (ODP Legs 126 and 200: Garcia, 1993; Garcia et al., 1994, 2006) and the Canary Islands (ODP Leg 157: Goldstrand, 1998; Schmincke & Sumita, 1998; Schneider et al., 1997) drilled offshore oceanic intraplate volcanic islands, but the drill sites mainly targeted distal turbidite deposits located away from the seismically chaotic landslide deposits recognized in more proximal settings. The first scientific drilling of volcanic-arc island landslide deposits was done by IODP Expedition 340 offshore the Lesser Antilles Arc (Figure 1). The newly-acquired drilled cores and downhole logging data were combined with seismic reflection data acquired during four previous cruises (AGUADOMAR 1999 – PI: C. Deplus; CARAVAL 2002 – PI: C. Deplus, GWADASEIS 2009 – PI: N. Feuillet, and JC45/46 – PI: P. Talling; e.g., Deplus et al., 2001, Lebas et al. 2011; Le Friant et al., 2003, Watt et al., 2012 a,b) to reinterpret the composition and emplacement dynamics of the large mass-wasting deposits mapped offshore the volcanic islands of Montserrat and Martinique (Figure 1).In this contribution, we discuss the most important outputs of the IODP Expedition 340 concerning (i) the composition of the gigantic chaotic units interpreted as submarine landslide deposits, (ii) the type of deformation and the mechanisms of the landslide generation and propagation onto the seafloor, (iii) the geohazard potential of such systems, and finally (iv) the implications of our results for other volcanic islands. This contribution is mainly based on a review of earlier published material deriving both from the previous seismic and coring campaigns, and the IODP Expedition 340 carried out in 2012 (Brunet, 2015; Brunet et al., 2016, 2017; Cassidy et al., 2013, 2014, 2015; Coussens et al., 2016; Fraas et al., 2016; Hornbach et al., 2015; Jutzeler et al., 2016, 2014; Lafuerza et al., 2014; Le Friant et al., 2013, 2015; Palmer et al., 2016; Wall-Palmer et al., 2014; Watt et al., 2012a,b, 2014).

 The following terminology is used in this paper: *Landslide* is used as a general term referring to any type of slope failure and resulting mass-movement, whether initiated onshore or offshore. The term *debris avalanche* is used for a failure comprising material in a mobile flowage-type landslide from a volcanic edifice (Glicken, 1986; Masson et al., 2002, 2006; Siebert, 2002; Voight et al.*,* 1981, 2002, 2012), and the resulting deposits are referred to as *debris avalanches deposits* (DAD). Debris avalanches are distinguished from *slumps*, which are coherent masses of poorly consolidated materials or rocks that move over a relatively short distance downslope, on a concave-up or planar slip surface (e.g., Delcamp et al., 2008). *Debris flows* are water- saturated flows of disaggregated and/or reworked sediment with high sediment concentrations and strong interactions between solid and fluid components (Iverson, 1997). Finally, failures of seafloor sediment located beyond the slope break (i.e., transition between the base of the volcanic edifice and surrounding basin) are referred to as *seafloor sediment failures* (Watt et al., 2012a,b, 2014), and the resulting deposits are referred to as *submarine landslide deposits* (SLD).

