

Geochemical and microstructural evidence for interseismic changes in fault zone permeability and strength, Alpine Fault, New Zealand

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Abstract

Oblique dextral motion on the central Alpine Fault in the last c. 5 Myr has exhumed garnet-oligoclase facies mylonitic fault rocks from c. 35 km depth. During exhumation, deformation, accompanied by fluid infiltration, has generated complex lithological variations in fault-related rocks retrieved during Deep Fault Drilling Project (DFDP-1) drilling at Gaunt Creek, South Island, New Zealand. Lithological, geochemical, and mineralogical results reveal that the fault comprises a core of highly comminuted cataclasites and fault gouges bounded by a damage zone containing cataclasites, protocataclasites, and fractured mylonites. The fault core-alteration zone extends c. 20-30 m from the principal slip zone (PSZ) and is characterized by alteration of primary phases to phyllosilicate minerals. Alteration associated with distinct mineral phases occurred proximal the brittle-to-plastic transition ($T \leq 300-400^{\circ}\text{C}$, 6-10 km depth) and at shallow depths ($T = 20-150^{\circ}\text{C}$, 0-3 km depth). Within the fault core-alteration zone, fractures have been sealed by authigenic precipitation of calcite and phyllosilicates. This sealing has decreased fault normal permeability and increased rock mass competency, potentially promoting interseismic strain buildup. **Keywords:** *Alpine*

29 *Fault, New Zealand, fault rocks, alteration, mineralogy, geochemistry, microstructure,*
30 *permeability, sealing, seismic cycle.*

31 **Highlights:**

- 32 • The mineralogy of fault rocks recovered in DFDP-1 is consistent for >120 km
33 along-strike
- 34 • Authigenic phyllosilicates and carbonates occur in the Alpine Fault core
- 35 • Alpine Fault core alteration reactions alter fault zone permeability and promote
36 interseismic strain buildup

37

38 **1 Introduction**

39 The Alpine Fault of New Zealand ruptures quasi-periodically in large
40 magnitude ($M_w \sim 8$) earthquakes [Berryman *et al.*, 2012], and it represents the largest
41 onshore seismic hazard in the country of 4.4 million people. Earthquakes are frictional
42 instabilities, and their nucleation, propagation, and arrest is governed by fault zone
43 properties [e.g., Sibson, 1977, 1982, 1992; King, 1986; Wesnousky, 1988; Scholz, 2002;
44 Ben-Zion, 2008]. A fault zone commonly contains a fault core, often containing at least
45 one principal slip zone (PSZ), of fine-grained granular materials (gouge, cataclasite, or
46 pseudotachylite) where most coseismic displacement occurs [Caine *et al.*, 1996;
47 Chester and Chester, 1998; Sibson, 2003]. Within the fault core, gouges, cataclasites
48 and breccias are interpreted to result from particle size reduction by fragmentation,
49 abrasion, and/or comminution accompanied by translation and rotation [e.g., Sibson,
50 1977; Chester and Logan, 1986; Chester and Chester, 1998]. Fault cores are commonly
51 flanked by damage zones, rock bodies with micro- to macro-scale fractures that form

as a result of off-fault deformation and fluid-rock interactions [e.g., *Chester and Logan*, 1986; *Caine et al.*, 1996].

Characterizing three-dimensional variations in fault zone properties, and taking into account time-dependent changes in these properties, is essential to understanding the physical processes that drive seismicity. As the last Alpine Fault earthquake occurred in 1717 CE and the average recurrence interval is 329 ± 68 years, current observations of the fault are ideally timed to document its late interseismic physicochemical properties [e.g., *Wells and Goff*, 2007; *Sutherland et al.*, 2007; *Howarth et al.*, 2012; *Berryman et al.*, 2012; *Townend et al.*, 2009, 2013]. The first phase of Deep Fault Drilling Project (DFDP-1) drilling in January-February 2011 retrieved a full sequence of Alpine Fault hanging wall, fault core, and footwall fault rocks, enabling detailed examination of fault zone elements on the 0.01-100 m scale [*Sutherland et al.*, 2012; *Townend et al.*, 2013; *Toy et al.*, 2015]. This study presents new field, drilling, and laboratory data on the lithology, mineralogy, and major element geochemistry of the Alpine Fault at Gaunt Creek.

2 Geological Setting

2.1 Tectonic history

The New Zealand continental landmass, Zealandia, underwent multiple phases of tectonic deformation as part of the Gondwana supercontinent [*Landis and Coombs*, 1967; *Carter and Norris*, 1976; *Mortimer*, 2004]. Zealandia was rifted during the Late Cretaceous and finally broke away from Australia and Antarctica landmass by c. 80 Ma, with subsequent opening of the South Pacific and Tasman Sea [*Molnar et al.*, 1975; *Gaina et al.*, 1998; *Sutherland*, 1999]. At c. 45 Ma (Eocene), a new plate boundary propagated through Zealandia [*Sutherland*, 1995]. Strike-slip motion began on the

76 proto-Alpine Fault c. 30 Ma [*Sutherland et al.*, 2000; *Lamb et al.*, 2015, 2016], and
77 present day oblique convergence along the Alpine Fault initiated c. 8-5 Ma as a result
78 of a subtle shift in the location of the instantaneous Euler pole for Australian-Pacific
79 plate motion [*Walcott*, 1984; *Batt et al.*, 2004; *Cande and Stock*, 2004].

80 **2.2 Regional structure**

81 The Alpine Fault is a crustal-scale transpressive fault that links Pacific Plate
82 subduction in the north (Hikurangi margin) to Australian Plate subduction in the south
83 (Puyseguer margin) (Figure 1). The Alpine Fault has accommodated >460 km of
84 cumulative displacement [*Wellman*, 1953; *Lamb et al.*, 2016]. The focus of this study
85 is the Alpine Fault at Gaunt Creek, a tributary of the Waitangi-taona River on the central
86 section of the Alpine Fault that extends for 250 km from the Toaroha River to the
87 Martyr River. Along the central section, the fault has a strike-slip rate of 27-29 mm/yr
88 and a dip-slip rate of 2-8 mm/yr [*Simpson et al.*, 1994; *Cooper and Norris*, 1994; *Barth*
89 *et al.*, 2013]. In the near surface (<2 km depth), the central Alpine Fault exhibits
90 sequences of north-northeast striking oblique thrust faults and linking east-northeast
91 striking dextral faults, but at depth the orientation of the Alpine Fault parallels the
92 foliation of exhumed mylonites and ultramylonites (055°/45°SE) [*Norris and Cooper*,
93 2007; *Barth et al.*, 2012]. The structure of the central section differs markedly from the
94 steeply dipping oblique-normal southern Alpine Fault [see also *Berryman et al.*, 1992;
95 *Barth et al.*, 2013] (Figure 1).

96 **2.3 Gaunt Creek structure**

97 At Gaunt Creek, there are two natural exposures of the Alpine Fault basal thrust,
98 defined by *Norris and Cooper* [2007] as the de facto plate boundary oblique thrust
99 contact between hanging wall Pacific plate cataclasites and footwall Australian plate

gravels, intrusives, or metasediments (Figure 2). One natural exposure occurs in a well-studied scarp on the south side of Gaunt Creek [Cooper and Norris, 1994; Boulton et al., 2012], and the other is a terrace on the north side of Gaunt Creek [De Pascale and Langridge, 2012; Boulton et al., 2012] (Figures 2 and 3). Hanging wall cataclasites and mylonites derived from metabasic and quartzofeldspathic schist protoliths outcrop in both localities [e.g., Cooper and Norris, 1994]. The basal thrust at Gaunt Creek has changed from a moderately southeast-dipping, oblique reverse fault to a shallowly dipping thrust that has accommodated over 180 m of overthrusting [Cooper and Norris, 1994]. The basal thrust exposed in the scarp on the south side of Gaunt Creek has a mean orientation of 059°/42°SE with mean slickenline striations oriented 24/086. The fault plane exposed in the terrace on the north side of Gaunt Creek is more shallowly dipping, with an average orientation of 005°/28°SE (Figure 2). No slickenline striations were found along the contact between the terrace fault gouge and footwall gravel contact. Drillcore retrieved during DFDP-1A and 1B was not oriented, and estimates of fault dip based on basal gouge contacts have an estimated margin of error of $\pm 5^\circ$. The fault plane in DFDP-1A dips approximately 25-35°, and the primary fault plane in DFDP-1B dips approximately 45-55° (see also Figure 2 caption) [Sutherland et al., 2012].

3 Methods

3.1 Drilling operation

In Phase 1 of drilling, January and February 2011, the DFDP project completed two vertical boreholes at Gaunt Creek. DFDP-1A drilled to 100.6 m depth and DFDP-1B drilled to 151.4 m depth [Sutherland et al., 2012] (Figure 3). Hanging wall, fault core, and footwall sections of fault-related rocks were recovered, wireline logs were

completed, hydraulic observations were made, and downhole observatories for the long-term monitoring of temperatures, fluid pressures, and seismicity were established. Drilling methods are described elsewhere in the detailed operational report [Sutherland *et al.*, 2011].

3.2 Core logging

Detailed core logs were made of 148 m of near-complete whole-rock cores (PQ, 85 mm- diameter). Initial geological logs completed on site recorded lithology, color, distribution, styles and orientations of meso- to micro-scale structures. More detailed imaging, logging, and lithological descriptions of the core was conducted after transport to the University of Otago [for core-logging methods, see Sutherland *et al.*, 2011].

3.3 Thin section preparation

Representative samples of fault-related rocks were selected and made into petrographic thin sections. Petrographic thin sections of fragile fault gouges and cataclasites were prepared dry and polished using 1 μm diamond paste. Less friable drillcore materials were prepared using standard petrographic thin section making techniques.

3.4 Analytical methods

Qualitative X-ray diffraction (XRD) analyses were conducted on thirty-four clean samples collected from DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B drillcore. Qualitative XRD measurements were performed on a PANalytical X'Pert PRO MPD PW 3040/60 X-ray diffractometer in the Department of Geology, University of Otago. Measurement conditions were 40 kV, 30 mA, $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation with 0.125° divergence slit size. XRD

patterns were recorded in steps of 0.0080 °2θ using X'Pert Data Collector version 2.0e and processed with X'Pert HighScore version 2.2b.

Quantitative XRD analyses were conducted on six fault gouges and cataclasites in DFDP-1B at CSIRO Land and Water, Urrbrae, Australia. XRD patterns were recorded in steps of 0.017 °2θ on a PANalytical X'Pert Pro Multipurpose Diffractometer using Fe-filtered Co Kα radiation, variable divergence slit, 1° antiscatter slit and fast X'Celerator Si strip detector. Quantitative analysis was performed using SIROQUANT, a commercially available software package from Sietronics Pty Ltd. To document along-strike variations in the mineralogy of principal slip zone gouges and cataclasites, seventeen additional quantitative whole rock XRD analyses were conducted on surface-outcrop fault gouges and cataclasites collected from localities pictured in Figure 1.

A subset of DFDP-1 samples, together with fault core samples from natural exposures at Gaunt Creek, were analysed for major element geochemistry using Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-AES) and X-ray fluorescence (XRF) techniques. Thirty-nine clean samples from DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B, weighing between 10 g and 30 g, were selected for ICP-AES analysis by ALS Minerals, ALS Canada Ltd., North Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. Major element oxide analysis of six DFDP-1A samples was performed using XRF at the Department of Geology, University of Otago, using a Philips PW2400 X-ray fluorescence spectrometer.

To determine loss on ignition (LOI), 1.0 g of prepared sample was placed in an oven at 1000 °C for 1 hour, cooled, and then re-weighed by ALS Minerals. At the Department of Geology, University of Otago, 2.0 g of rock powder was placed in an

oven at 1100 °C for 2 hours, cooled, and then re-weighed. The percentage loss on ignition is reported as the percentage difference in sample weight.

To constrain the along-strike applicability of DFDP-1 results, twenty-three additional major element analyses were conducted on ultramylonite (1), hanging wall cataclasites (8), fault core gouges (12), and footwall gravel cataclasites (2) using a combination of the above methods. Sample collection localities span 234 km along-strike of the Alpine Fault and are indicated in Figure 1. A detailed analysis of along-strike variations in fault gouge, cataclasite, and footwall gravel major element geochemistry is outside the scope of this research, and the following results, discussion, and conclusions sections focus on DFDP-1 samples. Tabulated results for other localities along strike can be found in supplementary material along with reports on analytical error and detailed qualitative and quantitative XRD, ICP-AES, and XRF methods (see also Table 4 caption) (Supplements S1-S3).

4 Results

4.1 Fault zone structure

Four main fault-rock units were initially identified in the DFDP-1 boreholes: hanging wall ultramylonite, hanging wall cataclasite, principal slip zone fault gouge (PSZ), and footwall cataclasite [Sutherland *et al.*, 2012]. Within DFDP-1B, two PSZ gouges were identified: one between hanging wall cataclasite and the footwall cataclasite (PSZ-1), and another within footwall cataclasites (PSZ-2) (Figure 3). Within 50 m of the PSZ, clay-filled zones were identified, and enhanced calcite and phyllosilicate mineralization was found within c. 20 m of the PSZ [Sutherland *et al.*, 2012]. The PSZ fault gouge that marks the boundary between hanging wall cataclasites and footwall gravel was intercepted at 90.5 m depth in DFDP-1A. The PSZ-1 fault gouge that marks the boundary between hanging wall cataclasites and footwall

granitoid or metasediment-derived cataclasites was intercepted at 128.3 m in DFDP-1B (DFDP-1B depths given here are corrected by +0.20 m following *Townend et al.* [2013]). Permeability decreases through the cataclasites and reaches a minimum at the PSZ fault gouges, but hanging wall mylonites are highly permeable [*Sutherland et al.*, 2012; *Carpenter et al.*, 2014].

4.2 Lithologic units

Using detailed imaging, core logging, lithological descriptions, and thin section analysis, a refined model of hanging wall, fault core, and footwall lithologic units has been developed [*Toy et al.*, 2012; *Townend et al.*, 2013; *Toy et al.*, 2015] (Figure 3) (Table 1). Fault rocks were described following the scheme proposed by *Sibson* [1977] and modified to include the presence of foliated cataclasites with an interconnected network of phyllosilicate minerals [*Chester et al.*, 1993; *Holdsworth*, 2004; *Jefferies et al.*, 2006]. Summaries of these lithologic units have been modified from *Toy et al.* [2015] and are outlined in Table 1.

Core-scale examples of each lithologic unit are given in Figure 3. Details are given in the caption. Figure 4 depicts plane-polarized optical microscopy (OM) images of the Units 2-3 transition (Figure 4a), Unit 4 (Figures 4b-d), Unit 5 (Figure 4g), Unit 6 (Figures 4e-f), and Unit 7 (Figure 4h). In Figures 5 and 6, scanning-electron microscope backscattered electron (BSE) images reveal the finer-scale details of compositional variations and microstructural features in lithologic units: 2 (Figures 5a-b); 3 (Figures 5c-d); 4 (Figures 5e-f); 5 (Figures 6a-d); 6 (Figures 5h and 6e-g); and 7 (Figure 6h).

