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Highlights

- Microbial source to USAM methane venting.
- Occurrence of MDACs at ∼15 ka and 3 ka along the USAM.
- Link between Pleistocene sediment delivery and occurrence of USAM MDACs.
- Sedimentary framework as predictor of widespread venting along USAM passive margin.

1 **Insights into methane dynamics from analysis of authigenic carbonates and chemosynthetic** 2 **mussels at newly-discovered Atlantic Margin seeps**

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17 **Abstract**

- 18 The recent discovery of active methane venting along the US northern and mid-Atlantic margin
- 19 represents a new source of global methane not previously accounted for in carbon budgets from
- 20 this region. However, uncertainty remains as to the origin and history of methane seepage along
- 21 the tectonically inactive passive margin. Here we present the first isotopic analyses of authigenic
- 22 carbonates and methanotrophic deep-sea mussels, *Bathymodiolus* sp.*,* and the first direct 23 constraints on the timing of past methane emission, based on samples collected at the upper slope
- 24 Baltimore Canyon (~385 m water depth) and deepwater Norfolk (~1600 m) seep fields within
- 25 the area of newly-discovered venting. The authigenic carbonates at both sites were dominated by
- 26 aragonite, with an average $\delta^{13}C$ signature of -47‰, a value consistent with microbially driven 27 anaerobic oxidation of methane-rich fluids occurring at or near the sediment-water interface.
- 28 Authigenic carbonate U and Sr isotope data further support the inference of carbonate
- 29 precipitation from seawater-derived fluids rather than from formation fluids from deep aquifers.
- Carbonate stable and radiocarbon (δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C) isotope values from living *Bathymodiolus* sp.
- 31 specimens are lighter than those of seawater dissolved inorganic carbon, highlighting the
- 32 influence of fossil carbon from methane on carbonate precipitation. U-Th dates on authigenic 33 carbonates suggest seepage at Baltimore Canyon between 14.7 ± 0.6 ka to 15.7 ± 1.6 ka, and at the
- 34 Norfolk seep field between 1.0±0.7 ka to 3.3±1.3 ka, providing constraint of the longevity of
- 35 methane efflux at these sites. The age of the brecciated authigenic carbonates and the occurrence
- 36 of pockmarks at the Baltimore Canyon upper slope could suggest a link between sediment 37 delivery during Pleistocene sea-level lowstand, accumulation of pore fluid overpressure from
- 38 sediment compaction, and release of overpressure through subsequent venting. Calculations 39 show that the Baltimore Canyon site probably has not been within the gas hydrate stability zone
- 40 (GHSZ) in the past 20 ka, meaning that in-situ release of methane from dissociating gas hydrate
- 41 cannot be sustaining the seep. We cannot rule out updip migration of dissociating methane 42 hydrate that occurs farther down the slope as a source of the venting at Baltimore Canyon, but
- 43 consider that the history of rapid sediment accumulation and overpressure may play a more
- 44 important role in methane emissions at this site.

45 Key words: authigenic carbonate; cold seep; AOM; chemosynthesis; mid-Atlantic margin; 46 isotope geochemistry

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The distribution of newly discovered seafloor methane seeps along the US Atlantic margin 49 (USAM) (Skarke et al., 2014) has important implications for ocean carbon dynamics (Boetius 50 and Wenzhöfer 2013), continental slope stability and related hazards (Dugan and Flemings 2000; 51 ten Brink et al. 2014), and also the geographic extent of chemosynthetic communities (Quattrini 52 et al. 2015). Whereas seafloor methane venting typically occurs in major hydrocarbon basins 53 such as the Gulf of Mexico or on active margins such as Cascadia, the northern USAM passive 54 margin had long been considered relatively inactive (Skarke et al., 2014). Methane seeps have 55 been documented on the southern USAM, at Cape Fear (L. Brothers et al. 2013) and Blake Ridge 56 (Paull et al. 1995; Van Dover et al. 2003), where they occur at a depth range of 2155 to 2600 m 57 above rising salt diapirs that perturb that gas hydrate stability field (Hornbach et al., 2005), but 58 no such features were known on the northern part of the margin. This assessment was revised 59 when geophysical surveys conducted between 2011 and 2013 identified ~570 gas plumes at 60 water depths of 50-1700 m between Cape Hatteras and Georges Bank (Skarke et al. 2014). 61 Observations at a few of the sites from remotely operated vehicles (ROV) included bubble 62 streams, bacterial mats, chemosynthetic communities, authigenic carbonates, deep-sea corals, 63 and gas hydrate (Skarke et al., 2014; Quattrini et al. 2015). Average contemporary methane 64 emissions from seeps along the entire northern USAM are estimated at \sim 15 to 90 Mg yr⁻¹ 65 (equivalent to 0.95 to 5.66 x 10^6 mol yr⁻¹) based on analysis of ROV bubble observations (Skarke 66 et al. 2014), versus 2.15 to 8.65 x 10^6 mol yr⁻¹ in a seep field of Hudson Canyon based on the 67 water column methane concentrations (Weinstein et al., 2016).

69 The origin and characteristics of the methane seeps north of Cape Hatteras remain elusive. No 70 underlying salt diapirs have been documented in the seeping areas, and Skarke et al. (2014) 71 postulate that dissociation of gas hydrate and possibly submarine groundwater discharge may 72 play a role in feeding seeps between the outer continental shelf and uppermost continental slope, 73 while the deeper seeps represent leakage of methane through fractured Eocene rocks. 74 Distinguishing among these and other processes that may be responsible for the methane 75 emissions requires direct study of seep fluids, rocks, and organisms. To acquire samples for such 76 studies, the Bureau of Ocean Energy Management (BOEM), the U.S. Geological Survey 77 (USGS), the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), and their academic 78 partners initiated a 5-year multi-disciplinary "Atlantic Deepwater Canyons" study focusing on 79 ecologically significant habitats (canyons, cold seeps, hard-bottoms and shipwrecks) in Norfolk 80 Canyon (off Virginia) and overlooking Baltimore Canyon (off Maryland) (Fig. 1). Of the two 81 sites, Baltimore Canyon had been previously investigated in the early 1980s with photographs of 82 a dense community of mussels at ~400 m obtained using a towed camera sled (B. Hecker, pers. 83 comm.), but no further work was conducted in the area until recently. During the Atlantic 84 Deepwater Canyons cruises, we used ROVs designed to support physical and biological 85 sampling to confirm the location of a shallow (~400 m) seep site overlooking Baltimore Canyon 86 in 2012 and, following the discovery of deep-sea gas plumes (NOAA, 2012), identified a new 87 chemosynthetic community at ~1600 m water depth south of Norfolk Canyon in 2013.

