

1 **Stratigraphic analysis of a sediment pond within the New England Mud Patch: New constraints from**
2 **high-resolution chirp acoustic reflection data**

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13 Abstract

14 The New England Mud Patch is an anomaly on the Atlantic coast of North America. This ~13,000 km²
15 area, located south of Cape Cod between the ~60 m and 160 m isobaths, is a region of active fine-
16 grained deposition on a shelf that is predominantly non-depositional or erosional. Prior studies
17 theorized that Mud Patch sediments are derived from fines winnowed from Georges Bank, transported
18 westward by coastal currents, and then settled in more quiescent conditions at the Mud Patch. A chirp
19 seismic reflection (2015) and coring (2016) survey of the Mud Patch was conducted in support of a
20 planned acoustic experiment for the Office of Naval Research. The survey focused on a ~30 km (E-W) by
21 ~8 km (N-S) region between the 75 m and 85 m isobaths, encompassing a sediment “pond” >12 m thick.
22 The dense (250 m) survey lines allow a pseudo-3D stratigraphic interpretation. The sediment pond itself
23 occupies an accommodation space that appears to have been eroded into substrate (Pleistocene?)
24 sediments, perhaps by glacial outwash. The interpreted transgressive ravinement is capped by marine
25 sands organized into oblique sand ridge morphology. The sense of obliquity, morphologic asymmetry,
26 and internal dipping reflectors indicate that the sand ridges formed under an east-directed transport
27 regime. However, as evidenced by prograding internal layering, Mud Patch deposition occurred under a
28 west-directed transport regime, consistent with modern shelf conditions. The onset of fine-grained
29 deposition was therefore contemporaneous with a significant shift in the hydrologic regime. Muds
30 deposited above the transitions include a significant sand component, whose modal grain size is
31 identical to the sand beneath the transition. This admixture could be explained by the fact that, during
32 the early stages of Mud Patch deposition, the tops of the sand ridges remained exposed. Episodic,
33 storm-driven transport of sand to the muddy deposits may account for the internal layering of the Mud
34 Patch.

35 Key Words: New England shelf, mud patch, sand ridges, chirp, vibrocore

36 1. Introduction

37 The continental shelf of the Mid Atlantic Bight, from Cape Hatteras to Cape Cod, is predominantly a
38 non-depositional environment (Emery and Uchupi, 1972), with a seafloor dominated by medium to
39 coarse sands (Fig. 1). The seabed is largely organized into oblique sand ridges that first developed on
40 the shoreface and inner shelf, and later were stranded in deeper water by sea level rise and the
41 transgressed shoreline (Swift et al., 1973; Swift and Field, 1981; Goff et al., 1999). The scarcity of
42 terrigenous sedimentary input onto the shelf (Milliman et al., 1972) and storm-dominated hydraulic
43 regime (Butman et al., 1979; Swift et al., 1981; Vincent et al., 1981) combine to keep the shelf sand
44 ridges exposed and active at the seafloor, uncovered by subsequent fine-grained marine deposition
45 (Duane et al., 1972; Goff et al., 2005; Snedden et al., 2011). There are, however, important exceptions to
46 this general characterization. The Hudson Shelf Valley, for example (Fig. 1), is a locus of modern fine-
47 grained deposition, owing in large part to the still-present accommodation space in relation to the
48 surrounding seafloor (Freeland et al., 1981; Vincent et al., 1981). But by far the most significant region
49 of fine-grained deposits on the Mid-Atlantic Bight continental shelf is the southern New England “Mud
50 Patch” (Milliman et al., 1972; Twichell et al., 1981; Bothner et al., 1981), a wide (~13,000 km²) region of
51 silty/muddy sediments south of Cape Cod (Fig. 1). The presence of this large anomaly makes it an
52 important topic of study for helping to understand marine depositional processes on the continental
53 shelf.

54 Early speculation regarding the origin of the Mud Patch was split between relict or modern deposit.
55 Garrison and McMaster (1966) suggested that the muds overlie basal transgressive sands that emerge
56 to the north and west, but are in turn overlain by Nantucket Shoals sand to the east; this would imply a
57 relict (though recent) deposit, which was earlier suggested by Shepard and Cohee (1936) and Uchupi
58 (1963), and later by Ross (1970) and Schlee (1973). Stetson (1938), however, asserted that these
59 sediments were terrestrial in origin, and modern in age; Emery (1965) also indicated in his sediment