2. Previous Work on the Lesser Antilles Arc

 The Lesser Antilles Arc results from the subduction of the Atlantic oceanic lithosphere 123 beneath the Caribbean plate (Figure 1), at a recent convergent rate of \sim 2 cm yr⁻¹ (Feuillet et al., 2002). Compared to other subduction zone volcanic chains, magma productivity in the Lesser 125 Antilles Arc is relatively low, and estimated at 3 to 5 $km³$ Ma⁻¹ km⁻¹ (MacDonald et al., 2000; Sigurdsson et al., 1980; Wadge, 1984). South of Dominica, the volcanic islands are bordered to the west by the 2900 m-deep, back-arc Grenada Basin (Figure 1), which has been a major depocentre for large mass-wasting deposits, volcanogenic turbiditic deposits, pyroclastic flow deposits, and hemipelagic sediment (Boudon et al., 2007; Deplus et al., 2001; Picard et al., 2006; Sigurdsson et al., 1980). Fifty-two individual landslide deposits or flank collapse structures have been identified onshore and offshore on the flanks of the Lesser Antilles Arc volcanoes (Figures 1 and 2) (e.g., Boudon et al., 1984, 1987, 2007; Cassidy et al., 2014; Crutchley et al., 2013; Deplus et al., 2001; Karstens et al., 2013; Komorowski et al., 2005; Le Friant et al., 2002, 2003a,b, 2004, 2009, 2010; Lebas et al., 2011; Trofimovs et al., 2006, 2010, 2013; Vincent et al., 1989; Watt et al., 2012a,b). Combined analysis of marine geophysical datasets collected along the arc has resulted in a series of hypotheses regarding the composition of the submarine landslide deposits, their origins and emplacement mechanisms. Deplus et al. (2001) and Le Friant et al*.* (2002, 2003a,b, and 2004) mapped, for the first time, numerous submarine landslide deposits along the arc and proposed that the landslide deposits correspond to DAD originating from flank collapses affecting the volcanoes onshore. The authors suggested that during the flow, the debris avalanche erodes and mobilizes pre-existing seafloor sediment, and thus disturbs underlying pre-existing sedimentary layers. They proposed that the upper part of the seismically chaotic deposits contains both volcanic debris from the original volcano flank collapse and remobilized pre-existing seafloor sediment. In contrast, the lower part would mainly be composed of deformed pre-existing seafloor sediment. Lateral transitions from well-bedded seismic reflections to chaotic facies within the landslide units in the seismic data, indicate that some landslides internally contain substantial components of seafloor-derived sediment (Figure 2). Deplus et al*.* (2001) also emphasized that a substantial amount of material deriving from the submarine part of the volcanic edifice is commonly involved in the formation of the deposits, as shown by the chutes cutting through the submarine flanks, caused by removal of volcanic debris during avalanches incising the chutes. Le Friant et al. (2004) integrated this information to outline how terrestrial flank-collapse scars, submarine chutes and offshore debris avalanche deposits were linked to the geomorphological evolution of Montserrat. Moreover, Le Friant et al. (2004) and Lebas et al. (2011) also used seismic data to define the extent and volume of the landslide deposits offshore Montserrat. They demonstrated that the volume of seismic chaotic units associated with landslide deposits may be much greater than the volume of the associated subaerial flank-collapse scars, thus requiring incorporation of a significant proportion of the volcano's submerged flank, or of the adjacent seafloor sediment into the deposits. Truncation of in-situ bedded sediment packages was attributed to erosional processes during debris avalanche emplacement. Lebas et al. (2011) also proposed that strong seismic reflectors seen at the base of some of the landslide deposits may result from slide-derived shear zones. Watt et al. (2012a,b, 2014) proposed that the emplacement of volcanic debris avalanches caused erosion and triggered failure of seafloor sediment. Such seafloor sediment failure could 164 be very widespread on low (51°) gradients and may dominate the total landslide volume. Their working hypothesis is consistent with the concept that rapid emplacement of volcanic edifice material onto the seafloor led to undrained shear loading and failure of underlying seafloor sedimentary layers (Voight & Elsworth, 1997; Voight et al., 2012). Watt et al. (2012a,b) further remarked on the lack of frontal compression and shear break-out (e.g., Frey Martinez et al., 2006) offshore Montserrat, which suggested that much of the deformed seafloor material they observed did not move over extensive distances. The authors also proposed that some of the landslide deposits may have incorporated large blocks of relatively intact seafloor sediment.

3. IODP Expedition 340

 The IODP Expedition 340 conducted aboard the R/V *JOIDES Resolution* (March-April 2012) aimed at documenting the eruptive history and edifice collapses in the Lesser Antilles Arc over the last million years (Le Friant et al., 2013). The main objective of Expedition 340 was to understand the timing, emplacement processes and dynamics of submarine landslide deposits offshore the Lesser Antilles Arc, with implications for tsunami hazards. Nine sites were drilled offshore Montserrat and Martinique during the IODP Expedition 340 (Figure 1), recovering 434 core sections containing 2,384 m of seafloor sediment samples (Table 1 in Le Friant et al. 2015). Drilling directly offshore Dominica through the most spectacular debris avalanche deposit was not done, because of the size of the blocks, and lessons from previous drilling within blocky deposits offshore Montserrat and Martinique (Le Friant et al., 2013). A wide range of physical properties (thermal conductivity, shear strength, natural gamma ray emissions, P-wave velocities, magnetic susceptibility, and density) have been directly acquired on the cores. Additional information was obtained in-situ by downhole logging operations (gamma rays, P-wave velocities, S-wave velocities, magnetic susceptibility, and resistivity; Lafuerza et al., 2014; Le Friant et al., 2013; Manga et al., 2012; Wall-Palmer et al., 2014). The cores contain some of the most sand-rich sequences yet recovered by an IODP Expedition, where piston coring disturbances such as basal flow-in and fall-in are the most likely to occur, thus affecting the original texture of the sediment (Jutzeler et al., 2014). Particular attention has been paid to distinguishing disturbed sediment facies from in-situ facies. To minimize these coring disturbances and provide better stratigraphic correlations between the sections, a minimum of two holes were drilled at each site (cf. Table 1 in Le Friant et al., 2015).