88

89 Authigenic carbonates are common at cold seeps and record a robust fingerprint of hydrocarbon 90 seep activity, including local and regional controls on the source and flux of carbon, the 91 conditions under which carbonates formed, and information regarding fluid-sediment and rock

92 interactions (see reviews in Campbell et al., 2006; Suess 2014). Additionally, authigenic 93 carbonates are amenable to uranium (U)-series dating techniques, and can provide key 94 information on the timing and duration of fluid venting at each seep (Teichert et al. 2003; Bayon 95 et al. 2009; Liebetrau et al., 2014). The isotopic composition of shells from chemosynthetic 96 bivalves living close to fluid vents represents an important archive of the nature and variability 97 of the venting. While previous studies have investigated authigenic carbonate formation and cold 98 seeps in other settings (Han et al., 2014; Suess 2014; Bayon et al., 2015) and fluid flow in 99 passive margins (Berndt 2005), this is the first study to examine the origin of the authigenic 100 carbonates, the source fluids, and the timing of methane emissions on the northern USAM. This 101 paper explores the geochemistry, mineralogy, and petrology of authigenic carbonates and bivalve 102 shells recovered by ROVs from both the Norfolk and the Baltimore Canyon seep fields with the 103 aim of tracing the origin and flow pathways of gas and fluids at both sites. Taken together, the 104 geochemical information derived from both authigenic carbonates and bivalve shells collected 105 from seeps in the Baltimore and Norfolk canyons expands our understanding of the origin and 106 occurrence of widespread methane seepage along the US Mid-Atlantic margin

107

108 **2. Methods**

109 2.1 Study site

110 A shallow (~385 m; Fig 2) seep site seaward and south of the location where Baltimore Canyon 111 (38° 03.086 N, 73° 49.379 W) crosses the shelf-break was surveyed and sampled during a 2012 112 cruise (17 Aug–14 Sep) aboard the NOAA ship *Nancy Foster* using the *Kraken II* ROV 113 (University of Connecticut). This site was sampled again in 2013, along with the deeper (1455- 114 1610 m; Fig. 3) Norfolk seep site (36° 51.921 N, 74° 29.574 W) during a cruise (2–18 May) 115 onboard the NOAA ship *Ronald H. Brown* using the *Jason II* ROV (Woods Hole Oceanographic 116 Institution). At the Norfolk seep site, gas bubbles can be traced at least ~600 m above the 117 seafloor (Fig. 3C), as confirmed by USGS surveys on the *R/V Endeavor* in April 2015 (Ruppel et 118 al., 2015a). At the Baltimore Canyon seep field, water column imaging carried out by the USGS 119 in April and September 2015 (Ruppel et al., 2015b) showed that venting is more widespread and 120 diffuse (Fig. 2D). Dense colonies of chemosynthetic mussels, active gas bubbling, and extensive 121 bacterial mats were observed at both seep sites (Fig. 2C and 3D) during the 2012 and 2013 ROV 122 dives. Clams, common at the Blake Ridge seep site (Van Dover et al. 2003), were notably 123 absent, as were tubeworms, a finding that is consistent with a recent survey of chemosynthetic 124 communities from seep sites along the northeastern US continental margin (Quattrini et al., 125 2015). Seep communities at the Norfolk and Baltimore Canyon seep fields were dominated by 126 the deep-sea mussels of the genus *Bathymodiolus*, which depends on chemosynthetic 127 endosymbiotic bacteria to oxidize sulfur and/or methane for nutrition (Duperron et al. 2011).

128

129 2.2 X-Ray diffraction and petrography

130 Sample mineralogy was determined microscopically in thin sections, and by X-ray diffraction 131 (XRD) using a Philips XRD with graphite monochromator at 40 kV and 45 mA. Step scans were 132 run from 5° to 65° 2 θ with 0.02° steps, using CuK α radiation and a count time of 2 s per step. 133 XRD digital scan data were analyzed using the Philips X'Pert High Score search-and-match 134 function to identify minerals. Mineral percentages were determined by multiplying unique peak 135 intensities for each mineral in a sample by relative intensity factors. The products for all 136 minerals in each sample were then summed to 100%. Carbonate content, reported as weight

137 percent (wt%), was determined using a coulometer at the USGS Pacific Coastal and Marine 138 Science Center, Santa Cruz, CA.

139

140 2.3 Stable isotopes

141 Stable carbon (δ^{13} C) and oxygen (δ^{18} O) isotopes were analyzed at the Stable Isotope 142 Geosciences Facility at Texas A&M University. Authigenic carbonate samples were subsampled 143 to isolate the cement and groundmass components. For the mussel shells, carbonate and 144 periostracum (organic rich outer layer) were collected along transects from the umbo to the 145 ventral margin of an individual specimen at discrete distances. Prior to analysis, the 146 periostracum material was acidified to remove inorganic carbon. Data were generated from a 147 Thermo-Finnigan MAT 253 with a Kiel IV Automated Carbonate Prep Device and are reported 148 in per mil (‰) relative to the international reference Pee Dee Belemnite (PDB). Analytical 149 uncertainties (2 σ) of 0.04‰ for δ^{13} C and 0.06‰ for δ^{18} O are reported based on the long term 150 daily measurements of the international carbonate standard, NBS-19. Seawater samples were 151 measured for δ^{18} O using a Picarro L2120i cavity ringdown spectrometer at the Stable Isotope 152 Geoscience Facility at Texas A&M University, College Station. Isotope values were calibrated 153 to the VSMOW reference standard using internal reference standards JGULF and KONA. The 154 δ^{18} O value in VSMOW2 for JGULF is 1.22‰, and for Kona is -6.86‰. Average internal δ^{18} O 155 precision is 0.12 ‰, and an external precision replicate of the same sample is 0.26‰.

156

157 Sulfur isotopes $(\delta^{34}S)$ were determined at the Washington State University Stable Isotope Core 158 Laboratory. Mussel gill and seep sediment were combusted with an elemental analyzer (ECS 159 4010, Costech Analytical) coupled to a Delta PlusXP Thermo-Finnigan continuous flow isotope

160 ratio mass spectrometer. Sulfur isotope ratios $(\delta^{34}S)$ are reported in per mil (‰) relative to 161 VCDT (Vienna Canyon Diablo Troilite). Analytical accuracy (1 σ) of $\delta^{34}S$ was determined by 162 replicate analysis of internal lab standard referenced to IAEA standards, reported as 0.26‰ 163 (n=36), bovine internal standard at 0.47‰ (n=18) and sample replicates 0.13‰ (n=9).

164

165 2.4 Strontium isotopes

166 The strontium isotope (${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$) compositions of the authigenic carbonates, mussel shells, and 167 seawater samples were determined at the USGS facility at Menlo Park, California. Bottom water 168 samples were filtered using a 0.45 μm glass fiber filter. Authigenic carbonate samples were 169 subsampled to isolate the cement and groundmass components, and mussel shell material was 170 homogenized using an agate mortar and pestle. The mussel shell and authigenic components 171 were leached to remove labile Sr and digested in sealed Teflon vessels. Sr was separated from 172 other ions using a Bio-Rad® AG-502-X8 cation exchange resin with HCl as the eluent. Purified 173 Sr was converted to nitrate form, taken up in 30 μL of 0.15 M H3PO4 and loaded onto a Ta 174 ribbon for mass spectrometric measurement. The isotopic composition was measured on a 175 Finnigan MAT 261 multi-collector mass spectrometer using a static collection mode. All 176 reported values of $87\text{Sr}/86\text{Sr}$ have been corrected for analytical fractionation to the standard $88\text{Sr}}/86\text{Sr}$ ratio of 8.37521, and measurements are precise to ± 0.00002 at the 95% confidence 178 level.