4.3 Mineralogy

X-ray diffraction analyses provide an indication of the minerals present in abundances greater than c. 5%. All the samples analyzed contain quartz, plagioclase, white mica (muscovite and/or illite) and chlorite (clinochlore). Carbonate minerals (calcite + ankerite) are most prevalent in hanging wall samples (Units 1–5) and are only sporadically present in Units 6 and 7 beneath the 128.3 – 128.5 m PSZ in DFDP-1B. Potassium feldspar (K-feldspar) is only found in the hanging wall within 5 m of the PSZ in DFDP-1A and, primarily, beneath PSZ-1 in DFDP-1B (Table 2).

Six whole-rock samples from the DFDP-1B principal slip zone intervals (PSZ-1 and PSZ-2) were analysed for quantitative XRD analysis. The modal abundance of phyllosilicates in Units 5 (PSZ-1, 128.3 m; PSZ-2, 144.02 m; PSZ-2, 144.14 m depth), Unit 6 (143.9 m depth), and Unit 7 (144.28 m depth) does not vary significantly, being 35-36% for Units 5 and 6, and 27% for Unit 7. The primary difference between the samples lies in the presence of dioctahedral smectite (montmorillonite) in the Unit 5 brown gouges (Table 3).

Whereas nonfoliated and foliated cataclasites in the hanging wall and footwall contain the phyllosilicates chlorite and white mica, Unit 5 fault core gouges in the DFDP-1 boreholes contain kaolinite, dioctahedral smectite (montmorillonite), white mica, and rare chlorite (Tables 1-3). Standard X-ray diffraction techniques are unable to distinguish the white micas muscovite and illite, but the distinction is important because illite is a low-temperature authigenic phyllosilicate indicative of retrograde alteration concomitant with exhumation. Clay mineral polytype analyses on DFDP-1B clay separates recently revealed that high proportions of 1M_d authigenic illite (80-95%) occur only within the PSZ gouges [Schleicher *et al.*, 2015]. These results suggest that additional alteration reactions resulting in the formation of low temperature phyllosilicates are occurring preferentially in the Unit 5 gouges.

Montmorillonite-bearing Unit 5 gouges were also found on basal thrusts on a tributary of Little Man River, Waikukupa River, and Robinson Creek, an along-strike distance of 120 km on the central Alpine Fault (Figure 1) (Table 4). On the southern Alpine Fault, PSZ gouges contain saponite and serpentine and have been derived partly from ultramafic protoliths (Figure 1) (Table 4) [Barth *et al.*, 2013].

4.4 Major element geochemistry

Major element geochemistry and LOI results for DFDP-1A fault rocks are presented in Table 5; results for DFDP-1B fault rocks are presented in Table 6. The DFDP-1A borehole sampled hanging wall fault rocks, a single PSZ, and footwall gravels. DFDP-1B borehole samples span the hanging wall and footwall and include two PSZ intervals (Figure 3). Major element data show a clear distinction between the SiO₂, Al₂O₃, CaO, and K₂O contents of the Units 2-4 and Unit 6 fault rocks; Unit 5 gouges are distinguished by high CaO and LOI values (Figures 7 and 8). SiO₂ concentrations in hanging wall and footwall rocks overlap, but Unit 6 lower cataclasites between 128.04 and 128.22 m depth, and at 131.68 m depth, have the highest SiO₂ contents (70.70 – 74.60 wt.%) (Figure 8). Unit 6 lower cataclasites between 138.17 and 141.07 m also contain relatively higher amounts of Al₂O₃ (16.65 – 18.10 wt.%) (Figure 8).

In DFDP-1A, the highest CaO concentrations occur in the Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasite (90.32 m depth) and Unit 5 gouge (90.62 m depth) (14.75 and 6.83 wt.%, respectively) (Figure 7). In DFDP-1B, all Unit 3-5 fault rocks, with the exception of a Unit 5 gouge at 144.15 m depth, have higher CaO concentrations (2.79-6.72 wt.%) than the Unit 6 lower cataclasites (0.58-2.58 wt.%). The Unit 8 footwall gravel in DFDP-1A (91.3 m depth) records the lowest CaO content (1.36 wt.%). Overall, Unit 6 lower

cataclasites have mean higher K_2O (4.28 ± 1.14 wt.%, $n=13$) concentrations than other footwall and hanging wall units (3.19 ± 0.57 wt.%, $n=26$) (Figures 7 and 8). Na_2O shows less discernible trends but usually occurs more abundantly in the Unit 6 lower cataclasites (Figure 8).

All Unit 5 gouges, the Unit 4 foliated cataclasite at 90.32 m depth in DFDP-1A, and the Unit 3 upper unfoliated cataclasite at 116.72 m depth in DFDP-1B have elevated MnO contents (0.11-0.24 wt.%), particularly when compared to the Unit 6 cataclasites (0.01-0.08 wt.%) (Figures 7 and 8). Unit 6 lower cataclasites immediately below PSZ-1 contain relatively less Fe_2O_3 and MgO (1.31-2.92 wt.% and 0.59-1.39 wt.%, respectively), but considerable scatter exists within the hanging wall and footwall units. The Unit 7 breccia at 146.25 m depth has the highest concentration of P_2O_5 (0.44 wt.%) (Figure 8; see also Figure 4h). In both DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B, the Unit 5 gouges and adjacent Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasites have high LOI and CaO values (Figures 7 and 8).

Major element oxide data are presented on two ternary plots in Figure 9. Together with Pacific Plate quartzofeldspathic schist and metabasite, the Australian Plate Karamea Suite and Greenland Group protoliths define a trend line along which the majority of DFDP-1 hanging wall and footwall fault rocks lie (Figure 9A). The Unit 7 breccia lies at the $MgO+Fe_2O_3$ axis of the footwall trend line in both ternary plots (Figure 9). Unit 6 lower cataclasites have higher K_2O , Na_2O and Al_2O_3 compared with the other units and trend towards the average Karamea Suite protolith composition (Figure 9A). A trend towards higher CaO is exhibited by Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasites and Unit 5 gouges, with the DFDP-1B PSZ-2 gouge (144.15 m depth) having lower CaO than the DFDP-1B PSZ-1 gouge and DFDP-1A PSZ gouge (Figure 9B).

5 Discussion

5.1 Alteration zone processes

During exhumation from c. 35 km depth, brittle deformation of Alpine Fault mylonites, accompanied by fluid infiltration, has resulted in complex mineralogical and lithological variations in fault rocks retrieved during DFDP-1 drilling at Gaunt Creek. Results documented herein and referred to in publications by *Sutherland et al.* [2012], *Townend et al.* [2013], and *Toy et al.* [2015] reveal that the fault comprises a fault core of protocataclasites, cataclasites, and fault gouges bounded by a damage zone containing fractured ultramylonites (Figure 3). These results are consistent with previous descriptions of Alpine Fault rocks [e.g., *Reed*, 1964; *Sibson et al.*, 1979; *Norris and Cooper*, 2007; *Toy et al.*, 2008]. In the DFDP-1 drillcore, the fault core-alteration zone extends from the Unit 5 PSZ gouges c. 20-30 m into the hanging wall by using the first documented occurrence of retrogressed mineral assemblages in the Unit 2 brown–green–black ultramylonites to represent the maximum width of alteration zone processes [e.g., *Caine et al.*, 1996; *Sutherland et al.*, 2012]. Measurements made from fault rocks collected elsewhere on the central and southern Alpine Fault reveal that fault core mineralogy at the site of DFDP-1, Gaunt Creek, is similar to outcrops exposed for at least 120 km along-strike (Figure 1) (Tables 3, 4). We combine our observations with the temperature constraints of *Warr and Cox* [2001] and *Toy et al.* [2010] and the reactions documented by *Chamberlain et al.* [1999] and *Wintsch and Yeh* [2013] to suggest that at least two stages of chemical alteration have occurred in the Alpine Fault core-alteration zone (Figure 10). At temperatures at or near the brittle-to-ductile transition ($T \leq 300\text{--}400^\circ\text{C}$), metasomatic alteration reactions resulted in albite or, potentially, K-feldspar replacement by muscovite, and biotite (phlogopite) replacement by chlorite (clinochlore). Hydrous chloritization of epidote and hornblende (actinolite)

may have also occurred (Figure 4c-d, 5e). Given its ubiquitous presence in alteration zone lithological units including ultramylonites (Figure 5a), chlorite likely precipitated at a range of temperatures less than 400°C, temperature conditions slightly broader than those defined by Warr and Cox [2001] using microchemical data [see also *Vry et al.*, 2001]. At lower temperatures ($T \leq 120^\circ\text{C}$), alteration reactions occurred in the presence or absence of free electrons. That is, depending on local redox conditions, primary minerals were altered to kaolinite, smectite (montmorillonite) and/or pyrite or smectite (montmorillonite), kaolinite, Fe-hydroxide (goethite) and/or carbonate (Tables 3 and 4) (Figures 4g, 6a-b, and 10).

For the standard metasomatic alteration reactions involving K-feldspar, plagioclase, muscovite, biotite (phlogopite), and chlorite (clinochlore), volume loss or gain, and corresponding variations in porosity and permeability, are governed by fluid:rock ratios and $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{H}^+$, K^+/H^+ , and Na^+/H^+ activity ratios [*Wintsch et al.*, 1995; *Wintsch and Yeh*, 2013]. Hydrolysis reactions involving the reactants K-feldspar, muscovite, biotite (phlogopite), muscovite, chlorite (clinochlore), and albite usually result in volume loss. Notably, however, a volume gain occurs during the alteration of clinochlore to montmorillonite and during the alteration of muscovite to illite. Precipitation of calcite and goethite also results in a volume gain of 36.9 cm^3 per mol of calcite precipitated and 21.5 cm^3 per mol of goethite precipitated (Table 7). More detailed microstructural observations are needed to document the reaction sequences and their associated microstructures.

Although volume loss is commonly observed in fault cores, Alpine Fault rocks gained volume wherever calcite, illite, montmorillonite, and/or goethite precipitated (Figures 4 and 5) (Table 7) [e.g. *Goddard and Evans*, 1995; *Evans and Chester*, 1995; *Schleicher et al.*, 2009; *Chen et al.*, 2013; see also *Isaacs et al.*, 2008]. On the Alpine

Fault, solid volume gain from the precipitation of authigenic clay minerals and calcite from circulating hydrothermal fluids would act to decrease fault rock permeability with time (see Section 5.5). Abundant evidence exists for the presence of vigorous hydrothermal system and advective fluid flow at depth east of the Alpine Fault beneath the Southern Alps [Craw, 1988; Koons and Craw, 1991; Allis and Shi, 1995; Koons *et al.*, 1998; Menzies *et al.*, 2016]. Multiple factors drive the Southern Alps hydrothermal system, including elevated isotherms, steep topography, abundant rainfall [Barnes *et al.*, 1978; Koons, 1987; Koons and Craw, 1991; Menzies *et al.*, 2014, 2016], production of overpressured metamorphic fluids at depth [Craw and Campbell, 2004; Vry *et al.*, 2001, 2009], and perhaps coseismic increases in fault rock permeability accompanied by overpressured metamorphic fluid migration [Sibson, 1992; Townend *et al.*, 2013]. Within this system, rising rock-exchanged and mantle-derived fluids mix with descending meteoric waters and emerge in the fault's hanging wall as warm springs [Barnes *et al.*, 1978; Jenkin *et al.*, 1994; Templeton *et al.*, 1998; Upton *et al.*, 1995, 2000, 2002; Menzies *et al.*, 2014, 2016] (Figure 11).

5.2 Major element geochemistry variations

Major element geochemistry results presented in Figures 7, 8, and 9 have not been normalized to account for changes in relative element abundance based on silica mobility in the fault zone [e.g., Gresens, 1967; Grant, 1986]. TiO₂ is commonly assumed to be immobile in fault zones [e.g., Schleicher *et al.*, 2009], but normalizing major element oxides to TiO₂ requires assuming a value for a single unaltered protolith. Moreover, neometamorphic titanite that postdates chloritization of Alpine Fault mylonites at high temperatures (c.425-500 °C) has been identified [Vry *et al.*, 2001]. Nevertheless, the major element data reveal trends within the DFDP-1 lithologic units. The Unit 5 gouges have lower SiO₂, higher CaO concentrations, and anomalously high

LOI values when compared to adjacent hanging wall and footwall lithologic units (Figures 7 and 8). These measurements corroborate our petrographic and XRD identification of retrograde clay minerals (illite and montmorillonite) and calcite cement in the PSZ gouges (Table 3) (Figures 6a-b and 6d).

The DFDP-1A Unit 5 gouge at 90.62 m and the DFDP-1B Unit 6 lower cataclasites have higher K₂O contents than background hanging wall material (Figures 7 and 8). The Unit 6 lower cataclasites were derived in part from granitoid protoliths rich in quartz, plagioclase, and K-feldspar, and thus reflect the chemistry of these minerals (the Australian Plate Karamea Suite) (cf. Figures 4e, 5e and 9). The presence of elevated K₂O in the DFDP-1A PSZ gouges provides evidence for incorporation of footwall K-feldspar, adularia, and/or potassic pseudotachylyte, which is common within cataclasites at Gaunt Creek [Norris and Cooper, 2007; Toy *et al.*, 2011]. In addition, the major element geochemistry K₂O data are supported by XRD and/or thin section observations of K-feldspar in this unit and in the Unit 4 upper foliated gouges up to 5 m from the PSZ (Table 2) (Figures 4b and 5a-b).

Further trace element and isotopic investigations are required to determine the origin of the Unit 7 breccia. Despite being the lowest structural unit in the boreholes, the Unit 7 breccia shares the same mineral assemblage as both the upper (Unit 3 and Unit 4) and lower (Unit 6) cataclasites (quartz + potassium feldspar + plagioclase + biotite + chlorite + muscovite ± epidote + accessory minerals) (Tables 1 and 2). In thin-section, Unit 7 contains visibly more graphite and apatite than the other lithologic units, the latter being reflected in elevated P₂O₅ concentrations (Table 6) (Figures 4h and 8). However, the two Unit 7 samples lie at the intersection of the hanging wall and footwall trends in Figure 9.

The major element geochemistry of fault rocks retrieved from the DFDP drillholes and collected from nearby natural exposures generally reflects the composition of the metamorphic or plutonic protoliths [Roser and Cooper, 1990; Roser and Korsch, 1999; McClintock and Cooper, 2003; Pitcairn et al., 2006] (Figure 9). Because fault rocks within the fault core and damage zone are derived from multiple protoliths and have experienced multiple phases of deformation, including exhumation and dextral translation along the Alpine Fault [Little et al., 2005; Cooper and Norris, 2011], it is difficult to ascertain the original composition of the fault rocks, the nature of fluid mobility through time, and the amount of mass gained and lost [e.g., O'Hara, 1988; Ague, 1994; Evans and Chester, 1995] (Tables 5 and 6) (Figure 9). In order to assess original rock protolith compositions and constrain geochemical variability due to fluid-rock interactions – thus resulting in estimates for mass loss and mass gain in the fault zone – further research involving immobile trace elements and radiogenic isotopes is required.