 Sites U1393, U1394, U1399, U1400 and U1401, which will be the focus of the paper, were selected to investigate the landslide deposits, their origins and associated mechanisms of emplacement; sites U1396 and U1397 to study the eruptive history and magmatic evolution of the volcanic centres; and sites U1395 and U1398 to study the differences existing in the sedimentation processes in distal environments between the northern and southern part of the arc (Figures 1, 2, and 3; Le Friant et al., 2015; Wall-Palmer et al., 2014). As mentioned above, attempts to drill through the chaotic proximal landslide Deposit 1 offshore Montserrat (U1393) and Deposit 3 offshore Martinique (U1401) were unsuccessful due to the heterogeneous and cohesionless character of the deposits. The only material recovered at these sites consisted of a combination of hemipelagic mud with interbedded tephra layers and/or volcaniclastic turbiditic deposits, overlying (and therefore post-dating) the chaotic deposits (Le Friant et al., 2013, 2015; Brunet et al., 2016). A more distal site offshore Montserrat (U1394), intersected a widely dispersed landslide, Deposit 2, identified as a chaotic facies in the seismic reflection data with discontinuous local bedded reflections (Figure 2b). The core showed this apparently chaotic deposit to be dominated by a stacked sequence of predominantly thick, massive, and coarse- grained turbiditic deposits, ranging from bioclastic to volcanoclastic in composition. However, it should be noted that core recovery was restricted to the lower half of Deposit 2. No signs of deformation were recognized (Coussens et al., 2016; Le Friant et al., 2015). Sediment retrieved from Sites U1399 and U1400 (both offshore Martinique), in the medial and distal parts of widely dispersed landslide deposits (D1 and D2), consisted of deformed seafloor sediment. This sediment was mainly composed of hemipelagic mud, with interbedded tephra layers and volcaniclastic turbiditic deposits (Figures 2 and 3). Deformed sediment at Site U1400 is characterized by many planar beds inclined in average by 40°, with some dips being as steep as 217 70°. Interestingly and surprisingly, these widely dispersed landslide deposits D1 and D2 were not unambiguously identified in the cores retrieved in Site 1400, since no difference in composition was observed between the two landslides. Consequently, Brunet et al. (2016) suggested that they belong to the same deposit, and referred to it as SLD. Of particular significance is the absence of debris avalanche deposits comprising blocky material from the subaerial volcanic edifice in the cores.

 More details about the lithologies encountered in the deposits both offshore Montserrat and Martinique can be found in Brunet et al. (2016), Coussens et al. (2016), Fraas et al. (2016), Jutzeler et al. (2014, 2016), Lafuerza et al. (2014), Le Friant et al. (2015), Palmer et al. (2016), and Wall-Palmer et al. (2014).

4. New Model of Landslides Generation Offshore the Lesser Antilles Arc

4.1. Two Different Instability Processes

 Two different types of landslide processes were recognized along the Lesser Antilles Arc: (i) the subaerial instabilities, which correspond to volcanic flank collapses that affected the subaerial part of edifices, generating DAD accumulating offshore, and (ii) the submarine instabilities, which correspond to seafloor sediment failures at the origin of the large SLD identified in the seismic data.

 The Deposit 1 offshore Montserrat (Site U1393) and the Deposit 3 offshore Martinique (Site U1401) (Figure 1) display very blocky surface morphologies, which were difficult to drill. They are located on the submarine flanks of the volcanic edifices or near the slope break, and typically 237 characterized by hummocky topography in the bathymetry (e.g., Deplus et al., 2001; Le Friant et al., 2003, 2004, Moore et al., 1989, Urgeles et al., 1999). These landslide deposits correspond to debris avalanches associated to volcanic flank collapses as recognized on land (e.g., Mount St Helens, Glicken, 1986) or offshore (Canary Islands, Urgeles et al., 1999).

 The seismically chaotic deposits drilled at Sites U1394 (Deposit 2, Montserrat), U1399 and U1400 (SLD, Martinique) reveal, unexpectedly, the absence of volcanic debris avalanche deposits, though the deposits are located in the prolongation of the flank-collapse structures (horseshoe shapes) observed on the volcanoes. The chaotic deposits correspond to the second type of instabilities recognized along the arc, i.e. submarine landslides. Characteristics of these deposits (i.e., composition, deformation, vertical truncation with adjacent sediments) are consistent with seafloor sediment failure deposits.

 A model is proposed to explain how the subaerial volcanic flank collapses are genetically linked to the widespread sediment failures, with respect to the evolution of the volcanoes (Watt et al., 2012b, Brunet et al., 2016; Le Friant et al., 2015, Watt et al., 2012b).

4.2. Décollement Propagation from Debris Avalanche Deposits Loading

 Given the spatial relationship between the SLDs, DADs and collapse scars (subaerial and/or submarine), the new information provided by the IODP Expedition 340 allows us to test the previous hypotheses of emplacement dynamics that have been proposed for these submarine landslides (cf. Figure 9 in Le Friant et al., 2015 and Deplus et al., 2001, Watt et al., 2012 a,b,2014). Results of the combined analysis of these datasets (i.e., spatial relationship between the deposits and the collapse structures, composition, type and degree of deformation of the material within the slide units, vertical truncation of the sediments on the seismic reflection profiles, physical properties providing the first insight into the in-situ stress state at the décollement and data on pore pressure) suggest that the mechanisms producing the large seafloor sediment failures observed offshore the Lesser Antilles Arc may have been triggered by subaerial and/or submarine flank-collapses. We proposed a model of décollement propagation from DADs loading to explain the existence of the large-scale seismically chaotic 264 submarine landslides (Figure 4). Previous modelling from Viesca & Rice (2012) suggested that local failure can generate cracks which propagate rapidly over much wider areas than the initial site of failure, similar to thrust-fault and décollement mechanics, and snow slab avalanches. Lateral propagation can even occur where the load, in our case a debris avalanche, cannot be dissipated due to the low permeability of the seafloor sediment. This undrained load may generate excess pore fluid pressure and trigger sediment failure in slope and basin areas, which were not originally prone to failure. Our IODP studies provide the first insight into the in situ stress state at the décollement surface (Lafuerza et al., 2014; Hornbach et al., 2015) and indicate both undercompacted and elevated pore fluid pressures in clay-rich layers (e.g., Lafuerza et al. 2014), as well as near-lithostatic pressures in sand-rich turbidites at the décollement (Hornbach et al., 2015). From this, we suggest the sediment at the décollement may be near-critically stressed. As a result, one hypothesis is that any small change in pore pressure generated by compaction or minor grain reorganization (due, for example, to shaking via small earthquakes) might trigger additional failure along the décollement (Hornbach et al., 2015). Current underconsolidated sediment at sites U1400 and U1399 would suggest that these excess pore pressures have not been fully dissipated (Figure 6). Lateral loading induced by the debris avalanche, which may have eroded the seafloor, can also promote overpressure. Basal décollement could thus propagate laterally from the emplaced volcanic debris avalanche (Figure 4) to produce widespread deformation of the seafloor sediment above the décollement surface.

