

1 **Past seismic slip-to-the-trench recorded in Central America megathrust**

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13 **The 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake revealed that co-seismic displacement along the plate**

14 **boundary megathrust can propagate to the trench. Co-seismic slip to the trench amplifies**

15 **hazards at subduction zones, so its historical occurrence should also be investigated**

16 **globally. Here we combine results from IODP Exp. 344 offshore SE Costa Rica with 3D**

17 **reflection seismic interpretation and experimental data to identify and document a**

18 **geologic record of past co-seismic slip-to-the-trench. IODP Exp. 344 drilled an old, < 1.9**

19 **Ma, megathrust frontal ramp – at ca. 325 mbsf – that superimposes older Miocene**

20 **biogenic oozes onto late Miocene-Pleistocene silty clays. Stratigraphy and geophysical**

21 **imaging constrain the position of the basal decollement to lie within the biogenic oozes.**

22 **Friction experiments show that when wet, silty clays and biogenic oozes are both slip-**

23 **weakening at subseismic and seismic slip velocities. Oozes are stronger than silty clays at**

24 **slip velocity ≤ 0.01 m/s, and wet oozes only become as weak as silty clays at slip velocity of**

25 **1 m/s. The implication is that the geological structures found in the forearc offshore SE**

26 **Costa Rica were deformed during seismic slip-to-the-trench events. During slower**

27 **aseismic creep, deformation would have preferentially localized within the silty-clays.**

28 Geodetic data, seafloor bathymetry, and tsunami inversion modeling all indicate that
29 the 2011 M_w 9 Tohoku-Oki earthquake ruptured to the trench, with 50-80 m co-seismic slip
30 occurring across the shallow portion of the megathrust ¹⁻³. These exceptional datasets
31 showed, for the first time, that ruptures can propagate to the trench during subduction
32 megathrust earthquakes. Previously, this domain had been considered to only slip
33 aseismically ⁴. This observation immediately raises follow-on questions: Is there evidence
34 that co-seismic slip to the trench has occurred in other subduction zones? What is the
35 potential for other megathrusts to co-seismically rupture to the trench?

36 Following ocean drilling results in the Japan Trench ⁵, investigation has focused on
37 the smectite-rich, pelagic clays recovered from the shallow portions of the Tohoku
38 megathrust. Friction experiments showed that when the fault's original fabric is preserved,
39 the Tohoku pelagic clays are cohesionless reducing fracture energy and favoring earthquake
40 rupture propagation ⁶. The very small fracture energy and shear stress of pelagic clays when
41 sheared at seismic slip velocities (~ 1 m/s) can allow propagation of earthquake rupture from
42 depth ^{7,8}, explaining slip to the trench during the 2011 Tohoku-Oki earthquake ⁸. On the
43 ocean floor, deposition of pelagic sediments typically alternates between clays and biogenic
44 oozes ^{9,10}, with the latter mostly subducting in the eastern central and south Pacific (Fig. 1).
45 In contrast to pelagic clays, biogenic oozes have been proposed to inhibit both fault rupture
46 propagation and displacement during earthquakes, and so prevent the occurrence of
47 tsunamis ⁹. Laboratory friction experiments have suggested, however, that biogenic oozes
48 may play a key role in earthquake nucleation at depth ¹¹⁻¹³.

49 In this study we report evidence from ocean drilling in southern Costa Rica that
50 biogenic oozes are the host sediment for the decollement at the trench. This observation,

51 combined with the result from high-velocity friction experiments suggests that near-trench
52 slip here was rapid, and likely tsunamigenic.

