

Porosity and permeability evolution in the Tuaheni Landslide Complex at Hikurangi margin from IODP Sites U1517 and U1519

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2	at Hikurangi margin from IODP Sites U1517 and U1519
3	Jade Dutilleul ^a *, S. Bourlange ^b , Y. Géraud ^b and T. Reuschlé ^c
4	^a University of Lorraine, CNRS, GeoRessources, F–54000 Nancy, France, now at
5	Earthquake Research Institute, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
6	^b University of Lorraine, CNRS, GeoRessources, F–54000 Nancy, France
7	^c Université de Strasbourg, CNRS, Institut Terre et Environnement de Strasbourg, UMR
8	7063, 5 rue Descartes, Strasbourg F-67084, France
9	<u>*jade.dutilleul@univ-lorraine.fr;</u> jdutilleul@eri.u-tokyo.ac.jp
10	
11	Several mechanisms involving excess pore pressure related to gas hydrate have
12	been proposed to explain active creeping at landslides such as the north
13	Hikurangi margin Tuaheni Landslide Complex (TLC). Cores and logging data
14	were retrieved by the International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP)
15	Expeditions 372 and 375 from the South TLC at Site U1517. Here, the evolutions
16	of porosity, pore structure and permeability are determined to assess the
17	compaction state in the landslide and compare it with that of the undeformed
18	sequence at Site U1519. Although no evidence of gas hydrate in the landslide at
19	Site U1517 was identified by the cruise, zones suspected to host gas hydrates
20	below the landslide or at Site U1519 are characterised by higher porosity, pore
21	diameter and permeability. We show that most of the sedimentary section is in
22	hydrostatic conditions, except the base of the TLC at Site U1517 and a zone
23	below the base of the gas hydrate stability zone at Site U1519. These zones might
24	be candidates for excess pore pressure build-up. There is no obvious evidence of
25	the involvement of gas hydrate in active creeping at the TLC, which is more
26	likely induced by hydrogeomechanical processes.
27	Keywords: porosity, permeability, pore pressure, gas hydrates, MICP, NMR,
28	CEC, landslide, Hikurangi, IODP

Porosity and permeability evolution in the Tuaheni Landslide Complex

29 Introduction

The Tuaheni Landslide Complex (TLC) is situated on the upper slope of the 30 relatively sediment-starved north Hikurangi margin (Mountjoy et al., 2009), where the 31 32 Pacific Plate obliquely subducts, at a ~5.0 cm/y rate, beneath the Australian Plate (Wallace et al., 2004) (Figure 1a). In the study area, the Pacific Plate is composed of the 33 Cretaceous-aged volcanic Hikurangi Plateau protruded by seamounts and blanketed by a 34 35 ~1.0–1.5 kilometres-thick Cenozoic to Mesozoic sedimentary cover. The TLC is 36 composed of Quaternary shelf-edge clinoform sequences (Pedley et al., 2010), with wedge-shaped thinning-upwards siliciclastic sediments (Barnes et al., 1991; Alexander 37 38 et al., 2010), above Cenozoïc and Late Mesozoïc sediments (Field et al., 1997; Barnes et al., 2002; Mountjoy and Barnes, 2011). Based on morphological differences, Mountjoy 39 et al. (2009) divided the TLC into a north (North TLC) and a south component (South 40 TLC) (Figure 1b), both feeding the Tuaheni Basin with Quaternary sediments 41 (Mountjoy et al., 2009; 2014). The South TLC also contributes to filling the Paritu 42 Basin with debris. Arcuate internal scarps characterise the North TLC. The South TLC, 43 on which this study is focused, is constituted by irregular rough landslide debris 44 downslope of large scars. The South TLC is thought to be divided into two mass-45 46 transport deposit (MTD) units (Mountjoy et al., 2014; Böttner et al., 2018; Gross et al., 2018; Kuhlmann et al., 2019). These units are separated by an intra-debris negative-47 polarity seismic reflector, interpreted as a décollement layer that may localise excess 48 pore pressure (Gross et al., 2018). 49

50 Based on bathymetry data, Mountjoy et al. (2009) suggested that the South TLC 51 initially formed as a catastrophic failure and is now actively creeping, rather than 52 growing through repeated failures leading to downslope transport of new source 53 material, as commonly admitted for submarine landslides (Mulder and Cochonat, 1996;

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- 4

54 Canals et al., 2004). However, the mechanisms triggering this active slow deformation remain unclear. First, Mountjoy et al. (2009) related creeping with high pore pressure 55 induced by gas expulsion, sediment loading or earthquakes. Such creeping would 56 conduct to small-scale compressional and extensional features across the landslide, 57 which have not been observed. On the contrary, the South TLC is marked by a 58 transition from a compressive upper sediment-supplied mass to an extensive part near 59 the toe where sediments are removed (Figure 2a) (Mountjoy et al., 2014; Barnes et al., 60 2019a). Later, Mountjoy et al. (2013, 2014) observed that the upper limit of creeping 61 occurs downslope of where a hydrate-related bottom-simulating-reflector (BSR) (and 62 thus the base of gas hydrate stability (BGHS)) cutting through the landslide reaches the 63 64 seafloor. This zone also corresponds to the transition between compressional and extensional deformation of the South TLC. They suggested that gas hydrates may be 65 involved in ongoing slow deformation and proposed three possible mechanisms: 1) gas 66 hydrate dissociation at the BGHS; 2) a hydrate pressure valve model implying the 67 repeated hydrofracturing and weakening of the gas hydrate zone with a transfer of the 68 overpressure accumulated underneath low-permeability gas hydrate-bearing sediments 69 to the landslide mass where the BGHS approaches the seafloor and 3) a hydrate glacier 70 71 model with gas hydrate-bearing sediments showing creeping behaviour (Mountjoy et al., 2013, 2014; Barnes et al., 2019a). 72

The International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Expedition 372 drilled, logged and cored Site U1517 in the extensional zone of the south component (Figures 1b and 2) to investigate the mechanisms behind creeping in the TLC and their possible links with gas hydrate occurrence. Gas hydrates were identified beneath the landslide based on drilling results, discarding the hydrate glacier model hypothesis (Barnes et al., 2019c; Screaton et al., 2019). Two other sites were initially planned to be drilled in the

5

compressive part of the landslide and a reference site outside the landslide mass (Pecher 79 et al., 2014). Even if this second drilling phase was not achieved (Barnes et al., 2019a), 80 the outcomes from Site U1517 (Barnes et al., 2019b) can be interpreted in light of the 81 properties of the sedimentary section at Site U1519 (Barnes et al., 2019a). Site U1519 82 was drilled, logged and partially cored ~15 kilometres at the northeast of Site U1517, in 83 the western part of the Tuaheni basin fed by the north component of the TLC (Figures 84 1b and 3) (Barnes et al., 2019c). Gas hydrate occurrence is inferred from direct 85 observations at Site U1519 (Barnes et al., 2019c). 86