5.3 Effect of alteration reactions on fault zone rheology

Marking the transition from the damage zone to alteration zone, Unit 1 and 2 ultramylonites exhibit microstructures indicative of deformation by dislocation creep; a retrogressed mineral assemblage in Unit 2 indicates some alteration took place in this lithologic unit [e.g., Prior, 1988; Norris and Cooper, 2003, 2007; Toy et al., 2008, 2015] (Figure 3). Within the alteration zone, brittle deformation involving cataclasis has formed Unit 3 upper unfoliated cataclasites, some of which show evidence of sealing via multiple generations of carbonates, which are comparatively sparse in the Alpine Fault mylonite sequence [A. Cooper, *pers. comm.*, 2012] (Figures 5c, 7 and 8). Shear deformation of comminuted and precipitated phyllosilicate minerals, particularly chlorite and white mica, has also resulted in the formation of networks of anastomosing

415 phyllosilicates (Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasites) (Figures 4c-d and 5g). However, in
416 the Unit 5 fault gouges, these foliations have been disrupted by cataclasis. Furthermore,
417 chlorite and potassium feldspar have altered to montmorillonite in these gouges;
418 potassium feldspar and/or albite have also reacted to form kaolinite (Tables 3 and 4)
419 (e.g., Figures 6a-d).

420 Alpine Fault mineralogical and structural variations have rheological
421 implications best understood in the context of similar natural and analog fault rocks.
422 Fault cores containing gouges (or ultracataclasite) bounded by foliated cataclasites have
423 been described from many inactive fault zones, including the Geesaman fault zone,
424 Arizona, USA, exhumed from <13 km depth [*Janecke and Evans*, 1988; *Schulz and*
425 *Evans*, 1998, 2000], the Punchbowl Fault, California, USA, exhumed from 2-4 km
426 depth [*Chester et al.*, 1993], the Median Tectonic Line, Japan, exhumed from 5-10 km
427 depth [*Jefferies et al.*, 2006], and the Zuccale Fault, exhumed from <8 km depth
428 [*Collettini and Holdsworth*, 2004]. Within these fault cores, the brecciation and/or
429 cataclasis of fault zone protolith(s) created fluid migration pathways, triggering
430 phyllosilicate mineralization via fluid-assisted hydration reactions [e.g., *Janecke and*
431 *Evans*, 1998]. When phyllosilicate minerals form an interconnected fabric with a
432 preferred orientation of (001) parallel to the shearing direction, frictional sliding can
433 occur at low resolved shear stresses because of weak (001) interlayer bond strengths
434 and/or adsorbed water films [e.g., *Moore and Lockner*, 2004; *Collettini et al.*, 2009;
435 *Tembe et al.*, 2010].

436 At higher temperatures and pressures, at depths of 3 to 15 km that encompass
437 the brittle-to-plastic transition, strain-rate and grain-size dependent diffusion-assisted
438 pressure solution creep (also termed “grain size sensitive creep”) may operate in
439 foliated fault rocks [e.g., *Sibson*, 1977; *Chester and Higgs*, 1992; *Hickman et al.*, 1995;

440 *Bos and Spiers*, 2002]. Microphysical models of this mechanism predict the shear
 441 strength of foliated fault rocks, such as the Unit 4 foliated cataclasites, is governed by:
 442 resistance to shear along phyllosilicate foliations; solution transfer in rigid mineral
 443 grains; or dilation as sliding foliae are forced to overcome geometrical incompatibilities
 444 [*Bos and Spiers*, 2002]. Analog experiments conducted to high-strain have shown that
 445 the development of a through-going phyllosilicate foliation coupled with diffusive
 446 pressure solution creep can reduce fault zone strength by 50-70% below Byerlee values
 447 ($\mu \approx 0.85$) [*Bos and Spiers*, 2002; *Niemeijer and Spiers*, 2005]. However, this
 448 mechanism will only operate in foliated gouges and/or cataclasites at low sliding
 449 velocity when the phyllosilicate foliation is interconnected and the rate of mass removal
 450 by pressure solution is fast enough to accommodate shear. Phyllosilicate foliations are
 451 disrupted at experimental sliding velocities $>0.3\text{-}1\text{ }\mu\text{m/s}$ (equivalent strain rates $>0.3\text{-}1$
 452 s^{-1}) [*Bos and Spiers*, 2001; *Niemeijer and Spiers*, 2005].

453 The frequent juxtaposition of Unit 3 nonfoliated cataclasites and Unit 4 foliated
 454 cataclasites within DFDP-1 drillcore may reflect deformation accommodated at various
 455 sliding velocities within these materials (Figures 3 and 4a). However, the occurrence of
 456 recycled fault gouge clasts, relict pseudotachylyte, and enhanced alteration in the
 457 smectite-bearing Unit 5 PSZ gouges suggest that repeated slip events occurred
 458 preferentially in these materials (e.g., Figures 4g and 6a). Therefore, understanding the
 459 frictional properties of these materials remains a primary research objective [*Boulton*
 460 *et al.*, 2012, 2014; *Niemeijer et al.*, 2016]. Although there is currently no evidence that
 461 aseismic creep occurs on the Alpine Fault, observations are limited to the past 50 years,
 462 a time span covering the late interseismic phase of the seismic cycle [*Evison*, 1971;
 463 *Sutherland et al.*, 2007; *Beavan et al.*, 1999, 2009; *Lamb and Smith*, 2013]. It is possible
 464 that temporal variations in pore fluid pressure, effective normal stress, shear stress,

sliding velocity, and pore fluid chemistry promote the operation of mechanically diverse deformation mechanisms [e.g., *Smith et al.*, 2011; *Rowe et al.*, 2011].

5.4 Effect of alteration reactions on fault zone permeability

Fault-normal permeability of hanging wall materials decreases with proximity to the highly impermeable Unit 5 PSZ gouges (from c. 10^{-15} m² to 10^{-20} m²) [*Carpenter et al.*, 2014]. These permeability data correspond with the decrease in grain size, an increase in abundance of fault parallel (or subparallel) fine-grained foliations, and/or an increase in pore-infilling, fracture-sealing clay minerals and carbonate with proximity to the PSZ gouges (Figures 4-6) [*Sutherland et al.*, 2012; *Townend et al.*, 2013; *Carpenter et al.*, 2014]. Within alteration zone-fault core lithologic units (Units 2-6), solution-assisted compaction might also lead to significant porosity reduction, further decreasing permeability and promoting pore fluid pressurization, which is another viable weakening mechanism [e.g., *Sibson*, 1991; *Sleep and Blanpied*, 1992; *Wibberley and Shimamoto*, 2003] (e.g., Figures 4c-d). A time-dependent increase in pore fluid pressure within frictionally strong fault material is compatible with repeating seismic failure without the operation of intervening aseismic creep, a deformation pattern consistent with current paleoseismological records of Alpine Fault seismicity [e.g., *Sutherland et al.*, 2007; *Berryman et al.*, 2012; *Howarth et al.*, 2012].

5.5 Implications for the Alpine Fault seismic cycle

Temporal variations in pore fluid pressure can be visualized in the context of an earthquake cycle-model (Figure 11). The creation of fractures within hanging wall and footwall fault-related rocks during an earthquake increases permeability and promotes fluid migration within the alteration zone [e.g., *Caine et al.*, 1998; *Chester and Chester*, 1998; *Mizoguchi and Ueta*, 2013]. While permeability is likely to increase within

alteration and damage zone lithologic units during a seismic event, high velocity sliding can either decrease PSZ gouge permeability through shear-induced compaction [Tanikawa *et al.*, 2012] or increase PSZ gouge permeability through shear- or thermal pressurization-induced dilation [e.g., Segall and Rice, 1995; Samuelson *et al.*, 2009; Garagash, 2012; Platt *et al.*, 2015]. Within the alteration zone, migration of carbonate-saturated meteoric fluids in chemical disequilibrium with the rock would promote the precipitation of carbonate, and phyllosilicate minerals, resulting in a time-dependent decrease in permeability and sealing. Coseismic increases in permeability may also facilitate up-dip migration of hotter fault zone fluids into the alteration zone [Sibson, 1992; Menzies *et al.*, 2016]. The net effect of enhanced fluid migration within the alteration zone is the gradual reduction in porosity and permeability within these materials through a combination of grain-scale healing and fracture sealing through precipitation (which requires advective fluid flow and infiltration) [e.g., Warr and Cox, 2001; Townend *et al.*, 2013]. Thus, fault strength increases, and permeability decreases, during the interseismic phase of the earthquake cycle (Figure 11).

A limitation of this qualitative model, derived from data on surface-outcrop fault rocks and supported by results from the shallow DFDP-1 boreholes, is that it does not address lithological, spatial, and temporal variations in fault zone healing rates. Within framework silicate-rich fault core gouges, compaction and frictional strengthening via solution-assisted mass transfer processes occur most rapidly at temperatures $\geq 150^{\circ}\text{C}$ on short time scales (days to weeks or months) [Renard *et al.*, 2000; Niemeijer *et al.*, 2002; Tenthorey and Cox, 2006; Gratier *et al.*, 2009, 2011]. However, the healing mechanism in phyllosilicate-rich gouges, such as those described here in DFDP-1A and 1B, is poorly understood. In the San Andreas Fault Observatory at Depth (SAFOD), for example, trioctahedral smectite (saponite)-rich gouges are

actively creeping [e.g., *Holdsworth et al.*, 2011]. Laboratory experiments on fault gouge analogues indicate that phyllosilicate-rich gouges do not heal via solid-state or solution-assisted mass transfer [e.g., *Dieterich*, 1978; *Bos and Spiers*, 2000; *Niemeijer and Spiers*, 2006]. Products of alteration reactions observed in the smectite-bearing Unit 5 gouges present in DFDP-1A and 1B, as well as other localities along strike of the fault, include calcite and iron hydroxide (Tables 3 and 4) (Figure 4g). Porosity reduction via precipitation of these minerals as cement may be influential in sealing the fault core gouges in the upper ~2 km of the fault (Figure 11).

Permeability changes in strike-slip fault zones as a function of gouge compaction, crack sealing, and fluid flow from depth have been modeled quantitatively [*Gratier et al.*, 2003, *Gratier and Gueydan*, 2007]. According to these models, late interseismic lithostatic pore fluid overpressures develop most quickly at two different depth intervals: in the upper crust ($30^{\circ}\text{C} < T < 90^{\circ}\text{C}$) where calcite is available for mass transfer and relatively fast sealing of veins, and at depth ($150^{\circ}\text{C} < T < 300^{\circ}\text{C}$) due to increased quartz solubility combined with inflow of fluids from the lower crust. In turn, depth-dependent lithostatic pore fluid pressures develop within 270 years following an earthquake [*Gratier and Gueydan*, 2007]. Although these models depend critically on the kinetics of the involved dissolution and precipitation reactions as well as on diffusion rates, 270 years is within the recurrence interval of Alpine Fault earthquakes (329 ± 68 years) [*Berryman et al.*, 2012].

Abundant evidence exists for persistent 100 m to 1 km-thick damage zones in the shallow crust (< 3 km) [e.g., *Chester and Logan*, 1986; *Li et al.*, 1990, 2000, 2004; *Mitchell and Faulkner*, 2009; *Yang et al.*, 2011]. However, within the fault core-alteration zone at Gaunt Creek, and elsewhere along the Alpine Fault, hanging wall fractures have been sealed by authigenic precipitation of calcite and phyllosilicates

[Sutherland *et al.*, 2012; Townend *et al.*, 2013] (Table 3) (Figures 5c, 5f, and 7-9). This sealing has decreased fault normal permeability and increased rock mass competency, potentially promoting interseismic strain buildup (Figure 11). Further research aimed towards understanding mass transfer processes within the fault zone is integral to underpinning the mechanisms responsible for variations in late interseismic fault zone strength [e.g., Finzi *et al.*, 2011].

To quantify the physical processes driving the seismic cycle on the Alpine Fault, better constraints on mineral reactions, reaction rates, diffusion rates, compaction, and healing rates in the lab and in naturally deformed fault rocks are needed [e.g., Renard *et al.*, 2000, 2012; Gratier *et al.*, 2003]. In addition, geophysical and geochemical observations of fluid flux during interseismic, coseismic, and postseismic periods, are needed for numerical models that quantify how fluid migration, porosity, permeability, and rock strength evolve at depth and during exhumation [Menzies *et al.*, 2016]. Incorporating permeability and fluid pressure evolution variables into empirical rate- and state-dependent constitutive laws will ultimately better constrain how fluid-rock interactions influence fault strength evolution, strain accumulation, and the timing and mode of earthquake rupture nucleation [e.g., Sibson, 1992; Segall and Rice, 1995; Sibson and Rowland, 2003; Hillers and Miller, 2006; Ben-Zion, 2008; Samuelson *et al.*, 2009].

6 Conclusions

1. On the Alpine Fault at Gaunt Creek, a fault core extends into the hanging wall up to c. 20-30 m from the PSZ assuming that the first documented occurrence of retrogressed mineral assemblages in the Unit 2 brown–green–black

ultramylonites represents the maximum extent of alteration zone processes within the fault core.

2. The presence of the low-temperature clay minerals montmorillonite and kaolinite, along with the high measured LOI values, in the brown smectite-bearing Unit 5 PSZ gouges suggests that these units are the most highly altered rocks recovered. The presence of variably comminuted vein calcite and secondary calcite cement is reflected in the major element geochemistry of the PSZ gouges, where CaO concentrations are higher than in adjacent Unit 6 lower cataclasites.
3. Similar montmorillonite-bearing Unit 5 PSZ gouges were collected from thrust segments of the central Alpine Fault at Little Man River, Waikukupa River, and Robinson Creek, an along-strike distance of 120 km. These field observations delimit the minimum near-surface extent of principal slip zone materials recovered during DFDP-1.
4. Minerals, microstructures, and major elements measured in the DFDP-1 fault rocks reflect seismic cycle processes. Within the alteration zone, off-fault damage has created brittle fractures that facilitate the infiltration of meteoric and (potentially) metamorphic or rock-exchanged hydrothermal fluids. These fluids promote carbonate and phyllosilicates precipitation, which in turn gradually decrease porosity and permeability through a combination of grain-scale healing and fracture sealing (e.g., Table 7, Figures 3-6 and 11).
5. Interseismic increases in fault strength promoted by fluid-rock interactions allow the Alpine Fault to accumulate the stored elastic strain energy necessary for earthquake rupture nucleation and propagation [e.g., *Kanamori and Brodsky, 2001*].

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Location map, Alpine Fault, South Island, New Zealand. (a) The Alpine Fault forms the spine of the Southern Alps and marks the boundary between the Pacific and Australian plates. The angular velocity describing the relative motion of the Pacific and Australian plates can be resolved into ~39 mm/yr parallel to the Alpine Fault and 6-9 mm/yr perpendicular to it [Beavan *et al.*, 2010]. (b) DEM image of the central South Island showing the location and strike of the Alpine Fault, which is subdivided into its central and southern sections [Barth *et al.*, 2013]. Locations where fault gouge and/or cataclasite samples were collected for XRF and XRD analyses are starred in the figure (yellow star with bold outline), and fault orientation is given. At the Martyr River, only XRD analysis was conducted (yellow star). Additional exposures of thrust segment fault gouge not analyzed are shown as yellow circles; descriptions of these exposures were given by Reed [1964], Wright [1998], Simpson [1992] and McClintock [1999]. Alpine Fault cataclasites were also described by Sibson *et al.* [1979], Simpson *et al.* [1994], Norris and Cooper [2007], Toy [2007], Easterbrook [2010], Toy *et al.* [2011], and Scott [2012].