53

54 Studies of the shallower extents of subduction megathrusts have relied heavily on
55 ocean drilling; only modern subduction systems offer a clear view of frontal prism geometry
56 and the *in-situ* properties of the material involved in the fault zone. Integrated Ocean
57 Drilling Program Expeditions 334 and 344, the Costa Rica Seismogenesis Project (CRISP),
58 targeted both the incoming Cocos Plate sedimentary section at IODP Sites U1381 and
59 U1414, and the frontal prism at Site U1412, the latter located ~3 km landward of the Middle
60 America Trench (MAT) axis (Fig. 2A, B). The incoming plate sedimentary succession consists
61 of Miocene pelagic biogenic oozes overlain by late Miocene to Pleistocene hemipelagic silty
62 clays (Fig. 2C). At Site U1381 the oozes directly lie on Cocos Ridge basalt, while at Site U1414
63 a well-lithified layer of sandstone is interposed between the oozes and this basalt (Fig. 2C).
64 Here, the thickness of the incoming plate sediment section varies considerably both along
65 strike and down dip because of the rugged topography of the Cocos Ridge. Moving toward
66 the frontal prism, reflection seismic profiles show a 5-10 km wide frontal accretionary prism
67 ¹⁴ (Fig. 2A). The portion of the frontal prism drilled during IODP Exp. 344 at Site U1412
68 consists of Miocene pelagic biogenic oozes overlain by late Miocene to Pleistocene
69 hemipelagic silty clays, both resting on top of younger Pleistocene silty clays (Fig. 2B). This
70 stratigraphy implies that the frontal prism is indeed formed by oceanic sediments
71 offscraped from the incoming plate and accreted through a series of thrusts at the front of
72 the subduction margin (Fig. 2C). Most importantly, although Site U1412 did not reach the
73 modern basal decollement, it drilled through a former frontal thrust. The thrust occurs

74 between ≈ 321 and ≈ 329 mbsf, at the base of ≈ 120 m biogenic oozes. Although the actual
75 thrust surface was not recovered, the core catcher of Core 344-U1412C-4R contained mixed
76 Miocene and Pleistocene sediments, with no traces of the lithological units below the
77 biogenic oozes.

78 This thrust is the ramp of a thrust system in which the biogenic oozes form the
79 hangingwall. These are the youngest possible sediments that could be cut by the basal
80 decollement, which means that the decollement propagated neither in the silty clays nor
81 along the silty clay/biogenic ooze boundary. High-resolution 3D seismic reflection data¹⁵
82 show ≈ 125 m thick underthrust sediments landward of Site U1414, where drilling shows the
83 total thickness of the biogenic oozes is ≈ 180 m. This argues against the possibility that the
84 basal decollement follows the basalt-oozes boundary.

85 The lack of seafloor crests and clear offsets to the lower slope deposits landward of
86 the frontal thrust (Fig. 2A) supports the hypothesis of an imbricate stack of thrust sheets in
87 which the frontal thrust remains active until a new frontal thrust forms seaward of it. The
88 basal decollement propagates in the direction of slip along a weak surface, near the toe it
89 can ramp up-section. Although Site U1412 did not reach the modern decollement, both the
90 presence of this old frontal thrust and 3D seismic reflection imaging imply that biogenic
91 oozes were the layer in which the megathrust propagated – i.e. the basal decollement -
92 beneath this accretionary prism (Fig. 2B).

93 The biogenic oozes are formed by various proportions of calcareous nanofossils,
94 planktonic and benthonic foraminifera, radiolarians, diatoms and sponge spicules. The
95 average mineralogical composition of our samples is 80% calcite and 20% amorphous silica
96 (microfossils and tephra) for the biogenic ooze, and 30% calcite, 50% clay minerals, 20%

97 lithics (quartz and plagioclase) for the silty clays (Supplementary Figure 1). On average, the
98 50% clay mineral fraction contains 92% smectite (montmorillonite), 8% kaolinite, and <1%
99 illite¹⁶. It might be anticipated from previous work on smectite-rich sediments that the
100 abundance of smectite would imply that the silty clays should be the weaker layer in this
101 oceanic sedimentary succession^{8,17}. This stands in contrast with the geometric and drill
102 evidence described above.

103 The presence of a frontal accretionary prism allows us to analyze the velocity-
104 dependent frictional behavior of incoming sediment, and apply this knowledge to infer the
105 mechanical behavior near the toe of the frontal prism built from these sediments (Fig. 2B).
106 The CRISP setting is ideal to study the effect of slip velocity on sediments, because other
107 factors that could cause their weakening, such as temperature and fluid-rock interactions,
108 are negligible, in particular in biogenic oozes. At Site U1412, *in-situ* temperature
109 measurements linearly extrapolated to the depth of the old frontal megathrust estimate
110 $T=40^{\circ}\text{C}$ ¹⁸, while thermal models imply $T<30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ¹⁷. Fluid overpressure can also weaken
111 sediments as recently reported by experiments on material from the same Site U1414¹².
112 Both Site U1381 and U1414 show that biogenic oozes compact more slowly than silty clays.
113 In particular at Site 1414 the porosity of the oozes - $\approx 50\%$ on average - locally increases to
114 $\approx 80\%$ at ≈ 225 mbsf, before decreasing to the base of the sediments. Fluid-rich sediment
115 layers have also been identified by reflection seismics to be located between the basement
116 and the basal decollement¹⁵. However CRISP drilling recorded no signs of fluid overpressure
117 across the old frontal thrust as well as in the incoming plate sections. Pore fluids extracted
118 from sediments adjacent to the old frontal megathrust have lower than seawater salinity¹⁸.
119 At Site U1412, the increasing Ca^{+2} content in the pore fluids with depth indicates that no
120 diagenesis other than compaction has begun within drilled sediments¹⁸. Dissolved CO_2 and