179

180 2.5 Radiocarbon (^{14}C) analysis

181 Radiocarbon (14) analysis was performed on subsamples of authigenic carbonates and mussel 182 shells collected from dead and live mussel specimens. Samples were prepared for Accelerator 183 Mass Spectrometry (AMS) radiocarbon (14) dating at the Keck Carbon Cycle AMS laboratory 184 at UC Irvine (KCCAMS). Authigenic carbonate samples were subsampled to isolate the cement 185 and groundmass components. Carbonate from the mussel shells was analyzed both as a 186 homogenized powder as well as shell fragments. To test for potential contamination by 187 secondary aragonite or calcite, duplicates were performed on samples treated with 10% HCl.

188

189 The carbonate samples were hydrolyzed to CO2 in individual reaction chambers, evacuated, 190 heated and acidified with orthophosphoric acid at 90° C. The resultant CO₂ was converted to 191 graphite using an iron catalyst and the hydrogen reduction method (Vogel et al. 1987). Sample 192 preparation backgrounds have been subtracted, based on measurements of 14 C-free calcite and 193 oxalic acid I. All ^{14}C results were corrected for isotopic fractionation according to the 194 conventions of Stuiver and Polach (1977) with δ^{13} C values measured on prepared graphite using 195 the AMS spectrometer. Radiocarbon concentrations are given as $\Delta^{14}C$ and conventional 196 radiocarbon age following Stuiver and Polach (1977).

197

198 2.6 U-Th age dating of authigenic carbonates

199 U-Th dating of authigenic carbonates was carried out at the NERC Isotope Geosciences 200 Laboratory, British Geological Survey. Samples were processed via total dissolution techniques, 201 with isotope ratios measured on a Thermo Neptune Plus multi-collector ICP-MS, relative to a 202 mixed 229 Th- 236 U tracer calibrated against gravimetric solutions of CRM 112a U and Ames 203 laboratory high purity Th. Details of the analytical protocol are provided in the Supplementary 204 Material. U-Th age calculations were performed using an in-house Excel spreadsheet, and are 205 calculated using the decay constants of Cheng et al. (2013).

206

207 **3. Results**

208 3.1 X-Ray diffraction and petrography

209 Calcium carbonate (CaCO3) dominates the authigenic carbonate samples (48-97%) but not the 210 surrounding sediment (3-14%) (Table 1). Aragonite accounts for more than 60% of the 211 groundmass and up to 99% of the carbonate cement, with secondary amounts (< 15%) of low 212 and high-Mg calcite present, creating an aragonite-cemented intraclast breccia at both sites (Fig. 213 S1). The detrital fraction consists of poorly sorted accessory minerals, such as quartz, feldspar, 214 plagioclase, and pyroxene that are supported in a matrix of clay to silt-size particles, consistent 215 with grain size from the surrounding sediment. The clasts are sub-rounded to very angular, 216 particularly in the Baltimore Canyon specimen (Fig. 4). Voids between intraclasts and bivalve 217 shells are completely or partially filled with fibrous or bladed aragonite, showing multiple 218 generations of mineral growth. Fractures intersect well-developed radiating crystals of aragonite 219 in the Baltimore Canyon sample. Bioclasts are observed in both samples, either as intact shells, 220 aragonite filled, or skeletal molds. The organic carbon (C_{org}) content of the authigenic carbonate 221 groundmass and cement was less than 0.4%, whereas the sediment, especially at the Norfolk 222 seep site, had higher $\%C_{org}$ (Table 1). The shell carbonate was dominated by both aragonite 223 and/or calcite with CaCO₃ ranging between 95 to 97%.

224

225 3.2 Strontium isotopes

226 The strontium isotope $({}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr)$ compositions of the authigenic carbonates and mussel shells 227 were investigated to constrain the fluid source and flow pathway for carbonate precipitation 228 (Sample et al., 1993). $87\text{Sr}/86\text{Sr}$ ratios for the authigenic carbonates, mussel shells, and water 229 samples ranged from 0.70915 to 0.70924 (Tables 1 and 2). The average authigenic carbonate 230 (n=4) and mussel shell (n=2) ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ ratios at both sites were equivalent, 0.70920 \pm 3x10⁻⁵ and 231 0.70920 \pm 2x10⁻⁵, respectively. In comparison, the average seawater (n=6) ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio was 232 0.70917 \pm 2x10⁻⁵ but was not statistically different (Student T-test; p>0.05) from the authigenic 233 carbonate and shell samples.

234

235 3.3 Stable carbon, oxygen, and sulfur isotopes

236 At Norfolk, shells from both living and dead mussels yielded average δ^{13} C values of -2.59 \pm 237 1.68‰ (n=34) and -7.10 \pm 3.20‰ (n=16), respectively, and an average δ^{18} O value of 3.71 \pm 238 0.25‰ (n=34) and 3.82 \pm 0.39‰ (n=16), respectively (Table 2). No statistical difference 239 (Student's t-test, P>0.05) exists between shell δ^{18} O values from dead and living specimens; 240 however, shells from living mussels were significantly enriched in 13 C relative to shells from 241 dead specimens (Student's t-test, P<0.05). Only shells from live mussel specimens were 242 analyzed from the Baltimore Canyon seep site and yielded average shell δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values of 243 and -6.84 \pm 1.97‰ and 2.57 \pm 0.28‰ (n=30), respectively. At both sites, the shell δ^{13} C values 244 were lighter relative to bottom water dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) δ^{13} C values (0.90±0.05; $n=2$), but heavier relative to the Baltimore Canyon methane δ¹³C value (-68[‰]; Pohlman et al., 246 2015). Compared to shells from Norfolk, mussel shell isotope values from Baltimore Canyon 247 were heavier in $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ by ~4‰ and ~1‰, respectively. At both sites, shells $\delta^{18}O$ were 248 enriched in ¹⁸O relative to ambient seawater, where bottom water δ^{18} O values from Norfolk and 249 Baltimore canyons were 0.34 and 0.53‰, respectively.

251 Shell isotopic variability over the lifespan of an individual specimen was calculated as the 252 standard deviation of 8 to 12 stable isotope values from material collected along a transect from 253 the umbo to the ventral margin (Fig. S2). Individual lifespan variability ranged from 0.11 to 254 0.56‰ and 0.69 to 3.57‰ for shell δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values (n=13), respectively. On average, the δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C variability over the mussel lifespan was 0.24 and 1.49‰, respectively. Lifespan 256 variability represented less than 10% of the average shell δ^{18} O signature at both sites, but up to 257 42% of the average shell $\delta^{13}C$ signal at the Norfolk seep site and 21% at the Baltimore Canyon 258 seep site. The mussel periostracum δ^{13} C signature from samples collected at Norfolk seep field 259 ranged from -70.66 to -29.92‰ (n=40), with an average value of -56.99 \pm 12.85‰ (Table 2). 260 Mussel periostracum from Baltimore Canyon was not analyzed since sample preservation in 261 ethyl alcohol precluded reliable δ^{13} C results.