Figure 2. Hillshade view of the Gaunt Creek catchment derived from LiDAR data. The location of natural exposures of the faulted contact between (primarily) Pacific-plate derived cataclasites and Australian-plate derived cataclasites are shown with stars and the location of DFDP-1 drillholes are shown with crossed hexagons. Elevation of the contact is given in meters above seal level (asl). The Gaunt Creek catchment lies at the junction between dextral thrust and thrust segments of the fault [Barth *et al.*, 2012], and

the strike of the fault changes from southwest to northeast across the creek. A 4-point solution constructed using the strike between the scarp and terrace exposures and the contact elevations yields an average fault dip of 28-30°.

Figure 3. Schematic cross-sections of fault-related rocks comprising the DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B boreholes at Gaunt Creek with reference to outcrop geology. U2 denotes the uppermost documented occurrence of altered Unit 2 brown-green-black ultramylonites in each borehole. Colors on the cross-section indicate the relative proportions of each lithological unit recovered in the cored interval (see Key). Also pictured are core-scale examples of major lithological units identified in DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B. Each picture is a 180° core scan, except for 1B 144.75-144.95 m, which is a flat core scan. Colored boxes around each core-scale image correspond to the borehole depth interval from which they were sampled. Figure modified from *Sutherland et al.* [2012] and *Toy et al.* [2015].

Figure 4. Plane-polarized light (PPL) optical microscope (OM) images of representative DFDP-1 fault rock lithologic units. Borehole depths are given on each image. 1A indicates DFDP-1A and 1B indicates DFDP-1B. (a) Unit 2 brown-green-black ultramylonite. In this OM image, the disjunctive cleavage spacing is < 1 mm and defined by fine-grained phyllosilicates and opaques (dashed white lines). Unit 2 is commonly interlayered with Unit 3 and a typical contact is shown (solid white line). (b) Abundant e-twinning calcite in a Unit 4 foliated cataclasite. A planar foliation appears at the bottom of the images, and it is defined by fine-grained opaques, chlorite, muscovite, plagioclase, potassium feldspar, and quartz. (c) Unit 4 foliated cataclasite with boudinaged porphyroclasts of quartz, plagioclase, and calcite. Chlorite commonly occurs in zones of dilatation. Opaques, muscovite, chlorite, and rare epidote, form the foliation (dashed white lines). (d) Unit 4 foliated cataclasite with anastomosing foliation

defined by chlorite and muscovite with accessory graphite (dashed white lines). (e) Unit 6a lower cataclasite derived from a granitoid protolith. Intragranular fracture in center clast is filled with chlorite; matrix is composed of ultrafine-grained chlorite, muscovite, quartz, and plagioclase. (f) Unit 6d lower cataclasite with an anastomosing foliation of ribbon quartz and muscovite grains derived from a gneissic protolith (cf. Figure 6f) (dashed white lines). (g) Gouge clast in lower DFDP-1B Unit 5 gouge. Note concentration of phyllosilicates along margins of gouge clast (arrows). (h) Unit 7 breccia clasts have a mylonitic foliation (dashed white lines) defined by opaques and elongated plagioclase and quartz; accessory graphite and apatite are also common.

Figure 5. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) backscattered electron (BSE) images of representative DFDP-1 fault rock lithologic units. All thin-sections are not oriented. Borehole depths are given on each image. 1A indicates DFDP-1A and 1B indicates DFDP-1B. For all microstructures: Qtz is quartz; KSp is potassium feldspar; Pl is plagioclase; Ms is muscovite; Cl is chlorite; Bt is biotite; Sm is smectite; Cal is calcite; Op is opaques; Ilm is ilmenite; Ttn is titanite; Ep is epidote; Zrn is zircon. (a) Unit 2 brown-green-black ultramylonite. A ~mm-spaced disjunctive cleavage appears as fine-grained, parallel grains of plagioclase (oligoclase) and muscovite with accessory titanite. Shear sense given by stair-stepped quartz clast. (b) Unit 2 brown-green-black ultramylonite with an anastomosing network of cataclasite-filled fractures, which yield a shear sense. (c) Unit 3 upper unfoliated cataclasite composed of angular clasts of altered Unit 2 cemented with calcite (similar to the mosaic breccia of *Woodcock and Mort* [2008]). (d) Typical Unit 3 upper unfoliated cataclasite random-fabric matrix composed of altered plagioclase porphyroclasts, quartz, and calcite with embayed margins. (e) Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasite which has a Unit 2 protolith identical to image (a). Note strongly corroded clast margins, enhanced porosity, and ultrafine-

grained matrix chlorite and muscovite. (f) Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasite with foliation defined by comminuted grains. Protolith appears similar to Unit 2 in image (a), but alteration to chlorite and white mica is ubiquitous. Note also the presence of potassium feldspar, which is not present in Unit 2. (g) Unit 4 upper foliated cataclasite with foliation defined by aligned phyllosilicates that appear to link in an anastomosing network similar to an S-C'' shear fabric. (h) A foliated portion of a Unit 6d lower cataclasite. The foliation is defined by ~100 µm-long aligned muscovite grains sourced from a gneissic protolith. Calcite is sparse.

Figure 6. Scanning electron microscope (SEM) backscattered electron (BSE) images of representative DFDP-1 fault rock lithologic units. Borehole depths are given on each image. 1A indicates DFDP-1A and 1B indicates DFDP-1B. (a) Unit 5 gouge containing reworked gouge clasts (gc). Several types of gouges occur within the central gouge clast. Other prominent clast types include variably altered Unit 2 ultramylonite, calcite, and potassium feldspar with inclusions of quartz and titanite. (b) Boudinaged and faulted hairline calcite-veins in a more competent Unit 5 gouge. (c) A boundary between a quartz-calcite clast in the Unit 6b lower foliated cataclasite and a Unit 5 gouge. Multiple fractures are sealed by calcite (arrows). (d) Gouge clast within a Unit 5 gouge. Calcite occurs as crenulated vein fragments and embayed clasts (arrows). Bright clast is coated in skeletal titanite. (e) Unit 6d lower cataclasite clasts derived from a granitoid protolith. Central clast is potassium feldspar with myrmekitic intergrowths of quartz in plagioclase. (f) Unit 6d lower cataclasite clast derived from a gneissic protolith. Note large ribbon quartz grains and muscovite, which is fracturing along cleavage planes and being incorporated into the matrix. (g) Unit 6d lower cataclasite matrix with rare calcite cement, which is more common near PSZ gouges. Overall, Unit 6 cataclasites are more porous than Unit 3 and 4 upper cataclasites (pores

1089 are black in BSE images). (h) Augen-bearing mylonite in the Unit 7 breccia. Foliation
1090 is defined by elongated quartz, chlorite, and plagioclase.

1091 **Figure 7.** Variations in relative major element oxide abundance, given as wt. %, with
1092 depth in DFDP-1A. A semi-transparent gray line marks the depth of the Unit 5 PSZ
1093 gouge (labeled PSZ), which is the contact between hanging wall lithologic units (Units
1094 1-5) and footwall gravels (Unit 8). See text for details.

1095 **Figure 8.** Variations in relative major element oxide abundance, given as wt. %, with
1096 depth in DFDP-1B. A semi-transparent gray line marks the depth of the Unit 5 PSZ-1
1097 gouge (labeled PSZ-1), which is the contact between hanging wall lithologic units
1098 (Units 1-5) and footwall lithologic units (Units 6 and 7). Another semi-transparent gray
1099 line marks the depth of the Unit 5 PSZ-2 gouge (labeled PSZ-2), which is the contact
1100 between Unit 6 footwall cataclasites and Unit 7 footwall breccia. See text for details.

1101 **Figure 9.** Ternary plots of variations in major element geochemistry for samples
1102 analyzed from DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B. All units are wt. %. Hanging wall fault-related
1103 rocks are grouped: Units 1 and 2 mylonites (green down triangles), and Units 3 and 4
1104 cataclasites (yellow up triangles). Unit 5 gouges (DFDP-1A PSZ, DFDP-1B PSZ-1 and
1105 PSZ-2) are grouped together (red diamonds). Footwall lithologic units are: Unit 6
1106 footwall cataclasites (green squares), Unit 7 footwall breccia (grey squares), and Unit
1107 8 footwall gravels (orange squares). Also plotted are average hanging wall protolith,
1108 Otago Schist (n=38), Alpine Schist (n=25), Caples Schist (n=20), and metabasite
1109 (n=18) compositions from *Pitcairn* [2004]. Average footwall protolith, Karamea Suite
1110 granitoids, Greenland Group greywacke and argillite, compositions were calculated
1111 from data in PETLAB, most of which were published in *Nathan* [1976, 1998], *Roser et*
1112 *al.* [1995], *Tulloch and Palmer* [1990], and *Tulloch et al.* (2009) (results downloaded

from PETLAB <http://pet.gns.cri.nz>). Purple shaded regions around each footwall protolith composition represent $\pm 1\sigma$. (a) A ternary plot of Al_2O_3 - Na_2O + K_2O - MgO + Fe_2O_3 variations. Hanging wall lithologic units follow a trend between Otago Schist/Alpine Schist and metabasite protolith compositions; the hanging wall cataclasites are relatively more enriched in MgO + Fe_2O_3 . Footwall lithologic units follow a trend between Unit 7 footwall breccia and Karamea Suite protolith, but some Unit 6 cataclasites are relatively enriched in Al_2O_3 - Na_2O + K_2O . (b) A ternary plot of Al_2O_3 - CaO - MgO + Fe_2O_3 variations. Hanging wall lithologic units do not follow a trend between protolith compositions, but rather follow a trend from Otago Schist/Alpine Schist protolith composition towards relative CaO -enrichment. A single footwall cataclasite, from DFDP-1B 143.9 m immediate above PSZ-2, has a higher amount of CaO . Footwall lithologic units follow a trend between Unit 7 footwall breccia/Greenland Group argillite and Karamea Suite protolith, but some Unit 6 cataclasites have relatively more Al_2O_3 .

Figure 10. During exhumation from subgreenschist facies temperatures and pressures, Alpine Fault cataclasites and gouges have undergone multiple phases of alteration. Following *Warr and Cox* [2001] and *Chamberlain et al.* [1999], primary non-oxidized and oxidized alteration reactions are outlined in the figure. K-feldspar is not present in Alpine or Otago Schist protoliths, but it is observed in DFDP-1A and DFDP-1B lithologic units, particularly below PSZ-2 in DFDP-1B. See text for more details.

Figure 11. Plate boundary cross-section and schematic model of earthquake cycle processes occurring on the Alpine Fault at Gaunt Creek. (a) There are several fluid sources within the Alpine Fault Zone, including mantle (green arrows) and metamorphic (yellow arrows) fluids, but meteoric water (blue arrows) is volumetrically

1138 dominant within the brittle crust [modified from *Menzies et al.*, 2016]. (b-d) Diagrams
 1139 illustrating key processes that affect fault core permeability and, potentially, rheology.
 1140 The Alpine Fault forms an impermeable barrier throughout the earthquake cycle (bold
 1141 diagonal line). (b) Immediately after an earthquake, hanging wall and footwall
 1142 permeability is relatively high due to off-fault fractures (i.e., damage). Damage is likely
 1143 greater in the hanging wall [e.g., *Ma and Beroza*, 2008]. Short black lines denote open
 1144 fractures; open purple circles represent phyllosilicates. (c) As meteoric fluids pond
 1145 against the impermeable fault, carbonate (calcite) precipitates and seals open fractures
 1146 during the interseismic period. The footwall is isolated from calcite-rich meteoric
 1147 fluids. Short magenta lines denote calcite-sealed fractures. (d) During the late-
 1148 interseismic period, open fractures near the Alpine Fault are sealed with calcite.
 1149 Phyllosilicate nucleation and growth occurs more slowly; phyllosilicates within the
 1150 fault core likely formed over multiple earthquake cycles [e.g., *Meunier*, 2005].

1151 *Table captions*

1152 **Table 1** Description of lithologic units recovered in DFDP-1 modified from *Toy et al.*
 1153 [2015]. Grain size describes matrix grains and clasts and/or porphyroclasts.
 1154 Abbreviations are: Qtz is quartz, Pl is plagioclase (primarily oligoclase and/or albite),
 1155 Bt is biotite, Ms is muscovite, Cal is calcite, Am is amphibole, Ep is epidote, Cl is
 1156 chlorite, Ilm is ilmenite, Ttn is titanite, Sme is smectite, Mnt is montmorillonite, Kln is
 1157 kaolinite, Gt is goethite, Mn is manganese oxide-hydroxide, Zrn is zircon, Ap is apatite,
 1158 Gr is graphite.

1159 **Table 2** Qualitative X-ray diffraction data for selected samples recovered from DFDP-
 1160 1A and DFDP-1B core. Mineralogy of plagioclase and feldspar could not be discerned.
 1161 (*) denotes that sample 1a_66_5 may contain both chlorite and biotite. No samples

1162 were available for the core interval below PSZ-2 in DFDP-1B, and those samples were
1163 analyzed with quantitative XRD (Table 3). For DFDP-1B 128.80m, “w” and “gw” stand
1164 for white and green-white, the color of the specific sample.

1165 **Table 3** Quantitative X-ray diffraction data for selected samples recovered from DFDP-
1166 1B core. Mineralogy of plagioclase and feldspar could not be discerned. The
1167 dioctahedral smectite present is montmorillonite-15Å. White mica denotes muscovite-
1168 2M1, but illite-2M1 may also be present. Chlorite is clinochlore-1MIIB, and the
1169 amphibole is actinolite. Amorphous phases were not identified and results are
1170 normalized to 100%. All samples from the DFDP-1B borehole, latitude/longitude co-
1171 ordinates 43.3141°S/170.3259°E.