 This model in which the décollement propagates from proximal regions loaded and incised by the emplacement of a volcanic debris avalanche may also explain the large-scale landslide deposits mapped in the southern part of the Lesser Antilles Arc, from Dominica to St Vincent (Figure 1, Deplus et al., 2001). If so, this process may operate at the scale of the entire arc. Whether these failures occur rapidly and catastrophically over a large area, or, instead, incrementally over a smaller area is unclear, and remains a topic of ongoing lab and numerical research. Ongoing mechanical modelling with BASIN software, and consequent sediment deformation and failure with PLAXIS software (e.g., Llopart et al., 2018), have demonstrated overpressure formation by undrained loading. In addition with analogue modelling (Brunet, 2015), these studies represent an important topic of on-going and future research which will improve the understanding of the décollement propagation in the near future.

4.3. Evolution of the Montagne Pelée Volcano Through the Landslides Processes (Martinique)

 The volcanic history of Martinique Island began at 23 Ma (Germa et al., 2010; Westercamp & Traineau, 1983) and has proceeded through different phases that formed several volcanic centres, including the well-known Montagne Pelée, where three major flank collapses removed much of the western flank (Boudon et al., 2005, 2007; Brunet et al., 2016; Le Friant et al., 2003 a,b). The first flank collapse occurred at approximately 127 ka (Germa et al., 2010, from on- land investigations) leaving behind the first horseshoe-shaped structure on the volcanic flank, 303 with a collapsed volume estimated at 25 km³ (Le Friant et al., 2003a) (Figure 5). The associated debris avalanche entered the sea (DAD 1; Figure 5), flowed down the submarine flank and was deposited near the slope break. This first and largest DAD loaded the pre-existing seafloor sediment and initiated failure. The resulting submarine landslide propagated along a décollement surface, deforming an in situ succession of alternating hemipelagic sediment and turbiditic deposits. Distributed shearing at multiple levels within the sequence may have acted as potential sliding surfaces within the SLD (1 and 5; Brunet et al., 2016). The SLD translated across the seafloor and stopped in a confined way.

 The second flank collapse that affected the Montagne Pelée followed the construction of a new, voluminous volcanic edifice inside the scar of the first flank collapse, and probably occurred between 45 and 127 ka (Brunet et al., 2016). The collapsed volume has been estimated 314 at about 13 km³ (Le Friant et al., 2003a) and also generated a debris avalanche (DAD2; Figure 5). DAD2 emplaced over DAD1 and may have remobilized unconsolidated surficial sediment within the central part of the SDL deposit, up to the morphological front (Figure 5), and be responsible for the southward drifting of the SLD in its southern part.

 During a third event, the newly-formed cone was destroyed again by a flank collapse forming a smaller horseshoe-shaped structure, whose volume of collapsed material was 320 estimated at 2 km³ (Brunet et al., 2016; Le Friant et al., 200 a). The age assigned to the related DAD3 (Figure 5, which corresponds to D3 offshore Martinique in Figure 1), both identified on land and offshore, is still a matter of ongoing discussions and may be dated between 30 and 45 ka based on preliminary measurements of δ^{18} O samples from the IODP Expedition 340 and previously published ages from terrestrial deposits (Table 2 in Le Friant et al., 2015). As for DAD2, DAD3 (clearly identified on the submarine flank by its hummocky morphology) may have locally remobilized sediments within SLD, by exerting an undrained load that supplied the deformation process.

 Particularly noteworthy is that the older DAD1 and DAD2 from the conceptual model of Figure 5 were not previously identified offshore on Figure 1. The seismic data in steeper proximal areas, which represent the submarine flank of the island, are of poor quality and equivocal, although hyperbolic reflections could indicate the presence of some blocks (Figure 2a). However, the bathymetric data show a bulge at the base of the volcanic submarine flank, near the slope break, at the same location as DAD3. Thus, Brunet et al. (2016) proposed that this bulge may result from the accumulation of the older DAD1 and DAD2 related to the first and second flank collapses of the Montagne Pelée (Figure 5).

5. Implications on the Emplacement Mechanisms of the Landslides Deposits

 The new model suggests that the large SLDs recognized offshore the Lesser Antilles Arc result from a décollement propagation of the marine sediment due to the emplacement of DADs on top (Le Friant et al., 2015; Watt et al., 2012b, 2014). In the following section, we investigate the emplacement mechanisms of the two types of landslides deposits encountered in the arc (i.e., flank collapses and seafloor sediment failures), by first using a numerical approach and then by integrating geophysical properties and geotechnical constraints resulting from the IODP Expedition 340. We will use the example and the characteristics of the Martinique deposits to present our results.