262

263 The average δ^{13} C signature of the bulk authigenic carbonate from Norfolk and Baltimore 264 canyons was $-45.51 \pm 1.66\%$ (n=5) and $-48.43 \pm 1.02\%$ (n=4), respectively. However, in 265 comparison to the cement, the groundmass δ^{13} C values were heavier by 1-3‰ (Table 1). The 266 bulk δ^{18} O values were similar, 3.80 $\pm 0.05\%$ (Norfolk, n=5) and 3.95 $\pm 0.47\%$ (Baltimore 267 Canyon, n=4) with < 1‰ difference between the groundmass and cement at both sites (Table 1). 268 The authigenic carbonate $\delta^{18}O$ values were heavier by ~3‰ relative to bottom water $\delta^{18}O$ values. 269

270 Sulfur $(\delta^{34}S)$ isotopes were analyzed from *Bathymodiolus* sp. gill tissues collected at each seep 271 field. Gill $\delta^{34}S$ values ranged from -4.07 to 21.55‰ (Table 3), with no statistical difference 272 between the sites (Student's t-test, P>0.05); however, gill $\delta^{34}S$ values at Baltimore Canyon

273 displayed a larger range compared to the Norfolk seep, from -4.07 to 18.13‰ (n=20) versus 8.65 274 to 21.55‰ (n=23). Periostracum $\delta^{34}S$ values from the Norfolk seep were similar to gill $\delta^{34}S$ 275 values, ranging from 8.82 to 22.65‰, averaging 16.63 \pm 4.01‰ (n=28). Seep sediment $\delta^{34}S$ 276 values averaged $5.53\pm2.16\%$ (n=4) at Norfolk and $2.42\pm3.6\%$ (n=5) at Baltimore Canyon 277 (Table 3).

278

279 3.4 Radiocarbon (14 C) analysis

280 The Δ^{14} C signatures of the authigenic carbonates were significantly depleted in ¹⁴C, ranging from 281 -959‰ to -740‰ with corresponding ¹⁴C ages of 25,570 \pm 210 to 10,770 \pm 35 ¹⁴C years (Table 4). 282 The ^{14}C ages of mussel shells on the seabed were younger relative to the authigenic carbonate 283 age. The ¹⁴C age of the mussel shells derived from living specimens varied from 905 ± 20 to 284 1,935 \pm 20 ¹⁴C years, and the average ¹⁴C age of the mussel shells derived from dead specimens at 285 Norfolk was $1,345\pm20^{14}$ C years (Table 4). There was no statistical difference (Student's T-test, 286 P>0.05) between shell from dead specimens that were pretreated with 10% HCl and those left 287 untreated (Table 4), yielding an average ${}^{14}C$ age of 1,180 ${}^{14}C$ years, indicating that secondary 288 aragonite and calcite are negligible.

289

290 3.5 U-Th age calculation

291 Discrete subsamples of late-stage cavity-filling authigenic carbonate weighing between 4.1-17.2 292 mg were hand-drilled from two hand specimens collected from the Baltimore (n=5) and Norfolk 293 Canyon (n=5) sites (Fig. 4). These were analysed along with 9 detritus samples (5 from Norfolk 294 and 4 from Baltimore Canyon) consisting of material loosely adhering to the outside surfaces of 295 the hand specimens, and material recovered from the base of push cores collected within 2 km of 296 the authigenic carbonates. Tabulated results are reported in Table 5. Authigenic carbonate 297 cement samples contained 3.2 to 4.6 ppm U, and 0.06 to 0.59 ppm Th. ²³⁰Th/²³²Th activity ratios 298 were between 2.2 and 8.6, clustering towards the lower end of the range reported from other 299 occurrences of methane-related authigenic carbonates (e.g., Teichert et al. 2003; Bayon et al. 300 2009; Fig. S3 A). The implication is that the analysed authigenic carbonates incorporate detrital 301 material, such as clay minerals, which carry 232 Th, and an associated amount of initial 230 Th. Since initial ²³⁰Th is not related to the in-situ decay of ²³⁴U, a correction is required in order to 303 calculate a robust carbonate precipitation age. The presence of initial 230 Th is typically 304 addressed via (i) leaching techniques aimed at separating the carbonate and detrital components 305 of a sample in order to calculate a two-point isochron age (e.g. Teichert et al., 2003; Berndt et al., 306 2014), or total dissolution of the samples, with detrital corrections based on either (ii) a 307 theoretical detritus composition which assumes secular equilibrium in the ²³⁸U decay chain, and 308 a $^{232}Th/^{238}U$ ratio linked to average continental crust composition (e.g. Aharon et al., 1997; Feng 309 et al., 2010; Liebetrau et al., 2014), or (iii) a measured, site-specific detrital isotopic composition 310 (e.g. Teichert et al., 2003; Bayon et al., 2009; 2015). Initial 230 Th in marine authigenic carbonates 311 is likely to be a mixture of 230 Th incorporated within the detrital material and hydrogenous 230 Th 312 scavenged onto grain surfaces from the decay of 234 U in the water column, with the impact of the 313 latter increasing with water depth (Henderson and Anderson, 2003). Consequently, site-specific 314 corrections are likely to be more appropriate, particularly for samples collected at depths greater 315 than a few hundred meters. The impact of excess 230 Th scavenged from seawater is illustrated by 316 the measured $(^{230}Th/^{238}U)$ of the five detritus samples from the Norfolk Canyon site (depth of $317 \sim 1600$ m), which range from 1.7 to 2.1 (Table 5), and are significantly higher than the secular 318 equilibrium value of 1. Conversely $(^{230}Th/^{238}U)$ values from the shallower Baltimore Canyon site 319 (depth ~385 m) are, as expected, lower (1.29-1.46) but still in excess of secular equilibrium. 320 Details of the average detrital U and Th compositions used to calculate corrected U-Th dates at 321 Baltimore Canyon and Norfolk Canyon are provided in the supplementary material.

 322 The U-Th ages from the Norfolk seeps, corrected for initial detrital and hydrogenous 230 Th, range 323 from 1.0±0.7 ka to 3.3±1.3 ka (Table 5). In comparison, the corrected U-Th ages of the 324 Baltimore Canyon authigenic carbonate were older, ranging from 14.7±0.6 ka to 15.7±1.6 ka (Table 5). Modelled initial $(^{234}U/^{238}U)$ values are statistically equivalent to the mean modern 326 seawater $(^{234}U/^{238}U)$ of 1.1466 (Robinson et al., 2004; Fig. S3 B), meaning that U incorporated in 327 the authigenic carbonates was sourced from seawater, rather than pore waters, which would be 328 comparatively enriched in 234 U (Henderson et al., 1999).

