

13. GEOLOGICAL AND GEOCHEMICAL CONSTRAINTS ON THE ISOTOPIC COMPOSITION OF INTERSTITIAL WATERS FROM THE HYDRATE RIDGE REGION, CASCADIA CONTINENTAL MARGIN¹

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ABSTRACT

The isotopic compositions of interstitial waters collected from Hydrate Ridge during Ocean Drilling Program Leg 204 were measured to evaluate the fluid evolution of this accretionary prism. At shallow depths, the dissolved Cl⁻ concentrations and δD and $\delta^{18}O$ values of the interstitial water reflect changes in the salinity and the isotopic compositions of seawater from the Last Glacial Maximum to the present. The presence of disseminated gas hydrates, which is well identified by discrete low Cl⁻ anomalies within the gas hydrate stability zone, is accompanied by high δD and $\delta^{18}O$ values of the freshened fluids. This is consistent with incorporation of heavy isotopes into the gas hydrate lattice, which is also apparent in the signals observed at the ridge summit. Here, massive gas hydrate formation in the upper 20 meters below seafloor leads the formation of brines with dissolved Cl⁻ concentrations as high as 1400 mM. The interstitial waters sampled near massive gas hydrates at the ridge summit are extremely depleted in D and ¹⁸O. Clay mineral dehydration within the deep prism results in a progressive decrease in Cl⁻ and δD with depth. Dehydration temperature estimates based on those data likely suggest a progressive increase in the temperature of isotopic fractionation between clay and water with distance from the prism toe. The oxygen isotope data probably reflect the combined effects of clay dehydration, carbonate precipitation, and alter-

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ation of oceanic basement; however, there are not enough data to constrain the relative contribution of these processes to the observed signals.

INTRODUCTION

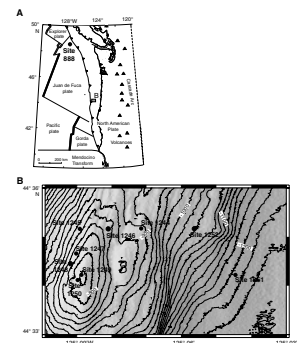
The chemistry of interstitial water is strongly influenced by tectonic, sedimentological, mineralogical, and diagenetic processes. Dissolved chloride concentrations (Cl^-) and the stable isotope compositions (δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values) of waters are valuable in establishing the origin and evolution of fluids in marine sediments (e.g., Dählmann and de Lange, 2003; Hesse, 2003). In the absence of gas hydrates, chloride is not involved in geochemical reactions in shallow sediments. Water is the carrier of dissolved ions, and its isotopic signal reflects processes such as dehydration and gas hydrate formation involving uptake and release of water. These are the only processes that affect the hydrogen isotopic signal because water is the main hydrogen reservoir. Oxygen, however, is a major component of minerals; thus, isotopic exchange of these phases with pore water may provide valuable information on diagenetic processes.

At Hydrate Ridge, offshore Oregon (USA), the Cl^- distribution in interstitial waters within the gas hydrate stability zone (GHSZ) is clearly associated with gas hydrate dynamics, whereas at depth, the Cl^- signal reflects dehydration reactions (Torres et al., 2004a, 2004b). The migration of deep fluids to the GHSZ is a process that delivers dissolved methane for the formation of gas hydrates; thus, defining the geological and geochemical histories recorded in the interstitial waters is an essential approach for further understanding of gas hydrate systems. Here we present hydrogen and oxygen isotope data of interstitial waters from the Cascadia accretionary complex collected during Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Leg 204 to identify key geological and geochemical processes operating within this accretionary margin.

GEOLOGICAL SETTINGS

Hydrate Ridge is a 25-km-long and 15-km-wide ridge located offshore Oregon (Fig. F1A) where Juan de Fuca plate obliquely subducts beneath North American plate (MacKay et al., 1992; MacKay, 1995; Goldfinger et al., 1997). Sediments in the vicinity of the ridge are composed of actively folded and faulted turbidites and hemipelagic sediments (Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al., 2003). Massive gas hydrates are observed near the seafloor and in the subsurface to a depth of ~50 meters below seafloor (mbsf) on the ridge summit, and pervasive bottom-simulating reflectors (BSRs) occur from the summit to the flanks and into the eastern slope basin of the ridge, indicating the presence of free gas underlying the subsurface gas hydrates in these sediments (Tréhu et al., 2004). Authigenic carbonates and chemosynthetic communities have also been observed at the southern peak of the ridge, where methane gas is discharged episodically into the overlying water (Torres et al., 2002; Suess et al., 1999; Heeschen et al., 2003).

F1. Leg 204 maps, p. 12.



MATERIALS AND METHODS

Southern Hydrate Ridge was drilled and cored during Leg 204 in 2002 (Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al., 2003) (Fig. F1B). Three sites (Sites 1248, 1249, and 1250) were drilled at the ridge summit. Of these sites, Site 1250 has the deepest penetration and recovered ~180 m of sediments of Holocene to early Pleistocene age. The sediment is mainly composed of clay to silty clay with biogenic components, with turbidite layers intercalated as minor lithologies of the core. Three sites (Sites 1245, 1246, and 1247) were drilled at the northern and western flanks of the ridge. Site 1245 was cored deepest to a depth of ~530 mbsf. The upper sediments (~30 mbsf) at Site 1245 are mainly composed of clay with authigenic carbonate and foraminifer-rich interlayers and are devoid of gas hydrates. These sediments are underlain by diatom- or nannofossil-rich clay to silty clay with frequent sand-rich turbidites and some volcanic ash layers. At the eastern slope basin of the ridge (Sites 1244, 1251, and 1252), Site 1251 was cored deepest to a depth of ~440 mbsf in Holocene to upper Pliocene sediments. The sediment sequence is mostly composed of clay to silty clay with several turbidite and debris flow layers. The sequence between 130 and 300 mbsf at Site 1251 is enriched in siliceous and calcareous biogenic components; the deeper stratigraphic section is composed of partly lithified clay to claystone with glauconite grains and authigenic carbonate of various morphologies. Site 1252 is the only one of the nine drilled sites where no BSR is observed.