5.1. Debris avalanches

 Brunet et al. (2016) and Le Friant et al. (2015) recently proposed that flank collapses having affected the Montagne Pelée volcano produced debris avalanches that flowed down the volcanic edifice and the submarine flank, to stop around the slope break. This new scenario implies a much shorter runout distance of the debris avalanches than previously suggested (Boudon et al., 2007; Deplus et al., 2001; Le Friant et al. 2003a) and it has consequences for understanding debris avalanche dynamics. To confirm this scenario, numerical simulations have been performed by Brunet et al. (2017) using two complementary, depth-averaged thin-layer continuum models, since no complete models were available in the literature at the time of the simulations. The first model used, SHALTOP (Mangeney-Castelnau et al., 2003), describes precisely the topography. It accurately describes dry granular flows over a 3D topography and may be easily extended to describe the submarine avalanche. The second model, HYSEA (Fernandez-Nieto et al., 2008), has the advantage to take into account the interaction with the water column. It describes the subaerial and the submarine parts of the avalanche. These numerical simulations aimed to determine (i) a critical runout distance for the emplacement of the debris avalanches and (ii) the single or multiphase behavior of the associated flank collapse. Numerical simulations have shown that the first and largest debris avalanche from the

362 Montagne Pelée (DAD 1: 25 km³) may extend up to 50 km from the coastline, which is not an observation in the IODP data. The simulations have also demonstrated that the runout distance 364 of the debris avalanche does not increase with successive flows of smaller volume (about 5 km³ each) and stays around 35 km from the coastline. Brunet et al. (2017) noted that the debris avalanche slowed down after losing inertia to accumulate on the slope transition or relatively nearby, at about 35 km from the coastline. These simulations, along with IODP observations showing that the offshore DAD 1 could only be found up to 35 km from the coastline, led Brunet et al. (2017) to suggest that the first and largest flank collapse that affected the Montagne Pelée may have occurred in several phases. Therefore, debris avalanche volumes for each phase 371 probably did not exceed 5 km³, with smaller runout distances than previously thought (Boudon et al., 2007; Deplus et al., 2001; Le Friant et al. 2003a). Complex turbidite stratigraphies correlated with landslide deposits offshore Montserrat suggest that flank collapses may have occurred in multiple stages (e.g., Cassidy et al., 2014). Indeed, analysis of tephra fall and volcaniclastic turbiditic deposits in drill cores at Sites U1394 and U1395, revealed three heightened periods of volcanic activity on the island (930–900 ka, 810–760 ka, and 190– 120 ka), which coincides with periods of increased volcano instability and mass-wasting events (Coussens et al., 2016). The youngest period 190–120 ka marks a peak in the volcanic activity of Soufrière Hills. The largest flank collapse having affected the volcano occurred toward the 380 end of this period $(\sim 130 \text{ ka})$ and was followed by two younger events occurring during a period of time where the volcanic activity was relatively elevated (Coussens et al., 2016). Multiphase flank collapses have also been described in the Canarian and Hawaiian Islands, where they generated distinctive turbidites that comprise multiple fining-upward subunits (Garcia & Meyerhoff Hull, 1994; Hunt et al., 2011, 2013; Wynn & Masson, 2003). These observations suggest that flank collapses may occur in multiple stages. Recently, Hunt et al. (2018) related volcano flank failures to volcanic activity (i.e. explosive eruptions) in the Canary islands, and suggested that these multiple stages events might have been separated by days to weeks.

5.2. Seafloor Sediment Failures Triggered by Debris Avalanches Loading

 Using core logging, sedimentological and geotechnical data from the IODP Expedition 340, Lafuerza et al. (2014) analyzed the uppermost 200 m of cores at Sites U1397, U1398, U1399, and U1400 offshore Martinique. The authors found that shear strength-overburden stress ratios 392 (Su/ σ_v) on most of the hemipelagic sediment tested, are lower than 0.17-0.25 (values on normal consolidation conditions, gray shading in Figure 6). Contrasting with consolidation tests, the authors demonstrated that low hydraulic conductivity of hemipelagic sediment prevents their consolidation and causes low rates of dewatering in turbidity current deposits and tephra layers, allowing excess pore fluid pressures to persist at depth (Figure 6). In all cores, the uppermost 200 m showed clear evidence for excess pore fluid pressures, except at Site U1400 where overpressure only occurred after 180 m downwards. Lafuerza et al. (2014) explained this overpressure by a slow escape of pore fluid during the burial of more permeable turbidity current deposits and tephra layers, sandwiched between minimally permeable hemipelagic sediment. Higher overpressures were recognized at Sites U1397, U1398, and U1399, where higher abundance of thicker turbiditic deposits and coarser tephra layers were described. Pore pressures at Site U1399 were also investigated by Hornbach et al. (2015) using integration of physical properties, downhole logging measurements from the IODP Expedition 340, and rock physics models (Hornbach & Manga, 2014). The authors indicated that high pore pressures existed throughout much of the entire cores at the same locations and concluded that unusual, elevated pore fluid pressures occurred at present in multiple sand-rich zones within the SLD deposit, specifying that only small changes in the current stress regime may trigger motion. In their work, Hornbach et al. (2015) also discussed the most likely plausible mechanisms responsible for creating excess pore pressures at Site U1399, and concluded that shearing processes resulting from regional strain and grain reorganization during sediments contraction, may best explain increasing in pore fluid pressures. As also pointed out by Lafuerza et al. (2014), Hornbach et al. (2015) showed that excess pore pressures reside in thicker sand-rich intervals, while intervening mud-rich zones – within and outside the SLD deposit – show very low permeabilities, thus acting as seals. All these observations suggest that highly elevated pore pressures can persist over long time spans within the SLD deposit, long after the initial failure. This implies that deformation within SLD could continue at present or in the near future (Hornbach et al., 2015). The work presented by Hornbach et al. (2015) is coherent with the observations of multiple, post-deposition deformation zones within cores U1399-A and U1400- C, suggesting the existence of a series of failure prone horizons within SLD and not solely a single layer at the base of the deposit (Brunet et al., 2016). These failure prone horizons may coincide with sand layers, or boundaries between sand and mud layers, which exist in many places inside these drill cores. It is also possible that homogenized muddy sand layers result from previous distributed shearing at multiple levels, and that these muddy sand layers act as pressure seals. Ogata et al. (2014) highlighted the fundamental role of shearing-related liquefaction as one of the main factors controlling slide mobility though the "lubrication" of internal and basal friction forces. Thus, these layers may be regarded as multiple décollement surfaces that, when solicited, may act together to promote and enhance deposit mobility, and longer runout distances.