Here, we document the evolution of compaction state from porosity and 87 permeability from measurements on core samples and logging-while-drilling (LWD) 88 89 data at Site U1517 through the extensional part of the South TLC and beneath, and at Site U1519. Compaction state may be interpreted in terms of pore pressure 90 91 development. Elevated pore pressure is commonly associated with a local anomalously high porosity compared to a reference porosity-effective stress curve (Conin et al., 92 2011) determined assuming hydrostatic fluid pressure and uniaxial compaction 93 conditions (Screaton et al., 2002). However, the porosity routinely measured on core 94 samples during IODP expeditions cannot be directly used for compaction state analysis 95 because it is based on the total water content of samples. Total water content includes 96 interstitial water, which is contained in pores, and water bound in hydrous minerals such 97 as smectite (Brown and Ransom, 1996; Henry, 1997). Smectite-bound water is mainly 98 99 released in the pore space by dehydration to illite, which is generally assumed to occur in a temperature range of 60–150°C (Freed and Peacor, 1989; Kastner et al., 2014). In 100 101 contrast, interstitial water is expelled from the pore structure by pore collapse induced 102 by compaction as sediments are buried (Moore and Vrolijk, 1992). Thus, interstitial water is truly representative of the compaction state (Henry, 1997; Henry and 103

Bourlange, 2004; Conin et al., 2011). Hence, we quantify interstitial porosity by 104 correcting total porosity measured on samples from the smectite-bound water content to 105 determine the compaction state at both sites. We also compare permeability deduced 106 from pore size distribution with the permeability measured on two samples (cores 17H6 107 and 29F3 at 97.43 and 157.83 mbsf respectively) in a triaxial cell under effective 108 hydrostatic confining pressure approaching in-situ stress conditions. Finally, we discuss 109 the porosity and permeability dataset in terms of pore pressure development at both 110 Sites U1517 and U1519. We address the hypotheses (i.e. gas hydrates are involved in 111 creeping in the TLC either through gas hydrate dissociation at the BGHS or hydrate 112 pressure valve effect) and antitheses (i.e. creeping is induced by other mechanisms such 113 114 as repeated small-scale seafloor failure or liquefaction of coarse silt beds) suggested during IODP Expedition 372 (see Barnes et al., 2019a for details) as possible 115 mechanisms triggering slow deformation in the TLC. 116

Material and data 117

Site U1517 118

Site U1517 provided core samples and in-situ geophysical data including LWD 119 data, and temperature and pressure measurements down to ~205 mbsf (Figure 4a). Five 120 lithological, seismic and logging units were identified onboard (Barnes et al., 2019b). 121 Lithological Unit I (~0–3 mbsf) corresponds to Holocene–aged greenish-grey silty clay. 122 123 Units II, III and IV are Late Pleistocene-aged. Unit II (~3-41 mbsf) is composed of a succession of stacked turbidites with alternating layers of mud (i.e. clayey silt to silty 124 clay) and greenish-grey sand beds. Unit III (~41-67 mbsf) corresponds to matrix-125 supported MTDs with thin to medium bedded convoluted mud layers and alternating 126 layers of greenish-grey silt and clay. Unit IV (~67–103 mbsf) is a greenish-grey to dark 127

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- 10

greenish grey massive clayey silty hemipelagic sequence with MTDs at the top and
punctuated with silty turbidites at the base. Unit V (~103–187 mbsf) is a Middle
Pleistocene mixed slope sequence including clayey to clayey–silt hemipelagites, sandy
turbidites, MTDs and ash layers near the bottom of the hole.
Above the upper part of the preslide interval (~67-203 mbsf), the South TLC

mass was interpreted to be composed of Unit II (upper debris unit) and Unit III (lower 133 debris unit) (Mountjoy et al., 2014; Gross et al., 2018; Barnes et al., 2019b; Luo et al., 134 2020), with the décollement for creeping \sim 37 mbsf corresponding to the intra-debris 135 negative polarity reflector of Gross et al. (2018). Mountjoy et al. (2014) suggested that 136 the upper and lower units were genetically linked. This model has been recently 137 138 challenged by studies that highlight different source and/or emplacement mechanisms. Luo et al. (2020) suggest that the landslide was formed by two different depositional 139 events corresponding to Units II and III, while Couvin et al. (2020) propose that the 140 landslide is only composed of the upper Unit II. 141 The base of the gas hydrate stability zone (BGHS) has been interpreted to occur 142 ~162 mbsf prior to drilling (Gross et al., 2018; Barnes et al., 2019b; Screaton et al., 143 2019, 2020) or between ~85 and 128 mbsf (Sultan, 2020). Indication for gas hydrate 144

occurrence was only found in Unit V (Figure 4) (Barnes et al., 2019b; Screaton et al.,
2019, 2020; Sultan, 2020).

147 Site U1519

Site U1519 was drilled and logged down to 650 mbsf across three seismic units: 1) horizontally layered basin–fill including stacked MTDs and turbiditic sequences (~0– 281 mbsf), the upper MTD being associated with the North TLC (Mountjoy et al., 2009, 2014; Barnes et al., 2019c), 2) southeast–dipping layered slope sequences of MTDs truncated at the unconformity between seismic Units 1 and 2 (~281–546 mbsf) and the

153 top (~546–650 mbsf) of a northwest-dipping and eroded hanging-wall of an inactive northwest-dipping splay fault that lies ~500 metres beneath the bottom of Site U1519 154 (Figure 3). Site U1519 crosscuts a weak reflector at ~560 mbsf interpreted as a possible 155 BSR. Several intervals were cored: $\sim 0-23$ mbsf at hole D, $\sim 0-86$ mbsf at hole E and 156 \sim 10–164 mbsf, \sim 250–288 mbsf and \sim 518–640 mbsf at hole C. Based on core 157 examination, two lithological units were identified during the cruise (Barnes et al., 158 2019c) (Figure 5). Unit I corresponds to Holocene to late middle Pleistocene dark 159 greenish grey mud to mudstone (i.e. silty clay(stone) to clayey silt(stone)) associated 160 with hemipelagic settling with an ash layer occurring few meters below the seafloor. 161 162 Unit I is correlated with seismic Unit 1 and logging Unit 1. Seismic and logging Units 2 163 and 3 correspond to lithologic Unit II, including middle to early Pleistocene light greenish-grey mudstone with scattered interbeds of silt and very fine sand, medium to 164 coarse sand, and contorted mudstone interpreted as MTDs. Gas hydrate-bearing 165 sediments were sampled in the lower part of the hole in core 25R4 (~627 mbsf, Figure 166 167 5) (Barnes et al., 2019c).

168 Methods

This study is based on 1) onboard data including LWD data and measurements on core samples and 2) post-cruise analysis of 24 and 40 core samples retrieved at Site U1517 and U1519, respectively. Samples were selected near the samples that were used for pore water composition analysis onboard. Samples were conditioned for shipping and stored at chilled temperature (2–8°C) in vacuum–sealed plastic bags with a sponge saturated with seawater to retain moisture.