Whole-round sediment intervals (10–20 cm in length) were sampled soon after recovery according to standard ODP protocol. These were carefully skinned to remove potential seawater contamination during recovery and squeezed to extract interstitial water samples using a Manheim-type squeezing system. In addition, other water samples were collected from dissociated massive gas hydrate samples, gas hydrate-bearing sediments (sometimes identified by soupy or moussy texture), and dry-looking sediments near gas hydrate occurrences.

Dissolved chloride concentration was determined onboard by titration with silver nitrate with a precision better than 0.4% (Torres et al., 2004a). Aliquots of water samples were sealed in glass vials for post-cruise stable isotope analyses at the University of Tokyo (Japan). The δD values were measured by the chromium-reduction method of Gehre et al. (1996) using the automated hydrogen preparation system, H/Device of Finnigan, equipped with MAT 252 Finnigan mass spectrometer. Results are reported in permil (‰) delta notation relative to Standard Mean Ocean Water (SMOW). Analytical precision is better than ± 0.5 ‰. The $\delta^{18}O$ values were measured by the CO_2 -equilibrium method of Epstein and Mayeda (1953) with a MAT 252 mass spectrometer. Results are reported in delta values relative to SMOW with an analytical precision better than ± 0.15 ‰.

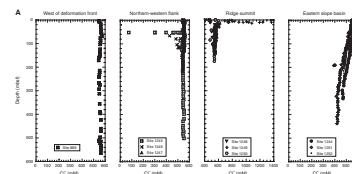
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Hydrogen and Oxygen Isotopic Compositions

Water isotopic compositions from Leg 204 are listed in Table T1 and shown in Figure F2, which includes data from Site 888 located west of the deformation front of Cascadia margin (Kastner and Elderfield, 1995). Similar to the approach used by Tréhu et al. (2004) to estimate in

T1. Hydrogen and oxygen isotopic compositions, p. 18.

F2. Dissolved Cl^- , δD , and $\delta^{18}O$, p. 13.



situ Cl^- values, the background levels of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ can be defined by interpolating values from the interstitial waters collected from sediments devoid of gas hydrates. (Fig. F3). The chemistry of such water is assumed to be free from the effects of gas hydrate formation and dissociation, and thus should reflect in situ values.

The δD values at the summit and flank sites increase from -5‰ near the seafloor to $+5\text{‰}$ at ~ 20 mbsf, show a very slight decrease downward, and then remain almost constant at values ranging from 0 to $+4\text{‰}$ (Fig. F2B). On the other hand, δD values in the slope basin decrease steeply downward, reaching values of about -10‰ , and remain almost constant below 220 to 300 mbsf, with maximum values as high as $+5\text{‰}$ at ~ 20 mbsf. Positive (up to $+20\text{‰}$) and negative (up to -10‰) excursions in δD at all sites always accompany depletion and enrichment in Cl^- (Fig. F2A), respectively.

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values increase from 0‰ near the seafloor to $+0.5\text{‰}$ at ~ 20 mbsf at all sites, and then decrease downward, approaching approximately -0.3‰ below 100 mbsf at the summit and flank sites, whereas they gradually decrease to values as low as -0.8‰ and become constant below 220 to 300 mbsf in the slope basin (Fig. F2C). Positive (up to $+2.4\text{‰}$) and negative (up to -0.9‰) excursions in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at all sites correspond with δD excursions and with anomalous depletion and enrichment in Cl^- , respectively.

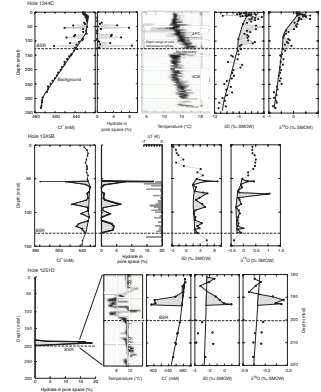
Anomalies Associated with Gas Hydrate

The “spiky” decreases of dissolved Cl^- observed within the GHSZ (e.g., Holes 1244C, 1245B, and 1251D in Fig. F3) are accompanied by increases in δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. These discrete anomalies are clearly associated with gas hydrate dissociation during core retrieval. Because the gas hydrate lattice excludes dissolved ions and preferentially incorporates D and ^{18}O during formation, the interstitial water released from gas hydrate as it dissociates shows low Cl^- concentration and high δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in direct proportion to hydrate content (Egeberg and Dickens, 1999; Hesse et al., 2000; Matsumoto and Borowski, 2000). Conversely, strong enrichment in Cl^- in shallow depths at Site 1249 at the ridge summit may reflect rapid gas hydrate formation, which exceeds the rate at which ions can be removed by diffusion from the loci of hydrate formation (Torres et al., 2004a) or great reduction of sediment pore space due to massive gas hydrate formation, which leads to decrease of dissuasive loss of Cl^- (Milkov et al., 2004). The briny residual waters show negative excursions in δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ because the water is depleted in D and ^{18}O because of isotopic fractionation during gas hydrate formation.