6. Implications for Tsunami Hazards

 Assessing landslide-related tsunami hazards ultimately requires detailed knowledge of slide physical properties, volumes, water depths, speeds, and evolution with time (e.g., Masson et al., 2006, Ward & Day, 2001, Watt et al., 2012a). Unfortunately, in many instances, these basic physical properties are very poorly constrained. By providing direct observations and measurements of slide physical properties (such as stress state, thickness, and sediment type), IODP drilling data ground-truths seismic interpretations, improves our understanding of slide physical properties, and from this, enhances our understanding of landslide-derived tsunami hazards.

 The results derived from the IODP Expedition 340 confirmed that the landslides identified around the Lesser Antilles volcanoes result from two fundamentally different processes: (i) volcanic flank collapses, generating blocky DADs and (ii) seafloor sediment failures, generating large and voluminous SLDs. Brunet et al. (2017) suggested through numerical simulations that the largest flank collapse that affected the Montagne Pelée volcano may have 444 occurred in several phases, with individual debris avalanches volumes not exceeding 5 km³. The multistage character of the volcanic flank collapses is crucial for evaluating the resulting tsunamigenic hazard not only in Martinique, but also throughout the Lesser Antilles Arc in general. Both types of landslide may generate a tsunami, but the magnitude of the landslide-derived tsunamis will be different.

 Using Deposits 1 and 2 offshore Montserrat as examples, Watt et al. (2012a) approximated the tsunami magnitudes that might be expected for the deposits, taking into account different possible triggering, i.e., from a failure of: (i) the subaerial flank of the volcanic edifice, (ii) the submerged slopes of the volcano, or (iii) deep-water seafloor sediment neighboring the volcano. Watt et al. (2012a) used a series of relationships based on theory or extrapolation of small-scale laboratory experiments previously proposed in the literature and whose assumptions are discussed in detail by the authors. A key point is that tsunami magnitude strongly depends on the relative landslide and tsunami wave speeds, with tsunami magnitude increasing if the tsunami wave and the submerged landslide travel at comparable speeds. Such a case will typically only occur in shallow water depths (<200 m), implying that seafloor sediment failures occurring in deep water depths tend to produce much smaller tsunami magnitudes(Ward*,* 2001). 460 Watt et al. (2012a) suggested that a seafloor sediment failure of \sim 2 km³ would produce a maximum tsunami amplitude approximately 100 times smaller than one involving a subaerial or submerged failure of a volcanic flank of comparable volume (see Watt et al., 2012a more particularly Figure 7). Even a seafloor sediment failure with a much larger volume, such as the 464 SLD deposit offshore Martinique (25 km^3) , would likely produce a much smaller tsunami magnitude than a failure of the subaerial or submerged parts of the volcanic edifice, for a similar volume.

 Moreover, the analysis in Watt et al. (2012a) of a seafloor sediment failure-related tsunami is based on wave-tank experiments with a sliding block (see Watts et al., 2005). Such a model may not capture the way in which the deformation propagates within the sediment offshore Montserrat and Martinique. It may be that deformation in seafloor sediment failures is slow moving compared to a sliding block, and that individual parcels of seafloor sediment move laterally over short distances. If so, such slow velocities and short particle-transport distances could further decrease the tsunami magnitude induced by seafloor sediment failures. We have calculated the tsunami wave height versus water depth for the different submarine slide volumes $(5, 13, 25 \text{ km}^3)$ and velocities offshore Martinique. We estimate wave heights using the non- linear shallow-water wave approach (e.g., Jiang & LeBlond, 1992). Although we apply a 477 maximum slide velocity of 50 m s⁻¹, turbidity current velocity measurements derived from cable 478 breaks suggest lower values, typically ranging between 5 and 30 m s⁻¹ (Heezen & Ewing, 1952; Hsu et al., 2008; Krause et al., 1970). Both water depth and slide velocity play an important role in tsunami wave height. The largest wave heights, for a given water depth, typically form 481 when slide velocity approaches the natural shallow water wave velocity defined by \sqrt{gd} , where g is the gravitational acceleration and d, the water depth. Figure 7 shows that for an order-of- magnitude change either in the slide velocity or in the water depth, an order-of-magnitude change also occurs in the tsunami wave height; with deeper and slower slides generating smaller tsunami wave heights. This implies that slower moving slides in deep water offshore the Lesser Antilles may represent a lower tsunamigenic risk. The block of seafloor sediment recovered completely intact at Site U1394 is consistent with relatively slow and limited lateral movement of the landslide. Offshore Martinique, deformation of seafloor sediment appears to occur at different levels within the deposits, which may indicate somewhat more vigorous motion.

