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1 How erosive are submarine landslides?

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10 **ABSTRACT**

11 Submarine landslides (slides) are ubiquitous on continental margins. They can pose a major hazard
12 by triggering tsunami and damaging essential submarine infrastructure. Slide volume, which is a
13 key parameter in hazard assessment, can change after initiation through substrate and/or water
14 entrainment. However, the erosive capacity of slides is uncertain. Here, we quantify slide erosivity
15 by determining the ratio of deposited (V_d) to initially evacuated (V_e) sediment volumes. Slides
16 that gain volume through erosion = $V_d/V_e > 1$. We apply this method to a large (500 km^3),
17 seismically imaged slide offshore NW Australia, and review V_d/V_e ratios for other large slides
18 worldwide. Nine of the 11 slides have $V_d/V_e > 1$ (median value=2), showing that emplaced
19 volumes increased after initial failure. The Gorgon Slide is the most erosive slide currently
20 documented ($V_d/V_e=13$), possibly reflecting its passage across a highly erodible carbonate ooze
21 substrate. This new approach to quantifying erosion is important for hazard assessments as
22 substrate-flow interactions control slide speed and run-out distance. The variations in slide volume

23 also have important implications for submarine infrastructure impact assessments, including more
24 robust tsunami modelling.

25 **INTRODUCTION**

26 Submarine landslides (slides) are key components of many deep-water successions, with
27 individual deposits comprising volumes of $>10,000 \text{ km}^3$ (e.g. Moscardelli and Wood, 2016). Slides
28 can be tsunamigenic, such as in Papua New Guinea where a slide triggered a tsunami that killed
29 >2000 people (Tappin et al., 2001). Slides can also damage vital seabed infrastructure, such as the
30 global network of telecommunication cables (Carter et al., 2014), and hydrocarbon pipelines (e.g.
31 Randolph and White, 2012). Most studies have focused on siliciclastic slides (e.g. Moscardelli and
32 Wood, 2016; Ten Brink et al., 2006), although carbonate ooze comprises a significant portion
33 (c.30%) of the world's ocean floor (see Appendix DR1, Dutkiewicz et al., 2015). Such oozes have
34 different mechanical properties to siliciclastic sediments; i.e. the post-failure shear strength of an
35 ooze can be as low as 10% of its original strength, compared to 55% for siliciclastic clay (Gaudin
36 and White, 2009). Slides involving carbonate ooze-dominated seabeds may thus be more erosive
37 (Winterwerp et al., 2012), possibly with a greater potential impact on offshore infrastructure and
38 a higher tsunamigenic potential.

39 A slide may translate across the substrate on a thin lubricating basal layer ('hydroplaning';
40 e.g. Mohrig et al., 1998). Such slides may be non-erosive, and may even suffer volume loss due to
41 partial flow transformation from debris flow to turbidity current (e.g. Sun et al., 2018). Although
42 field data provide evidence for substrate deformation and entrainment during slide transport (e.g.
43 Sobiesiak et al., 2018), the scale, geometry, and style of these erosional processes are most readily
44 identified in 3D seismic reflection data (e.g. grooves and striations; e.g. Gee et al., 2005; ramps;
45 e.g. Bull et al., 2009; downslope-diverging peel-back scours; e.g. Sobiesiak et al., 2018; substrate-

46 derived megaclasts; e.g. Hodgson et al., 2018). Despite widespread evidence for erosion, the
47 amount of substrate entrainment during slide transport is poorly constrained. This partly reflects
48 limited exposure of exhumed slides in the field, and poor imaging by and/or limited coverage of
49 subsurface data. Quantifying erosivity is important because: 1) entraining material during transport
50 via basal erosion could modify slide rheology and thus affect its speed and run-out distance; two
51 key parameters for both tsunami modelling and impact assessments on submarine infrastructures
52 (e.g. Bruschi et al., 2006); and 2) initial failed volume is a key parameter in tsunami modelling
53 (e.g. Murty, 2003).