1172 **Table 4** Quantitative X-ray diffraction data for cataclasites and fault gouges collected
1173 at localities along strike of the central and southern Alpine Fault. (*) Sample 34119 was
1174 from a weathered block and was not a separate from sample 34104. Lithologic units are
1175 described in the text. Abbreviations are: fol, foliations present; uccl, the most highly
1176 comminuted, striated gouge that marks the HW/FW contact; rim, a foliated cataclasite
1177 present on the rim of a serpentinite pod. WR denotes whole rock, and < 2 µm denotes
1178 clay-sized fraction. Mineralogy of plagioclase and feldspar could not be discerned. The
1179 dioctahedral smectite present is montmorillonite-15Å. White mica denotes muscovite-
1180 2M1, but illite-2M1 may also be present. Chlorite is clinochlore-1MIIB, the serpentine
1181 is lizardite-1M, and the amphibole is actinolite. There was insufficient kaolin present
1182 to discern kaolinite from dickite. Amorphous phases were not identified, and results are
1183 normalized to 100%. Location latitude/longitude co-ordinates are: Little Man River
1184 43.1400°S/170.2818°E; Gaunt Creek Terrace and Gaunt Creek Scarp
1185 43.3141°S/170.3259°E; Stoney Creek 43.2290°S/170.1239°E; Waikukupa River
1186 43.2622°S/170.0490°E; Robinson Creek 43.4956°S/169.1350°E; Martyr River

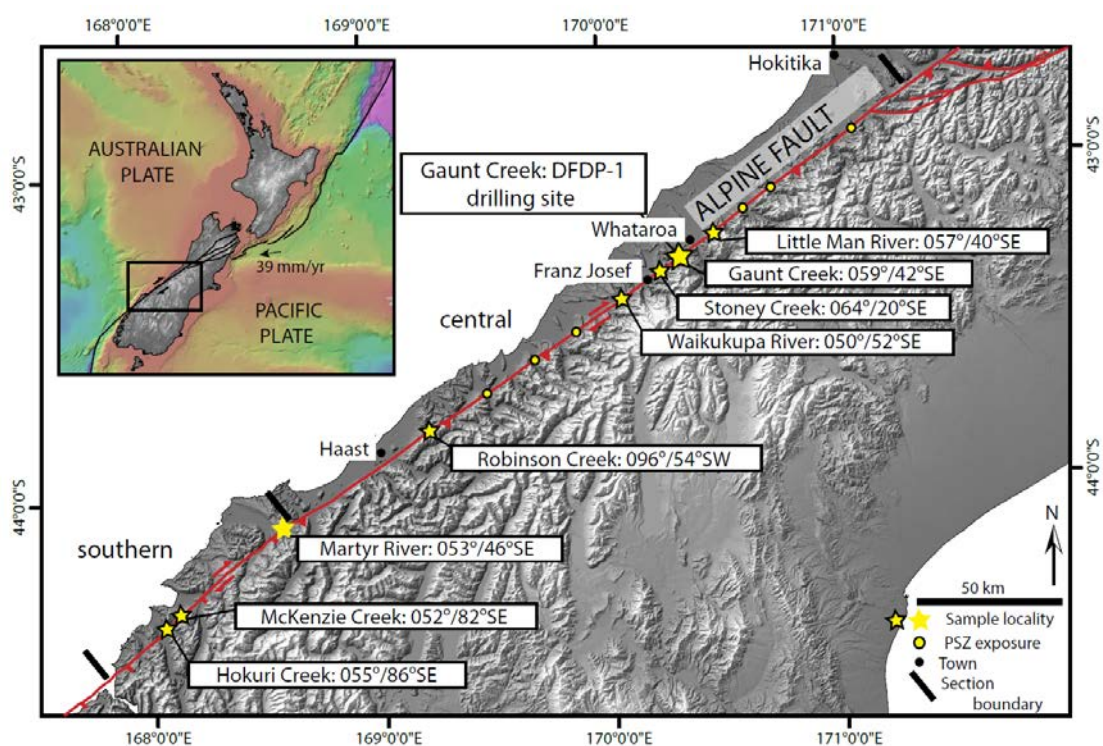
1187 44.1326°S/168.5536°E; McKenzie Creek 44.3599°S/168.1390°E; Hokuri Creek
1188 44.4062°S/168.0648°E.

1189 **Table 5** Major element geochemistry of DFDP-1A samples from XRF and ICP-AES
1190 analysis. All values are in wt. %. Fe₂O_{3t} denotes total Fe₂O₃. NA denotes not analyzed.
1191 All “DFDP” samples analyzed with ICP-AES; instrument precision for this method is
1192 ±0.02 wt.%. Analytical error for this method varies with major element oxide and
1193 sample abundance of major element oxide. Repeat standard analyses yield the
1194 following maximum analytical errors: SiO₂ ±2.20%; TiO₂ ±1.55%; Al₂O₃ ±2.68%;
1195 Fe₂O₃ ±2.52%; MnO ±0.01%; MgO ±1.60%; CaO ±5.44%; Na₂O ±9.00%; K₂O ±
1196 2.53%. Other oxide abundances (wt. %) were within instrument precision with
1197 analytical errors up to 100%. “RW_XRF” samples were analyzed with XRF; instrument
1198 precision for this method was not available. Repeat standard analyses yield the
1199 following maximum analytical errors: SiO₂ ±0.20%; TiO₂ ±0.44%; Al₂O₃ ±0.34%;
1200 Fe₂O₃ ±0.21%; MnO ±10.88%; MgO ±2.32%; CaO ±0.44%; Na₂O ±8.32%; K₂O ±
1201 0.60%. A maximum LOI analytical error ±11.55% was calculated from repeat standard
1202 analyses provided by ALS Minerals. LOI, listed as percentage by weight, is a measure
1203 of the volatile content of the samples, and this measurement includes the weight loss
1204 due to both dehydration and decarbonation reactions

1205 **Table 6** Major element geochemistry of DFDP-1B samples from ICP-AES analysis.
1206 All values are in wt. %. Fe₂O_{3t} denotes total Fe₂O₃. NSS denotes not sufficient sample.
1207 Instrument precision and analytical error as reported in the Table 5 caption.

1208 **Table 7** Balanced alteration reactions and solid volume changes associated with each
1209 reaction. All reactions balanced assuming simplified end-member mineral formula.
1210 Calculated solid volume changes assume the product SiO₂ precipitates as quartz;

1211 however, SiO_2 can leave the reaction site as an aqueous species. Iron may be present in
 1212 clinocllore and montmorillonite minerals, but reactions are balanced assuming only
 1213 octahedral magnesium cations. Reactions 1-8 from *Wintsch and Yeh* [2013]. End
 1214 member formulas from *Holland and Powell* [1998]; end member illite formula from
 1215 *Deer et al.* [1992]. Note the density of phyllosilicate minerals can vary with cation ratio
 1216 and interlayer hydration state [e.g., *Totten et al.*, 2002].



1218 Figure 1

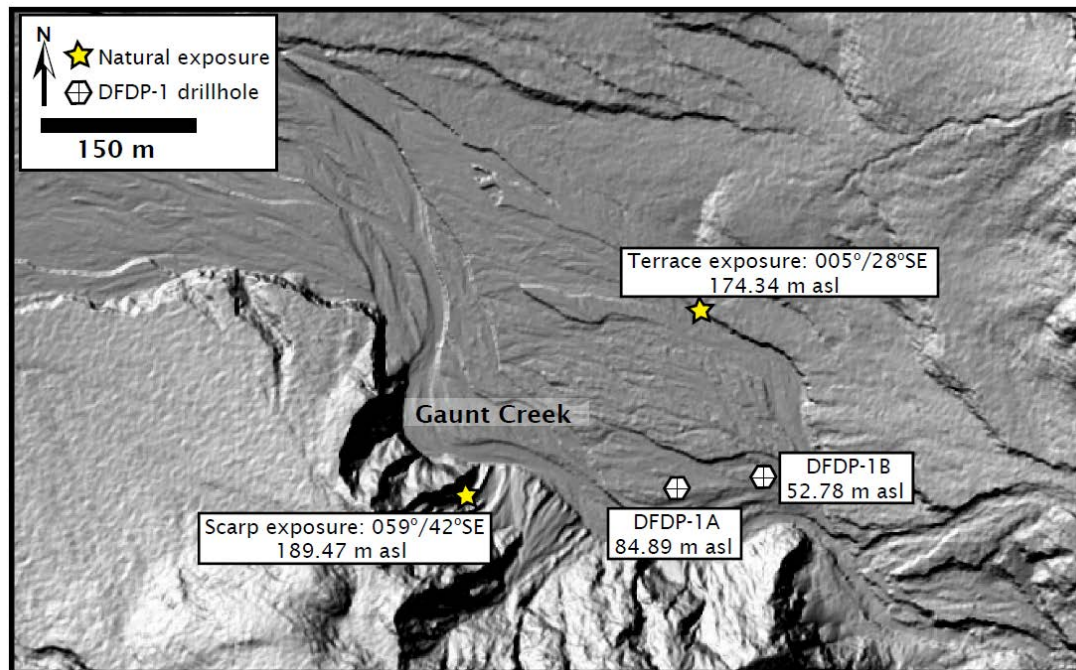


Figure 2

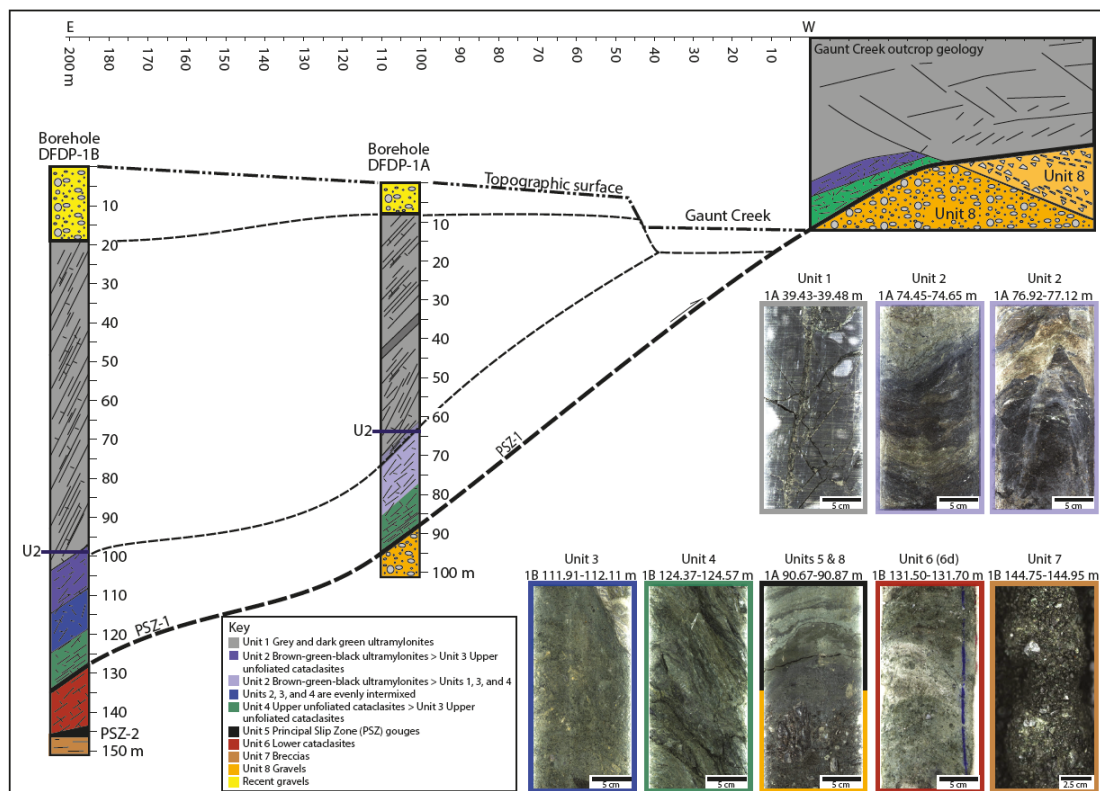
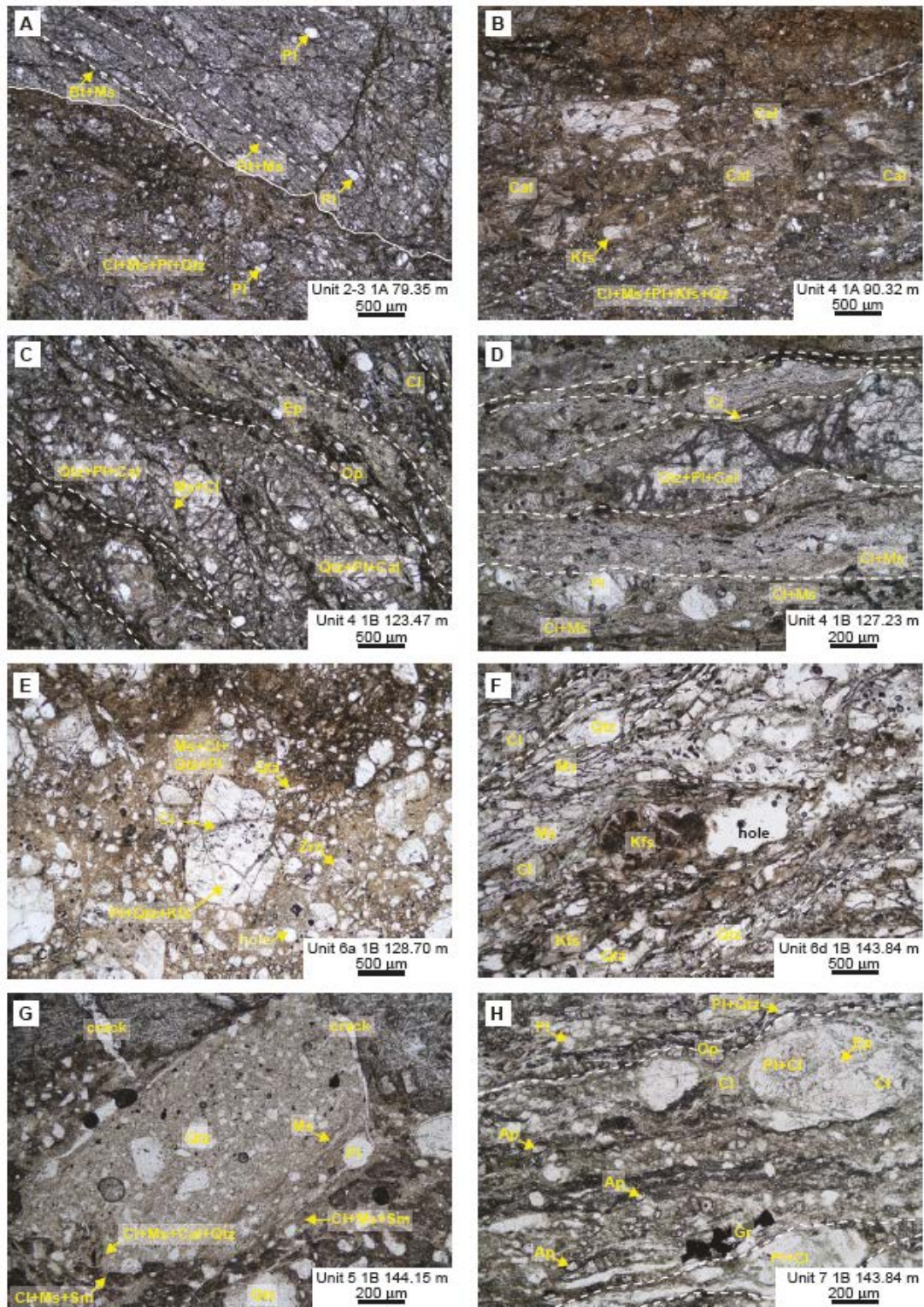