175 Porosity

176 Total connected porosity

We calculated the total connected porosity (ϕ_t) with a Micromeritics® AccuPyc II 1340 helium-displacement pycnometer using the procedure after Blum (1997) that was also followed onboard (Wallace et al., 2019; Pecher et al., 2019).

180 Bound water content

Clay bound water includes 1) water molecules absorbed in the interlayer space that are usually organised into layers and 2) water molecules adsorbed on smectite external surfaces and are electrostatically bounded to hydrated cations compensating the negative charge of smectite layers. Clay-bound water content (ϕ_b) was calculated using Equation (1):

186
$$\phi_b = n \frac{M_w}{\rho_w} CEC \,\rho_g (1 - \phi_t) \qquad (1)$$

based on the cation exchange capacity (CEC, in mol/kg) that is a proxy for hydrous to 187 non-hydrous minerals content ratio, the water molar mass ($M_w = 0.018$ kg/mol) and 188 density $\dot{\iota} = 1024 \text{ kg/m}^3$), the grain density ($\rho_a \ln \text{kg/m}^3$) and *n* the average number of 189 water molecules per cation charge related to the number of water layers in the clay 190 interlayer space. The average number of water molecules per cation charge is typically 191 192 determined from the relationship between the CEC and the volume of chloride-free water per volume of grains (Figure 6) that is derived from the soluble chloride content 193 of the sample (Henry and Bourlange, 2004; Conin et al., 2011; Daigle et al., 2015a; 194 195 Dutilleul et al., 2020a; 2020b). The average number of water molecules per cation charge commonly ranges 6-8, 12-16, and 18-24 for one, two or three water layers 196 respectively (Henry, 1997). All the samples at Sites U1517 and U1519 show low CEC 197 values <0.2 mol/kg and thus do not show a specific bound water ratio versus CEC trend 198

from which *n* can be inferred (see Henry and Bourlange, 2004; Dutilleul et al., 2020a for further details). We used the average value of n=15 which is typical of smectite with two water layers occurring in marine sediments (Kastner et al., 2014), following the results of Dutilleul et al. (2020b).

203 Interstitial porosity and compaction trends

Interstitial porosity (ϕ_i) was obtained by correcting the total connected porosity (ϕ_t) for the clay-bound water content (ϕ_b) following Equation (2):

 $\phi_i = \phi_t - \phi_h$

(2)

206

The 'onboard interstitial porosity' was determined by extrapolating bound water content measured on samples to correct the total connected porosity values that were measured onboard on 153 samples at Site U1517 and 278 samples at Site U1519. At Site U1517, where extensive coring was implemented, we used onboard interstitial porosity data to determine compaction curves (Figure 7). Instead, at Site U1519 where coring was restricted to limited intervals, we used resistivity-derived porosity calibrated to onboard interstitial porosity.

214 Resistivity-derived porosity

For clay-rich materials, which characterised by high electrical surface conductivity, we estimated resistivity-derived porosity from LWD resistivity using the model by Revil et al. (1998). In this model, the resistivity-derived porosity (ϕ) is related to the formation factor *F* based on Archie's law (Archie, 1942) as expressed by Equation (3) where *a* and *m* are constants.

9

$$F = a \phi^{-m} \qquad (3)$$

- 221 Conin et al. (2011) and Dutilleul et al. (2020b) have shown that in siliciclastic and
- 222 volcaniclastic clay-rich sediments, resistivity-derived porosity fits interstitial porosity

using a=1 and adjusting the cementation factor (*m*) between 1 and 3.5.

F was determined with Equation (4) based on the bulk electrical conductivity (σ), the electrical surface conductivity (σ_s) and the electrical conductivity of the interstitial fluid (σ_{if}) as:

227
$$F = \frac{\sigma_{if}}{\sigma} \left[1 + 2 \frac{\sigma_s}{\sigma_{if}} \left(\frac{\sigma_{if}}{\sigma} - 1 \right) \right]$$
(4)

since the hypotheses of Bussian (1983) and Bourlange et al. (2003) are valid at Site U1517 where $\frac{\sigma_s}{\sigma_{if}} \ll 1$.

230 We used ring resistivity which has the highest vertical resolution for the depth 231 penetration (Barnes et al., 2019c) to determine σ .

 σ_{if} was determined using Equation (5) from the concentrations of Cl⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and SO₄²⁻ in interstitial water (C_{iws}^i) and seawater (C_{sw}^i), the ionic mobility in the fluid (β_f^i), the number of charges of ions (Z_i) and the seawater conductivity (σ_{sw}).

235
$$\sigma_{if} = \sigma_{sw} \frac{\sum_{i} \left(\beta_{f}^{i} \times Z_{i} \times C_{iws}^{i}\right)}{\sum_{j} \left(\beta_{f}^{j} \times Z_{j} \times C_{sw}^{j}\right)} \quad (5)$$

The seawater conductivity was calculated using Equation (6) based on temperature T (in °C).

238
$$\sigma_{sw} = 5.32(1+0.02(T-25))$$
 (6)

At Site U1517, $T(\circ C) = 5.32 + 39.8 \times 10^{-3} z$ (7) where z is the depth (in mbsf) (Barnes et al., 2019b) while $T(\circ C) = 5.70 + 24.3 \times 10^{-3} z$ (8) at Site U1519 (Barnes et al., 2019c).

The model developed by Revil et al. (1998) assumes a major contribution of the Stern layer to surface electrical conduction, spherical grains and a linear temperature dependency of the exchangeable cation mobility (β_s) to quantify σ_s with Equation (9):

245
$$\sigma_s = \frac{2}{3} \rho_g CEC \beta_s \qquad (9)$$

246 Pore size distribution

247 Mercury injection capillary pressure (MICP)

The distribution of the size of pore throats from 360 µm to 5.7 nm was 248 determined by MICP experiments performed with a Micromeritics® AutoPore IV 9500 249 at room temperature (20°C). Samples were formerly oven-dried at 105°C±5°C for 24h. 250 251 During the low-pressure analysis, the samples were first degassed under vacuum. The cell was then gradually intruded by a measured volume of mercury up to a mercury 252 pressure of ~ 0.2 MPa. Next, we used a high-pressure analysis sequence whereby we 253 measured the volume of intruded mercury filling the cell and the sample at a known 254 pressure that was increased stepwise to 220 MPa. This stage provides the distribution of 255 the size of pore throats using the Young-Laplace Equation (10) (Purcell, 1949): 256

257
$$r = \frac{2\sigma_{Hg}\cos\theta_{Hg}}{P_{Hg}}$$
(10)

from the pore throat radius (*r* in m), the air-mercury interfacial tension (σ_{Hg} =0.485 N/m), the mercury-sediment contact angle (θ_{Hg} =140°) and the mercury injection pressure (P_{Hg} in Pa).