54 Here, we use 3D seismic reflection data from the Exmouth Plateau, offshore NW Australia
55 to quantify the erosivity of the Gorgon Slide (Fig. 1). This study focuses on the discrepancy
56 between the volumes of evacuated (V_e) and deposited (V_d) sediments. We introduce a new
57 measure (V_d/V_e ratio) to provide a first-order estimate of slide erosivity, where $V_d/V_e > 1$ indicates
58 substrate entrainment during transport (see Dataset and Methods). We also review other slides for
59 which V_d and V_e are presented (e.g. Moscardelli and Wood, 2016). Our approach: 1) provides
60 insights into the likely physical processes occurring during slide transport; 2) may help improve
61 prediction of the impact of slides on submarine infrastructure; and 3) better constrain slide-induced
62 tsunami numerical models.

63 **GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

64 The post-rift (Late Cretaceous-present) history of the Exmouth Plateau (Fig. 1A) is
65 dominated by carbonate ooze deposition (Longley et al., 2002). Miocene intra-plate shortening
66 and folding promoted slope steepening across the plateau and present-day shelf (Keep et al., 1998).
67 Associated seismicity caused elevated fluid pressures, which triggered slope failure and the
68 transport of multiple slides around the plateau and shelf (e.g. Scarselli et al., 2013). Here we focus
69 on the most recent slide (Gorgon Slide Fig. 1B-C).

70 **DATASET AND METHODS**

71 We analyse five time-migrated 3D seismic reflection datasets (Fig. 1) that image both the
72 evacuation and deposition zones of the Gorgon Slide and the adjacent, unfailed continental slope
73 (Fig. 1B-C). Given a near seabed sediment velocity of 1824 m/s, and a dominant seismic frequency
74 of 40-60 Hz, the estimated vertical seismic resolution at the base of the Gorgon Slide (c.500 m
75 below seabed) ranges from 8-11 m. The 3D seismic volumes have bin spacings of 12.5 x 18.75 m
76 and 20 x 25 m (see Appendix DR2 for details). Maps of the present seabed and base of the Gorgon
77 Slide (see Fig. 1D-E) were converted from time to depth using average water velocity (1519 m/s)
78 and average near seabed sediments velocity (1824 m/s), respectively (Appendix DR2). Ten
79 industry wells constrain the water velocity (Fig. 1B). Well ODP 762, located c. 200 km NW of our
80 seismic datasets, penetrated a similar seismic-stratigraphic sequence to that encountered in the
81 study area; we therefore used data from this well to infer near seabed lithology and its physical
82 properties (e.g. velocity and porosity; Fig. 1A).

83 We calculate the ratio between the volume of the slide evacuation zone (V_e) and the slide
84 deposit itself (V_d) to derive a first-order estimation of slide erosivity (Fig. DR3A). When
85 $V_d/V_e < 1$, we infer the slide loses volume during transport; this could reflect partial flow

86 transformation from debris flow to turbidity current, resulting in deposition beyond the slide
87 margin (Fig. DR3B). When $V_d/V_e=1$, we infer no net volume change from the initial failed mass
88 (e.g. entrained sediment volume balanced by volume loss due to flow transformation) (Fig. DR3C).
89 Finally, $V_d/V_e>1$ indicates net volume gain during transport, suggesting lengthening and/or
90 deepening of the basal-shear surface, plus substrate entrainment (Fig. DR3D).

91 We calculated the V_d/V_e ratio for the Gorgon Slide using three established methods; (i)
92 theoretical volume method - this assumes that V_e and V_d have a wedge-shaped (McAdoo et al.,
93 2000), half-ellipsoid geometry (e.g. Wilson et al., 2004), respectively; (ii) bulk volume method –
94 this estimates V_e by calculating the volume between present-day and interpreted pre-failure seabed
95 within the evacuation zone, whereas V_d is obtained by calculating the volume of the deposit
96 between the basal-shear surface and top surface (e.g. Piper et al., 1997); and (iii) compacted
97 volume method – this is similar approach to method (i), but counts only the solid-state sediment
98 fraction, removing water and pore-space (i.e. theoretical zero-porosity) (e.g. Lamarche et al., 2008)
99 (Appendix DR4). Despite the uncertainties associated with each method, V_d/V_e ratio provides a
100 first-order estimation of slide erosivity.