60 maps that the Mud Patch is a modern deposit. The most recent and comprehensive published survey of
61 the Mud Patch was conducted in 1978 (Twichell et al., 1981; Bothner et al., 1981), consisting of 1450 km
62 of shallow subbottom profiles (mostly Hunttec seismic data), 1220 km of sidescan sonar, and 7 vibracores
63 up to 6 m in length. The mud unit was observed to be acoustically transparent and up to ~12 m thick in
64 locations (Twichell et al., 1981). Beneath the mud, Twichell et al. (1981) observed an undulating
65 morphology and postulated, similarly to Garrison and McMaster (1966), that it was relict ridge-and-
66 swale features formed in the transgressive sands, then buried by mud as sea level rose during the
67 Holocene. However, no evidence was found that Nantucket Shoals sands overlay the muds, as Garrison
68 and McMaster (1966) also suggested. Sidescan reveal the Mud Patch seafloor to be largely featureless,
69 except for trawl marks, but with evidence for recent storm-driven mobility of sediments based on
70 tripod-based bottom photography (Twichell et al., 1981). Geochemical analyses of core samples
71 (Bothner et al., 1981) indicated modern mud accumulation, and that depositional rates have waned over
72 time from 130 cm/1000 y near the beginning of deposition to 25 cm/1000 y today. Twichell et al. (1981)
73 hypothesized that Georges Bank and Nantucket Shoals to the east are the source of the fine-grained
74 sediments of the Mud Patch; storms and strong tidal currents could be winnowing/eroding the available
75 fine-grained material, and west-directed shelf currents could transport it. In the vicinity of the Mud
76 Patch, the tidal currents are weaker (away from the tidal resonance in the Gulf of Maine), allowing for
77 fine-grained sediment deposition (Shearman and Lentz, 2004). Twichell et al. (1981) further suggested
78 that the waning accumulation rates reported by Bothner et al. (1981) could be explained by a decrease
79 in supply of winnowed material over time. The Twichell et al. (1981) interpretation was, however, called
80 into question by Mazzula et al. (1988) who, in a study of coarse silt distribution in the Mid-Atlantic Bight,
81 found an abundance of glacial silt on Georges Bank and Nantucket Shoals but a dearth of such
82 sediments within the Mud Patch. They infer that Mud Patch silts were likely sourced from coastal plain

83 strata and the Appalachians of New England eroded during Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). The origin of
84 the New England Mud Patch, and the reason for its existence, therefore remains enigmatic.

85 Several decades of advances in geophysical survey technology, interpretation software, and core
86 analysis make the Mud Patch region appropriate for further study. In addition, the installation of the
87 Pioneer Array (part of the Ocean Observatory Initiative; http://www.whoi.edu/ooi_cgsn/pioneer-array)
88 at the seaward edge of the Mud Patch, has prompted renewed interest in understanding the
89 oceanographic and sedimentary processes in the region (Chen et al., 2018; Gawarkiewicz et al., 2018). In
90 an effort to initiate such an investigation, reconnaissance chirp acoustic reflection data were collected in
91 2012 aboard the *R/V Tioga* (funded as a seed grant by the University of Texas Jackson School of
92 Geoscience). Survey lines crossed some of the thickest portions of the Mud Patch, including a ~12-m
93 deep sediment pond earlier identified by Twichell et al. (1981). These data reveal that, far from being a
94 transparent unit, the seismic facies of the Mud Patch unit is highly laminated, with increasing reflectivity
95 at increasing depth (Fig. 2). The data also reveal evidence of onlap and ponding on the undulating basal
96 surface interpreted by Twichell et al. (1981) as relict sand ridges, as well as a deeper reflector that
97 appears to form a basal reflector for these features (Fig. 2). These reconnaissance observations
98 demonstrate that a detailed stratigraphic history of the Mud Patch is accessible to a comprehensive
99 chirp survey.

100 Such a survey was eventually conducted in 2015 as part of the Office of Naval Research-sponsored
101 Seabed Characterization Experiment (SCE) (Wilson and Knobles, 2017; Wilson and Knobles, in
102 preparation). The goals of SCE centered around measuring and modeling acoustic interactions with a
103 fine-grained seabed and the ability to infer sediment properties via remote sensing in a continental shelf
104 setting; the presence of the Pioneer Array, proximity to ships, ports and facilities, as well as the excellent
105 record provided by the reconnaissance chirp data (Fig. 2) made the Mud Patch a strong candidate for
106 the experiment location. Environmental characterization was provided by geophysical survey and core

107 collection in 2015 and 2016, and a multi-ship acoustic experiment was conducted in 2017. The
108 experiment was focused in particular on the aforementioned sediment pond (Fig. 2), both because of its
109 greater thickness of fine-grained sediments, and because of its fortuitous location between two major
110 shipping lanes made it free of significant ship traffic. In this paper we report primarily on the
111 stratigraphic analysis of the chirp acoustic reflection data (Fig. 1, inset) over the sediment pond. We will
112 also present photographic and grain size analysis of one core to examine the nature of the sand-to-mud
113 transition at the base of the Mud Patch unit.

114

115 **2. Methods**

116 **2.1 Chirp Acoustic Reflection**

117 The SCE subbottom reflection survey was conducted aboard the *R/V Sharp* in July of 2015, within a
118 box region ~30 km long in the E-W direction and ~11 km wide in the N-S direction (Fig. 1, inset). The
119 survey consisted of 42 E-W (strike) lines with a spacing of ~250 m, crossed by 6 N-S (dip) and two
120 diagonals as well as two of the 2012 reconnaissance chirp lines (Fig. 1, inset); another reconnaissance
121 line was situated just west of the survey box. These data were collected with an Edgetech 512 chirp
122 system operating primarily with a 0.5-7.2 kHz, 30 ms pulse. Two sets of chirp records are preserved and
123 processed: (1) the full-waveform output of the chirp match filter, and (2) a fit of a positive-definite
124 envelope over the top of the sinusoidal full-waveform records (or, simply, the “envelope”). Full-
125 waveform records (e.g., Fig. 2) are most useful for observing smaller-scale details of the subbottom
126 structures, whereas the envelope records are often better for observing large-scale stratigraphy (see
127 further discussion in Goff et al., 2015). Towfish depth was recorded with a self-contained pressure
128 sensor, time-synched to the chirp acquisition computer; these data were used to correct for towfish
129 depth. Towfish heave was also filtered after automated bottom detection. Navigation was recorded

130 with a differential GPS system using an antenna mounted at the stern of the ship, and a layback
131 correction was estimated trigonometrically by line-out and towfish depth beneath the A-frame tow
132 point. A secondary deconvolution was applied to the full-waveform data; in our experience, the
133 system's match filter does not provide a completely satisfactory result, and image clarity can be
134 significantly improved with this additional processing step (Goff et al., 2015).