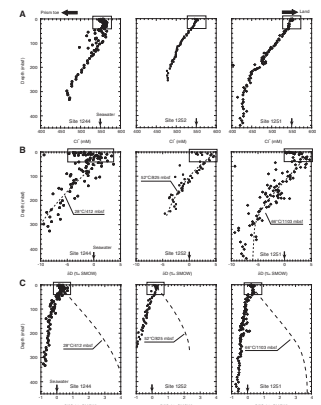
Glacial Signals in the Shallow Interstitial Waters

Sites away from the ridge crest show curvature in Cl^- , δD , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in shallow sediments (e.g., Sites 1244, 1251, and 1252 as shown in the boxes in Fig. F4). Small positive peaks in Cl^- (Fig. F4A) in comparison with seawater are observed shallower than 40 mbsf in Holocene to Pleistocene sediments (Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al., 2003) and correspond with positive peaks in δD (Fig. F4B) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. F4C). The methane concentration in the shallow sediments drilled away from the ridge summit is not sufficient to form gas hydrate at these depths (Milkov et al., 2003); thus, the upper ~ 40 mbsf of these sites are devoid

F3. Discrete Cl^- excursions, p. 16.



F4. Cl^- , δD , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, p. 17.

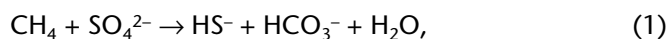


of gas hydrates, as shown by analyses of multiple gas hydrate proxies (Fig. F3) (Tréhu et al., 2004). The observed synchronous changes in dissolved Cl⁻ and water isotopes in the upper sediments (Fig. F4) are therefore not caused by processes related to gas hydrate formation; rather, these profiles reflect the burial of seawater during glacial intervals which is enriched in dissolved ions, D, and ¹⁸O because of ice sheet development (e.g., Adkins et al., 2002).

Detailed analyses of interstitial waters recovered from the Pacific, Southern, and Atlantic oceans show a Cl⁻ increase of ~2.6% and a δ¹⁸O rise of 0.8‰ (McDuff, 1985; Schrag et al., 1996; Adkins et al., 2002), which has been used to constrain seawater temperature and salinity values from the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) to the Holocene. In Cascadia continental margin sediments, dissolved Cl⁻ shows an increase of ~3.6% (Fig. F4A) and δ¹⁸O increases by ~0.7‰ (Fig. F4C) relative to modern seawater. Our data set provides the first δD values associated with the postulated interstitial water records of ice volume change in glacial to interglacial timescales. We show a maximum increase in δD of ~4‰ (Fig. F4B) in the upper 40 mbsf, which is about six times greater than that observed for δ¹⁸O. This magnitude is consistent with the experimental results of oxygen and hydrogen isotopic fractionation for an ice-water system (O'Neil, 1968) and suggests that the observed coupled increase in δD and δ¹⁸O is due to the development of ice sheet resulting in the sea level drop during the LGM. The effects of older glacial-interglacial periods in deeper interstitial waters are likely overwritten by diffusion and advection of deeper fluids.

Fluid Provenance Inferences for Interstitial Water from Cl⁻ and δD Profiles

The similarity in profiles of Cl⁻ and δD (Fig. F2) suggests that same processes control the vertical distributions of these species; both Cl⁻ and δD generally decrease with depth in the slope basin, whereas those remain almost constant at the other sites. Anaerobic methane oxidation (e.g., Borowski et al., 1996),



provides water depleted in D because the hydrogen in water can be linked to bacterially generated methane with δD values of approximately -200‰ (Coleman et al., 1981; Waseda and Uchida, 2002). Therefore, this process can decrease both Cl⁻ and δD. But the methane concentration is negligibly small compared with the amount of hydrogen in water (Dählmann and de Lange, 2003), and the sulfate reduction zone in Hydrate Ridge is very shallow (generally <15 mbsf) (Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al., 2003); thus, this process cannot account for the magnitude of the observed decrease in δD in deep sediments.

Membrane filtration of clay minerals causes interstitial waters to be depleted both in Cl⁻ and D as well as ¹⁸O. Experiments have shown that Cl⁻ concentration can decrease by 18% and 30% in water filtered through bentonite at pressures of 14 and 28 MPa, respectively (Kharaka and Berry, 1973). In addition, Coplen and Hanshaw (1973) showed that this process results in depletion of D by 2.5‰ and depletion of ¹⁸O by 0.8 ‰ when water is filtered through montmorillonite at 33 MPa. But membrane filtration, which has been shown experimentally to cause freshening and depletion in the heavy isotopes, has never been docu-

mented unambiguously in a large-scale field example (Hanor, 1987). In the slope basin at Hydrate Ridge, we observe decreases of 12%–23%, 5‰–10‰, and 0.5‰–1‰ from seawater values of Cl⁻, δD, and δ¹⁸O, respectively (Fig. F2). If we assume that these values are due to membrane filtration at depth followed by fluid migration to shallower sedimentary section, the expected water isotopic fractionation observed in the above experiments are too small to cause the large depletion of D and ¹⁸O in the interstitial waters.

However, water released during clay mineral diagenesis is a promising explanation for overall decreases in Cl⁻ and δD observed in the eastern slope basin of the ridge. Torres et al. (2004b) explain the progressive freshening of fluids landward as resulting from dehydration of smectite beneath the accreted mélange and subsequent migration of fluids from depths below 1000 mbsf where in situ temperature is >70°C. Hydrogen isotopic fractionation between smectite and water has been determined by Capuano (1992) using the relationship

$$1000 \ln \alpha_{\text{clay-water}}^{\text{H}} = \{[-45.3(10^3)]/T\} + 94.7, \quad (2)$$

where $\alpha_{\text{clay-water}}^{\text{H}}$ is the isotopic fractionation factor of hydrogen between smectite and water and T is the fractionation temperature in degrees K. If we assume that the observed decrease in background level of Cl⁻ is caused by input of freshwater evolved from smectite dehydration at greater depth, we can estimate average isotopic fractionation temperature between clay and water using a mass balance calculation such that