329 **4. Discussion**

330 4.1 Authigenic carbonate formation

331 The aragonite-dominated authigenic carbonates form pavements and/or irregular blocky build-332 ups on the seafloor. The carbonates consist of bioclasts, organic matter, and angular clasts of 333 terrigenous origin. While the contemporary Baltimore Canyon does not connect with a river 334 system, rivers delivered a significant volume of sediment to the submarine canyons incising the 335 shelf during Pleistocene sea-level lowstands (e.g., Forde et al. 1981). The fluvial influence on 336 the canyons is observed in both the geomorphic features and grain size, where coarse to medium 337 grained, shelly terrigenous sands are observed adjacent to the canyon heads (Obelcz et al. 2014). 338 The similarity between neodymium isotope $(143Nd)/144Nd$ values from Baltimore Canyon surface 339 sediment (0.51208; Prouty et al., 2015) and Hudson River sediment (0.51206; Goldstein and 340 Jacobsen 1987) highlights past connectivity with proximal fluvial sources.

342 The authigenic carbonate texture may result from in-situ brecciation of weakly consolidated 343 sediment, possibly triggered by seismic and venting-induced disturbances, such as rapid 344 sedimentation related to episodic and rapid release of trapped fluids or gases (Matsumoto 1990). 345 Fractures cross cutting multiple generations of aragonite precipitate in the Baltimore Canyon 346 authigenic carbonate (Fig. 4) may signify past disturbance events. The dominance of aragonite 347 at both seep sites suggests precipitation at or close to the seafloor (see review in Suess 2014), 348 where sufficiently high sulfate concentrations inhibit high-Mg calcite crystallization (e.g., 349 Bohrmann et al. 1998). This interpretation is consistent with carbonate ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$ and $\delta^{234}U$ 350 isotope results that indicate precipitation from seawater-derived fluids (e.g., Naehr et al. 2007), 351 rather than deep-seated formation waters that are less radiogenic than modern seawater.

352

353 4.2 Anaerobic oxidation of methane

354 The main driver of authigenic carbonate precipitation at or near the sediment interface is 355 anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) via sulfate reduction $(CH_4 + SO_4^2 \rightarrow HCO_3^- + HS^- + H_2O)$. 356 This reaction drives an increase in pore water alkalinity by the production of biocarbonate 357 (HCO₃⁻) and favors carbonate precipitation. Carbonate precipitation from methanogenesis can 358 also occur deeper in the sediment column (e.g., Orphan et al. 2004; Gieskes et al. 2005) and is 359 typically characterized by carbonate δ^{13} C values > -40‰ (Aharon et al. 1997). However, 360 authigenic carbonate δ^{13} C values from Norfolk and Baltimore canyons are lighter (-45 to -48‰), 361 in agreement with δ^{13} C values at cold seep sites where microbial AOM is the dominant driver of 362 authigenic aragonite precipitation. The heavier δ^{13} C values of the authigenic carbonates 363 compared to methane represent the incorporation of seawater DIC that is relatively enriched in 364 ¹³C. Results of a two end-member δ^{13} C mixing model yield a contribution from methane-

365 derived carbon of \sim 70%, with the remaining \sim 30% attributed to seawater DIC-derived carbon 366 precipitated near the sediment-water interface. Furthermore, δ^{13} C values of AOM-related lipids 367 extracted from the authigenic carbonates were strongly depleted in ¹³C, (i.e., archaeol: -74.3% ; 368 Campbell et al., 2015), confirming the dominance of microbial methane as the dominant carbon 369 source for the Archaea. The authigenic carbonate δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values are also consistent with 370 Group I carbonates that typify carbonate precipitation of microbial origin within the uppermost 371 few centimeters below the sediment-water interface (Joseph et al. 2013).

372

373 In addition to AOM, sulfate reduction is also a dominant process that occurs in methane-rich 374 sediments, resulting in sulfur fractionation in the pore water and sediment. Sulfate reduction 375 may therefore explain the light surface sediment $\delta^{34}S$ values (from -2.62 to 8.20‰; Table 3) 376 relative to seawater sulfate $(+20\%)$; Heyl et al. 2007). The resulting hydrogen sulfide can then be 377 used to support the metabolic processes of surrounding chemosynthetic communities. For 378 example, Van Dover et al. (2003) reported that the mussel *B. heckerae* collected from Blake 379 Ridge derive up to 25% of their organic sulfur from sulfide. Using a two end-member mixing 380 model with a H₂S δ^{34} S value of -10‰, and the average *Bathymodiolus* sp. gill δ^{34} S values from 381 each seep site, the reliance on H2S as an energy source at Norfolk and Baltimore canyon seep 382 fields was estimated at 16% and 14%, respectively. However, variable gill $δ³⁴S$ values indicate 383 uptake of up to 80% of H₂S (i.e., gill δ^{34} S value of -4.07% at the Baltimore Canyon Seep site), 384 suggesting free-living and/or symbiotic thiotrophic bacteria may play a nutritional role at the 385 base of the food web (Yamanaka et al. 2003). As an alternative to mussel tissue isotopic studies, 386 the mussel shell periostracum derived from both living and dead specimens represents a valuable 387 source of information about the seep environment. The similarity between the periostracum and 388 mussel gill $\delta^{34}S$ values from Norfolk suggests a high degree of nutrient flow between the soft 389 tissue, allowing for greater fidelity in using periostracum isotopic ratios in place of respirable 390 tissues of living specimens. This is particularly essential when mussel tissue is not available, 391 such as with archived specimens or those at quiescent vent sites.

392

393 4.3 Estimation of fluid composition and age

The composition of the seeping fluids can also be characterized by the mussel shell δ^{13} C values, 395 with differences between the living and dead specimens reflecting changes in the flux of methane 396 in the past, or possibly a change in the composition of the seeping fluids. At both sites, the shell 397 carbonate and periostracum δ^{13} C values were lighter relative to bottom water DIC δ^{13} C values 398 (Table 2). This difference suggests an additional carbon source for shell calcification, and 399 illustrates the decoupling between calcification and metabolic pathway (Aharon et al. 1997). The 400 light periostracum δ^{13} C values (-57‰; Table 2) agree with previous work concluding that mussel 401 shell periostracum originates from dietary sources, and is an alternative to soft tissue for trophic 402 studies (Geist et al. 2005). Assuming a regional methane δ^{13} C value of -68‰ (Pohlman et al., 403 2015), the average percent contribution of methane to shell calcification was estimated at 11% at 404 Baltimore Canyon and 5% at Norfolk. However, shell δ^{13} C values from dead specimens 405 collected at Norfolk indicate a temporal shift in seepage activity and/or composition of seeping 406 fluids. Specifically, a reduction in δ^{13} C values of up to 17‰ observed in the dead specimens is 407 equivalent to a ~25% increase in methane contribution to shell calcification. Comparison of 408 relative 14 C-derived ages from the dead and live specimens suggests this change could have 409 occurred within a few centuries (<500 years) (Table 4).