261 Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR)

A Bruker® Minispec Mq20 was used to perform proton NMR measurements at room temperature (20°C) and atmospheric pressure on core samples with a diameter of

8 mm. Proton NMR records the magnetisation decay of the hydrogen nuclei of water 264 molecules in a saturated porous sample when static and pulsed magnetic fields are 265 applied. We measured the transverse relaxation time (T_2) that provides insight into void 266 size and porosity (Daigle et al., 2014; Bossennec et al., 2018) applying the Carr-Purcell-267 Meilboom-Gill (CPMG) sequence (Carr and Purcell, 1954; Meiboom and Gill, 1958). 268 We used a recycle delay of 0.1 s, a half-echo time τ of 0.04 ms (the minimum 269 obtainable for this equipment), gain ranging around 70-80%, 200 echoes per scan and 270 128 scans were stacked (Dutilleul et al., 2020b). The raw T₂ exponential decay 271 measured was inversed in a smoothed T₂ distribution using UpenWin[®] software. We 272 used the Equation (11) following Marschall et al. (1995) to correlate the T_2 (in s) 273 274 measured by LWD NMR to MICP pore throat radius (here, in µm) based on the 275 effective relaxivity (ρ_e , in μ m/s):

276

$$r = 2\rho_e T_2 \qquad (11)$$

We extrapolated the effective relaxivity across coring gaps where no MICP data were available to determine an average pore radius profile across Sites U1517 and U1519 based on LWD NMR data.

NMR porosity $\dot{\iota}$) (Daigle et al., 2014) was determined using Equation (12) with the volume of dry grains ($V_g\dot{\iota}$ from the helium-displacement pycnometer and the volume of water ($V\dot{\iota}\dot{\iota}w)\dot{\iota}$ in the sample.

283
$$\phi_{NMR} = \frac{V_w}{V_w + V_g} \tag{12}$$

 V_{w} was quantified using a calibration (Equation (13)) in which the maximum signal amplitude A₀ (corrected for the gain) was recorded during the T₂ measurement for known volume of water.

287
$$V_w = 19.762 A_0 - 0.092 (R^2 = 0.94)$$
 (13)

NMR porosity was also measured onboard using the Schlumberger ProVisionPluslogging tool.

290 Permeability

291 *Permeability measurements under confining pressure*

292 Permeability measurements were conducted at room temperature, in a 200 MPa hydrostatic pressure cell equipped with a pore fluid pressure circuit (Reuschlé, 2011). 293 Experiments were run on two cylindrical samples (20 mm in diameter and 40 mm in 294 length) from the preslide interval at Site U1517 at 97.43 mbsf (core 17H6, lithological 295 296 Unit IV) and 157.83 mbsf (core 29F3, Unit V) respectively. Permeability was measured on the initial saturated samples using a pulse decay method (Brace, 1984): an initial 297 imposed differential pore fluid pressure (ΔP_P) is applied to equilibrate through the 298 sample. Its decay is approximately exponential and the decay time is inversely 299 proportional to the permeability following Equations (14) and (15) (Hsieh et al., 1981; 300 Reuschlé, 2011): 301

302
$$\Delta P_P(t) \propto \exp(-\alpha t) \tag{14}$$

303 and

$$\alpha = [Ak(C_u + C_d)]/(\mu LC_u C_d)$$
(15)

with the time (*t*), the cross-sectional area (*A*) and the length (*L*) of the sample, the viscosity of the pore fluid (μ =10⁻³ Pa.s at 20°C), the permeability (*k* in m²), and the compressive storages of the upstream and downstream pore pressure circuits (C_u = 3.957×10⁻⁹ m³/MPa and C_d = 4.828×10⁻⁹ m³/MPa, respectively).

309 *Permeability from mercury injection capillary pressure (MICP)*

310 Pore throats size distribution measured by MICP was used to determine Katz-

Thompson permeability K_{KT} (Katz and Thompson, 1986, 1987; Nishiyama and

312 Yokoyama, 2014) with Equation (16):

313
$$K_{KT} = \frac{1}{89} \phi_i \frac{\left(l\dot{\iota}\,\dot{\iota}\,max^h\right)^3}{l_c} f\left(l_{max}^h\right)\dot{\iota} \qquad (16)$$

with the pore throat diameter (l_c) at the inflection point of the cumulative MICP curve f(l) of fractional volume of connected pore throats with diameters of l and larger, the pore throat diameter (l_{max}^h) corresponding to the optimum path for permeability when $l^3f(l)$ is maximum and $l=l_{max}^h$ (Katz and Thompson, 1986, 1987).

318 Results

319 Site U1517

At Site U1517, CEC is very low to low (~0.05–0.20 mol/kg), independent of 320 lithological units, and averages 0.15 mol/kg (Figure 4c). The range of CEC values 321 suggests that the relatively homogeneous (~32%) total clay mineral content across the 322 section (Figure 4b) is composed of a mix of smectite, illite, kaolinite and or/chlorite. In 323 particular, the comparison of CEC values measured in siliciclastic clay-rich samples 324 325 from the North Sumatra margin (Dutilleul et al., 2020a) and other sites from the North Hikurangi margin (e.g. Dutilleul et al., 2020b and in press) with the clay mineral 326 327 assemblage determined by XRD in near-by samples (e.g. Rosenberger et al., 2020; Underwood, 2021) suggests that at Site U1517, smectite content in bulk sediment 328 ranges ~5%-30% (Figure 8). These values agree with the post-cruise XRD 329 characterisation of the clay mineral assemblage of Underwood and Dugan (2021). This 330 study shows that smectite and illite contents in bulk sediment range ~5%-29% and 331

 $\sim 5\%$ -21% respectively while chlorite and kaolinite contents are < 5% and < 1%

333 respectively (S. Cardona, pers. comm.)

Consequently, bound water content is low ($\sim 2\% - 8\%$, $\sim 6\%$ on average) and 334 335 relatively homogeneous across the sedimentary section at Site U1517. Hence, total connected porosity and interstitial porosity show similar variation across the section 336 337 drilled, in this case, an overall decrease with increasing depth (Figure 4d). However, no general compaction trend can be defined at Site U1517. In detail, interstitial porosity 338 exponentially decreases from $\sim 64\%$ at the seafloor to $\sim 34\%$ at the base of the South 339 TLC. The interstitial porosity versus vertical effective stress (σ'_{v}) curve determined by 340 least-square fitting is $\phi_i = 45.6 e^{-0.57 \sigma'_v}$ (R²=0.40, as shown in Figure 7) for the South TLC 341 interval. A strong contrast appears with the top of lithological Unit IV where interstitial 342 porosity is ~45% and decreases with increasing scatter following $\phi_i = 47.6 e^{-0.14 \sigma_v}$ (least-343 square fitting with R²=0.23) down to ~40% at ~185 mbsf. The interstitial porosity tracks 344 the LWD NMR porosity very well but it does not track the LWD neutron porosity 345 which shows higher values (Figure 4d). Larger neutron porosity values are typically 346 detected in clay-rich sediments (e.g. Expedition 314 Scientists, 2009; Expedition 317 347 Scientists, 2011; Expedition 334 Scientists, 2012a, b; Dutilleul et al., 2020b) due to the 348 349 high concentration of hydrogen characterising the hydroxyls of the mineral structure of the clay, with a possible additional effect of trace elements acting as thermal absorbers 350 (Ellis, 1986; Ellis and Singer, 2007). NMR porosity measured on samples generally 351 matches LWD NMR porosity, although the latter T₂ distribution is truncated at values 352 between 1 and 1000 ms (Barnes et al., 2019b) in contrast to laboratory measurements. 353 An exception is Unit IV, where NMR porosity tracks LWD neutron porosity. 354