101 **EROSIVITY OF SUBMARINE LANDSLIDES**

102 **The Gorgon Slide**

103 The source area for the Gorgon Slide is defined on its updip margin by a steep headwall
104 scarp. The slide travelled c. 70 km north-westwards from an evacuation zone, accumulating in a
105 downdip deposition zone (Fig. 1D). The slide deposit is c.30 km-wide, thickens downslope to
106 c.500 m, and covers a total area of 1760 km². Transparent, chaotic seismic reflections likely reflect
107 debritic material forming the slide matrix (Fig. 1D-E) (e.g. Posamentier and Martinsen, 2011).
108 Packages of subparallel, high-amplitude reflections encased in this matrix are likely megaclasts

109 (Fig. 1E) (e.g. Jackson, 2011), either sourced from the evacuation zone or entrained from the
110 substrate. Further evidence of basal erosion is shown by truncation of underlying reflections (Fig.
111 1E).

112 The Vd of the Gorgon Slide was calculated using the basal-shear surface and seabed (see
113 Fig. 1D-E). This represents a minimum value because a small part (c.7%; i.e. 166 km² of 1760
114 km², see Fig. 1C) of the slide is not imaged within the seismic dataset. The headwall scarp of the
115 slide extends from a lateral scarp in the SW to, at least, a gullied slope in the NE (Fig. 2A-C). The
116 headwall scarp may also extend NE outside of the available dataset given it is difficult to
117 confidently identify a lateral scarp (such as in Fig. 2B). However, we argue the NE lateral scarp is
118 unlikely to lie beyond the seismically-imaged area given that numerous grooves lie along the basal
119 shear surface and record erosion. Also, the deposit's lateral margin connects directly back to its
120 source area, suggesting the NE-limit of the headwall scarp lies close to the gullied slope (Fig. 2A
121 and C) (see also Hengesh et al., 2013, their Fig. 8). To capture this uncertainty, Ve estimations
122 comprise both minimum (Fig. 2A) and maximum (Fig. 2D) cases related to the northeastern extent
123 of the headwall scarp (see Appendix DR5). Ve was estimated by using the adjacent unfailed slope
124 as a proxy for the pre-failure physiography across the evacuation zone (Fig. 3). The estimated
125 Vd/Ve ratio for the Gorgon Slide ranges from 5-16, depending on the calculation method used and
126 the headwall scarp extension uncertainties (see Appendix DR5). All methods suggest the slide was
127 strongly erosive (i.e. Vd/Ve>1), an observation consistent with the abundant evidence for seismic-
128 scale erosion along the basal-shear surface.

129 **Global Analysis of Slide Erosivity**

130 In order to place our results in a global context, we collated data from other slides (see
131 Appendix DR6). Of the 357 slides documented in 97 papers, only 11 had presented both Ve and

132 Vd. 9 of these 11 slides were erosive ($V_d/V_e > 1$, with a median value of 2; Fig. 4). On average, the
133 documented slides had final preserved slide volume as much as three times the initial failed
134 volume. The Gorgon Slide ($V_d/V_e = 5-16$) is the most erosive slide yet documented (Fig. 4B).

135 Although most are erosive, two slides have $V_d/V_e < 1$ (Fig. 4B): 1) in the South China Sea,
136 where volume loss is attributed to partial flow transformation from debris flow to turbidity current,
137 resulting in (sub-seismic resolution) turbidites beyond the main slide pinchout, and pore volume
138 reduction due to continuous shearing during transport (i.e. shear compaction) (Sun et al., 2018);
139 and 2) in New Zealand, the Ruatoria Debris Avalanche, where the evacuation zone was formed by
140 a combination of slope failure *and* tectonic erosion due to seamount subduction (i.e. not solely
141 related to flow processes during transport) (Collot et al., 2001).

142 **DISCUSSION**

143 **Large submarine landslides are predominantly erosive**

144 We show that slide deposit volumes are typically larger than the initial failed volume,
145 thereby confirming the erosivity of their parent flows (Fig. 4). Substrate entrainment and volume
146 gain occurs when the shear stress exerted by the overriding parent flow exceeds the shear strength
147 of the substrate. The overriding flow may elevate pore pressures in the shallow substrate, causing
148 liquefaction or strain softening (e.g. Ortiz-Karpf et al., 2017), or substrate deformation (e.g. Butler
149 and McCaffrey, 2010). Both mechanisms will reduce substrate strength, making it more
150 susceptible to entrainment. Substrate entrainment can also occur due to ‘tooling’ by rigid blocks
151 (e.g. megaclasts) to form tool marks, such as grooves and striations (e.g. Gee et al., 2005).