135 Processed full-waveform and envelope records were imported into Landmark DecisionSpace
136 software for interpretation of seismic reflectors. After the seafloor reflection was picked, a cross-tie
137 correction was applied globally using the DecisionSpace tool for that purpose; cross-tie correction,
138 which globally adjusts vertical references on each line to match seafloor arrivals at crossing points, is an
139 effective empirical means of applying a tidal correction without knowing the tides *a priori*. After
140 subsequent interpretation of reflection horizons, results were output in two-way travel time (twtt) and
141 individual horizons were interpolated across the survey regions onto a 0.001° by 0.001° (~0.111 km by
142 0.085 km) grid. The interpolation was masked over any grid node that was not within 0.2 km of a data
143 point. Isopach grids were formed by subtraction of deeper horizon grids from shallower.

144

145 **2.2 Vibracore**

146 A large suite of vibracores and piston cores were collected in the SCE survey region in 2016 aboard
147 the *R/V Endeavor* by USGS Woods Hole and University of Texas participants. A comprehensive analysis
148 of these core samples will be the topic of a companion publication, but for this study we present an
149 analysis derived from one vibracore that penetrated through the mud-to-sand transition at the base of
150 the Mud Patch in order to illustrate the sedimentary characteristics of this key stratigraphic horizon.
151 Vibracores were collected with a Rossfelder P-3 system, using a buoyancy frame configuration and
152 linerless, 3-inch aluminum barrels. After recovery, barrels were cut into ~1-m sections for logging,

153 transport and storage. Logging was conducted on board immediately after sectioning using a Geotek
154 multi-sensor core logger (MSCL); measurements included compressional sound speed (at 250 kHz),
155 gamma ray density, resistivity and magnetic susceptibility. Core sections were transported to the USGS
156 Woods Hole core analysis facility, where they were split, photographed, and geologically described.
157 Vibracore subsamples were later collected and analyzed for grain size distribution at the University of
158 Texas at Austin. Histograms of grain sizes were measured using a Malvern Mastersizer 3000 in 0.25 ϕ bin
159 sizes (where grain size in mm = $2^{-\phi}$). The Mastersizer measures volume fractions using a laser particle
160 diffraction analyzer. Samples were first sieved at 0.85 mm to remain within Mastersizer analysis limits of
161 1 mm; the portion of material coarser than this aperture (primarily shell hash) was determined by
162 weight and recorded separately from the grain size histogram. Descriptive terms for grain sizes follow
163 the Wentworth (1922) classification.

164

165 **3. Results**

166 **3.1 Stratigraphic Elements**

167 The overall structure of the mud pond targeted for the SCE is illustrated in Fig. 3, an envelope chirp
168 record spanning the full E-W span of the survey region. The base of the mud unit is clearly identified as a
169 high-amplitude, undulatory reflector, as noted earlier by Twichell et al. (1981). In this cross-section, the
170 shape of the depression that forms the mud pond is asymmetric, with a steeper west flank than east.
171 Laminated reflectors are observed in the interior of the mud pond; several of these onlap on the west
172 flank of the mud pond while draping over the east flank (Fig. 3). The seismic facies of the mud pond
173 transitions upward from laminated to transparent/weakly laminated.

174 The stratigraphic elements of the survey region can be seen with greater clarity in an enlarged, full-
175 waveform record (Fig. 4). This image focuses on the western flank of the mud pond, where deeper

176 laminated reflectors onlap the flank of a buried structure of the sort interpreted earlier by Twichell et al.
177 (1981) as a relict sand ridges. The undulatory reflector at the base of the fine-grained sediment (mud) of
178 the Mud Patch is identified as “mb” (mud base; Fig. 4b). Coring (see section 3.4) verifies that this
179 reflector is a mud/sand interface. We have also interpreted five individual reflectors within the
180 laminated mud unit in order to investigate the filling history: “mh1” through “mh5” (Fig. 4b). Another
181 strong reflector (“sb”, or sand base) is observed below “mb”, far less undulatory in character and related
182 to “mb” in that the low points in “mb” merge with “sb” (Figs. 2, 4b). This relationship is identical to that
183 of inner shelf sand ridges with the transgressive ravinement, which serves as a basal surface for the
184 mobile marine sands (e.g., Goff, 2014; Goff et al., 2015). Subtle, east-dipping reflectors can be identified
185 within the ridged feature, between the “sb” and “mb” reflectors (Fig. 4), similar to interior reflections
186 observed in exposed sand ridges on the New Jersey shelf (Goff and Duncan, 2012). Another strong
187 reflector, “db” (deep base), is observed below “sb”, which generally bounds a chaotically reflective
188 seismic facies above from a more transparent facies below (Fig. 4). Although “db” does exhibit
189 topographic variability, over large scales it is generally conformable with the seafloor. Given the
190 stratigraphic relationship to the interpreted transgressive relict sand ridges, the “db” reflector can
191 confidently be interpreted as a pre-transgressive (likely Pleistocene) horizon.