411 Carbonate shell δ^{13} C variability also has the potential to record environmental changes such as 412 changes in fluid source, as well as fluid-venting activity over the lifespan of the mussels (e.g., 413 Lietard and Pierre 2008). Although the precise chronology of the variability is unknown because 414 of the difficulty in dating the specimens, estimates of ages of *B. brevior* and *B. thermophiles* 115 range from 18 to more than 25 years (Schöne and Giere 2005). Therefore, lifespan δ¹³C 416 variability reported above may be related to changes in methane flow within several decades. 417 The spatial distribution of living and dead mussels may also imply changing fluid composition or 418 flux rates, as suggested by Van Dover et al. (2003) from HOV dives on the Blake Ridge Diapir.

419

120 The shell carbonate δ¹⁸O isotopic signature at Norfolk overlap with both *Bathymodiolus* and 421 *Calyptogena* shell samples from other cold seeps (Lietard and Pierre 2008). In comparison, Baltimore Canyon shell $\delta^{18}O$ values are lighter, reflecting warmer in-situ temperatures (~9°C) 423 relative to the deeper, colder in-situ temperatures (\sim 4°C) at Norfolk. Using bottom water $\delta^{18}O$ 424 values from Baltimore and Norfolk canyons, the predicted carbonate $\delta^{18}O$ value precipitated at 425 equilibrium yields heavier carbonate δ^{18} O values relative to measured shell values from 426 Baltimore and Norfolk by 0.68 and 0.42‰ respectively. Therefore, there is evidence of isotopic 427 disequilibrium, indicating the influence of ^{18}O -poor water and/or warmer seeping fluids (e.g. 428 Lietard and Pierre 2008). As a result, the predicted seawater temperatures using an aragonite 429 paleotemperature equation of Grossman and Ku (1986) are warmer by 1-3°C compared to 430 contemporary in-situ temperatures, a difference at least three times greater than the δ^{18} O-derived 431 temperature analytical uncertainty of 0.28°C.

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Prouty et al., in revision to EPSL

433 The influence of methane is also captured in the light carbonate Δ^{14} C values and relatively old ¹⁴C-derived ages of mussel shells from living specimens. Seawater samples collected near the As Norfolk seep field yield an average $DI^{14}C$ value of -24.17±0.6‰, consistent with seawater $\Delta^{14}C$ 436 values from below the mixed layer depth in Norfolk Canyon. In contrast, the average mussel 437 shell Δ^{14} C value from living specimens from the Norfolk seep field is -115 \pm 3‰. Assuming a 438 methane Δ^{14} C signature of -880‰ (<0.12 pMC; Pohlman et al. 2009) and a DIC Δ^{14} C signature 439 of -24‰ (this study), ~10% of the carbon signature for shell calcification is derived from fossil 440 carbon. As a result, the contribution from fossil carbon can yield a false ${}^{14}C$ carbonate age (e.g., 441 Aharon et al. 1997). The dilution from fossil carbon may result in over prediction of 14 C-derived 442 ages by 5 to 11%.

443

444 Owing to this incorporation of fossil carbon, we expect a disparity between the ${}^{14}C$ -derived age 445 of the authigenic carbonates and the independently derived U-Th age. The average $\Delta^{14}C$ 446 signatures of the authigenic carbonates at both sites are significantly depleted in ${}^{14}C$, with values 447 ranging from -894‰ to -878‰ and corresponding 14 C ages ranging from 17.99 to 19.35 ka. In 448 comparison, average U-Th ages from the Norfolk and Baltimore canyon seep sites were 1.0-3.3 449 ka and 14.7-15.7 ka, respectively. Thus, the disparity between the 14 C and U-Th derived ages is 450 a few thousand years at the Baltimore Canyon seep but at least 13 ka at the deepwater Norfolk 451 seep. The differences between the ${}^{14}C$ and U-Th ages are probably a complex function of 452 absolute age of the authigenic carbonates, methane flux, and the ^{14}C signature of the source 453 methane, and the results may imply greater incorporation of fossil carbon in the authigenic 454 carbonates at Norfolk Seep.

456 4.4 Formation model and paleoenvironment

457 The U-Th ages from methane derived authigenic carbonates indicate that hydrocarbon seepage 458 related to the formation of those carbonates occurred at the Baltimore Canyon seep field toward 459 the end of the Late Pleistocene, and was more recent (Holocene) at the Norfolk seep field. These 460 are the first absolute dates for the timing of hydrocarbon seepage along the US Atlantic margin, 461 and although the limited nature (single samples at two sites) these ages are supported by 462 additional U-Th dating conducted on more recently obtained authigenic carbonate samples along 463 the US Atlantic margin (Condon et al., 2015). Nonetheless, the origin of seeps and gas expulsion 464 geomorphic features (e.g., pockmarks and "gas blowouts") along the US Atlantic Margin 465 remains uncertain.

466

467 The occurrence of gas seeps and pockmarks associated with fluid expulsion at depths less than 468 500 m, which are outside the methane hydrate stability field, may have a microbial origin from 469 in-situ bacterial decay of organic matter or updip migration of gases produced by the same 470 process or released from methane hydrate dissociation at greater water depths on the upper slope 471 (Skarke et al. 2014). Such expulsion may also have a thermogenic origin at depth (Hill et al. 472 2004; Newman et al. 2008; Brothers et al. 2014). However, the geochemical analyses presented 473 here yield carbonate δ^{13} C values < -40‰. When coupled with observations by Pohlman et al. 474 (2015) of -68‰ in the bottom waters, a thermogenic origin for the methane is precluded. This 475 agrees with earlier work by Newman et al. (2008) that demonstrated the microbial origin of pore 476 fluid DIC δ^{13} C values along the US mid-Atlantic shelf break. Hill et al. (2004) argued that 477 microbial gas flowing updip from dissociating gas hydrates is responsible for the distribution of 478 gas blowouts in the region, and Skarke et al (2014) make the same argument for the distribution 479 of hundreds of seeps on the continental slope updip of the present-day hydrate stability limit, 480 particularly on the mid-Atlantic part of the margin. Recent multi-channel seismic profiles on the 481 upper continental slope below the Baltimore Canyon seep field do not reveal clear evidence for 482 strata that could be laterally channeling gas updip into the seeps (Ruppel et al., 2015b), but these 483 observations are equivocal.

484

485 An alternate explanation for the presence of the Baltimore Canyon seeps at ~400 m water depth 486 is that overpressures have accumulated within thick, rapidly deposited Pleistocene sediments, 487 leading to vertical fluid and gas expulsion (Brothers et al. 2014). Studies on passive margins 488 offshore Europe and Asia have also advanced this explanation for focused fluid flow in areas of 489 high sedimentation rates under excess pore pressure (Berndt 2005). This interpretation is 490 consistent with the non-aquifer model of Dugan and Flemings (2002), where rapid sediment 491 loading during the Pleistocene sea-level lowstand created overpressure gradients, forcing fluids 492 to migrate upward and outward toward the seafloor. During the Pleistocene, significant volumes 493 of sediment were delivered to the outer shelf, with much of it transported directly into shelf-494 sourced canyons and then offshore to deep-sea fans (e.g., Poag 1992). The fluvial influence on 495 the canyons is observed in both the geomorphic features and grain size, where coarse to medium 496 grained, shelly terrigenous sands are observed adjacent to the canyon heads (Obelcz et al. 2014). 497 The Mid-Atlantic region is also marked by a seaward thickening wedge of shelf edge delta 498 deposits (200-400 m thick) (Hill et al., 2004; D. Brothers et al., 2013). Along the New Jersey 499 continental slope for example, sedimentation rates rose sharply during Pleistocene sea-level 500 lowstand (Dugan and Flemings, 2002), with rates as high as 353 cm kyr⁻¹ (McHugh and Olson, 501 2002). The age of the Baltimore Canyon authigenic carbonate further supports a link between 502 rapid loading by organic-rich sediment during the Pleistocene sea-level lowstand and subsequent 503 fluid flow from overpressure. Such overpressures may also contribute to pervasive slope 504 instability on this part of the Mid-Atlantic margin (ten Brink et al., 2014).