Figure 3



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1225 Figure 4

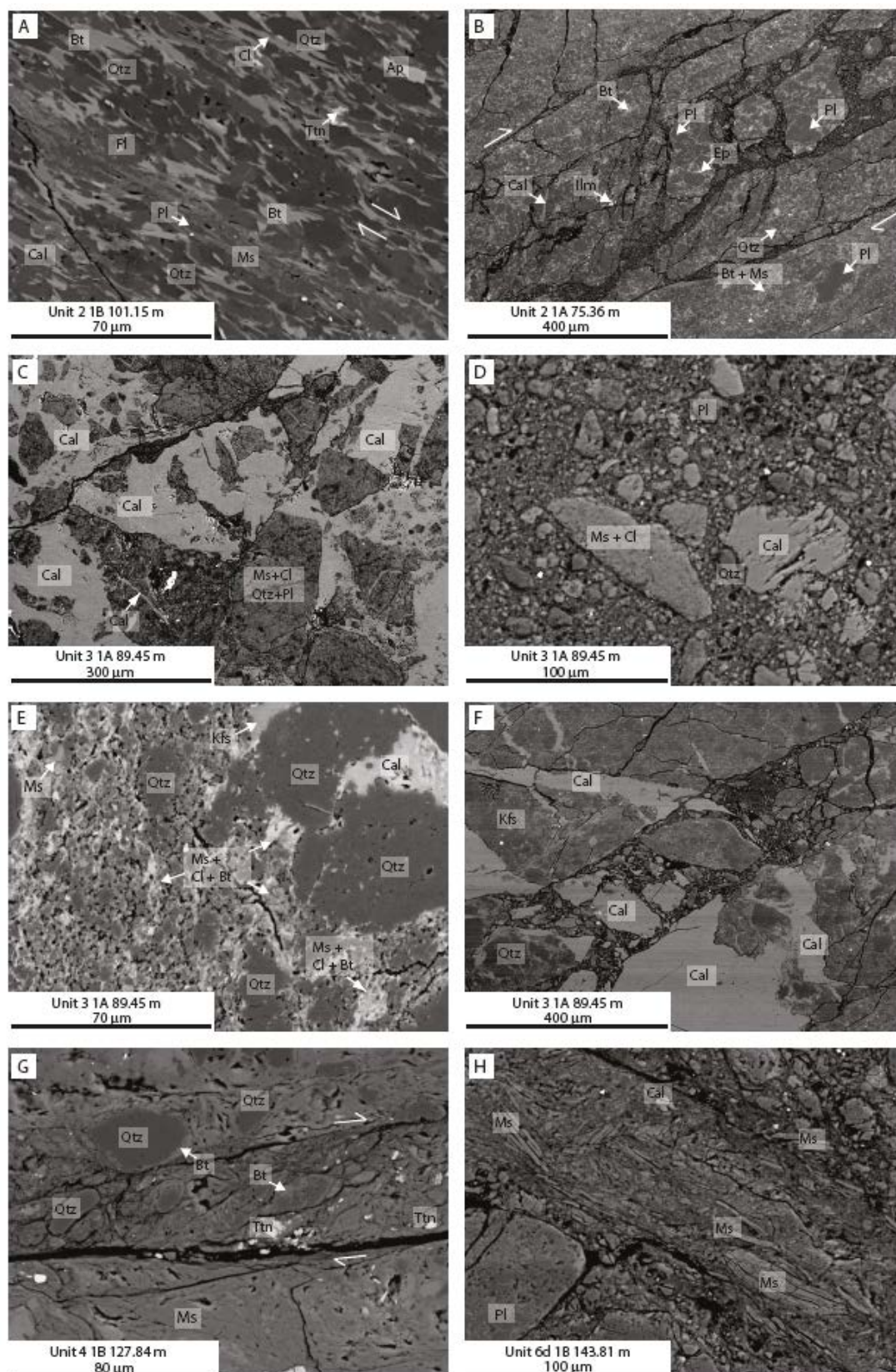
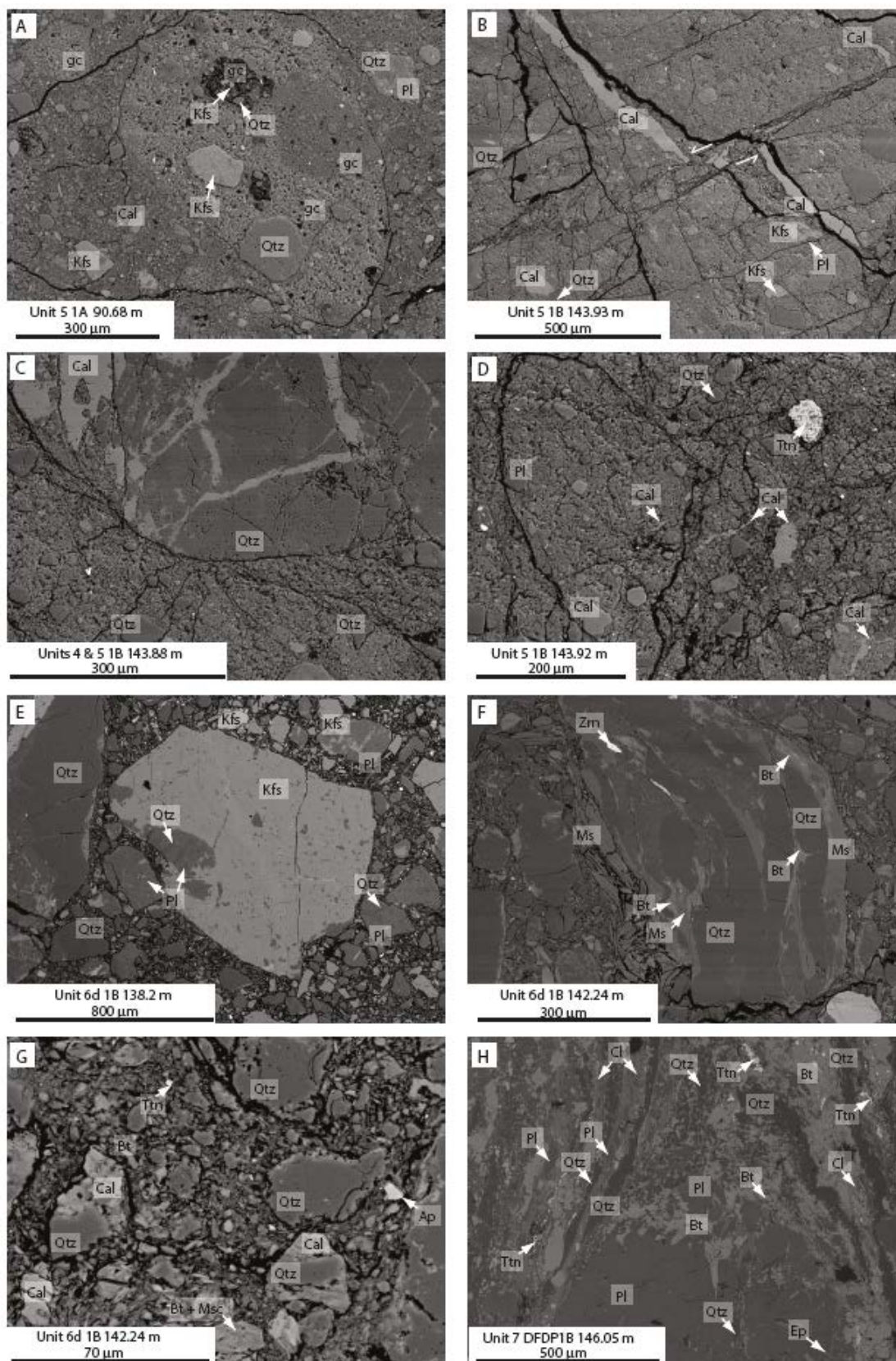
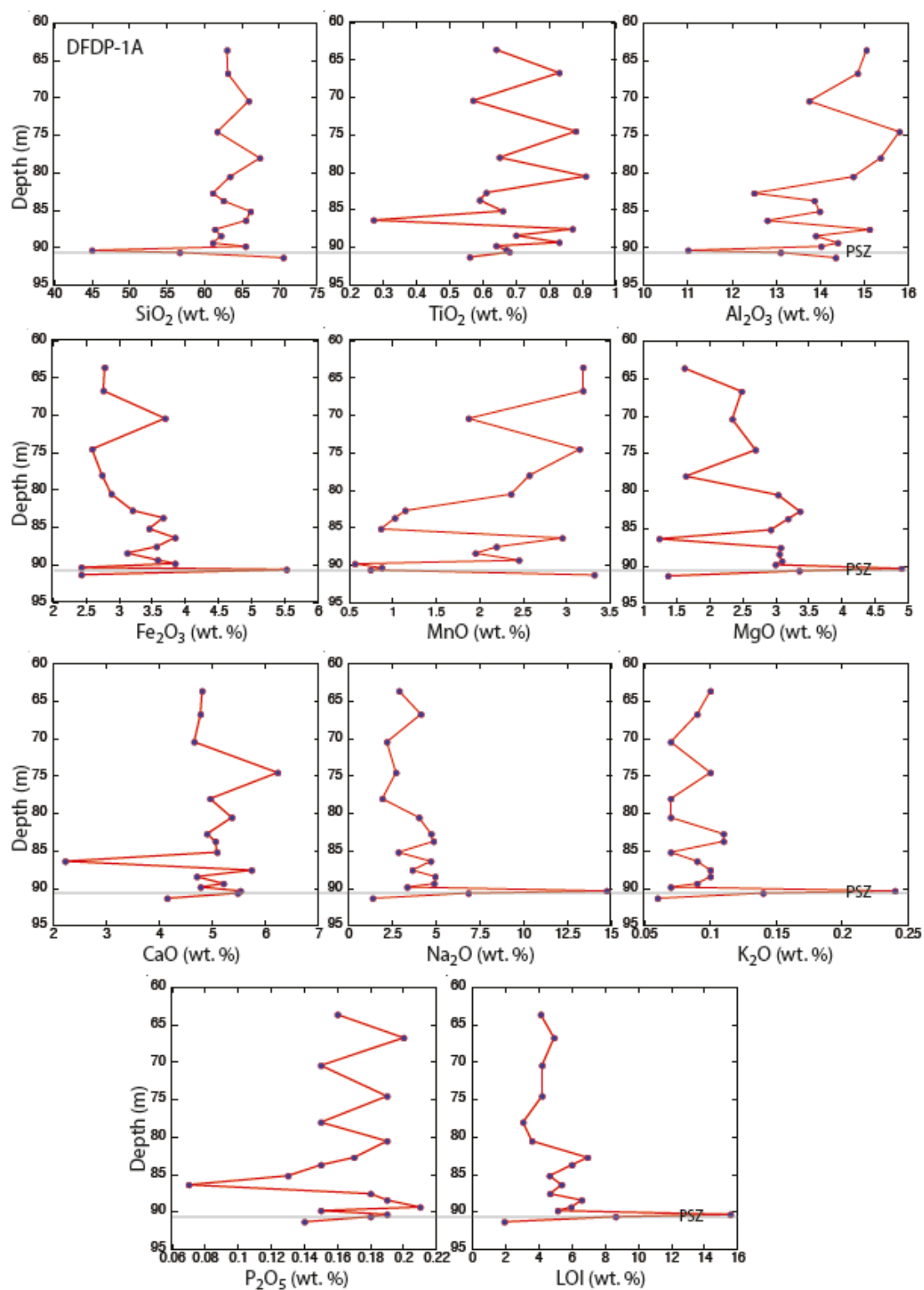


Figure 5



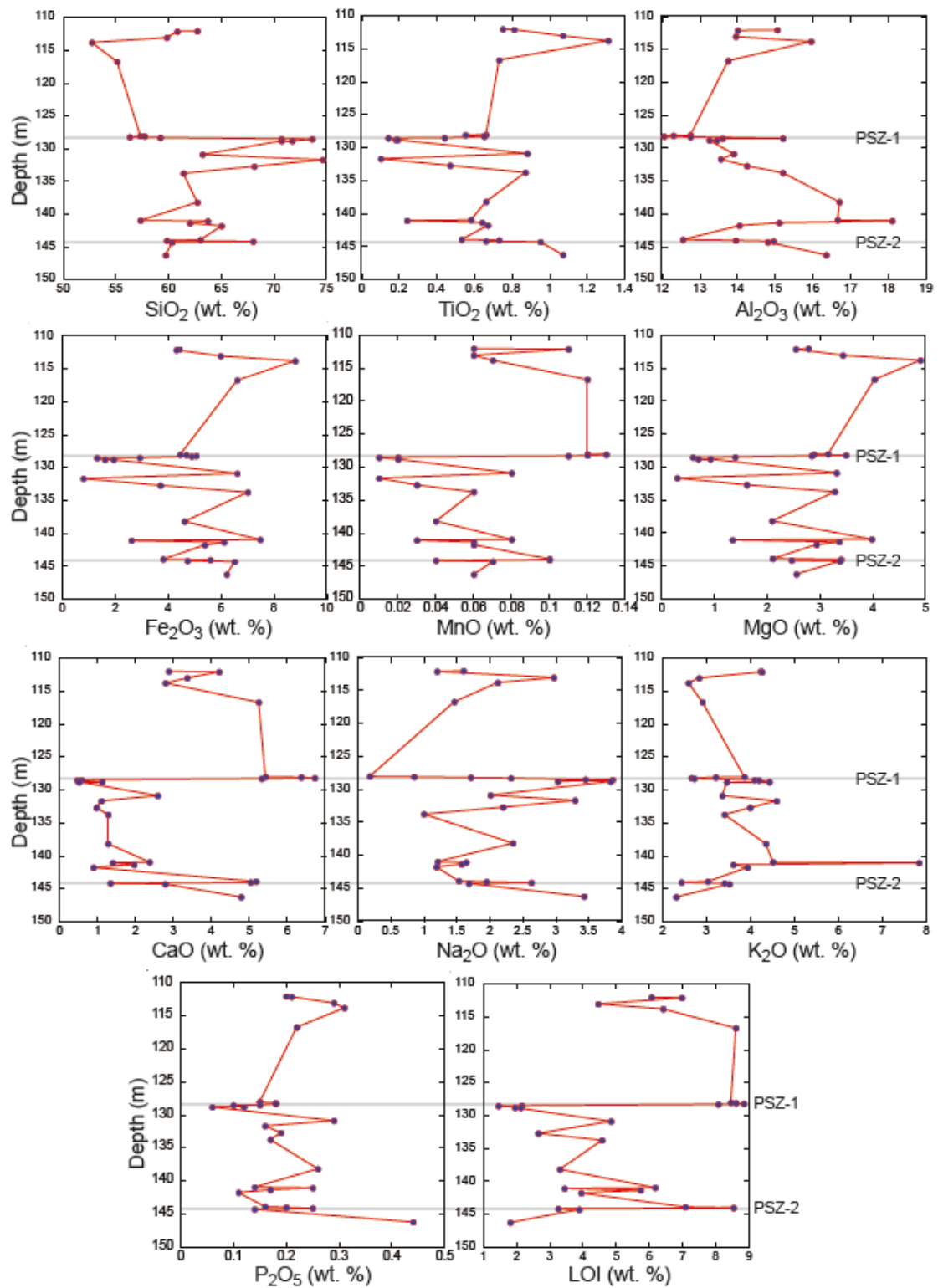
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1229 Figure 6