192

193 **3.2 Unit Stratigraphy**

194 A structure map of the “mb” reflection horizon (Fig. 5a) reveals that the mud pond is formed within
195 a topographic embayment. Both within and outside of the embayment, the mud base is floored by a
196 NE-SW trending fabric of ridges and swales spaced ~1-3 km apart. Regional isobaths are oriented
197 ~WNW-ESE in this region, such that the fabric orientation forms an oblique angle of ~65° relative to the
198 contours. The ridge-and-swale morphology is better visualized in the mud unit isopach map (Fig. 5b),

199 which is effectively the mud base structure map detrended by the seafloor. This map also demonstrates
200 that the overall shape of the mud pond is asymmetric, elongated in a ~NW-SE orientation. Maximum
201 thickness measured is ~16 ms twtt, or ~12.8 m (assuming sound speeds in the mud of 1600 m/s for
202 mud), consistent with acoustic measurements made by Twichell et al. (1981) in this area of the Mud
203 Patch.

204 Directly beneath the “mb” horizon, the structure of the ridge-and-swale morphology is also well
205 imaged by the mb-sb isopach map (Fig. 6a), which shows the thickness of these features in relation to
206 their basal horizon. The largest ridges rim the western edges of the mud pond, with thicknesses
207 exceeding 5 ms twtt (~4.5 m assuming sound speed of 1800 m/s for sand). The largest of these ridges
208 also display a pronounced asymmetry (see also Fig. 4), with steeper SE-facing slopes. The ridges are
209 smallest within the base of the mud pond, with peak thicknesses of ~1-2 ms twtt (~0.9-1.8 m), and of
210 intermediate size on the east flank (~2-3 ms twtt, or ~1.8-2.7 m). The obliquity and range in heights and
211 widths of these features are consistent with sand ridges observed elsewhere in the Mid Atlantic Bight
212 (Swift and Field, 1981; Goff et al., 1999).

213 The isopach map for the “sb-db” unit is shown in Fig. 6b; because the “db” horizon is largely
214 conformable with the modern seafloor, this isopach provides a reasonable proxy for the
215 accommodation space available for the ponded sediments. Hence, for example, we observe a strong
216 inverse correlation between the “sb-db” (Fig. 6b) and “seafloor-mb” (Fig. 5b) isopachs. Some of this
217 accommodation space was also filled by the large sand ridges on the western flank of the mud pond (Fig.
218 6a). In the center of this region we have drawn a line that we identify as the “axis of accommodation”,
219 which will be used in the following section.

220

221 **3.3 Mud Patch Internal Stratigraphy**

222 Isopachs formed from selected internal Mud Patch reflectors can be used to investigate the
223 depositional history of the mud pond (Fig. 7). The earliest sediments deposited in the mud pond (“mh1-
224 mb”; Fig. 7a) preferentially filled in the swales of the underlying morphology, while the ridges along the
225 flanks of the mud pond remained exposed. The depocenter of this unit was to the NE of the axis of
226 accommodation. Shifting forward to the “mh3-mh2” isopach (Fig. 7b), the ridge-and-swale morphology
227 no longer exerts an influence on the depositional pattern in the middle of the pond. However swale-
228 filling does occur around flanks of the pond, ridges to the east now have sediments over their peaks,
229 while the largest ridges to the west were still unsedimented. The depocenter of this unit was centered
230 on the axis of accommodation rather than to the NE. Still later in the stratigraphic sequence (“mh5-
231 mh4”; Fig. 7c), sediments finally cover all of the underlying ridges, and the depocenter shifted again to
232 the SW of the axis of accommodation. The most recent isopach, “seafloor-mh5”, is a constant thickness
233 unit throughout the survey region, indicating that the accommodation space for the mud pond was
234 entirely filled at this time.

235 In summary, the depositional history of the mud pond involved preferential filling of low-lying
236 regions, more rapid transition to draping the eastern flank while still onlapping the western flank (see
237 also Fig. 2), and SW-prograding depocenters.

238

239 **3.4 Core Analysis of Mud/Sand Interface**

240 The mud/sand boundary is a critical transition in the evolution of the Mud Patch. We demonstrate
241 that transition here with a vibrocore penetration (core VC2) through the boundary (Figs. 8, 9), using
242 photographic images of split cores, sound speed and density from the Geotek MSCL, and grain size
243 histogram data from core samples; these results are typical of mud/sand transitions cored elsewhere.

244 Visually, the boundary is observed to have three components: (1) a poorly-sorted sandy mud, (2) a shell-
245 rich layer, and (3) shelly sand (Fig. 8a). Sound speed and density both increase across the boundary (Fig.
246 8b), averaging ~ 1580 m/s and ~ 1840 kg/m³, respectively in the sandy mud, and ~ 1870 m/s and ~ 2300
247 kg/m³, respectively, in the shelly sand. The transition through the shell-rich layer, where coarse
248 fractions change from 0 to 0.29 (Fig. 8), occurs across ~ 10 cm of core. Median (D50) grain sizes of non-
249 shell sediment likewise shift significantly across the boundary, averaging 18.5 μm in the sandy mud and
250 347 μm in the shelly sand. The wide dispersion of D10 and D90 grain sizes over most samples indicates
251 very poorly sorted sediments; only the deepest sample in the core can be considered a well-sorted sand
252 (with shells).