$$X_{\text{clay}}\delta_{\text{clay}} + (1 - X_{\text{clay}})\delta_{\text{SW}} = \delta_{\text{IW}}, \quad (3)$$

where X_{clay} is the volume fraction of water from clay mineral dehydration calculated from Cl⁻ change and δ_{clay} , δ_{SW} , and δ_{IW} represent the δD values of water released by dehydration, seawater, and the predicted composition of the interstitial water, respectively. Using Equations 2 and 3, we can estimate the average temperatures of hydrogen isotopic fractionation between clay and water that fit to the observed decreasing δD profiles in the slope basin. The results indicate that in situ interstitial waters were released from clay minerals isotopically exchanged at average temperatures of 28°, 52°, and 66°C at Sites 1244, 1252, and 1251, respectively, as dashed lines in Figure F4B. Using the regional geothermal gradient for these sites (Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al., 2003), these temperatures correspond to subbottom depths of 412, 825, and 1103 mbsf, respectively. These temperatures are too low for dehydration to occur (e.g., Perry and Hower, 1970; Pytte and Reynolds, 1989) and must reflect previous fractionation of interlayer water with the pore fluids at depth during burial, so we are not starting out with seawater values in our Equation 3. Nevertheless, the apparent temperature increases landward in the slope basin, consistent with our conceptual understanding of prism evolution based on models developed for the Barbados wedge (Bekins et al., 1994).

Causes of Depletion in ¹⁸O

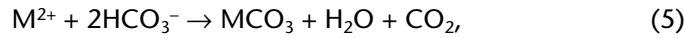
Decreases in Cl⁻ and δD values are observed only in the eastern slope basin; δ¹⁸O values, however, decrease at all sites. Clay mineral dehydration in the slope basin also affects the oxygen isotopic composition of the interstitial water. The temperature dependence of isotopic fraction-

ation of oxygen between smectite and water was determined by Savin and Lee (1988) and is given by

$$1000 \ln \alpha_{\text{clay-water}}^{\text{O}} = \{[2.60(10^6)]/T^2\} - 4.28, \quad (4)$$

where $\alpha_{\text{clay-water}}^{\text{O}}$ is the isotopic fractionation factor of oxygen between smectite and water and T is the fractionation temperature in degrees K. Such clay minerals are enriched in ^{18}O and increase $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of interstitial water during dehydration (e.g., Dählmann and de Lange, 2003). Dashed lines in Figure F4C show the predicted initial background levels for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the water isotopically exchanged with clay at temperatures of 28°, 52°, and 66°C at Sites 1244, 1252, and 1251, respectively, if it was derived by clay mineral dehydration. The observed decreases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ profiles do not follow the predicted trends; thus, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the slope basin were generated by the combined processes of clay mineral dehydration and other geochemical reactions. The actual ^{18}O depletion in the slope basin due to reactions other than clay mineral dehydration must be greater than that at the summit and flank sites; a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ decrease of ~5‰ in the slope basin (Fig. F4C) and ~0.3‰ at the other sites (Fig. F2C) occurs because the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the slope basin were potentially increased by the clay mineral dehydration to the values indicated as the dashed lines in Figure F4C.

Carbonate precipitation is an important process that can decrease $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of interstitial water independent of δD and is described by the following general reaction:



where M is Ca^{2+} or Mg^{2+} , representing the formation of calcite or dolomite. The isotopic fractionation factors ($\alpha_{\text{carbonate-water}}^{\text{O}}$) of oxygen between carbonates and water are experimentally determined as calcite,

$$1000 \ln \alpha_{\text{calcite-water}}^{\text{O}} = \{[2.78(10^6)]/T^2\} - 3.39, \quad (6)$$

from O'Neil et al. (1969), and dolomite,

$$1000 \ln \alpha_{\text{dolomite-water}}^{\text{O}} = \{[2.62(10^6)]/T^2\} + 2.17, \quad (7)$$

from Fritz and Smith (1970). Assuming that carbonate precipitation occurred at 276.85 K (3.7°C) and 293.75 K (20.6°C), equivalent to depths at the seafloor and 300 mbsf at Site 1251 (Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al., 2003), the estimated isotopic fractionations are +32.9‰ (SMOW) at 3.7°C and +28.8‰ at 20.6°C for calcite and +36.4‰ and +32.5‰ for dolomite, respectively. The precipitation of carbonates accounts for the observed decreases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of interstitial water at all sites (Fig. F2C). Thus, the predicted greater decrease in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (~5‰) in the slope basin, compared to that at the summit and flank sites (~0.3‰) as mentioned above, likely reflects abundant authigenic carbonate and possibly high dolomite content and/or low precipitation temperature. Alternatively, Sr^{2+} concentration and the strontium isotopic composition ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) of interstitial waters measured in these fluids suggest the influence of fluid interaction with oceanic basement (Torres et al., 2004b; Teichert et al., 2005). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of oceanic basement recovered from the eastern flank of Juan de Fuca Ridge during ODP Leg 168 range from +6.1‰ to +19.3‰ (Vienna SMOW), showing a positive

correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the percentage of bulk rock alteration (Hunter et al., 1999). Oceanic basement in contact with seawater preferentially incorporates ^{18}O into its alteration products, resulting in a significant decrease of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of interstitial waters. The effect of basalt alteration in deep fluids at Hydrate Ridge shows an increase eastward (landward) (Torres et al., 2004b), consistent with the observed greater decrease in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the eastern slope basin of the ridge relative to the summit and flank regions.