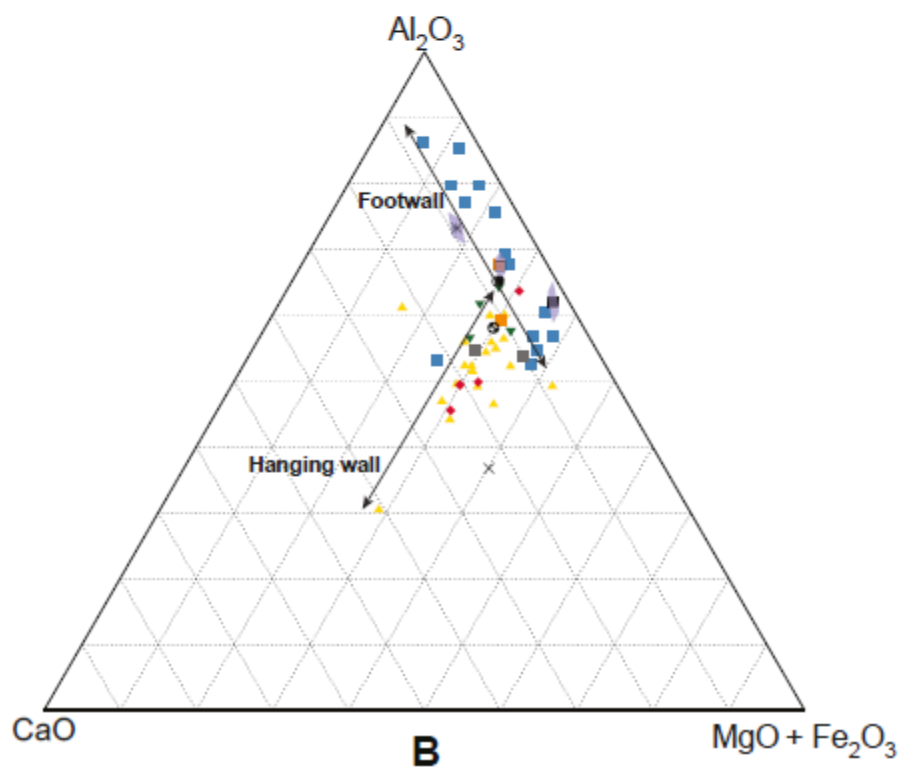
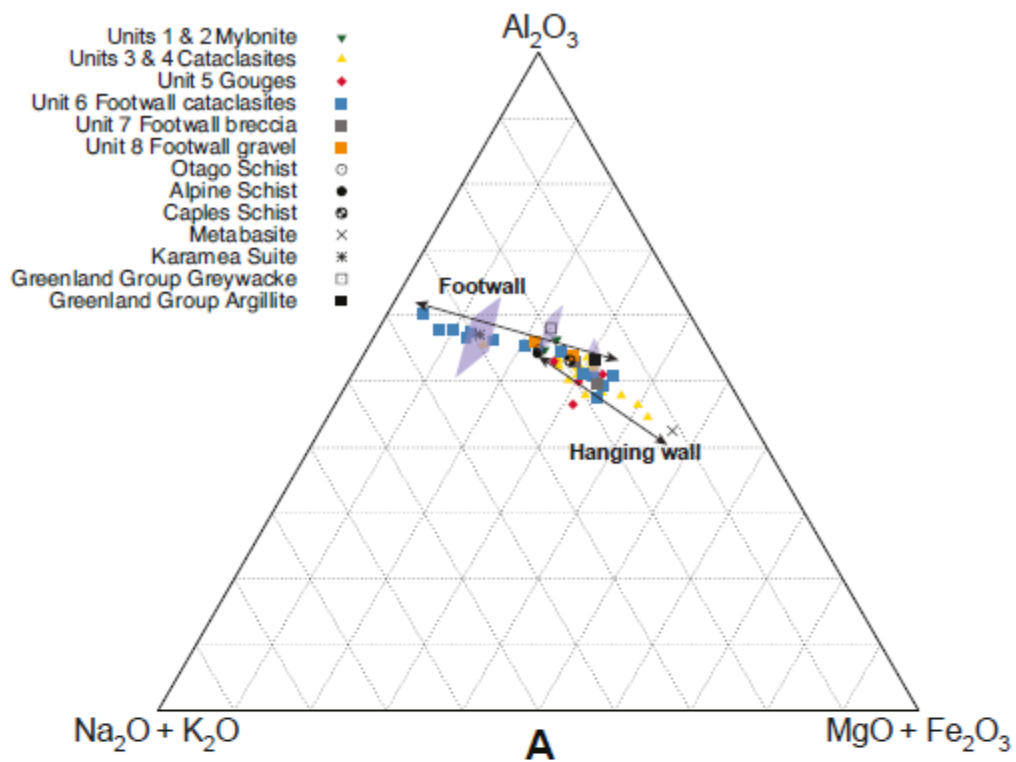
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1231 Figure 7



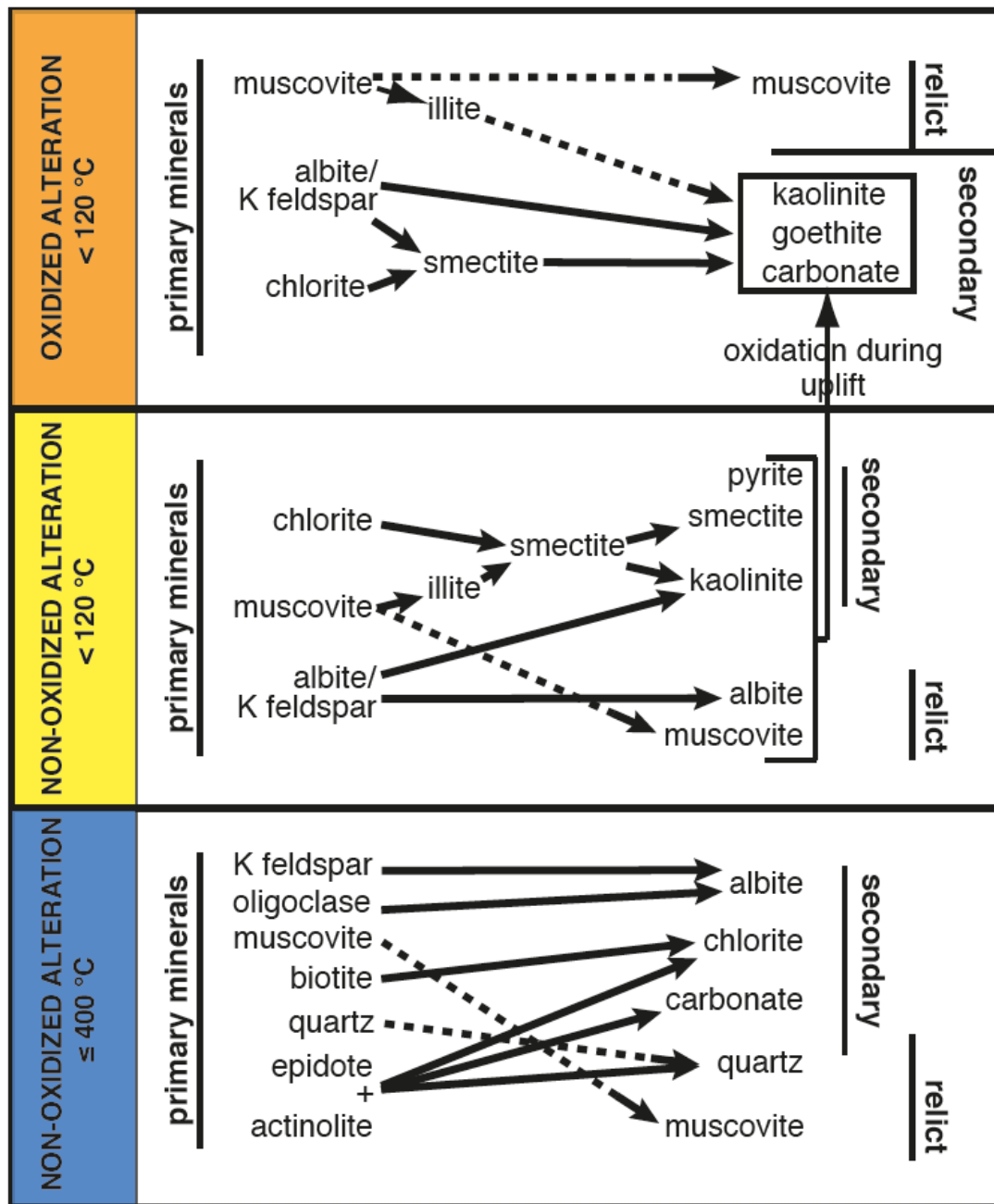
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1233 Figure 8



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1235 Figure 9



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1237 Figure 10

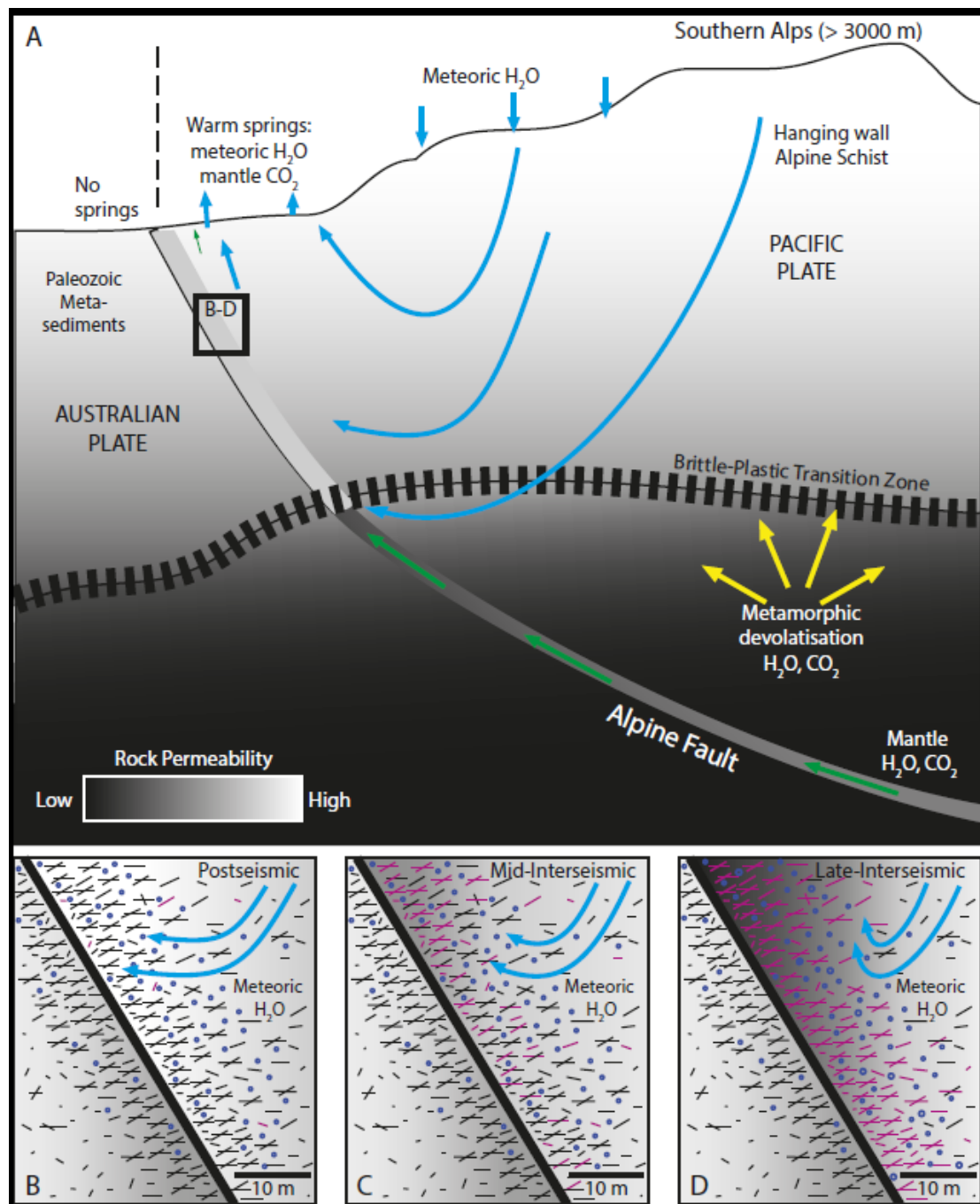


Figure 10

Table 1. Abbreviated description of lithologic units after *Toy et al.* [2015].

Lithologic Unit	Name	Description	Dominant microstructure(s)	Grain size (mm)	Mineralogy
Unit 1	Grey and dark green ultramylonites	Planar-foliated mylonite to ultramylonite	Segregations of Qtz+Pl and Ms+Bt±Ep±Chl with locally abundant Pl-augen trains, mm-spaced continuous foliation	>0.03 to >1	Qtz+Pl+Bt+Ms±Cal±Am±Ep±Cl±Ilm±Ttn
Unit 2	Brown-green-black ultramylonites	Planar-foliated ultramylonite	Indistinct mm-spaced foliation defined by opaque seams and parallel mica grains which form a locally dilatant disjunctive cleavage; Pl-augen common	<0.05 to <0.2	Qtz+Pl+Bt+Ms+Cl±Cal±Ep±Am±Ilm±Ttn
Unit 3	Upper unfoliated cataclasites	Unfoliated cataclasites derived from Units 1 and 2	Angular clasts of Units 1 and 2 in a variably calcite-cemented ultrafine-grained matrix (<0.1 mm-grains)	<0.01 to <0.1 with <100 clasts	Qtz+Pl+Bt+Ms+Cl±Cal±Ep±Am±Ilm±Ttn
Unit 4	Upper foliated cataclasites	Foliated cataclasites derived from Units 1-3	Foliation defined by micro-shears, anastomosing seams of opaques, and/or locally aligned phyllosilicates; e-twinning veins and clasts of calcite	<0.01 to <0.1	Qtz+Pl+Ms+Cl+Cal±Bt±Ep±Am±Ilm±Ttn

Unit 5	Gouges	Cemented to uncemented gouges with variable mineralogy	Predominantly random fabric with rare locally aligned phyllosilicates; e-twinning calcite clasts; gouge and cataclasite clasts common	<0.001 to <0.01	Qtz+Pl+Ms+Cl+Cal±Ksp±Sme(Mnt)±Kln±Gt±Mn±Ilm±Ttn±Zrn±Ap
Unit 6	Lower cataclasites-divided into 4 subunits	6a- white to cream-coloured ccl with granitoid and gneissic clasts; 6b- greenish grey foliated protocataclasite; 6c- greenish grey to black ultracataclasite to gouge with gneiss, Qtz-Pl-Fsp, and rare mylonite clasts; 6d- a mixture of 6a-6c.	6a- random fabric, granitoid clasts contain myrmekite and antiperthite textures, gneissic clasts contain ribbon Qtz; 6b - foliations comprise muscovite and chlorite; 6c- random fabric; 6d - interlayered mixture of 6a-6c containing numerous micro- to meso-scale faults	<<0.03 to >>0.1	Qtz+Ksp+Pl+Ms±Bt±Cl±Zrn±Ap±Ttn
Unit 7	Breccias	Protoccl to breccia composed of black myl-gneiss clasts	Remnant mylonitic-gneissic foliation with Pl-augen or Qtz segregations; phyllosilicate foliations wrap porphyroclasts	<1 to >10	Qtz+Ksp+Pl+Ms+Bt+Cl+Ep+Ap+Ttn+Gr
Unit 8	Gravels	Quaternary gravels composed primarily of Alpine Schist clasts	Locally imbricated	0.25 to >10	Qtz+Pl+Bt+Ms±Cal±Am±Ep±Cl±Ilm±Ttn

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Table 2. Qualitative X-ray diffraction data for DFDP-1 samples.