505

506 Our analysis (Fig. 5) shows that the Baltimore seep field would have been outside the methane 507 hydrate stability field even between 14.7±0.6 ka to 15.7±1.6 ka. The ensuing Late Pleistocene to 508 Holocene sea-level rise increased hydrostatic pressure, which could move the seep field closer to 509 the hydrate stability condition under isothermal conditions. However, dramatic bottom water 510 warming between the presumed cold Late Pleistocene temperature and the ~9^oC observed in 511 2013 from in-situ temperature measurements overwhelms the impact of increased pressure. The 512 Baltimore Canyon seep field may now or in the past have emitted migrated methane that was 513 released by gas hydrate dissociation at greater water depths; however in-situ gas hydrate 514 dissociation is clearly ruled out as the source of methane emissions. This regime contrasts with 515 the hydrate-controlled methane venting off Svalbard, where seasonal fluctuations in bottom 516 water temperatures cause variable gas hydrate dissociation at a depth between 380 to 400 m 517 (Berndt et al., 2014).

518

519 The driving mechanism for methane venting the Norfolk seep field $(\sim 1600 \text{ m})$ is more difficult 520 to explain since the seep is well inside the gas hydrate stability zone and there is no underlying 521 salt diapir. Skarke et al. (2014) postulated that the Norfolk seep field is fed by gas flowing 522 through fractured Eocene rock, but a clear triggering mechanism that could explain seepage 523 consistent mid-Holocene U-Th date of the authigenic carbonates is lacking. Recent high-524 resolution seismic imaging by the USGS shows fractures channeling methane to the seep sites

525 from hundreds of meters below the seafloor (Ruppel et al., 2015a). Despite the inferred deep source of some of the methane, it is notable that the δ^{13} C data still support an entirely microbial 527 origin for the gas. There is evidence at both sites of upward flux of methane that is isotopically 528 similar between the sites with respect to carbon, most likely linked to long-term accumulation, 529 compaction, and over-pressuring of organic-rich sediment. This can occur when the intense 530 methane fluxes move the sulfate-methane transition zone (SMTZ) very close to the seafloor 531 (Orcutt et al., 2011).

532

533 4.5 Relationship to Global Setting

534 A variety of driving mechanisms has been proposed to explain methane venting at cold seeps, 535 including hydrological and tidal pumping, warming of bottom water (Suess 2014), excess pore 536 pressure in areas of high sedimentation along the passive margins of Europe and Africa (Berndt 537 2005), seismic activity (e.g., Fischer et al., 2013), and links to sea-level lowstands (e.g., Teichert 538 et al., 2003; Feng et al., 2010; Liebetrau et al., 2010). In many of these cases, a major mechanism 539 for methane release is a change in hydrostatic pressure and/or temperature, and subsequent 540 hydrate dissociation, as in the case of the South China Sea (Han et al., 2014) and Svalbard 541 (Westbrook et al., 2009; Berndt et al., 2014). Even with the assumption of very cold bottom 542 water temperatures, the Baltimore seep field would have been outside the methane hydrate 543 stability field at ~15ka (Fig. 5), meaning that in-situ gas hydrate dissociation cannot have ever 544 contributed to methane emissions there since the Late Pleistocene. Despite observations of 545 numerous landslide scars in the Baltimore Canyon landslide zone (ten Brink et al. 2014), ages 546 that could constrain the timing of slide events are are not available close to the seep site. The 547 ages farther downslope at the base of hemipelagic sediment overlying the youngest mass 548 transport deposit range between 5200 ± 150 and $10,080$ yr BP (Embley, 1980). While these 549 dates are several thousand years younger than the age of the authigenic carbonate samples 550 analyzed from the Baltimore Canyon seep field site, the slide material that was dated is probably 551 not related to sediments originally at the top of the ridge where the seep field is located. For 552 now, we can only postulate that other passive margins with similar depositional regimes similar 553 to that of the northern US Atlantic margin may also be the loci of widespread and as-yet 554 undiscovered seepage that can be traced to similar mechanisms of overpressure accumulation 555 and eventual fluid expulsion, possibly with a slide-related connection.

556

557 **5. Conclusion**

558 The geochemistry, mineralogy, and petrology of authigenic carbonates and mussel shells 559 collected from two seep sites along the mid-Atlantic portion of the USAM in a newly-discovered 560 seep province provide the first direct information about methane sources, the processes driving 561 carbonate precipitation and chemosynthetic processes, and the nature of fluid-rock interaction. 562 Taken together, the $\delta^{234}U$, ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$, $\delta^{13}C$ and $\Delta^{14}C$ values support shallow precipitation of 563 aragonite driven by AOM and at equilibrium with seawater. At the deepwater Norfolk seep, 564 comparison of shell δ¹³C values from dead and living specimens indicates a temporal shift in seepage activity and/or composition of seeping fluids. Comparison between shell δ^{13} C values of 566 living versus dead specimens from Norfolk suggests a \approx 25% increase in methane contribution 567 within several centuries. In addition, changes in shell δ^{13} C values during growth may be related 568 to changes in methane flow throughout the organisms' lifespan (<25 years). The range of mussel 569 gill and periostracum $\delta^{34}S$ values from both sites suggests an admixture of sulfur sources, 570 hydrogen sulfide (H2S) and seawater sulfate (SO4), with the former sourced from sulfate 571 reduction during AOM. Lighter mussel shell Δ^{14} C values highlight dilution of the ¹⁴C pool with $f_{\rm 572}$ fossil carbon. As a result, authigenic carbonate 14 C- and U-Th-derived ages are discordant.