 A tsunami wave produced by a widespread seafloor sediment failure may thus produce a longer tsunami wavelength than that associated with localized failure of the volcanic edifice. These longer tsunami wavelengths from seafloor sediment failures could increase the runout distance of the tsunami and the regional risk, since longer-wavelength tsunamis can propagate further with less energy loss (Watt et al., 2012a). However, even if the volume of a flank collapse is smaller than the volume of seafloor sediment failures, it may be the most significant in terms of causing tsunami damage on nearby coastlines due to the velocity of the slide associated with the flank collapse, the shallow water depth along the coastline, and the location of the failure near the coast, leading to less warning time.

7. Comparison with Submarine Landslides around Other Volcanic Islands

 Flank collapses on oceanic-island volcanoes have produced some of the largest landslide deposits recognized on Earth. These giant landslides can contain several hundred to several thousands of cubic kilometers of collapsed material (Masson et al.*,* 2002; Moore et al., 1989), 503 exceeding by far the largest known subaerial DAD of Mount Shasta (45 km^3) , Crandell, 1989). Criteria for identification of landslide deposits in the submarine area have been developed by several authors in different settings over the last decades. Submarine landslide deposits associated with debris avalanches typically display hummocky terrains on the swath bathymetry, speckled pattern on backscatter images, and a hyperbolic facies on echosounder data (e.g., Deplus et al., 2001; Masson et al., 2002; Moore et al., 1989). On seismic data, these landslide deposits show an acoustically chaotic character with strong energy diffraction, which strongly contrasts with the continuous, subhorizontal and subparallel reflectors that define underformed, well-stratified sedimentary successions.

 The most block-rich volcanic-island landslides, such as Nuuanu in Hawaii, are dominated by multiple kilometer-scale blocks corresponding essentially to intact fragments of volcanic edifices that have slid to their site of deposition (Moore & Clague, 2002). The prevalence of angular, intact blocks in some DADs suggests a relative damping of fragmentation in the submarine environment. In the Lesser Antilles Arc, such angular blocky deposits have been observed offshore Dominica (Deplus et al., 2001; Le Friant et al., 2002). Watt et al. (2012a, 2014) suggested that in several instance seafloor sediment substrate probably fails during the emplacement of volcanic landslides (e.g., Antilles: Deplus et al., 2001; Papua New Guinea: Silver et al., 2009; Aleutians: Montanaro & Beget, 2011), and would remain almost in situ as a deformed package. Furthermore, limited lateral transport distances are implied by the geometry of these seafloor sediment failures, in which the toe of landslide transitions does not emerge above the seafloor (Frey-Martinez et al., 2006; Watt et al., 2014). When the seafloor sediment becomes more extensively disaggregated and no longer confined within the region of initial failure, a debris flow can propagate for hundreds of kilometers from the initial point of failure, as observed for the Canary Debris Flow induced by the El Golfo debris avalanche (Hunt et al., 2011; Masson et al., 2002).

 Drilling through the seismically chaotic deposits offshore the Lesser Antilles volcanoes confirm that chaotic units observed in seismic data do not necessarily represent extensively disaggregated or deformed material that has been transported over long distances from the volcanic edifice (cf. Gafeira et al., 2010) and supports the view that extensive seafloor sediment failures may be relatively commonplace around volcanic islands (Watt et al., 2012a, 2014). The IODP Expedition 340 also provided a valuable opportunity to compare seismic facies with core observations. Such comparison allowed us to understand the amount, style of deformation and 535 sediment lithologies, that produce the different seismic facies. A key issue for such comparison is the substantial differences in resolution of the two types of data, which ranges from millimeters for the sediment cores to tens to hundreds of meters for seismic data (Figure 3). For instance, we observed a good correlation between the upper and lower limits of the SLD deposit offshore Martinique identified using seismic profiles, and the extent of the deformation within drilled holes (Figures 2 and 3). The well-bedded seismic facies corresponds to turbidity current deposits and/or debris flow deposits, or tephra layers interbedded with hemipelagic sediments, which are flat lying and lack deformation in the cores.