253 The complex nature of the grain size histograms is illustrated in Fig. 9. Despite the wide range in
254 median grain sizes, all the histograms appear to be an admixture of four different distribution peaks, at
255 ~ 0.9 μm (clay), 10 μm , 50 μm (silts) and 350 μm (medium sand). The two silt size classes dominate the
256 sandy muds, but the medium sand appears to provide a key source of variability (Fig. 9b,c). Conversely,
257 significant silt fractions are observed within the shell-rich layer and upper shelly sand samples, as
258 evidenced by the D10 values (Fig. 8c) as well as the histogram (Fig. 9c), but largely disappears at the
259 deepest sample (Fig. 8c).

260 A shell-rich layer was commonly at the mud/sand transition where penetrated by cores. The
261 deposits are likely allochthonous, representing a lag deposit sourced from erosion of unknown source
262 material. The evidence for transport are twofold: (1) shells greater than 1 cm in size are commonly
263 disarticulated and broken and (2) many of the shells (both bivalves and gastropods) have holes that
264 penetrate the shell, which indicate that predators, such as whelks and burrowing snails, likely killed the
265 mollusk or gastropod (Boucot, 1953).

266

267 4. Discussion

268 4.1 Origin of Mud Pond Accommodation Space

269 Deposition of the >12 m thick mud pond targeted in this study (Fig. 8b) was facilitated by the prior
270 existence of accommodation space formed by a depression in older (presumably Pleistocene age) shelf
271 sediments (Fig. 6b). A key observation related to the timing of the accommodation space is that sand
272 ridges are present within the basin beneath the mud, and are built-up on the western edge of the
273 accommodation space (Fig. 6a). This indicates that sand ridges formed in the presence of the
274 depression, and therefore that it existed in the inner-shelf marine setting after the transgression of the
275 shoreline across the region. Such a depression on the shelf is rare, as terrestrial depressions such as
276 drowned river valleys are typically filled in during the transition to marine settings by estuarine muds
277 and barrier island sands (Norfjord et al., 2006). Major river valleys, such as the Hudson Shelf Valley
278 (Freeland et al., 1981; Fig. 1), are an exception to this characterization; presumably the accommodation
279 space was so large that transgressive sedimentary sequences were insufficient to fill it. However, no
280 major river valleys would have existed in our study area, which is located east of the primary drainage
281 valleys derived from the New England rivers (McMaster and Ashraf, 1973). Instead, in the past this
282 region was offshore of the terminus of the Laurentide glacier at Cape Cod and Martha's Vineyard (Koteff
283 and Pessl, 1981; Uchupi et al., 2001; Balco et al., 2002). We suggest, therefore, that drainage from the
284 ice sheet during retreat may have played a role in forming the mud pond accommodation space.

285 Uchupi et al. (2001) hypothesized that outburst flooding from glacially-dammed lakes, formed by the
286 retreating glacier, had a significant impact on the geomorphology of the continental shelf. We
287 subsequently hypothesize that such an outburst flood could have eroded shelf terrain sufficiently to
288 create the mud pond accommodation space that we observe in our survey. The former "Lake Nantucket
289 Sound" (Uchupi et al., 1996), which formed in what is now Nantucket Sound, was the most proximal of

290 these lakes and therefore likeliest candidate for such an event. Emptying ~17-18 ka (Uchupi et al.,
291 1996), this glacial lake drainage would have occurred when eustatic sea level in this region was ~100 m
292 below present-day sea level (Wright et al., 2009), and the survey area would still have been subaerially
293 exposed (the deepest parts of the mud base horizon are ~90 m below present-day sea level). By ~16 ka,
294 the ice sheet had retreated to the north of Cape Cod (Uchupi et al., 2001), and glacial drainage would
295 likely not have impacted the survey region after that time.

296 If the accommodation space did form subaerially, we might expect it to have been filled in by
297 transgressive sequences, such as estuarine muds and barrier sands, as is commonly observed along
298 coastline embayments today (Allen and Posamentier, 1993; Simms et al., 2008). However, the presence
299 of the Hudson Shelf Valley (Freeland et al., 1981) indicates that this is not always the case; i.e., that pre-
300 transgressive accommodation spaces can be large enough, and sediment inputs low enough, that
301 embayments can survive the transition from subaerial to submarine settings. In addition, the pre-
302 Holocene rapid pace of sea level rise and coastal transgression across the survey area (Wright et al.,
303 2009) may have also inhibited infilling by transgressive sequences.

304

305 **4.2 Transition from Sand Ridges to Mud Deposits**

306 The stratigraphic evidence from this study indicates that, prior to the beginning of mud deposition,
307 the seafloor in the study region was formed by oblique sand ridges that are ubiquitous on the US
308 Atlantic continental shelf (Duane et al., 1972). As noted above, the morphological characteristics of the
309 buried sand ridges are identical to those of modern sand ridges in the Mid Atlantic Bight, so we can
310 assume that they formed under similar oceanographic conditions as seen today; sand ridges form
311 initially along the shoreface and, with rising sea level and transgressing coastline, become detached
312 from the shoreface but continue to evolve and migrate on the inner and middle shelf (Swift and Field,

313 1981; Goff et al., 1999; Snedden et al., 2011; Goff and Duncan, 2012). Three observations in our study
314 indicate that the sand ridges beneath the Mud Patch were migrating under a dominantly east-directed
315 transport regime:

316 (1) The acute angle of the obliquity with respect to isobaths contours is to the west (Figs. 5a, 6a). Both
317 observational (Swift and Field, 1981) and modeling (Calvete et al., 2001) work indicate that, when
318 forming along the shoreface, the acute angle of sand ridge orientation faces the dominant current
319 direction.