121 hydrocarbons were only measured in the upper silty clay unit of Site U1412: the most
122 abundant species is methane – 0.65 vol% - while CO₂ is ~0.01vol%¹⁸. In the biogenic oozes
123 this value is likely to be higher, however breakdown of organic matter and decarbonation of
124 limestone are only expected to occur deeper than 60 km^{19,20}.

125 To determine the mechanical behaviour of sediments under appropriate P-T
126 conditions for the frontal prism we conducted 23 experiments (Supplementary Notes) using
127 the rotary shear machine ‘SHIVA’²¹. Incoming plate sediments from Sites U1381 and U1414
128 were carefully powdered to a grain size < 250 µm to preserve intact most of the microfossil
129 tests. Samples were dried to a maximum T of 50°C for 12 hours and rehydrated with distilled
130 water to reproduce the relative moisture content of the original drill cores here expressed in
131 percentage on weight of water/weight of bulk sample (i.e., 25 and 80 wt.% water content
132 for silty clays and 50 wt.% water content for oozes)^{18,22}. Powders were also sheared under
133 room humidity conditions to provide a reference end-member. Experiments were all
134 conducted at room temperature. Two millimeter thick layers of powders were confined
135 within a ring-shaped (35-55mm int./ext. diameter) steel holder²³ and sheared under a
136 constant normal stress $\sigma_n = 5$ MPa (equivalent to ~200 m depth) to reproduce shallow depth
137 conditions. Fluid pressure can vary locally, due to the instantaneous frictional heating at
138 seismic slip rates, although these pressure variations were not monitored. All mechanical
139 results are therefore provided in terms of the recorded shear stress τ , which results in an
140 effective friction coefficient $\mu^* = \tau / \sigma_n$ versus slip (D) and slip rate (V). All samples were
141 initially sheared at 1×10^{-5} m/s for 10 mm to attain both compaction and the residual shear
142 stress level (τ_0) to be used as initial condition for the experiments (pre-shear phase) and
143 arguably as a proxy for the state of shear stress preceding earthquake rupture at the trench.

144 After this phase, a 300s hold was set before applying a constant velocity for 1 m and 3 m of
145 total displacement at 0.01 and 1 m/s, the latter being close to the slip velocity calculated for
146 the 2011 M_w 9 Tohoku-Oki earthquake²⁴, to the high-slip patches of tsunami earthquakes in
147 Nicaragua and Peru^{25,26}, and to values from dynamic rupture simulations of near-trench
148 seismic slip²⁷.

149 The residual shear stress (τ_0) recorded at the end of the pre-shear phase is well
150 reproduced for the silty clays for all experiments, with standard deviations $std < 0.15$ MPa.
151 Biogenic oozes have the largest variations (Fig. 3A, B and Supplementary Notes) with std as
152 large as 0.28 MPa (Fig. 3B 3A, B). In general, reproducibility is worse in biogenic oozes than
153 in silty clays. This may be caused by the heterogeneity of the biogenic material forming the
154 oozes. In the pre-shear phase both silty clays and oozes show slip-weakening and slip-
155 strengthening behavior (Fig. 3A, B). Wet oozes are overall stronger than wet silty clays, in
156 agreement with previous observations for slip velocities $< 3 \times 10^{-4}$ m/s¹³.

157 At 0.01 m/s water content plays a major role. Under room-humidity conditions and
158 during the initial acceleration stage, silty clays and biogenic oozes have a similar peak in
159 shear stress ($\tau_p = 3.31 \pm 0.04$ MPa and $\tau_p = 3.27 \pm 0.33$ MPa respectively) (Fig. 3A). With
160 increasing slip, both materials have a slip-weakening behavior within the first 0.05 m of slip,
161 followed by slip-strengthening (Fig. 3A). In the presence of water, silty clays become clearly
162 weaker than biogenic oozes. The frictional sliding behavior of wet silty clays is quite
163 reproducible, with an initial decay that becomes nearly slip-neutral to slightly slip-
164 strengthening reaching a steady-state shear stress $\tau_{ss} = 0.83 \pm 0.02$ MPa at 25% wt. H_2O .
165 Biogenic oozes are slip weakening over the entire duration of the experiment but have an

166 initial stage of abrupt weakening followed by a recovery stage during the first 0.02 m of slip
167 before reaching $\tau_{ss} = 1.34 \pm 0.19$ MPa at 50% wt. H₂O.