152 We plotted several commonly-measured slide parameters (i.e. evacuated volume, runout
153 distance, height drop, and mobility) to investigate any potential relationship with slide erosivity
154 (see Appendix DR7). We found no clear relationship between these parameters (R^2 : 0.0002-0.05),

155 suggesting they may have limited predictive power and that other, as-yet unknown, possibly local
156 factors are at play. For example, slope gradient changes may control the degree of erosion; i.e. an
157 abrupt decrease in slope gradient may increase the vertical impact of the parent flow on the
158 substrate, resulting in more erosion and substrate entrainment (Ogata et al., 2014; see also
159 Moernaut and De Batist, 2011).

160 We suggest that pre-failure substrate morphology and composition are more likely the
161 primary factors controlling erosion. This is because substrate morphology may focus the parent
162 flow, while its composition determines erosion patterns (Ortiz-Karpf et al., 2017). For instance, a
163 clay-rich substrate is typically more resistant to erosion than a sandy substrate due to
164 electrochemical forces between particles (e.g. Ortiz-Karpf et al., 2017). In the case of the Gorgon
165 Slide, we note that, despite being locally erosive, the basal-shear surface broadly follows the
166 morphology of underlying strata (Fig. 1E), and contains downslope-converging grooves on its
167 basal-shear surface (Fig. 2D). The presence of grooves imply that the parent flow was focused on
168 the northeastern-side of the slide, resulting in a straight, erosional lateral margin (see Fig. 1E and
169 Fig. 2D).

170 The carbonate ooze substrate of the Gorgon Slide is dominated by fragile foraminifera and
171 nannofossils, which become weakly cemented at their contacts during early burial. This preserves
172 unusually high near-surface porosities and results in higher initial strength than (uncemented)
173 siliciclastic sediments (von Rad et al., 1992). Under loading, these fragile biogenic particles are
174 crushed, which generates excess near-seabed pore pressures and a dramatic loss of strength (e.g.
175 Sharma and Joer, 2015). When carbonate oozes fail, their residual strength can be only 10% of
176 their initial strength; compared to up to 55% for siliciclastic sediment (see Appendix DR8, Gaudin
177 and White, 2009).

178 Volume *loss* during transport could occur due to entrainment of coarse-grained (e.g. sandy)
179 sediments (e.g. Dykstra et al., 2011) and/or ambient water into the flow (e.g. Talling et al., 2012).
180 For example, Sun et al. (2018) document a median volume loss of 86 km^3 (c.13.6% of V_d) for a
181 slide in the South China Sea. They relate this to flow transformation from the parent debris flow
182 into a slide-generated turbidity currents. Continuous shearing during transport may also have
183 further reduced volume, given even a small shear stresses can cause fine-grained sediments to lose
184 volume (Piper et al., 1997).

185 **Implications of submarine landslides erosivity for geohazards assessments**

186 V_d/V_e ratio provides a first-order, quantitative estimate of whether a slide increases or
187 decreases its volume during transport. When a slide is erosive and ‘bulks-up’, its speed may
188 decrease due to enhanced basal friction, thereby reducing run-out distance (e.g. Schulz et al.,
189 2009). Conversely, when a slide hydroplanes and does not erode its substrate, both its transport
190 speed and run-out distance may increase (e.g. Mohrig et al., 1998). Slide speed and run-out
191 distance are thus key components for tsunami modelling (e.g. Murty, 2003), and for assessing the
192 potential impact slides may have on submarine infrastructure (e.g. Bruschi et al., 2006). In
193 addition, V_e is a key factor for tsunami modelling, as it dictates how much overlying water is
194 displaced during failure (e.g. Murty, 2003). Accurate volume assessment is especially challenging
195 if only V_d is known, and if there is significant erosion or partial flow transformation. For example,
196 the use of V_d as an estimate of V_e for tsunami modelling will overestimate displacement of the
197 overlying water when $V_d/V_e > 1$. Conversely, if $V_d/V_e < 1$, tsunami modelling will underestimate
198 the displacement of the overlying water. Therefore, to understand uncertainties associated with
199 tsunami modelling, a range of V_d/V_e scenarios should be considered. Our study suggests that most
200 slides are erosive, and that a ratio of 1 to at least a median value of 2, should be used for the

201 modelling. Carbonate ooze-dominated slides such as the Gorgon Slide, which are only very rarely
202 documented, could also be significantly more erosive than siliciclastic slides.