CONCLUSIONS

Occurrence of subsurface gas hydrates is well documented by anomalies of δD , $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and Cl^- of interstitial waters. Positive anomalies of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ correlating with low Cl^- concentrations are seen in gas hydrate bearing-sediments because of the dissociation of gas hydrate during core retrieval. On the other hand, negative anomalies of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ correlating with high Cl^- concentrations are observed in the vicinity of actively forming massive gas hydrates on the crest of Hydrate Ridge. These anomalies are due to the fact that residual waters have not been diffused away because of gas hydrate development, in contrast to all data from hydrate sites published in the literature.

The shallow interstitial waters (<40 mbsf) at all sites show slight increases in Cl^- , δD , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, which record the geochemical change of seawater composition due to the fresh and isotopically light water stored in ice sheets during the LGM. However, observed Cl^- concentration, δD , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values deeper than several tens of meters below the seafloor are the combined result of clay mineral dehydration, carbonate precipitation, and alteration of oceanic basement. The observed freshening in Cl^- and depletion in D in the eastern slope basin, caused by the dehydration of clay minerals beneath the accreted *mélange*, can be used to document the progressive contribution of water from clay minerals from deeper and older sediments landward of the toe of the accretionary prism. Downward decreases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are observed over the ridge, probably caused by the carbonate precipitation and basalt alteration. The relatively large effects of the dehydration and the basalt alteration in the eastern slope basin of the ridge reflect progressive landward diagenesis due to the eastward subduction.

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Figure F1. A. Location and geological setting of Hydrate Ridge. Juan de Fuca plate is obliquely subducting beneath North American plate ~20 km west of the ridge. Box denotes area of the detailed bathymetric map. B. Detailed bathymetric map of the southern Hydrate Ridge and drilling sites of Leg 204. From Tréhu, Bohrmann, Rack, Torres, et al. (2003).

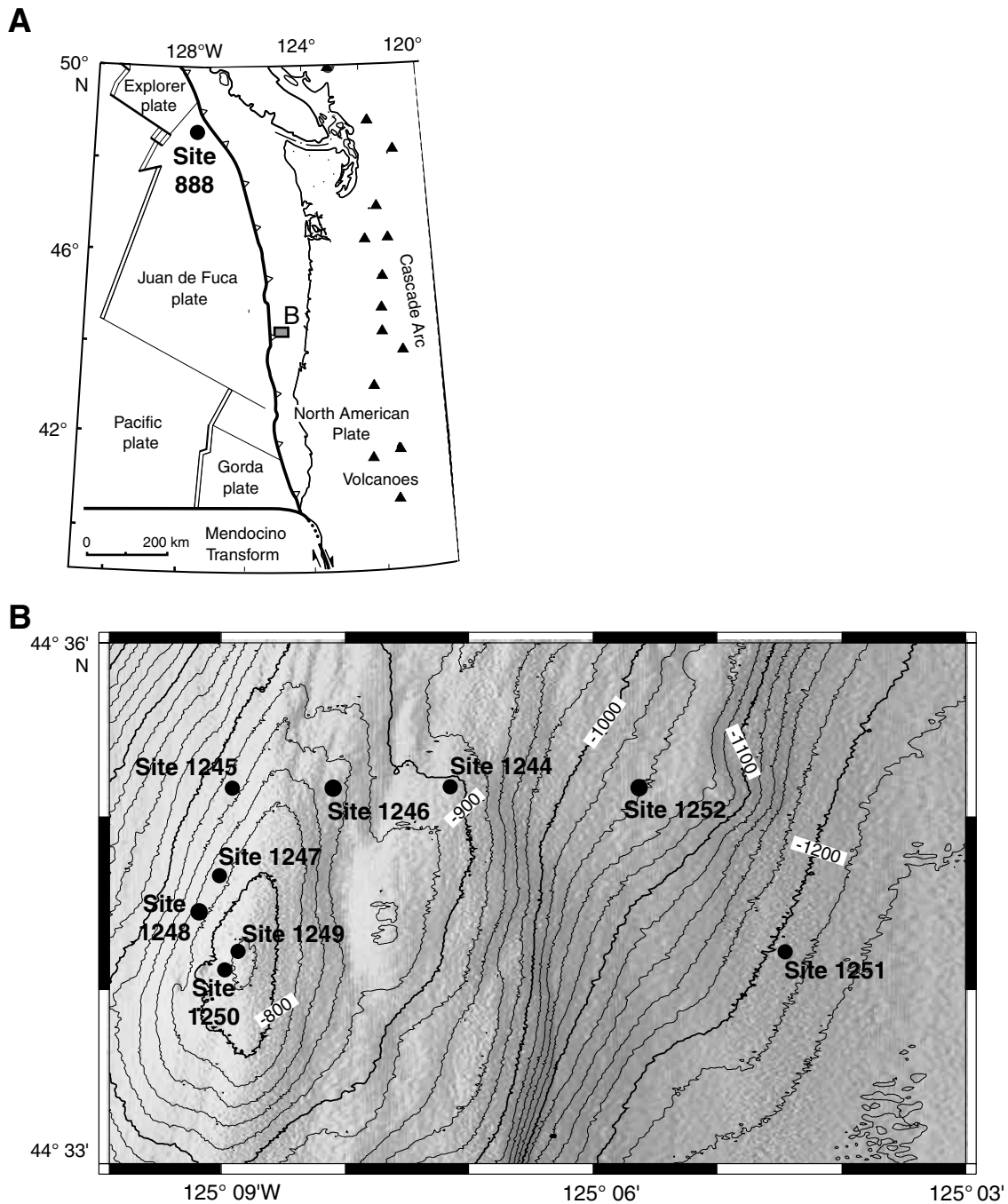


Figure F2. A. Dissolved Cl^- concentrations of interstitial waters from ODP Legs 204 and 146 (Site 888; data from Kastner and Elderfields, 1995). Note different scale for ridge summit. (Continued on next two pages.)