Hole depth (m)	Lithology	Quartz	K Feldspar	Plagioclase	Muscovite	Biotite	Chlorite	Calcite	Ankerite	Spinel	Epidote
63.6	1	X		X	X		X	X			
66.7	2	X		X		X	X	X			
70.6	3	X		X	X		X				
74.5	4	X		X	X		X	X			
82.7	4	X		X	X		X	X			
86.35	4	X	X	X	X		X	X			
88.4	4	X		X	X		X	X			
89.34	4	X	X	X	X		X	X			
90.32	4	X	X	X	X		X	X			
90.62	5	X	X	X	X		X	X			
91.3	8	X		X	X	X	X				
112.12	3	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		
113.81	3	X		X	X		X				
116.72	3	X		X	X		X	X			
128.04	5	X			X		X	X		X	
128.09	5	X		X	X		X	X			
128.22	5	X		X	X		X	X			
128.5	6	X	X	X	X		X				
128.53	6	X	X	X	X		X				
128.80 w	6	X	X	X	X		X				
128.80 wg	6	X	X	X	X		X				
128.81	6	X	X	X	X		X				
130.88	6	X	X	X	X		X	X			

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131.68	6	X	X	X	X		X					X
132.7	6	X	X	X	X		X					X
133.75	6	X	X	X	X		X					
140.96	6	X	X	X	X		X	X		X		
141.07	6	X	X	X	X		X					
141.77	6	X	X	X	X		X					X
141.9	6	X		X	X		X			X		
143.9	6	X		X	X		X	X				
144.02	7	X	X	X	X		X	X				
144.145	7	X	X	X	X		X					
144.28	7	X		X	X	X	X					

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Table 3. Quantitative XRD data for DFDP-1B samples reported as modal abundance (%).													
Sample	Hole Depth (m)	Lithology	Quartz	K feldspar	Plagioclase	Calcite	Kaolin	Smectite	White mica	Chlorite	Amphibole	Pyrite	Total
36184	128	5 (PSZ1)	25	4	25	9	6	18	12		1	<1	99
36185	143.9	6/5 transition	41	<1	14	10			30	5		<1	100
36186	144.02	5 (PSZ2)	29	3	24	8		18	17	1		<1	100
36187	144.14	5 (PSZ2)	36	4	23	5		15	15	2		<1	100
36188	144.15	5/7 transition	33	2	36				26	3		<1	100
36189	144.28	7	34	2	35	2				4		<1	77

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Table 4. Quantitative XRD data for selected localities along-strike of the Alpine Fault reported as modal abundance (%).

Sam ple	Location	Lithol ogy	Frac tion	Qua rtz	K feldsp ar	Plagiocl ase	Cal cite	Mg- Calcite	Anke rite	Ka olin	Sme ctite	White mica	Chlo rite	Serpen tine	T alc	Amphi bole	Pyr ite	Laumo ntite	Total
3695 9	Little Man R.	5	WR	18	3	33	10			6	20	10							100
3410 3	Gaunt Ck Terrace	5	WR	35	<1	17	6					32	9						99
3410 3_2	Gaunt Ck Terrace	5	< 2 µm	5		3						50	42						100
3506 7	Gaunt Ck Scarp	3	WR	49	10	19	2		12	8				<1					100
3411 3	Gaunt Ck Scarp	3	< 2 µm	<1								68	32						100
3411 2	Gaunt Ck Scarp	4fol	< 2 µm	9	3	27	2			4	36	16	2						99
3410 4	Gaunt Ck Scarp	5	WR	30	6	26	7	1		6	7	17							100
3411 9*	Gaunt Ck Scarp	5	< 2 µm	8		16					29	17	29						99
3410 5	Gaunt Ck Scarp	5uccl	WR	25	5	20	5			7	14	16		8					100
3411 7	Stoney Ck	3	< 2 µm	4	<1	7	8					41	40						100
3536 3	Waikukupu R	4	WR	35	33	6			1			6	19				<1	<1	100
3411 4	Waikukupu R	4	< 2 µm	4		19	2					21	51					2	99
3410 6	Waikukupu R	5	WR	28		26	25		<1			14	5			2	<1		100
3411 8	Waikukupu R	5	< 2 µm	8	<1	10	10				24	26	22						100
3410 7	Waikukupu R	5uccl	WR	27	1	19	17				16	17	2				<1		99
3410 8	Waikukupu R	5 [#]	WR	27	<1	20	16				13	20	4				<1		100
3696 2	Robinson Ck	4	WR	40	14	21	4					17	5						101

3696 1	Robinson Ck	5	WR	32	6	32		19	7	2		3		101
3696 0	Robinson Ck	8	WR	35	2	41			16	2		5		101
3410 9	Martyr R	5fol	WR	8	4	15	<1		35	39		<1		101
3495 8	Martyr R	5	WR	37	4	7	1		36	15				100
3411 5	Martyr R	5	< 2 μm	2					70	28				100
3411 1	McKenzie Ck	5	WR	8	1	1	5	61*		11	13			100
3411 0	Hokuri Ck	4rim	WR	<1			2			5	93			100
3495 9	Hokuri Ck	5	WR	2			5	74*		3	12	2	2	26
3411 6	Hokuri Ck	5	< 2 μm					78*			21	1		22

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Table 5. Major element geochemistry of DFDP-1A samples from XRF and ICP-AES analysis. All values are in wt. %.

Sample	Hole depth (m)	Lithology	SiO2	TiO2	Al2O3	Fe2O3t	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na2O	K2O	P2O5	Cr2O3	SrO	BaO	LOI	Total
DFDP1	63.6	1	63.0	0.64	15.05	4.80	0.10	1.62	2.87	3.19	2.78	0.16	0.01	0	0.1	4.12	98.46
DFDP2	66.7	2	63.1	0.83	14.85	4.77	0.09	2.48	4.12	3.19	2.76	0.20	0.01	0.1	0.1	4.92	101.46
DFDP3	70.4	3	65.9	0.57	13.75	4.65	0.07	2.34	2.17	1.87	3.69	0.15	0.01	0	0.1	4.20	99.46
DFDP4	74.5	4	61.7	0.88	15.80	6.22	0.10	2.69	2.69	3.15	2.59	0.19	0.01	0	0.1	4.20	100.34
RW_XRF	78	2	67.4	0.65	15.37	4.95	0.07	1.64	1.91	2.57	2.74	0.15	NA	NA	NA	3.05	100.48
RW_XRF	80.5	4	63.4	0.91	14.75	5.36	0.07	3.03	4.01	2.36	2.88	0.19	NA	NA	NA	3.59	100.55
DFDP5	82.7	4	61.1	0.61	12.50	4.89	0.11	3.36	4.7	1.14	3.2	0.17	0.01	0	0	6.94	98.80
RW_XRF	83.7	4	62.5	0.59	13.87	5.05	0.11	3.18	4.84	1.02	3.66	0.15	NA	NA	NA	5.99	100.99
RW_XRF	85.15	4	66.1	0.66	13.99	5.08	0.07	2.92	2.83	0.86	3.45	0.13	NA	NA	NA	4.65	100.78
DFDP6	86.35	4	65.5	0.27	12.80	2.22	0.09	1.24	4.68	2.95	3.84	0.07	0.01	0	0.1	5.38	99.13
RW_XRF	87.54	4	61.4	0.87	15.12	5.73	0.10	3.07	3.63	2.19	3.56	0.18	NA	NA	NA	4.68	100.52
DFDP7	88.4	4	62.2	0.7	13.90	4.70	0.10	3.05	4.93	1.95	3.12	0.19	0.01	0	0	6.59	101.51
DFDP8	89.34	4	61.1	0.83	14.40	5.20	0.09	3.09	4.87	2.45	3.58	0.21	0.01	0.1	0.1	5.95	101.94
RW_XRF	89.8	4	65.5	0.64	14.02	4.77	0.07	2.99	3.34	0.56	3.84	0.15	NA	NA	NA	5.14	100.99
DFDP9	90.32	4	45.0	0.67	11.00	5.52	0.24	4.89	14.8	0.87	2.43	0.19	0.01	0.1	0	15.55	101.21
DFDP10	90.62	5	56.7	0.68	13.10	5.47	0.14	3.35	6.83	0.74	5.52	0.18	0.01	0	0.1	8.64	101.53
DFDP11	91.3	8	70.5	0.56	14.35	4.14	0.06	1.37	1.36	3.32	2.43	0.14	0.01	0	0.1	1.93	100.26

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Table 6. Major element geochemistry of DFDP-1B samples from XRF and ICP-AES analysis. All values are in wt. %.

Sample	Hole depth (m)	Lithology	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃ t	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P ₂ O ₅	Cr ₂ O ₃	SrO	BaO	LOI	Total
DFDP12	112.04	4	62.7	0.75	15.05	4.43	0.06	2.78	2.87	1.6	4.23	0.2	0.01	0.03	0.06	6.06	100.8
DFDP13	112.12	3	60.8	0.81	14.00	4.31	0.11	2.54	4.2	1.2	4.26	0.21	0.01	0.03	0.05	6.97	99.5
DFDP14	113.05	3	59.8	1.07	13.95	5.98	0.06	3.43	3.36	2.97	2.83	0.29	0.02	0.05	0.09	4.45	98.35
DFDP15	113.81	3	52.7	1.31	15.95	8.80	0.07	4.9	2.79	2.12	2.59	0.31	0.03	0.03	0.04	6.41	98.05
DFDP16	116.72	3	55.1	0.73	13.75	6.61	0.12	4.03	5.24	1.46	2.91	0.22	0.01	0.04	0.04	8.6	98.86
DFDP17	128.04	4	57.3	0.66	12.75	4.45	0.12	3.15	5.42	0.18	3.86	0.15	0.02	0.02	0.03	8.45	96.56
DFDP18	128.09	4	57.7	0.55	12.30	4.69	0.13	2.88	6.36	0.85	3.21	0.15	0.01	0.02	0.02	8.6	97.47
DFDP19	128.22	4	56.3	0.65	12.05	5.06	0.12	3.49	6.72	1.71	2.66	0.18	0.01	0.04	0.04	8.84	97.87
DFDP20	128.3	5	59.2	0.65	12.75	4.89	0.11	2.84	5.32	2.32	2.72	0.18	0.01	0.06	0.07	8.07	99.19
DFDP21	128.5	6	70.7	0.44	15.20	2.92	0.02	1.39	0.58	3.45	4.09	0.15	0.01	0.04	0.08	2.16	101.2
DFDP22	128.53	6	73.6	0.14	13.60	1.31	0.01	0.59	0.46	3.86	4.19	0.1	<0.01	0.03	0.08	1.45	99.42
DFDP23	128.8	6	71.7	0.18	13.45	1.61	0.02	0.69	1.12	3.03	4.43	0.12	<0.01	0.03	0.07	2.12	98.57
DFDP24	128.8	6	70.7	0.19	13.25	1.94	0.02	0.92	0.51	3.83	3.46	0.06	0.01	0.03	0.07	1.95	96.94
DFDP25	130.88	6	63.2	0.88	13.90	6.61	0.08	3.31	2.58	2.01	3.36	0.29	0.03	0.03	0.07	4.84	101.2
DFDP26	131.68	6	74.6	0.1	13.55	0.79	0.01	0.29	1.1	3.29	4.59	0.16	<0.01	0.03	0.07	NSS	NSS
DFDP27	132.7	6	68.1	0.47	14.25	3.71	0.03	1.61	0.97	2.2	3.99	0.19	0.01	0.03	0.07	2.65	98.28
DFDP28	133.75	6	61.4	0.87	15.20	7.01	0.06	3.28	1.28	1.00	3.41	0.17	0.02	0.02	0.06	4.57	98.35
DFDP29	138.17	6	62.7	0.66	16.70	4.62	0.04	2.09	1.28	2.35	4.35	0.26	0.01	0.02	0.06	3.3	98.44
DFDP30	140.96	6	57.3	0.58	16.65	7.48	0.08	3.98	2.37	1.21	4.51	0.14	0.03	0.02	0.06	6.17	100.6
DFDP31	141.07	6	63.7	0.24	18.10	2.61	0.03	1.34	1.40	1.64	7.83	0.25	<0.01	0.02	0.1	3.44	100.7
DFDP32	141.35	6	62.0	0.64	15.10	6.11	0.06	3.36	1.96	1.57	3.61	0.17	0.02	0.02	0.07	5.73	100.4
DFDP33	141.77	6	65.0	0.67	14.05	5.38	0.06	2.93	0.89	1.19	3.93	0.11	0.02	0.02	0.1	3.94	98.29
DFDP34	141.9	6	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	NSS	4.73	NSS

DFDP35	143.9	6	63.0	0.53	12.55	3.81	0.1	2.10	5.17	1.53	3.03	0.16	0.01	0.02	0.03	7.08	99.12
DFDP36	144.02	5	59.8	0.73	13.95	5.59	0.1	3.40	5.03	1.95	2.43	0.2	0.02	0.08	0.09	8.53	101.9
DFDP37	144.15	5	68.0	0.66	14.95	4.73	0.04	2.46	1.34	2.63	3.41	0.25	0.01	0.04	0.07	3.25	101.8
DFDP38	144.28	7	60.3	0.95	14.80	6.51	0.07	3.37	2.78	1.68	3.52	0.14	0.02	0.03	0.14	3.88	98.19
DFDP39	146.25	7	59.7	1.07	16.35	6.21	0.06	2.55	4.78	3.43	2.31	0.44	0.03	0.09	0.11	1.81	98.94

Table 7. Alteration reactions occurring in Alpine Fault rocks.

Reaction	ΔV_{solid} (cm ³)	ΔV_{solid} (%)
1. K-feldspar + Na ⁺ = Albite + K ⁺	-9	-8
2. 3albite + 2H ⁺ + K ⁺ = muscovite + 6SiO ₂ + 3Na ⁺	-23	-8
3. 3K-feldspar + 2H ⁺ = muscovite + 6SiO ₂ + 2K ⁺	-49	-15
4. 2phlogopite + 4H ⁺ + H ₂ O = clinochlore + 2SiO ₂ + Mg ²⁺ + 2K ⁺	-25	-8
5. phlogopite + 6H ⁺ = K-feldspar + 3Mg ²⁺ + 4H ₂ O	-41	-27
6. 2K-feldspar + 5Mg ²⁺ + 8H ₂ O = clinochlore + 3SiO ₂ + 2K ⁺ + 8H ⁺	61	30
7. 3clinocllore + 2K ⁺ + 28H ⁺ = 2muscovite + 3SiO ₂ + 15Mg ²⁺ + 24H ₂ O	-272	-44
8. 3muscovite + 5biotite + 9SiO ₂ + 4H ₂ O = 8K-feldspar + 3clinocllore	-41	-2.7
9. 2K-feldspar + 6H ⁺ = kaolinite + 2K ⁺ + 4SiO ₂ + 3H ₂ O	-30	-13.7
10. 2albite + 6H ⁺ = kaolinite + 2Na ⁺ + 4SiO ₂ + 3H ₂ O	-12.5	-6.2
11. 5.5muscovite + H ⁺ = 3illite + K ⁺ + 3SiO ₂	12.5	6.9
12. clinocllore + 3K-feldspar + H ₂ O + 9H ⁺ = 3montmorillonite + 3Mg ²⁺ + 3K ⁺	41.8	8.1