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314 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

315 **Figure 1.** A: Location of study area (EP: Exmouth Plateau; AR: Argo Abyssal Plain; GA:
316 Gascoyne Abyssal Plain; CU: Cuvier Abyssal Plain). Yellow dot = location of ODP 762 well. B:
317 Seabed time-structure map (top Gorgon Slide) showing slide evacuation and deposition zones. Red
318 dots = wells used for depth conversion. C: Extent of the Gorgon Slide (grey). Blue dashed line
319 defines the seismic-scale pinchout of the slide; c. 7% of the slide is not imaged by 3D seismic data
320 but is mapped on 2D seismic profiles (green lines). Gorgon, Acme, Draeck, Duyfken, and Io-Jansz
321 are the 3D seismic datasets were used in this study. D: NW-trending depositional dip-oriented
322 seismic profile across the Gorgon Slide, showing cross-sectional view of the evacuation and
323 deposition zones. E: NE-trending depositional strike seismic profile across the Gorgon Slide.
324 Locations of seismic profiles are shown in B and C.

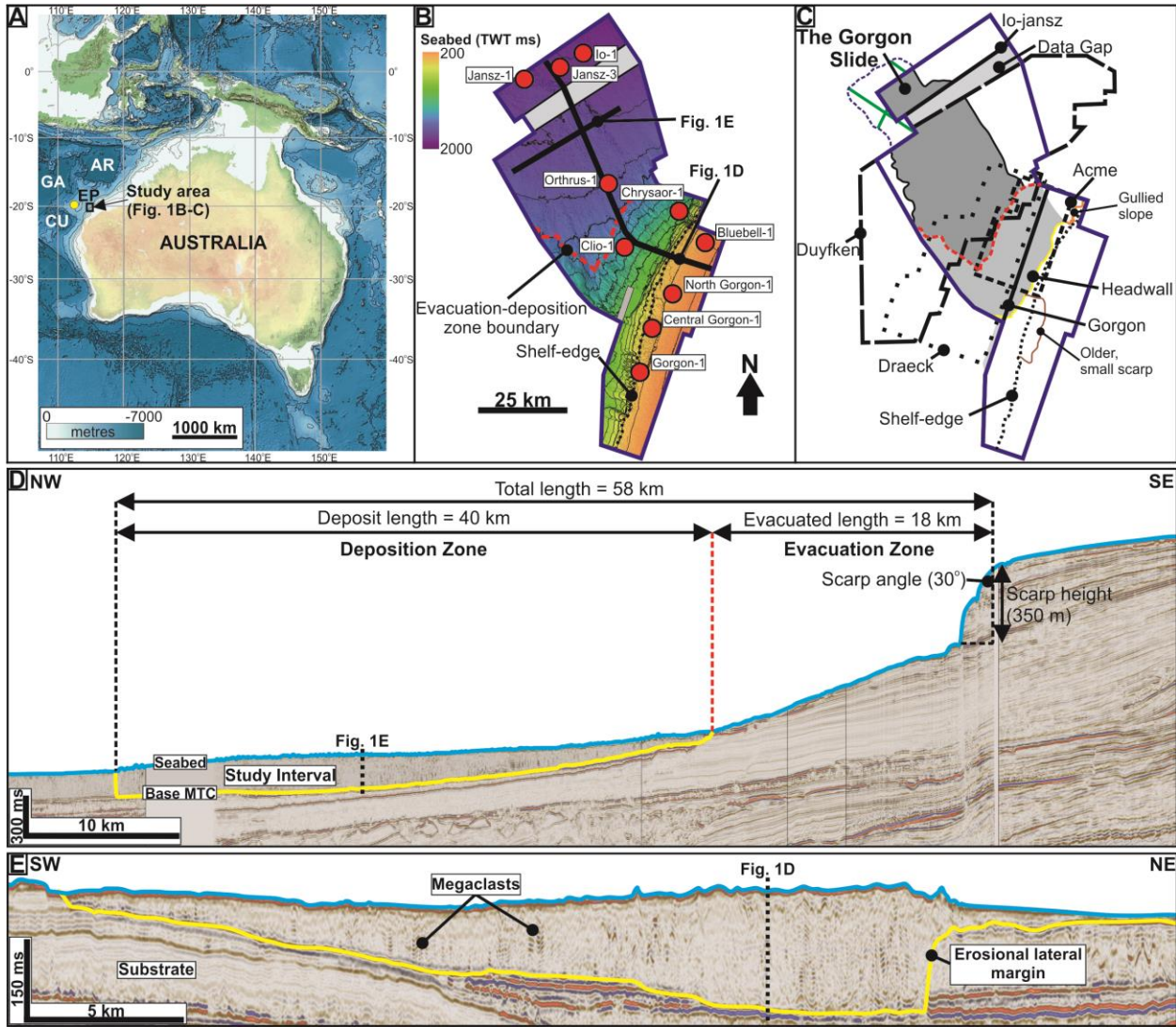
325 **Figure 2.** A: A three-dimensional perspective of present-day seabed showing lateral scarp in the
326 SW and minimum extent of the headwall scarp marked by the presence of gullied slope. Grooves
327 that can be traced back from the deposit to the source are also shown. B: Seismic profile across
328 the lateral scarp limiting the headwall scarp in the SW. C: Seismic profile across a gully that may
329 define the NE-limit of the headwall scarp, where no presence of scarp, indicating that this part of
330 slope might not failed. D: A three-dimensional perspective of basal-shear surface showing
331 downslope-converging grooves indicate that the parent flow was focused to the NE, and thus
332 forming a straight, erosional lateral margin.