29 30

- Overall, resistivity-derived porosity fits interstitial porosity with a = 1 and m = 1.7355 in the TLC and m=1.9 below (Figure 4i) except in some intervals (~20-30, ~96-106, 356 \sim 135-165 mbsf) as discussed below.
- 357

Figure 9 shows the permeability data obtained on cores 17H6 and 29F3 under a 358 constant pore fluid pressure of 8 and 8.5 MPa respectively corresponding to their in-situ 359 pore pressure conditions and an increasing effective hydrostatic confining pressure from 360 1 to 20 MPa. The lowest effective pressure is slightly higher than the in-situ pressure for 361 sample 17H6 (0.87 MPa) and slightly lower for sample 29F3 (1.39 MPa). The 362 progressive closure of cracks can explain the decrease of permeability k with effective 363 pressure P_{eff} . Walsh (1981) proposed a fracture closure model that suggests that $k^{1/3}$ 364 should be linearly related to log P_{eff} . Permeability plotted as $k^{1/3}$ is shown as a function 365 of P_{eff} in a linear-log graph in Figure 10 for samples 17H6 and 29F3. The data are found 366 to follow a linear trend, in agreement with Walsh's model. They correspond to the over-367 consolidation of the samples with an initially measured permeability $(1.3.10^{-18} \text{ m}^2 \text{ for})$ 368 core 17H6 and 1.4.10⁻¹⁷ m² for core 29F3) close to the expected in-situ permeability. 369 MICP shows that the average size of pore throats decreases and is homogenised 370 with increasing depth from 0.3 μ m to 0.1 μ m in lithological Units I to IV (Figure 4e). 371 372 Lithological Unit V shows contrasted ranges of pore throat diameters with a general trend toward higher values, increasing up to $\sim 1.4 \,\mu\text{m}$ at $\sim 165 \,\text{mbsf}$, and dropping down 373 to $\sim 0.4 \,\mu\text{m}$ in the lower part of the unit (Figures 4e and 11). The corresponding 374 permeabilities determined using the Katz-Thompson model are in the order of 10⁻¹⁷ m². 375

These estimated permeability values are somewhat higher than those measured under 376

in-situ conditions (see, for example, core 17H6). The effective pressure effect may 377

explain the difference since the Katz-Thompson estimate holds for zero pressure 378

- conditions and permeability has been shown to decrease at pressures lower than our 379
- 31 32

minimum of 1 MPa (Screaton et al., 2021). Another possible explanation may be the
lower water permeability in clay- and silt-rich rocks compared to gas permeability, due
to fluid-rock interactions that the Katz-Thompson model does not consider.

NMR T₂ measured on samples and LWD NMR T₂ are both well correlated to the average size of pore throats but show contrasting values (Figure 4f). NMR T₂ measured on samples are in the range of \sim 1–2 ms. In contrast, LWD NMR T₂ decreases from \sim 20 to \sim 6 ms from the seafloor to the bottom of Unit IV. It increases up to \sim 30 ms before dropping in the lower part of Unit V. The average LWD relaxivity is \sim 9 µm/s while the average relaxivity measured on samples is \sim 50 µm/s.

389 Site U1519

At Site U1519, CEC is low but in the high range measured at Site U1517 390 (~0.14–0.20 mol/kg). CEC is also independent of lithological units and averages 0.16 391 392 mol/kg (Figure 5c). This range of values suggests that the clay mineral assemblage, which constitutes ~45% of the bulk mineralogy of sediments, is homogeneous (Figure 393 5b). Similarly to Site U1517, the CEC values suggest that the clay fraction is composed 394 395 of a mix of smectite (~5%-30% based on Figure 8), illite, kaolinite, and or/chlorite taking into account that CEC and XRD measurements were not carried out on the same 396 397 samples, resulting in significant scattering $(\pm 15\%)$. This result cannot be confirmed since no characterisation of the clay mineral assemblage was undertaken at Site U1519. 398 The resulting bound water content is low (\sim 5%–8%) and relatively 399 homogeneous across the section, averaging 7%. Hence, as observed at Site U1517, total 400 connected porosity and interstitial porosity vary similarly (Figure 5d). Across the 401 limited intervals where coring was attempted, the interstitial porosity decreases with 402 increasing depth from 68% below the seafloor to ~33% at the bottom of Unit I, it shows 403 slightly lower values at the bottom of logging and seismic Units 2 ($\sim 31\%$) before 404

increasing across logging and seismic Units 3 up to $\sim 35\%$ with a maximum $\sim 42\%$ 405 around 605 mbsf. In the first unit, strong porosity contrast occurs based on grain size, 406 with a general trend toward higher porosity values (+5% in average) in mudstones than 407 in shallower clayey siltstones/silty claystones. In contrast to Site U1517, the interstitial 408 porosity at Site U1519 is in better agreement with the LWD neutron porosity than with 409 the NMR porosity, which shows lower values. The NMR porosity measured on samples 410 exceeds the LWD NMR porosity and matches both interstitial and LWD neutron 411 porosities. 412

The resistivity-derived porosity fits the interstitial and onboard interstitial 413 porosities with a = 1 and m = 1.9 in lithological Unit I, m = 2.3 in the lower part of 414 415 seismic and logging Units 2 (top of lithological Unit II), and m = 2.6 in the top of logging and seismic Units 3 (bottom of Unit II) except in a zone ~600-620 mbsf (Figure 416 5i). A general compaction trend $\phi_i = 39.3 e^{-0.03 \sigma_v}$ (R²=0.16) can be defined at Site U1519 417 (excluding the washout interval ~148-227 mbsf) based on fitting the resistivity-derived 418 419 porosity to the onboard interstitial porosity. In detail, three different compaction trends 420 can be defined to best fit the data (Figure 7): the first one for clayey siltstones/silty claystones in lithological Unit I, the second one for mudstones of the same unit, and the 421 422 third one for Unit II. We notice that the compaction trend for shallow clayey siltstones/silty claystones in Unit I at Site U1519 determined from the onboard 423 interstitial porosity is equivalent to that of the TLC at Site U1517 where the same type 424 of lithology or even coarser lithologies have been identified. 425 MICP shows that the average size of pore throat diameters decreases and 426 427 becomes more homogeneous with increasing depth from $\sim 0.45 \ \mu m$ to $\sim 0.15 \ \mu m$ near the

428 bottom of the hole (Figures 5e and 11). As observed at Site U1517, the permeabilities

- 429 determined using the Katz-Thompson model are in the order of 10^{-17} m². NMR T₂
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- 430 measured on samples and LWD NMR T_2 show diverging values (~10–2.30 ms and
- $431 \sim 19-3$ ms, respectively), although their evolution correlates with that of the average

432 pore throat size measured by MICP (Figure 5e; f). The average LWD relaxivity is ~ 14

433 μ m/s while the average relaxivity measured on samples is ~90 μ m/s.