168 At 1 m/s and room humidity conditions all samples have initial slip-weakening
169 behavior (Fig. 3B) with a similar peak in shear stress ($\tau_p \sim 3.45$ MPa) after the initial
170 acceleration stage. However, the shear stress decays faster in biogenic oozes than in silty
171 clays and persists to a slightly higher steady-state value calculated at the end of each test
172 ($\tau_{ss} = 2.22 \pm 0.26$ MPa for oozes vs. $\tau_{ss} = 1.76 \pm 0.22$ MPa for silty clays). In the presence of
173 water, the experiments on oozes show peaks of shear stress similar to those at room
174 humidity conditions with an average of $\tau_p = 3.41 \pm 0.33$ MPa, but present an abrupt
175 weakening stage before reaching a steady state value of $\tau_{ss} = 0.57 \pm 0.05$ MPa (Fig. 3B). The
176 peak shear stress for silty clays is weaker ($\tau_p = 1.67 \pm 0.14$ MPa, 25% wt.H₂O and $\tau_p = 1.45 \pm$
177 0.04 MPa, 80% wt.H₂O), decay is characterized by a short (flash) initial weakening followed
178 by a slow stage of strengthening before further reduction to the steady state value ($\tau_{ss} = 0.68$
179 ± 0.06 MPa, 25% wt.H₂O and $\tau_{ss} = 0.56 \pm 0.01$ MPa, 80% wt.H₂O).

180 The above experiments have shown that, during the onset of seismic slip-rates (1
181 m/s), biogenic oozes are always slip-weakening. Importantly, at lower slip rates (≤ 0.01 m/s)
182 wet silty clays are weaker than oozes (Fig.3A), and deformation would localize more easily
183 by creeping within silty clays than within biogenic oozes while the two fault materials
184 become similarly weak at seismic slip-rates (Fig. 3B).

185 However, sliding friction alone does not control the onset of slip during an
186 earthquake. Indeed an energy balance^{28,29} (Supplementary notes Eq. S1) indicates that
187 seismic rupture can occur when the elastic strain energy release E (which does increase with
188 τ_0) equals or exceeds the summed dissipation of both fracture energy G_f (depending on τ_p
189 and τ_{ss}) and sliding friction work W_f (depending on τ_{ss}). Any excess energy $E_r = E - (G_f + W_f)$ is

190 then available for wave radiation, and under similar circumstances, faults with larger E_r are
191 more likely to slip seismically. As noted above, biogenic oozes have a sharp slip weakening
192 behaviour while silty clays are slip strengthening before decaying to steady state. Therefore,
193 both the occurrence of strengthening in the silty clays and the stronger value of the residual
194 shear stress (τ_0) in oozes are relevant factors to the propagation of slip.

195 Using τ_0 measured in the slow (10 $\mu\text{m/s}$) slip experiments (Fig. S2 of the
196 Supplementary Notes) as a proxy of pre-seismic stress on the fault, we estimate values of
197 the excess energy E_r from 23 experiments (Table S1 in Supplementary notes). At 0.01 m/s, E_r
198 is similar for both silty clays and oozes (with the exception of one wet experiment in oozes,
199 Fig. 3C), suggesting that slip can propagate easily in both types of sediments. However, at 1
200 m/s, wet oozes have a much higher residual stresses τ_0 than wet silty clays. Therefore oozes
201 are prone to larger strain energies E and capable of accumulating the elastic strain required
202 to produce a “locked” patch on a plate interface at shallow depths³⁰ (provided that the
203 elastic strain is not released by adjacent weaker lithological units).

204 Recent experiments on material from the same Site U1414 suggest that at T
205 between 70° and 140°C and $P_f=120$ MPa subduction thrust earthquakes would
206 preferentially nucleate in biogenic oozes instead of silty clays¹². If this is true, once rupture
207 is initiated it could then propagate updip along the oozes, as documented from the drilling
208 results. However, in southern Costa Rica, thermal modelling predicts that $T>70^\circ\text{C}$ are only to
209 be expected at distances > 25 km from the trench¹⁷, in a region where subduction erosion
210 predominates³¹. Therefore, while the velocity-related friction behavior of the oozes vs. silty
211 clays is relevant for the 5-10 km wide frontal accretionary prism, at the depths of
212 earthquake nucleation, the host material would be expected to be upper plate rocks instead
213 of these sediments.