320 (2) Where internal reflectors within the buried sand ridges are evident (Fig. 4), the dip direction is to the
321 east. In addition, the largest ridges express a strong asymmetry in profile, with steeper eastern flank
322 (Fig. 4). Both observations are consistent with a dune-like bedform with western stoss and eastern lee
323 flanks (Ashley, 1990), and thus east-directed sediment transport.

324 (3) The greatest sand ridge accumulation lies on the western edge of the previously-formed
325 accommodation space (Fig. 6a), also indicating transport from west to east that deposits suspended load
326 when it reaches the accommodation space.

327 While the buried sand ridges formed and migrated under an east-directed transport regime,
328 subsequent mud deposition appears to have been deposited under a west or southwest-directed
329 transport regime, as evidenced by the SW progradation of the deposits (Fig. 7), and internal units that
330 drape across the eastern shoulder of the accommodation space while onlapping on the western
331 shoulder (Figs. 3, 4). This transport direction is consistent with the modern, west-directed shelf current
332 directions (Twichell et al., 1981).

333 A central unresolved question is: why did the sedimentary environment change from sand ridge
334 migration to mud deposition? The stratigraphic evidence of a change in primary transport direction that
335 is coincident with this change in depositional environment appears to be a critical clue in answering this

336 question; it indicates a major change in physical oceanographic conditions that could have precipitated
337 the transition.

338 We consider two possible explanations for the reversal of flow over the shelf relative to modern
339 circulation over the continental shelf. The first is that wind patterns may have differed in the past. Due
340 to the much decreased water depth during the glacial period, it would have been easier to reverse the
341 flow with a given wind stress, such that the bottom stress would be balancing the surface wind stress.
342 Modeling reconstructions of the atmospheric conditions during the Last Glacial Maximum suggest that
343 the Jet Stream was much stronger than in the present day, so that the west to east wind stress may have
344 been substantially greater than the present wind stress (Li and Battisti, 2003). This study also concludes
345 that Jet Stream winds were more zonal in nature, and that transient storms may have been less
346 frequent. For the modern shelf circulation in the region, an alongshelf pressure gradient also is
347 important in driving the flow against the wind stress (Zhang et al., 2011). Both the relative increase in
348 wind stress from the west, the shallower water depths, and the steadier zonal nature of the winds
349 would all contribute to a flow reversal. A second possible explanation is that the Gulf Stream might have
350 extended further north of Cape Hatteras, driving an eastward flow south of New England over the outer
351 continental shelf. This would involve a substantial latitudinal shift in the detachment point of the Gulf
352 Stream from the continental slope bathymetry. Evidence from foraminifera distributions from this time
353 period are not consistent with a northward shift in the separation point of the Gulf Stream (Matsumoto
354 and Lynch-Stieglitz, 2003). Thus the preponderance of evidence would suggest that the stronger, more
355 zonal winds combined with the much shallower depths over the continental shelf resulted in the
356 reversal of the mean currents relative to the present day.

357 More details about the transition from sand ridge migration to mud deposition are provided by the
358 core evidence (Figs. 8, 9). The shell-rich layer at the top of the sand (Fig. 8), which is commonly observed
359 in the cores that penetrate the mud/sand boundary, could be interpreted as an erosional lag (Cattaneo

360 and Steel, 2003). This inference is supported by the evidence, noted earlier, that these shells have been
361 transported rather than formed in situ. Nevertheless, the concentration of shells at the boundary can
362 be considered as a remarkable observation, since modern sand ridges in the Mid-Atlantic Bight do not
363 typically exhibit large quantities of shell lag at the seafloor at any water depth (Duane et al., 1972;
364 Stubblefield and Swift, 1981; Goff et al., 2000). We therefore speculate that prevalence of the shell-rich
365 layer at the mud/sand boundary is associated with a rapid growth in gastropod communities that may
366 have been precipitated by the change in oceanographic conditions at that time.

367 Muds deposited above the mud/sand boundary include a significant sand component, whose modal
368 grain size is identical to the sand beneath the boundary (Fig. 9). This admixture of grain sizes could be
369 explained by the fact that, during the early stages of Mud Patch deposition, the tops of the sand ridges
370 remained exposed in proximity. Hence, sands could have been transported laterally, perhaps by the
371 occasional large storm, from the ridges onto nearby mud deposits. Episodicity in such a transport
372 process could explain the presence of internal reflectors within the mud unit, and waning impact of
373 proximal sands as the ridges became progressively buried through time could explain the reduction in
374 reflector amplitude up-section (Figs. 3, 4). The shallowest muds are not, however, devoid of sand grain
375 sizes, so transport of sand into the Mud Patch deposits must also be derived from distal sources.

376 More detailed investigation of the core-based observations will be needed to resolve issues raised
377 above related to sourcing of muds, sands and shells in the Mud Patch. This will be the subject of a
378 companion study led by the second author.