434 Discussion

435 *Physical properties of gas hydrates bearing intervals*

When not directly observed onboard, gas hydrate occurrence (green rectangle 436 and shaded zones in Figure 4 and green rectangle in Figure 5) was inferred from 1) 437 negative anomaly of pore water content (Figures 4j et 5j) due to gas hydrate dissociation 438 during core retrieval (Paull and Ussler, 2001), or 2) positive peaks of LWD P-wave 439 velocity (Figures 4g and 5g) and resistivity (Figures 4h and 5h) (Barnes et al., 2019b). 440 However, there are uncertainties regarding the precise location of gas hydrate-bearing 441 442 intervals estimated from the salinity detection method. Indeed, other phenomena, including changes in the salinity of the water mass, diagenetic reactions or the pore 443 water extraction method used onboard may also cause negative chloride anomalies 444 (Fitts and Brown, 1999; Barnes et al., 2019b, c; Sultan, 2020). At Site U1517, chloride 445 446 data mark a zone in the preslide interval among ~135 and ~165 mbsf with gas hydrate saturation ranging 2%–68% (Barnes et al., 2019b), with the BGHS at ~162 mbsf 447 (Screaton et al., 2019) (Figure 4). Sultan (2020) reinterpreted chloride anomalies and 448 proposed a BGHS between 85 and 128 mbsf, although this is not supported by Screaton 449 et al. (2019, 2020). LWD data evidenced three intervals potentially hosting gas hydrates 450 451 (green shaded zones on Figure 4) between ~112–114, ~117–121 and ~128–145 mbsf (Barnes et al., 2019b). At Site U1519, chloride data mark a damage zone (Figure 5k) 452 453 between 520 and 630 mbsf with elevated gas hydrate concentration with a discrete

454 negative anomaly ~ 628 mbsf (Figure 5j) where the occurrence of gas hydrates has been directly evidenced by core IR scanning in silt layers with higher CEC at ~627 mbsf. 455 Gas hydrate distribution depends on the initial characteristics of the porous 456 medium and the effective stress that control the growing space, thus porosity and 457 permeability (Dai et al., 2012, He et al., 2013) which vary with hydrate formation and 458 dissociation (Misyura, 2016; Wang, 2020). When hydrates form in the pore space, the 459 permeability of gas hydrate saturated sediments decreases (Nimblett and Ruppel, 2003; 460 Dai and Seol, 2014; Daigle et al., 2015b; Wei et al., 2021) while it increases when 461 hydrates dissociate (Wang, 2020). Sediments characterised by a high initial porosity are 462 more sensitive to permeability changes associated with increasing gas hydrates 463 464 saturation (Shen et al., 2020).

465 Although there are uncertainties concerning the precise location of gas hydratebearing intervals (e.g. Barnes et al., 2019b, c; Screaton et al., 2019 and 2020; Sultan, 466 2020), our core-based dataset shows evidence that the sediment matrix in intervals 467 likely to host gas hydrates, as inferred from chloride anomalies, is characterised by a 468 general trend of higher interstitial porosities, average pore diameters, and Katz-469 Thompson permeabilities (Figures 4 and 5). These characteristics are favorable to the 470 471 growth of gas hydrates. This behaviour is more visible at Site U1517 (~135-160 mbsf) than at Site U1519 (~520-630 mbsf). On LWD data, intervals hosting gas hydrates are 472 typically characterised by high electrical resistivity (Goldberg et al., 2010) and P-wave 473 velocity (Waite et al., 2009) values and apparent lower NMR porosity (Kleinberg, 474 2003). Similar values, for zones thought to host gas hydrates, can be observed at Site 475 U1517 in the intervals between ~112-114, ~117-121 and ~128-145 mbsf or in some 476 intervals at the meter scale between \sim 135 and 160 mbsf at Site U1517 (Figure 4h) and 477 ~520-630 mbsf at Site U1519 (Figure 5h). 478

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479 Overview of the compaction state and creep mechanisms at the South TLC

Several zones at both sites show anomalously high values of resistivity-derived 480 porosity relative to the compaction curve or the onboard interstitial porosity. Two 481 482 intervals at Site U1517 (~20-30 mbsf and ~96-106 mbsf) and one at Site U1519 (~148-227 mbsf) represented by the grey shaded zones in Figures 4 and 5 with anomalously 483 high resistivity-derived porosity correspond to washout zones (Barnes et al., 2019b, c). 484 485 Peaks of high resistivity-derived porosity related to the occurrence of gas hydrates in the 486 pore space also occur in the zone ~135-165 mbsf at Site U1517. In this section, the rapid dissociation of gas hydrates when cores are brought to the surface results in the 487 488 freshening of the pore water extracted from cores, impacting resistivity-derived porosity (Barnes et al., 2019b) (Figures 4j and 5j). These zones excluded, interstitial porosity or 489 resistivity-derived porosity can be examined to determine compaction state and discuss 490 mechanisms behind creeping at the South TLC. 491

At Site U1517, interstitial porosity versus effective vertical stress curve (referred 492 to as compaction trend) and cementation factor *m* vary across the TLC (\sim 0-67 mbsf) 493 and in the preslide interval beneath (Figure 7). In particular, although Units II and III 494 (considered here as corresponding to the upper and lower units of the landslide) may not 495 496 be genetically linked and show variations in lithology and emplacement mechanisms (Gross et al., 2018; Couvin et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2020), their porosity values plot on 497 the same compaction trend (Figure 7). This compaction trend is similar to that of the 498 upper sedimentary section at Site U1519, at Site U1518 nearby the deformation front 499 (Dutilleul et al., in press), and at Site U1520 in the Hikurangi Trough (Dutilleul et al., 500 501 2020b). This suggests that mechanical compaction of shallow poorly consolidated sediments is relatively uniform across the margin, although siliciclastic lithology may 502 slightly vary in terms of grain size between these different locations. The 'negative 503

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polarity intra-debris reflector' at the interface between Units II and III identified by
Gross et al. (2018) (~37 mbsf, marker D in Figure 4) is not associated with an
anomalously high interstitial porosity nor resistivity-derived porosity. Such anomaly
was expected since this reflector has been inferred to represent an excess pore pressure
zone (Gross et al., 2018) coinciding with the décollement for active creeping (Barnes et
al., 2019a, b).

However, onboard interstitial porosity increases by 11% and resistivity-derived
porosity by 7% at the base of the landslide at Site U1517 (~67 mbsf, marker B in Figure
4). Three hypotheses can explain the distinct porosity patterns observed in the landslide
and the preslide intervals with strong porosity shift at the interface:

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• Hypothesis 1: a local excess pore pressure.