333 **Figure 3.** A: NW-trending seismic profile across the unfailed margin, just SW of the headwall
334 scarp of the Gorgon Slide. B: Seabed depth-structure map showing the headwall scarp of the
335 Gorgon Slide and the adjacent unfailed margin to the SW. C: NW-trending seismic profile across
336 the headwall scarp of the Gorgon Slide and the reconstructed (i.e. pre-failure) seabed. D: Isopach

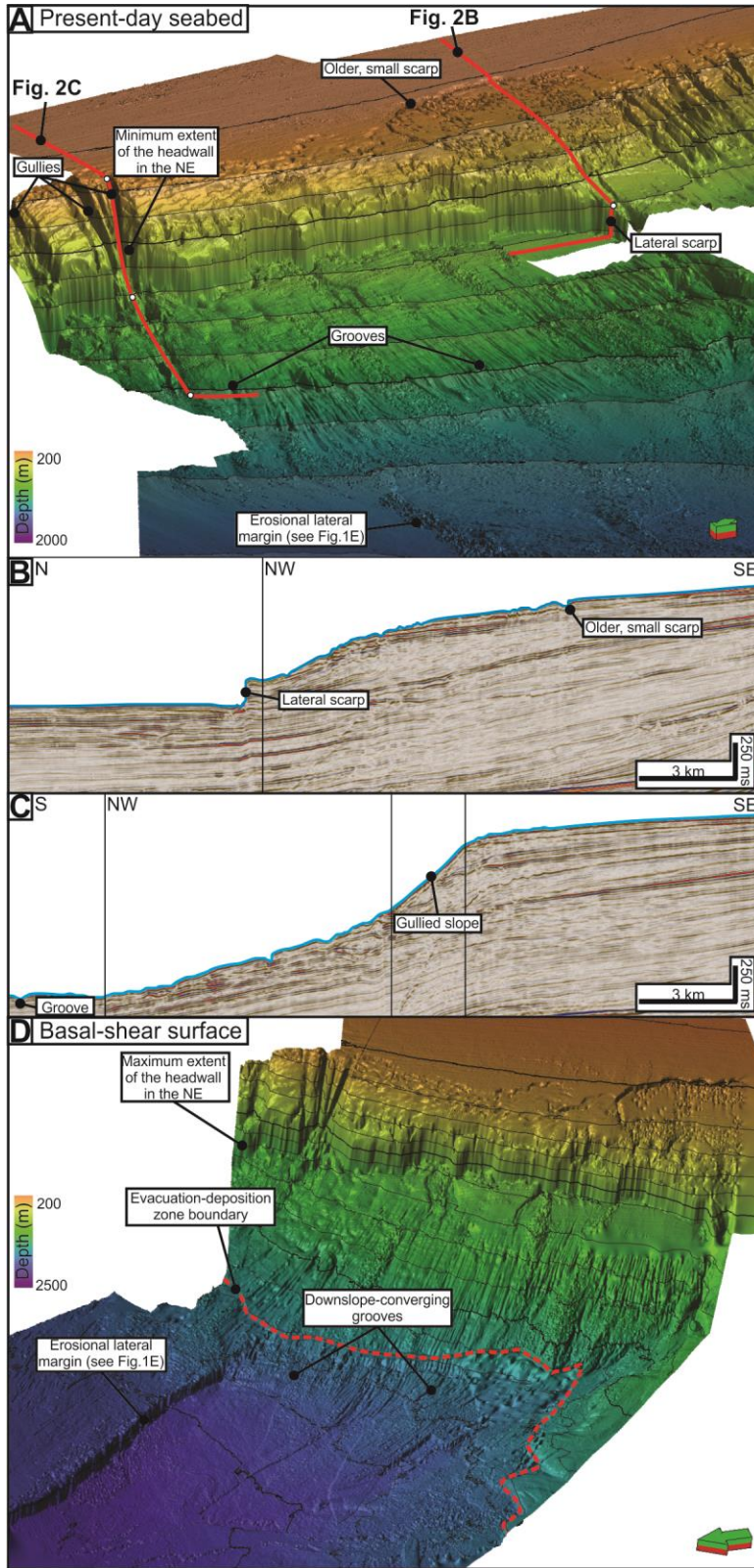
337 between reconstructed pre-failure seabed depth-structure map, assuming minimum extent of the
338 headwall scarp.