 New findings from the IODP Expedition 340 thus shed light on the necessity to revisit previous interpretations of large-scale submarine landslide deposits (SLDs) previously interpreted as resulting from catastrophic, large flank collapses of neighboring volcanic islands as these systems are significantly more complex both in space and time than previously believed. Such an approach has recently been taken by Lebas et al. (2018) offshore the volcanic island of La Réunion (Indian Ocean). The presence of alternating undisturbed to slightly deformed seismic reflectors and chaotic reflections (Figure 8) in the seismically chaotic deposit identified offshore the Piton de la Fournaise volcano, led the authors to reinterpret this "chaotic" deposit as widespread, deformed, pre-existing seafloor sediment. This deposit recorded the emplacement of the Piton de la Fournaise DADs on the submarine flank, where hummocky terrains were previously observed on the bathymetry (Le Friant et al., 2011; Lénat et al., 1989; Oehler et al., 2004, 2008). Lebas et al. (2018) concluded that such large seismically "chaotic" deposits may be regarded as evidence of former flank collapse events offshore other volcanic islands that might not be identifiable on the volcanic submarine flanks (due to the age or the resolution of the data), but that clearly deformed marine sediment offshore.

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Figures

 Fig 1: The Lesser Antilles Arc from Montserrat to St Vincent. Extent of the main landslide deposits (chaotic units) on swath bathymetry illuminated from North (AGUADOMAR cruise, 1999 and CARAVAL cruise, 2002). Active volcanoes and drilling sites are annotated. Solid

- lines represent the seismic profiles shown in Figure 2. Modified from Le Friant et al. (2015).
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 Fig 2: Seismic reflection profiles revealing the presence of chaotic deposits offshore (a) Martinique and (b) Montserrat. Location of the profiles is shown on Figure 1. Deposits are characterized by chaotic reflectors, which contrast with the well-bedded, subhorizontal sedimentary units. Locations of drilling sites are annotated.

 Fig 3: Correlation between seismic and drilling data for (a) Hole U1399-A and (b) Hole U1400- C. Deformation on both data sets are well correlated despite their large-resolution differences. 929 Adapted from Brunet et al. (2016).

 Fig 4: Schematic figure of processes which can explain the presence of huge landslide deposits offshore volcanic islands (topographic/bathymetric profile from Martinique). Volcanic flank collapses generate debris avalanches that enter the sea, incise the sediments and generate failure, propagation, and deformation of marine sediments. From Le Friant et al. (2015).

 Fig 5: Conceptual model of the relation between aerial instability processes (i.e., volcanic flank collapses) and submarine instability processes (i.e., seafloor sediment failures) offshore Martinique. The first debris avalanche deposit (DAD1) weakened and initiated seafloor sediment failure, that resulted in a submarine landslide propagation. Successive DADs (DAD2 and DAD3) remobilized unconsolidated surficial sediments within the proximal part of the submarine landslide deposit (SLD). From Brunet et al. (2016).

943 **Fig 6:** Depth distribution of shear strength-overburden stress ratio S_u/σ_v where S_u corresponds 944 to undrained shear strength and σ_v to effective vertical stress. Gray shading corresponds to 945 $S_u/\sigma_v < 0.17$ -0.25 associated with normally consolidated materials. Black and green colors are 946 used to differentiate S_u measurements at holes B (black) and C (green) for each drilling site, 947 except for site U1397, where hole A is in black and hole C in green. Circles: S_u -handheld penetrometer; crosses: S*u*-automated shear vane. From Lafuerza et al. (2014).

 Fig. 7: Tsunami wave height versus slide velocity and water depth for three different slide 951 volumes discussed in the text (solid lines: 25 km^3 , dashed lines: 13 km^3 , dotted lines: 5 km^3). We extend the model to a maximum water depth of 3000 m below sea level (mbsl), as this corresponds to the maximum water depth where we observe slide deposits in the Lesser Antilles Arc. Model results show a peak wave height two minutes after slide initiation, for three different 955 average slide velocities (red: 50 m s^{-1} , black: 10 m s^{-1} , blue: 1 m s^{-1}). All the calculations assume a constant parabolic slide shape (e.g., Jiang & LeBlond, 1992).

 Fig. 8: (a) Combined bathymetry (FOREVER and ERODER1 cruises) and topography data of La Réunion volcanic complex illuminated from NW. Dashed thick circle indicates the base of the volcanic complex, with interpretations of mass-wasting processes. The extent of rough and chaotic terrains is mapped in green (Piton des Neiges) and in red (Piton de la Fournaise). Arrows indicates the direction of the instabilities. Secondary front instabilities are mapped in light colors. (b) Seismic profile FOR 63 illustrating the seismic signature of the material composing the large submarine landslide deposit (SLD) identified offshore Piton de la Fournaise volcano. Note the long runout of this large SLD deposit, which extends beyond the base of the volcanic complex. Modified from Le Friant et al. (2011) and Lebas et al. (2018).

Hemipelagic sediments + tephra layers

م کے کہا ہے
اس کے کہا کہ اس کا کہا ہے
اس کے کہا کہ اس کا کہا ہے

Hemipelagic sediments + turbidity deposits Thick volcanoclastic turbidity deposits

Debrites deposits

Pink-colored ash level

Hemipelagic sediments

Void

Deformation limits $.$

LEGEND

Weakly inclined bedding $(< 45^{\circ})$

Highly inclined bedding $(≥ 45°)$

Weakly inclined and contorted bedding

Highly inclined and contorted bedding

- Weakly inclined + contorted bedding in multi directions
- Highly inclined + contorted bedding in multi directions
- Alternation of highly/weakly inclined + contorted bedding in multi directions
- **Mixed layers**

Undisturbed strata

+ S_u from Automated Shear Vane

no core recovery

Filted beds & Contorted beds

o S_u from PP Pocket Penetrometer ☆ OCR from oedometer tests