379

380 **5. Conclusions**

381 Our new stratigraphic investigation of the New England Mud Patch, using chirp acoustic reflection
382 data and coring, provides a robust basis for analyzing the depositional history of this anomalous fine-

383 grained depositional environment on an otherwise sandy, non-depositional shelf. Improved
384 understanding of the Mud Patch and the conditions that facilitate it should help us with a larger
385 understanding of depositional processes on continental shelves. The survey focused on a deep (> 12 m)
386 mud pond within the Mud Patch. The pond was made possible by the presence of a preexisting
387 accommodation space, which we speculate may be attributable to earlier erosion of the subaerial shelf
388 by glacial outwash from the Laurentide ice sheet. A marine sand layer, formed by oblique sand ridges
389 under an east-directed transport regime, partially filled the accommodation space after shoreline
390 transgression; sand ridges are typical of the exposed seafloor morphology across most of the US Atlantic
391 shelf. However, subsequent mud deposition developed under a west or southwest-directed transport
392 regime, and we hypothesize that the initiation of mud deposition was coincident with this change in
393 hydrologic conditions. The origin of this change remains uncertain at this time, but may be related to the
394 wind patterns and more shallow water depths over the continental shelf during the glacial periods. A
395 significant sand fraction is observed in the Mud Patch sediments, particularly in the earlier stages of
396 deposition. We hypothesize that the proximal tops of sand ridges, which remained exposed during the
397 first phase of Mud Patch deposition, could have been the source of this admixture. Such sands may also
398 account for the laminate reflections that define the stratal geometry of the Mud Patch.

399

400 **Data Availability**

401 Unprocessed and processed chirp reflection data used in this study are available from the Marine
402 Geoscience Data System (<http://www-udc.ig.utexas.edu/sdc/>). Cores and core data are archived at the
403 USGS Woods Hole Core Repository
404 (<https://woodshole.er.usgs.gov/operations/ia/samprepo/facilities.html>).

405

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412 Office of Naval Research.

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545 **Figure Captions**

546 **Fig. 1.** Seafloor grain size map on continental shelf of the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Data are derived from the
547 usSEABED data base (Buczowski et al., 2006) and resampled and interpolated using the method of Goff
548 et al., (2006) to reduce data artifacts. Depth contours, in meters, are derived from the Coastal Relief
549 model available at the National Center for Environmental Information
550 (<https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/coastal/crm.html>). Box and expanded inset shows locations of track
551 lines for chirp survey.

552

553 **Fig. 2.** Full-waveform chirp record from 2012 reconnaissance survey. Location shown in Fig. 1. Interior
554 of Mud Patch is observed to be laminated, with onlap and ponding seen on undulating basal surface
555 interpreted by Twichell et al. (1981) as relict sand ridges. Another basal reflector is noted beneath the
556 interpreted sand ridges.

557

558 **Fig. 3.** Envelope chirp record across the full survey area, demonstrating stratigraphic character of the
559 sediment pond targeted in the 2015 survey. Location shown in Fig. 1.

560

561 **Fig. 4.** Uninterpreted (top) and interpreted (bottom) full-waveform chirp record. Location shown in Fig.
562 3. The mud base (mb) reflector forms the base of the Mud Patch unit. Five interior Mud Patch
563 reflectors (mh1-mh5) are interpreted for the purpose of investigating fill history. Beneath the mud
564 base, we identify a sand base (sb) reflector, which often merges with the mud base at low points.
565 Deeper still we observe another reflector, likely of Pleistocene age, dubbed “deep base” (db).

566

567 **Fig. 5.** (a) Structure map of the mud base (mb) horizon and (b) isopach map of the mud unit (seafloor –
568 mb). Units for both maps are in two-way travel time (twtt).

569

570 **Fig. 6.** Isopach maps for (a) the sand ridge unit (mb-sb) and (b) the presumed Pleistocene unit below
571 (sb-db). The dashed line in (b) traces the “axis of accommodation space” (see text for discussion). Units
572 for both maps are in two-way travel time (twtt).

573

574 **Fig. 7.** Isopach maps for three of the units interpreted in the mud unit: (a) mh1-mb; (b) mh3-mh2; and
575 (c) mh5-mh4. Dashed line traces the “axis of accommodation space” noted in Fig. 6b. Units for all maps
576 are in two-way travel time (twtt).

577

578 **Fig. 8.** Bottom section of vibracore VC2, which penetrates the mud/sand transition: (a) photograph of
579 split core and visual description; (b) sound speed (at 230 kHz) and gamma-ray density logs; and (c) grain
580 size distribution parameters, where D10, D50 and D90 indicate the grain sizes of the 10th, 50th and 90th
581 percentiles, respectively, along with coarse fraction (red stars). Core location shown in Figs. 1 and 5.

582

583 **Fig. 9.** Grain size histograms for samples collected at (a) 142 cm, (b) 162 cm, and (c) 192 cm below top
584 of core VC2, shown in Fig. 8. Dashed lines identify common peaks in each of the histograms at 0.9 μm ,
585 10 μm , 50 μm , and 350 μm . Grain size descriptors (clay, silt, sand) are based on Wentworth (1922)
586 classification.