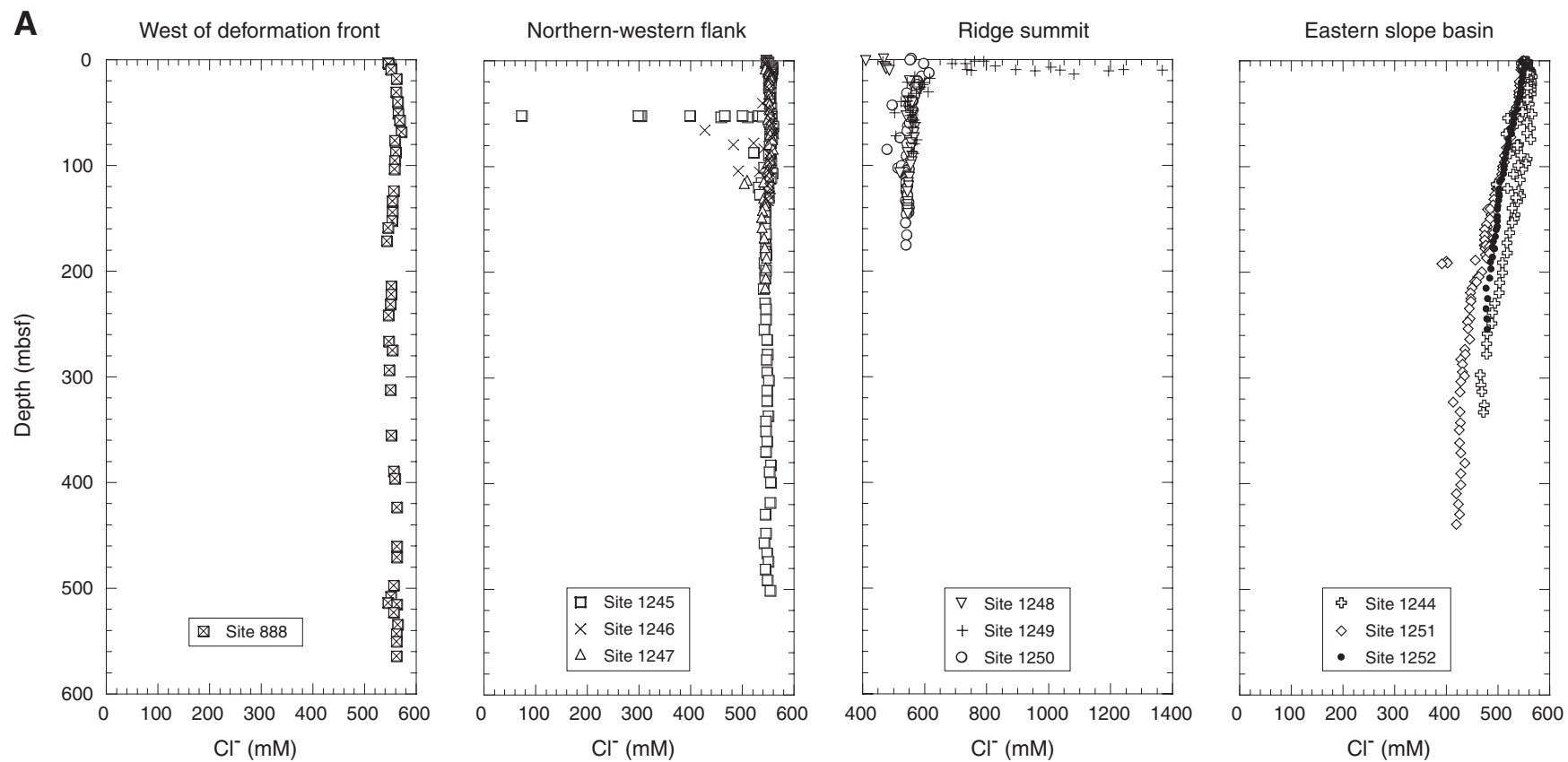


Figure F2 (continued). B. δD values of interstitial waters from Leg 204. SMOW = Standard Mean Ocean Water.