Hypothesis 2: differences in lithology, emplacement mechanisms, and
 deformation history result in distinct compaction trends in the landslide and
 preslide intervals.

• Hypothesis 3: a combination of hypotheses 1 and 2.

519 Hypothesis 1 is supported by the rapid burial of sediment due to the emplacement of the landslide (Screaton et al., 2019), which is likely to release fluids through rapid 520 compaction of the preslide interval. Although our dataset does not clearly show a 521 contrast of permeability at the base of the landslide, the clay-rich upper part of the 522 preslide interval is prone to the accumulation of the released fluids, thus to excess pore 523 pressure development which may also be triggered by focused fluid flow (Carey et al., 524 2019). On the other hand, the lithology contrast between the landslide, characterised by 525 numerous sand and silt-rich turbidites, and the clay-rich upper part of the preslide 526 interval supports hypothesis 2 (Gamage et al., 2011). Hypothesis 2 is also supported by 527 the strong differences in emplacement mechanisms and thus the deformation history of 528

the preslide interval characterised by a mixed slope sedimentary succession (Barnes et al., 2019b) and the landslide interval. As a consequence of the quick deposition of the landslide, the preslide interval should be more consolidated than the lower landslide unit. In fact, it is less consolidated, which supports hypothesis 1. Hence, we suggest that hypothesis 3 is the most plausible.

IODP Expedition 372 drilling results and Screaton et al. (2019) have shown that gas 534 hydrates are not involved in active creeping at the South TLC interval where they are 535 absent. In the preslide interval where gas hydrates are expected to occur, the lack of 536 excess pore pressure at the BGHS, evidenced by our dataset, shows that neither the 537 hydrate dissociation model nor the hydrate pressure valve model, linking gas hydrates to 538 539 slow deformation, is possible. The results of this study allow the examination of mechanisms, which are not related to gas hydrates, but may explain active creeping in 540 the South TLC interval. Our findings support the repeated small-scale failure 541 mechanism associated with cycles of excess pore pressure as initially proposed by 542 Mountjoy et al. (2009), since no (hypothesis 2) or moderate (hypotheses 1 and 3) excess 543 pore pressure is found at Site U1517 in the extensional zone of the South TLC. This 544 mechanism could be validated in the case that a larger excess pore pressure is evidenced 545 546 in the compressional zone of the landslide, which has not yet been drilled (Barnes et al., 2019a). 547

The sedimentary section at Site U1519 is in hydrostatic conditions. However, ~600 mbsf (~5.9 MPa in Figure 7), there is a zone where onboard interstitial porosity is 4– 11% higher than the value predicted by the compaction curve of Unit II. This discrepancy of porosity values could be related to an excess pore pressure in the order of ~1.5–5 MPa. The origin of this potential excess pore pressure zone is unclear. It could be related to concentrated fluid flow in a high permeability sand-rich interval

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sandwiched between lower permeability MTDs. Another possibility is a relation
between the presence of free gas and the nearby location of the BGHS. However, the
latter is not well constrained with, on the one hand, a possible BSR ~560 mbsf or below,
and on the other hand, gas hydrates sampled in a core at ~627 mbsf (Pecher et al.,
2019c).

559 Conclusions

We quantify interstitial porosity at the south (Site U1517) and the north (Site 560 U1519) TLC by correcting the total connected porosity measured on core samples for 561 bound water content determined from cation exchange capacity. At Site U1517, 562 interstitial porosity decreases by ~30% across the TLC (~64–34%), following a 563 compaction trend different from that of the preslide interval beneath. This porosity 564 decrease is associated with a reduction of pore throats from ~ 0.3 to $\sim 0.1 \mu m$. At Site 565 566 U1519 where coring was limited, we use the interstitial porosity to calibrate the highresolution resistivity-derived porosity. It decreases from $\sim 68\%$ to $\sim 42\%$ following three 567 different compaction trends, corresponding to a reduction in the average size of pore 568 throats from ~0.45 to ~0.15 μ m across the sedimentary section. At both sites, the in-situ 569 permeability measured with a triaxial cell and deduced from pore size measurements 570 ranges from 10⁻¹⁸ to 10⁻¹⁷ m². The dataset shows that the sedimentary intervals suspected 571 to host gas hydrates \sim 112–114, \sim 117–121 and \sim 128–145 and \sim 135 and 160 mbsf at Site 572 U1517 and between ~520 and 630 mbsf at Site U1519 exhibit higher interstitial 573 porosity, pore diameter and permeability favorable to the growth of gas hydrates. These 574 results suggest hydrostatic conditions across most of the two sedimentary sections. 575 However, at Site U1519, excess pore pressure may occur in a zone below the base of the 576 gas hydrate stability zone. At Site U1517, a porosity shift of ~+10% occurs at the base 577 of the landslide. We suggest that this substantial difference in the porosity profile 578

579 between the landslide and preslide intervals results from a combination of 1) contrasted physical properties due to differences in lithology, emplacement mechanisms and 580 compaction history and 2) moderate excess pore pressure associated with the trapping of 581 fluids at the base of the landslide. The results of IODP Expedition 372 discredit the role 582 of gas hydrates in active creeping at the TLC. Our results open the way to the study of 583 other mechanisms at the TLC, such as potentially repeated small-scale failure associated 584 with charge and discharge of excess pore pressure, or at analogous basins where 585 submarine landslides and gas hydrates coexist. Future work, such as in situ pore 586 pressure analysis recorded at Site U1519, is required to understand the mechanisms of 587 creep at the TLC. 588

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599 **Data**

600 This research used data provided by the International Ocean Discovery Program

601 (IODP) and freely available on the LIMS Report Interface Page at

- 602 *web.iodp.tamu.edu/LORE* or on the log database at
- 49 50

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- 603 <u>mlp.ldeo.columbia.edu/logdb/scientific ocean drilling</u>. Post-cruise data including
- 604 corrected porosity, CEC, exchangeable cation composition, MICP and NMR are
- available in the OTELo Research Data Repository (https://doi.org/10.24396/ORDAR-
- 606 <u>40</u> for Site U1519 and <u>https://doi.org/10.24396/ORDAR-41</u> for Site U1517).

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1007 Figures



Figure 1. a) Tectonic setting of the Hikurangi margin with plate motion indicated by red 1009 arrows (modified after Barnes et al., 2019a). b) Bathymetric map of the IODP 1010 Expeditions 372/375 study area offshore Gisborne located on a) (modified after 1011 1012 Mountjoy et al., 2014 and Saffer et al., 2019). The thick line represents the seismic 1013 profile TAN1114-10b shown in Figure 2a with the location of Site U1517. The blue 1014 (respectively, green) section of this line indicates the contractional (respectively, extensional) zone of the slide represented in Figure 2a. The black line represents the 1015 1016 seismic profile 05CM-04 across the margin with the location of Site U1519 and of other 1017 Sites from IODP Expeditions 372-375. White dashed arrows display the direction of movement within the landslides of the North and South Tuaheni (after Mountjoy et al., 1018 1019 2014).