214 Finally, lab measured yield stresses for the oozes and silty clays are easily both
215 exceeded in nature by the stress transient associated with fault propagation near the trench
216 during a megathrust earthquake as inferred by the stress drop values of the 2011 M_w 9
217 Tohoku-Oki earthquake ³² or the Peru and Nicaragua tsunami earthquakes (Fig. 1) ^{26,33}.

218 These combined geological, geophysical and mechanical observations imply that the
219 thrusts found in the forearc toe offshore SE Costa Rica were active during transient high slip-
220 rates (i.e., rates only possible during earthquake slip to the trench).

221 The geological and mechanical observations discussed in this paper imply that the
222 subduction of biogenic oozes has the potential to create the conditions for earthquake slip
223 to the trench that will greatly amplify the tsunami hazard in this and many other subduction
224 systems, in particular along the Cocos and Nazca subduction zones (Fig. 1). Our observations
225 indicate that biogenic oozes can provide a valuable record of past slip-to-the-trench, and
226 that past slip events can be effectively assessed locally by drilling into frontal prisms in high
227 seismic and tsunami hazard areas.

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324 **Author contributions**

325 PV described the cores in ODP Leg 170 and Leg 205, IODP Exp. 334 and Exp. 344, sampled the
326 sediments used for the experiments described in this paper, contributed to their interpretation, and
327 wrote the text. ES conducted the experiments and with the first author contributed to their
328 interpretation, wrote the supplementary notes and prepared the files for the data repository. SA
329 conducted the experiments and contributed to their interpretation. KU and AT described the cored
330 in IODP Exp. 334 and performed an early set of experiments. GDT and SN contributed to the
331 interpretation of the experiments.

332 The authors of the present manuscript declare that they have no competing financial interests.

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336 **Figure Captions**

337 Figure 1

338 Distribution and thickness of Biogenic Oozes (mostly carbonaceous) on the Cocos and Nazca plates
339 as calculated by DSDP-ODP-IODP drilling results. The blue italic numbers next to the circles indicate
340 the DSDP-ODP-IODP drilling site used for the isopach map. Note that our interpolation does not
341 consider bathymetry variations.

342 Figure 2

343 Location of ODP Leg 170 and IODP Exp. 334 and 344 (CRISP) offshore Central America. A) Post-stack
344 depth migrated seismic section centered at the trench along Site U1381/Site U1412 transect (detail
345 of BGR99 Line 7)¹⁴. B) Detail of Site U1412 location and recovered material. C) Stratigraphy of the
346 drilled sites and conceptual cartoon of the accretionary system at the front of the CRISP transect as
347 implied by the offshore drilling showing the detachment layer localized within the biogenic oozes –
348 Note the lateral and downdip variation of the sediment thickness: in particular the biogenic oozes
349 are ca. 50 m at Site U1381, ca. 180 m at Site U1414 – this site is projected from the position
350 indicated in the location map, therefore its thickness in the cross section is not the effective drilled
351 thickness, which is reported in the log -, and ca. 120 m at Site U1412. The location of the samples
352 used for the friction tests is also shown.

353 Figure 3

354 Summary of experimental results. Different colors refer to different water content (see legend). **A.**
355 Example shear stress as a function of slip obtained for low-velocity – 0.01 m/s – experiments for silty
356 clays and biogenic oozes for different water content. The first 10 mm of slip are tested at 10 $\mu\text{m/s}$. **B.**
357 Example shear stress as a function of slip obtained for high slip-velocity – 1 m/s – experiments for
358 silty clays and biogenic oozes. The first 10 mm of slip are tested at 10 $\mu\text{m/s}$. At room humidity (RH)
359 conditions, both silty clays and oozes show a slip weakening behavior, with comparable values of

360 both peak and steady-state shear stress. Weakening, though, is very abrupt and pronounced for the
361 oozes. Under wet conditions the peak shear stress for the silty clays is lower than the oozes, but silty
362 clays show an initial slip strengthening behavior. At steady state conditions the shear stress is very
363 similar for both materials. **C.** Excess energy $E_r = E - (W_f + G_f)$ available for rupture propagation and wave
364 radiation, calculated from the experimental data (see Supplementary Notes). Empty and full circles
365 refer to 1 m and 3 m of slip respectively.

366