573 According to U-Th ages, methane seepage is thought to have occurred at the uppermost slope 574 Baltimore Canyon seep field toward the end of the Pleistocene (14.7±0.6 ka to 15.7±1.6 ka) and 575 between 1.0 ± 0.7 ka to $3.3\pm0.1.3$ ka at the deepwater Norfolk seep field. Fluid flow from the 576 thick pile of overpressured Pleistocene sediments deposited at the sea-level lowstand is the most 577 likely mechanism to explain sustained methane venting at Baltimore Canyon, whereas venting 578 fluids at the Norfolk seeps, which are located well within the GHSZ, can be explained by flow 579 through fractured strata (Skarke et al. 2014; Ruppel et al., 2015a). At neither seep field does the 580 carbonate geochemistry support deep-sourced fluid of thermogenic origin. Instead, the isotope 581 and mineralogy of the carbonates indicate that microbial degradation of sedimentary organic 582 matter is the common source of widespread methane both outside (Baltimore Canyon) and well 583 within (Norfolk seep) the GHSZ. Results from this geochemical study, coupled with the 584 geophysical data of Skarke et al (2014) showing the distribution of seeps along the USAM, 585 highlights the potential role of the sedimentary framework in widespread venting at upper slope 586 locations updip of the current limit of gas hydrate stability. We postulate that high sedimentation 587 rate passive margins dominated by siliciclastic deposition due to glacial and fluvial processes 588 may have accumulated overpressures and produced episodes of fluid expulsion particularly 589 during Late Pleistocene lowstands. This implies that undiscovered methane seep provinces may 590 be widespread on upper continental slopes, which would have implications for carbon cycling 591 from the seafloor to overlying ocean-atmosphere system.

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607

608

609 **Figure Captions**

610 **Figure 1**

611 Location map showing the Norfolk and Baltimore Canyon seep fields (green circles) relative to 612 the major shelf-break canyons (Norfolk, Washington, and Baltimore). The blue triangle outlines 613 the study area for the multi-disciplinary "Atlantic Deepwater Canyons" study.

614

615 **Figure 2**

616 (A) Baltimore Canyon, with the seep field located on the southern promontory overlooking the 617 canyon. The green circle denotes the seep that was sampled for mussel shells and authigenic 618 carbonates within the seep field. (B) Close-up view of shaded relief at the Baltimore Canyon 619 seep field, with bathymetric contours at 100 m spacing. The green circle denotes the seep that is 620 the focus of this paper. Red and orange circles are seeps from the Skarke et al. (2014) database 621 and from USGS water-column imaging surveys in April 2015, respectively. Some of the orange 622 and red seeps may correspond to the same location within the resolution of the data. Yellow 623 symbols are pockmarks mapped by Brothers et al. (2014). (C) Left: In-situ photo of deep-sea 624 mussel field of *Bathymodiolus* sp. Right: In-situ photo of deep-sea Cusk fish, *Brosme brosme*, 625 beneath authigenic pavement in soft substrate with low live mussel cover (D) Target strength 626 calculated from water column imagery collected with a Simrad EK60 using a 38 kHz transducer 627 during USGS surveys across the seep field in September 2015. The current deflects the plumes 628 slightly southeast in the water column. The analysis used the approach and software described in 629 Veloso et al. (2015).

630

631 **Figure 3**.

632 (A) Norfolk deep seep field, showing the locations of seeps in the Skarke et al. (2014) database 633 (red circles) and the sampled seep for authigenic carbonate and mussels as a green circle. (B) 634 Close-up of the Norfolk seep field, using the same key as in (A). (C) NOAA image of the 635 plumes emanating from the seep field in 2013, with the seep sampled for this paper indicated in 636 yellow. (D) Left: In-situ photo of dense deep-sea mussel field of live *Bathymodiolus* sp*.* on 637 irregular blocky build-up on the seafloor. Right: In-situ photos of live *Bathymodiolus* sp*.* at 638 active seep site with visible bubble stream.

639

640 **Figure 4**

647

- 648 **Figure 5**
- 649 The evolution of Baltimore Canyon (squares) and Norfolk (circles) seeps in depth-temperature

641 Photographic and petrographic thin section images (plane polarized light; 40x) of the authigenic

642 carbonates sampled at the Norfolk seep site (dive NF-2012-14) and Baltimore Canyon seep site

643 (dive RB-2013-682). Infilling of voids by acicular aragonite, detrital grains, organic matter, and

644 bioclasts are noted in the matrix-supported clay to silt-size aragonite-dominated breccia.

645 Locations of sampling sites for U-Th dates (red squares) and radiocarbon (yellow squares) are

646 shown for their respective locations and corresponding sample number from Tables 4 and 5.

- 650 (P-T) space relative to the methane hydrate stability field calculated with seawater
- 651 salinity. Closed symbols are present-day depth and temperature, and open symbols denote
- 652 estimated conditions at 15.1 ± 1.6 ka and 3 ± 1 ka, respectively.
- 653
- 654

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Figure 1, Prouty et al.

Figure 2, Prouty et al.

Figure 4, Prouty et al.

Baltimore Canyon (NF-2012-14)

Norfolk (RB-2013-682)

Figure 5, Prouty et al.

Table 1

Mineralogy (dominant carbonate phase), stable isotope, and percent calcium carbonate and organic carbon of authigenic carbonate cement and groundmass and sediment collected at the Norfolk and Baltimore canyons seep sites. Average values reported ± 1 standard deviation.

Geochemical composition of the *Bathymodiolus* sp. shell carbonate and periostracum material and seawater for carbon (±0.04‰), oxygen (±0.06‰), and strontium isotope ratios (±0.00002) for samples collected only at Norfolk. Average and standard deviations are reported. Ranges of values are also reported as minimum and maximum values; values in parenthesis are for dead specimens collected at Norfolk.

Sulfur isotope (δ34S; ‰) mussel gill and periostracum from *Bathymodiolus* sp. specimens collected at the Norfolk and Baltimore Canyon seep sites and adjacent seep sediment. The average, 1 standard deviation, and ranges of δ^{34} S values are reported.

Summary data results for radiocarbon analysis including ROV station number (Station no.), sample identification (Sample ID), laboratory identification number (Lab ID), seep field, sample type, fraction modern (Fm) relative to standard, fraction modern error, ¹⁴C age, ¹⁴C age error, Δ^{14} C value as defined in Stuiver and Polach (1977), and Δ^{14} C error. Fraction Modern (Fm) is a measurement of the deviation of the ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio of a sample from "Modern." Modern is defined as 95% of the radiocarbon concentration (in AD 1950) of NBS Oxalic Acid I normalized to δ^{13} CvPDB=-19 per mil (Olsson 1970). *Samples pretreated with 10% HCl

Summary data for measured U-Th data for authigenic carbonate samples and activity ratios (AR) used for age calculation and U-Th ages. All activity ratios were calculated using λ^{230} =9.17050E-6, λ^{234} =2.82206E-6 (Cheng et al., 2013), λ^{232} =4.93343E-11 (Holden et al., 1990), λ^{238} =1.55125E-10 (Jaffey et al., 1971), (a) - Activity ratios corrected for hydride formation, tailing, fractionation, SEM-Faraday yield, and tracer isotopic composition, (b) Corrected using average measured detrital U and Th isotopic compositions for the Norfolk Canyon ($(^{232}Th/^{238}U) = 1.38$, $(^{230}Th/^{238}U) = 2.05$ and $(^{234}U/^{238}U) = 0.99$, n=3) and Baltimore Canyon $((^{232}Th/^{238}U) = 1.39, (^{230}Th/^{238}U) = 1.32$ and $(^{234}U/^{238}U) = 1.00$, n=3) sites with all uncertainties arbitrarily set at ± 25% (see main text section 3.5 for details)