1021 Figure 2. a) Seismic profile TAN1114-10b across the South Tuaheni landslide

- 1023 Site U1517 in the extensional part and the main seismic reflectors (in-line 1778), with
- 1024 the depth in metres below sea floor (modified after Barnes et al., 2019a). BGHS: base of
- 1025 the gas hydrate stability zone.
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- 1027
- 1028

^{1022 (}modified after Mountjoy et al., 2014 and Barnes et al., 2019a) with b) a zoom in on



1030 Figure 3. Zoom in on seismic profile 05CM-04 (Figure 1b) on Site U1519 showing the

- 1031 cored sections (red bars), logging units (LU) and seismic units (SU) (modified after
- 1032 Barnes et al., 2019c). VE: vertical exaggeration; BSR: bottom-simulating-reflector.



1035 Figure 4. Summary of lithological, logging and seismic units and description (a), mineralogical (b), chemical (c and j) and physical (d, e, f, g, h, i) properties at Site 1036 1037 U1517. For (c), (d), (e) and (i), the colour of data points or bars indicates the lithology 1038 of the samples analysed: light green for clay(stone); black for silt(stone); gold for alternating sand(stone) and mud(stone) layers; grey for silty clay(stone), clayey 1039 1040 silt(stone) or alternating silt and clay layers; orange for clayey silt(stone) with sand; 1041 brown for silt(stone) with sand. k₁ and k₂ indicate the location of cores 17H6 and 29F3 1042 respectively for permeability measurements. XRD: X-Ray diffraction; CEC: Cation exchange capacity; Kkt: Katz–Thompson permeability; MICP PT(SD): mercury 1043 injection capillary pressure pore throat (size distribution) determined based on Bertrand 1044

et al. (2021); NMR: nuclear magnetic resonance; T₂: transverse relaxation time; LWD: 1045 1046 logging-while-drilling; Vp: P-wave velocity; TLC: Tuaheni Landslide Complex. The red shaded zone represents the landslide mass with marker horizons D and B. The three 1047 green shaded zones highlight zones expected to host gas hydrates based on LWD data. 1048 The green rectangle indicates the zone hosting gas hydrates from chloride anomalies 1049 (Barnes et al., 2019b). In j), 559 mM is the average chloride concentration in modern 1050 1051 seawater. The base of the gas hydrate stability zone (BGHS) is located at 162 mbsf (Screaton et al., 2019). The grey shaded zones are interpreted onboard as washout zones 1052 between ~10-13 mbsf, ~21-28 mbsf and ~94-104 mbsf (Barnes et al., 2019a). 1053



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Figure 5. Summary of lithological, logging and seismic units and description (a), 1056 mineralogical (b), chemical (c and j), physical (d, e, f, g, h, i) and structural (k) 1057 1058 properties at Site U1519. For (c), (d), (e) and (i), the colour of data points or bars 1059 indicates the lithology of the samples analysed: light green for clay(stone); green for contorted mud(stone); grey for silty clay(stone); red for ash. XRD: X-Ray diffraction; 1060 CEC: cation exchange capacity; Kkt: Katz–Thompson permeability; MICP PT(SD): 1061 1062 mercury injection capillary pressure pore throat (size distribution) determined based on Bertrand et al. (2021); NMR: nuclear magnetic resonance; T₂: transverse relaxation 1063 time; LWD: logging-while-drilling; Vp: P-wave velocity. The green rectangle 1064 highlights a zone of gas hydrate occurrence inferred from chloride data. The grey 1065

- 1066 shaded zone represents a washout interval ~143-227 mbsf identified onboard (Barnes et
- 1067 al., 2019c). In i), the average chloride concentration in modern seawater is 559 mM. A
- 1068 possible bottom-simulating-reflector (BSR) is located at 560 mbsf.



1071 Figure 6. Bound water ratio versus Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC) at north Hikurangi

1072 margin including Site U1517 and U1519, Site U1520 (reference site across the

1073 undeformed entering sedimentary section) and U1518 (active thrust at the deformation

1074 front) and at other subduction zones from previous works.

1075



Figure 7. Summary of ring resistivity-derived porosity (open circles) calibrated to
onboard interstitial porosity (i.e. total connected porosity corrected for extrapolated
bound water content) (triangles, squares or circles) and compaction curves at Site

1080 U1517 (light blue) and U1519 (gold). Compaction curves determined from resistivity-

derived porosity and 'onboard interstitial porosity' are shown with solid lines and 1081 1082 dashed lines respectively. The general compaction curve (trend G) at Site U1519 (excluding the washout interval ~148-227 mbsf) determined from resistivity-derived 1083 porosity is $\phi_i = 39.3 e^{-0.03 \sigma_v}$ (R²=0.16). At Site U1519, distinct compaction trends are 1084 given (gold line numbered in open circles): trend 1) for clayey siltstones/silty claystones 1085 in lithological Unit I, trend 2) for mudstones of the same unit and trend 3) for Unit II. At 1086 1087 Site U1517 (blue line numbered in open squares), two compaction trends were determined from onboard interstitial porosity: trend 1) is the trend for the South TLC 1088 interval and trend 2) is valid for the preslide interval. 1089





Figure 8. Relation between smectite content in bulk sediment determined by X-ray 1092 diffraction and cation exchange capacity (CEC) values at different IODP Sites in north 1093 Sumatra margin and north Hikurangi margin. Smectite content in bulk sediments and 1094 CEC are measured on near-by but different samples. Smectite content in bulk sediments 1095 1096 for Sumatra Sites U1480 and U1481 are calculated from the XRD analysis of the clay fraction of Rosenberger et al. (2020) and the total clay mineral content of the nearest 1097 sample given in McNeill et al. (2017a and b). Smectite content in bulk sediments for 1098 1099 Hikurangi Sites U1520 and U1518 are from Underwood (2021) and are from 1100 Underwood and Dugan (2021) and S. Cardona (pers. comm.) for Site U1517. CEC data 1101 for Sumatra Sites are from Dutilleul et al. (2020a). CEC data for Hikurangi Sites U1520 and U1518 are from Dutilleul et al. (2020b) and (in press) respectively. 1102



Figure 9. Permeability k as a function of effective confining pressure P_{eff} at in situ pore pressure conditions for samples 17H6 (97.43 mbsf; clayey silt) and 29F3 (157.83 mbsf;

alternating sand and mud layers) from Site U1517.



1110 Figure 10. Permeability data of Figure 9 plotted as $k^{1/3}$ as a function of P_{eff} in a linear-log

1111 graph showing a linear trend consistent with the fracture closure model proposed by

- 1112 Walsh (1981) for samples 17H6 (97.43 mbsf; clayey silt) and 29F3 (157.83 mbsf;
- alternating sand and mud layers) from Site U1517.





1117 U1517 and U1519 versus cumulative porosity and normalised incremental injection

1118 volume.