339 **Figure 4.** A: World distribution of documented slides in peer-reviewed literature, containing
340 information on evacuated (V_e) and deposited (V_d) volumes. Note that the Gorgon Slide as the
341 only carbonate-dominated slide. B: V_d/V_e ratio of the submarine landslide in (A).

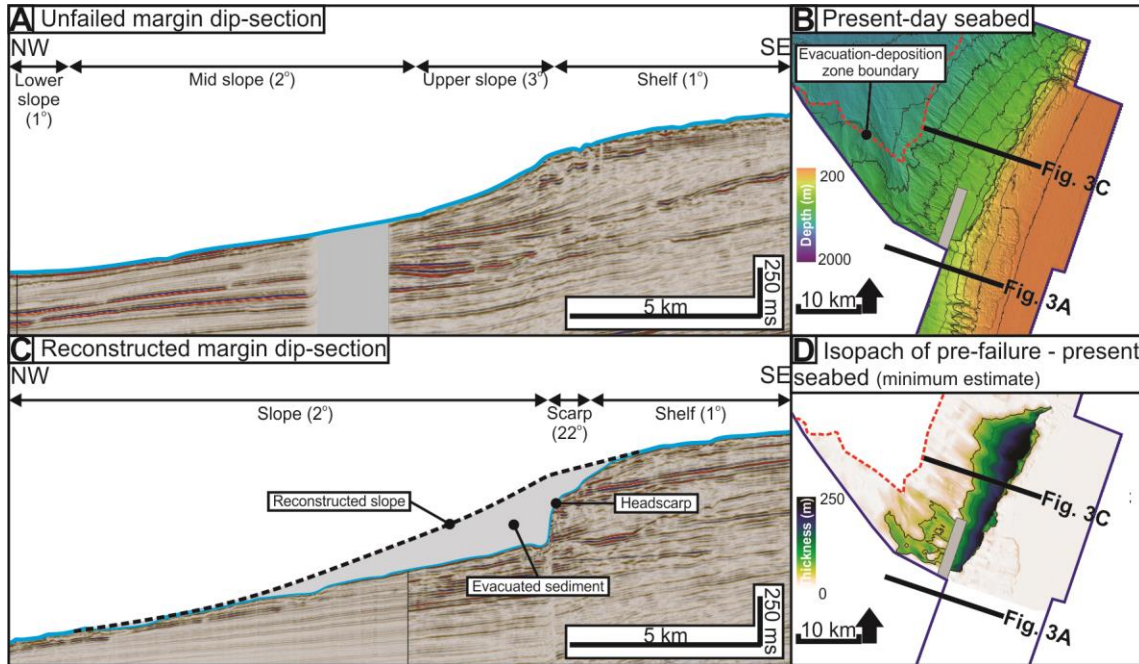
342 FIGURE 1



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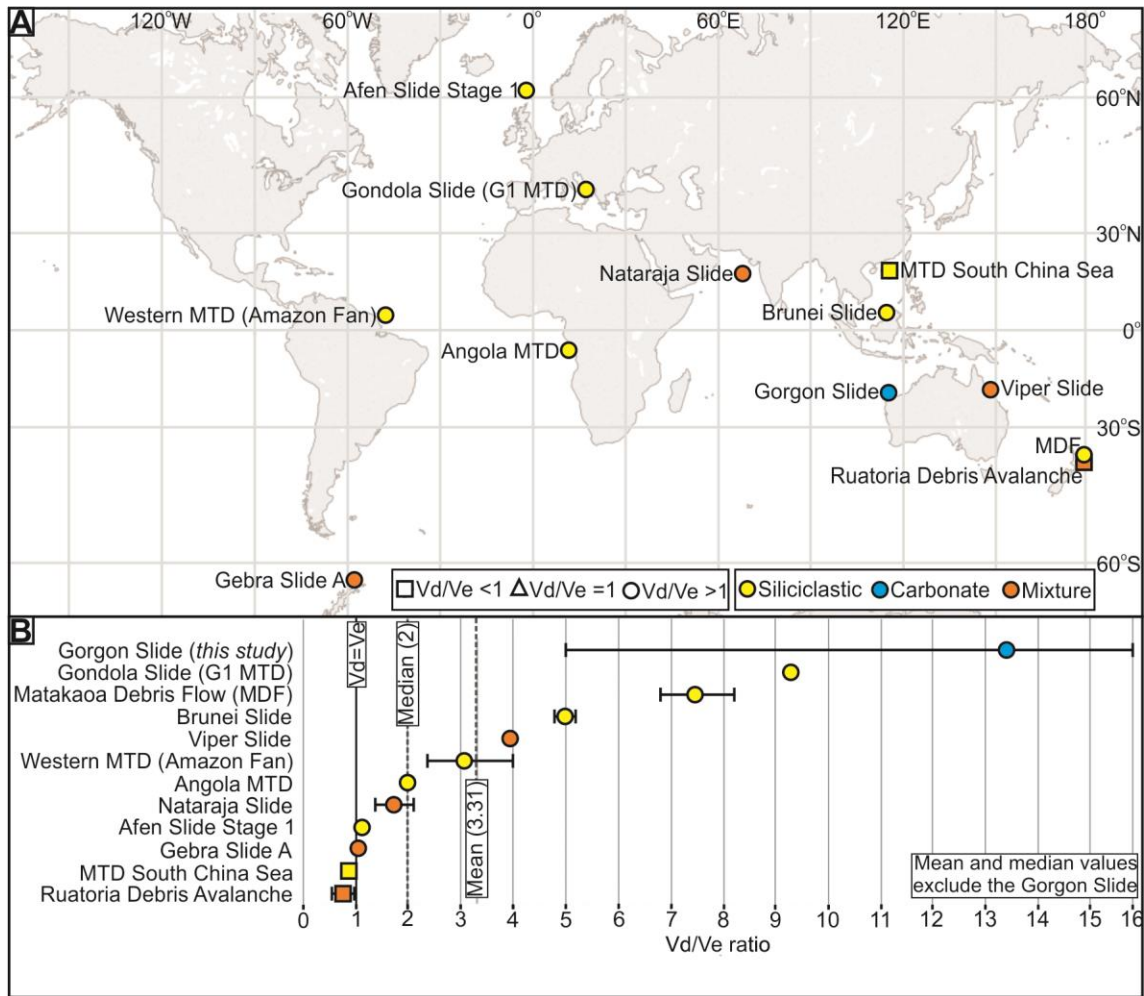


346 FIGURE 3



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348 FIGURE 4



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