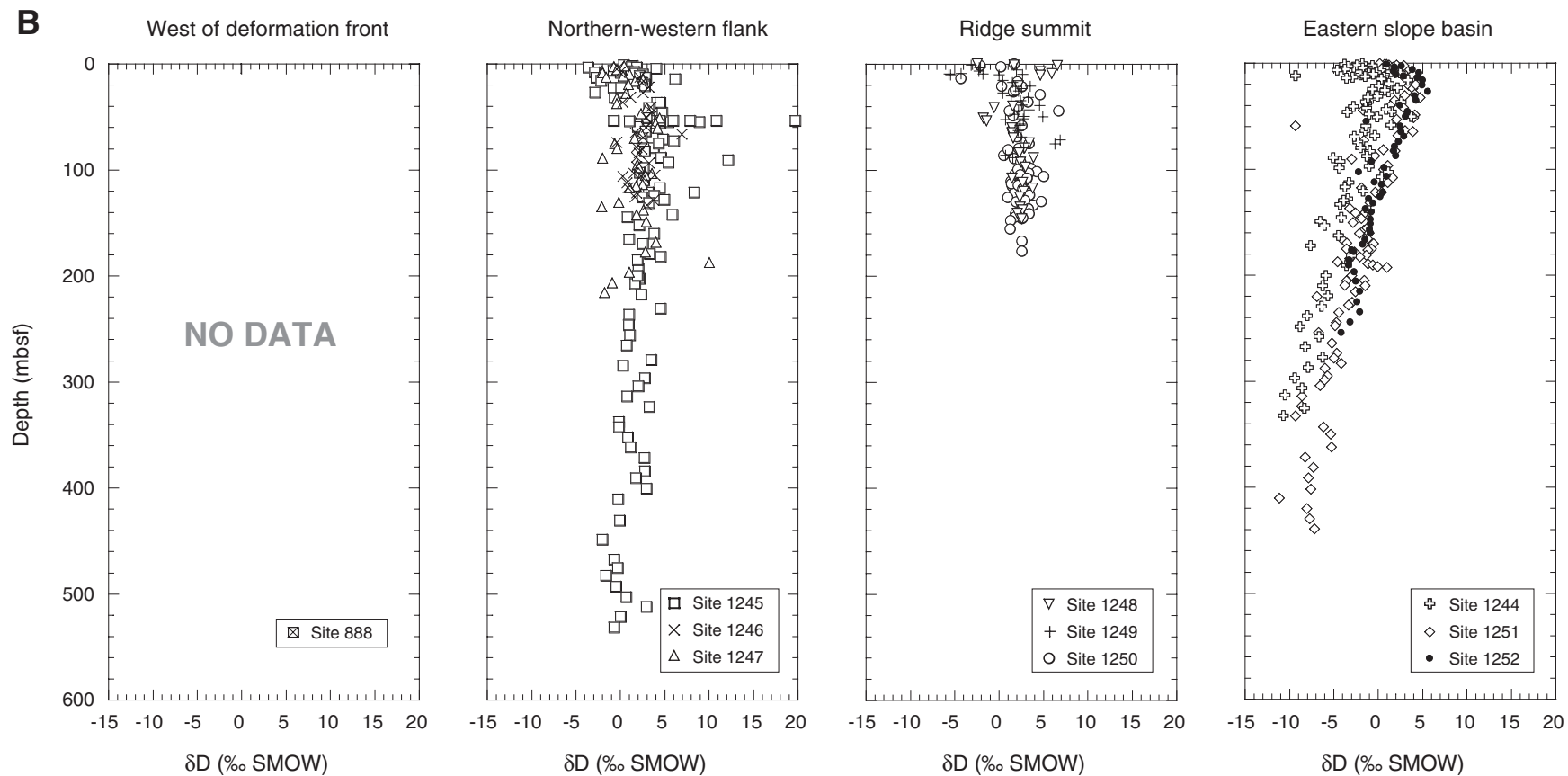


Figure F2 (continued). C. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of interstitial waters from Legs 204 and 146 (Site 888; data from Kastner and Elderfields, 1995).

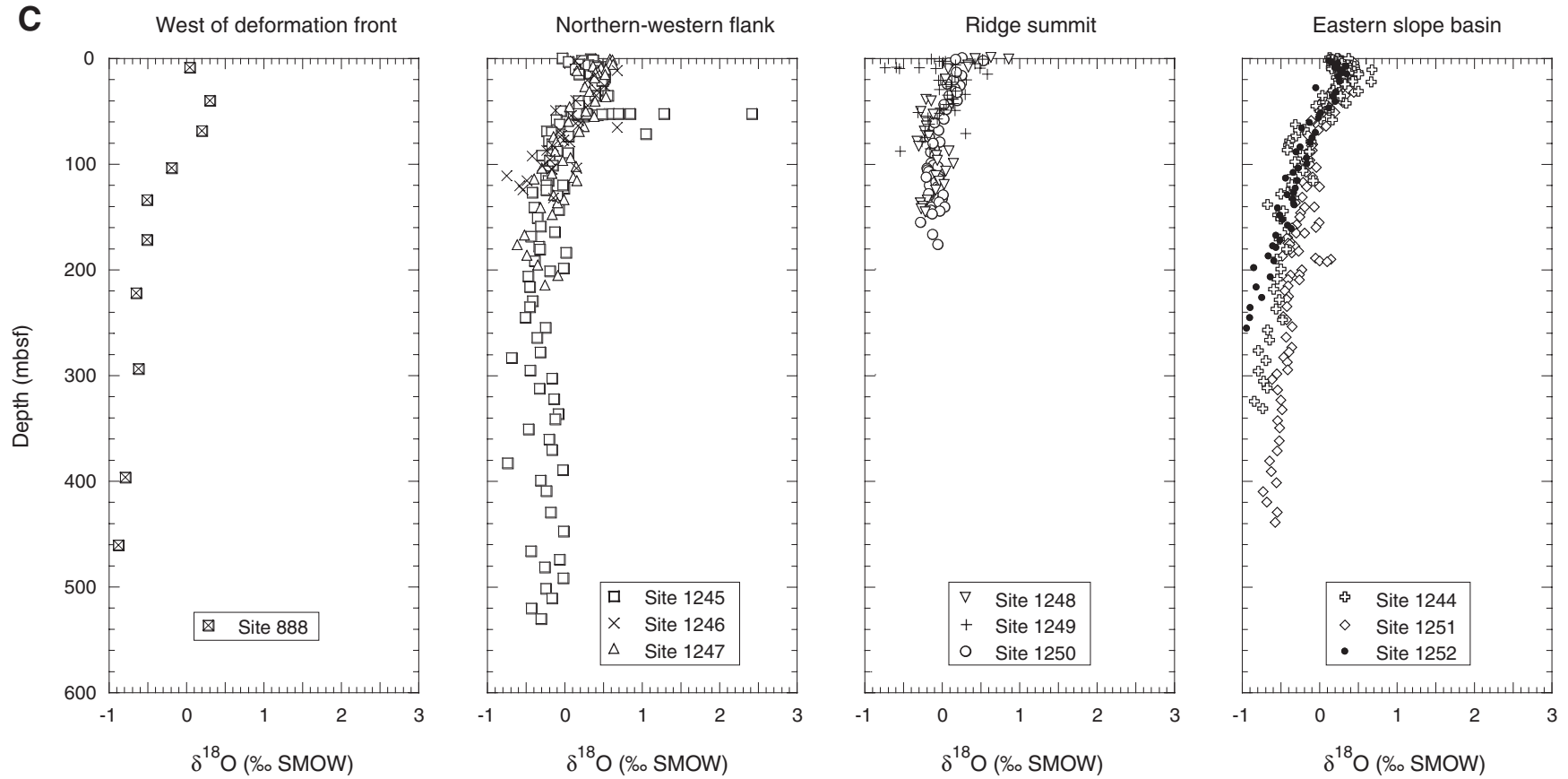


Figure F3. Discrete Cl^- excursions within the GHSZ correlate well with other proxies of gas hydrate abundance, such as temperature anomalies in the cores (temperature distribution for Holes 1244C and 1251D; temperature deviation for Hole 1245B), as shown by Tréhu et al. (2004). Here we show that the isotopic composition of the water shows deviations to high δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values. These anomalies reflect release of water enriched in the heavy isotopes as the gas hydrate is destabilized during core retrieval (Cl^- and temperature anomaly profiles are modified from Tréhu et al., 2004). BSR = bottom-simulating reflector, APC = advanced piston corer, XCB = extended core barrel, T = temperature. SMOW = Standard Mean Ocean Water.

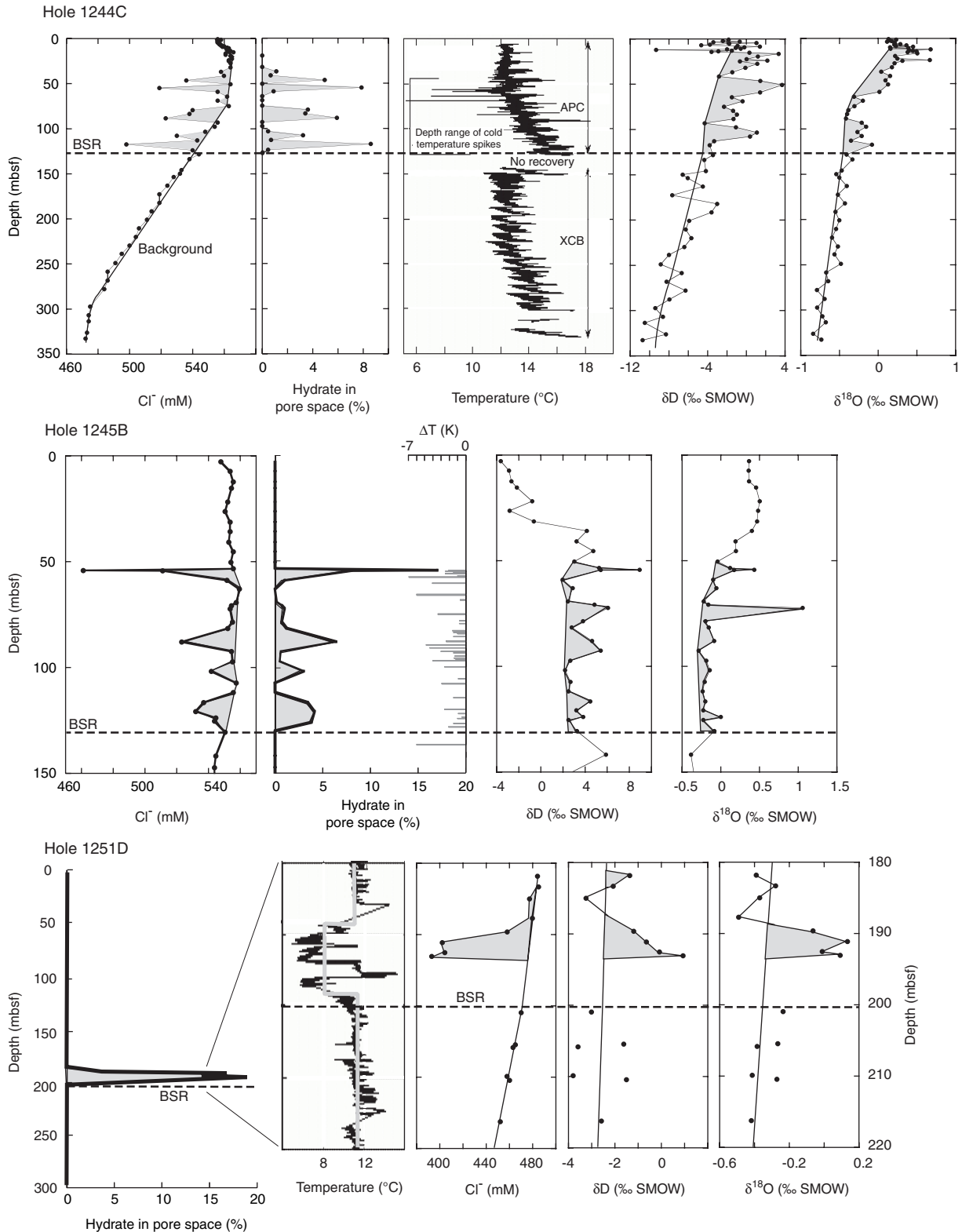


Figure F4. (A) Cl^- concentrations and (B) δD and (C) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the eastern slope basin of Hydrate Ridge. Boxes denote increases of Cl^- , δD , and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ within Holocene and Pleistocene sediments caused by ice sheet development during the Last Glacial Maximum. Dashed lines in B indicate best-fit average temperatures/depths of hydrogen isotopic fractionation between clay and water, which are increasing eastward. Dashed lines in C indicate predicted background levels of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ after correction for clay mineral dehydration. SMOW = Standard Mean Ocean Water.