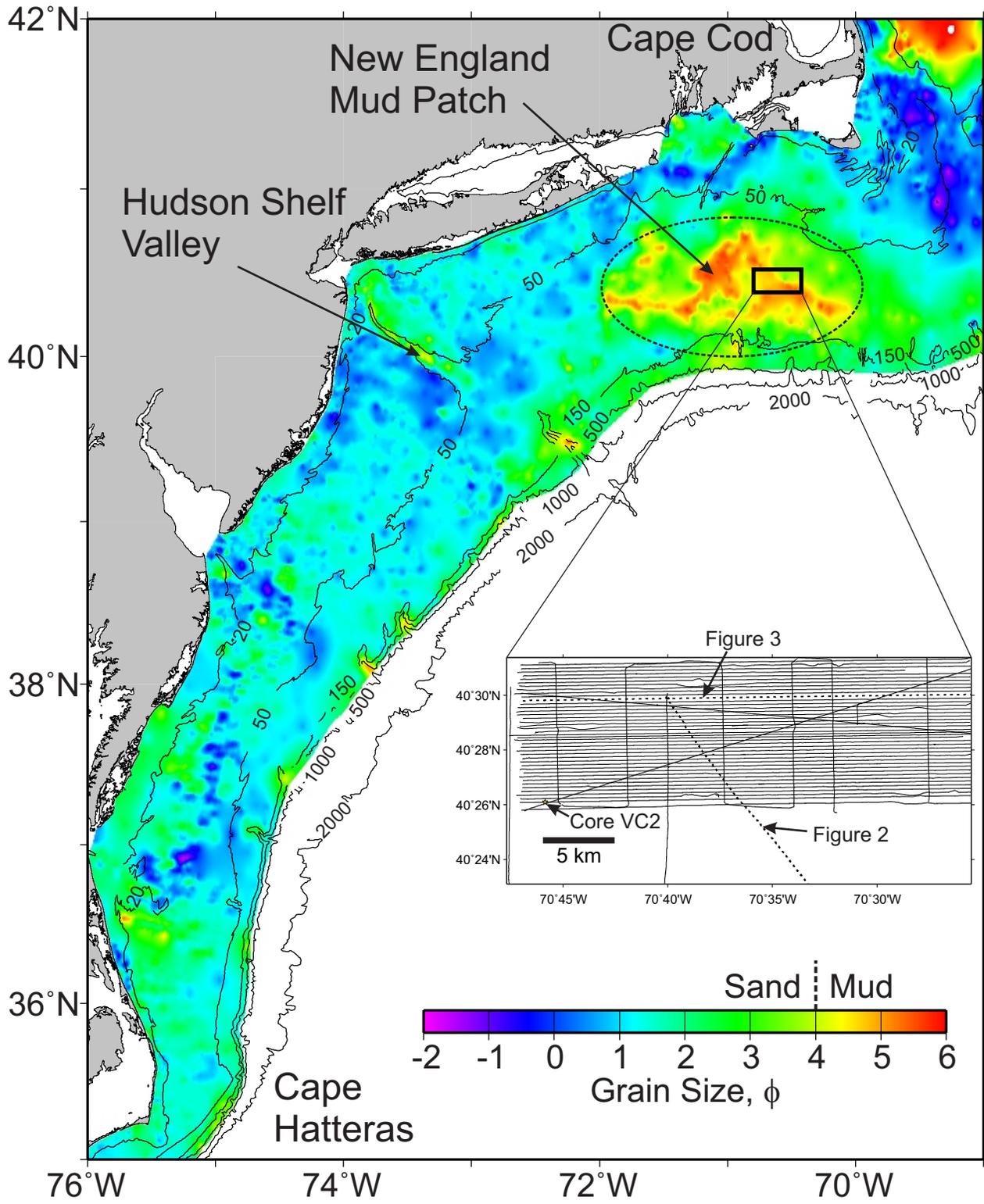


Figure 1

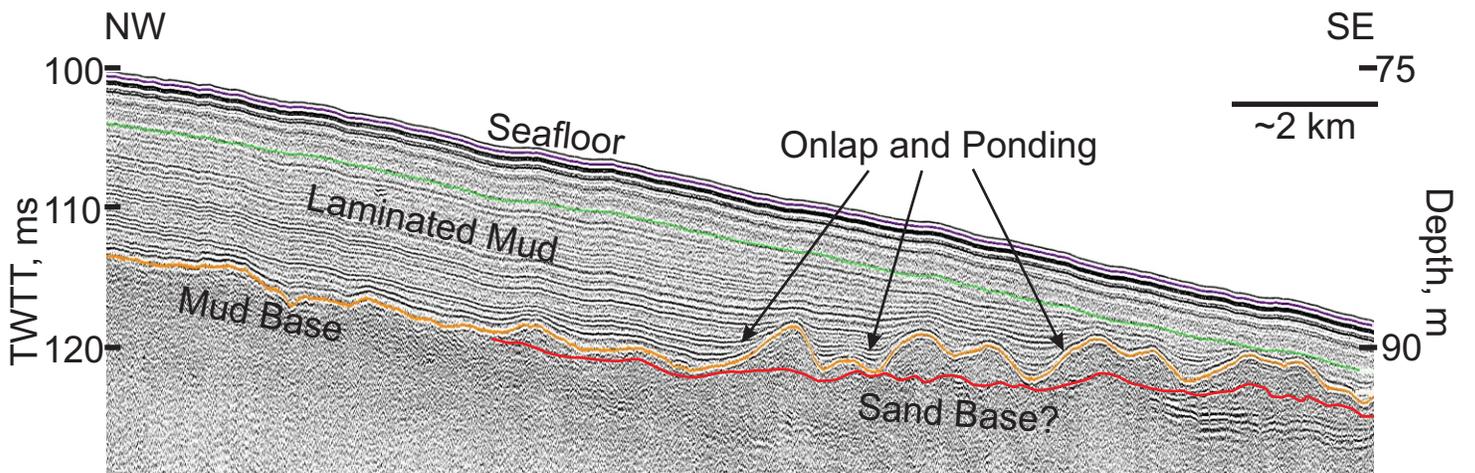


Figure 2

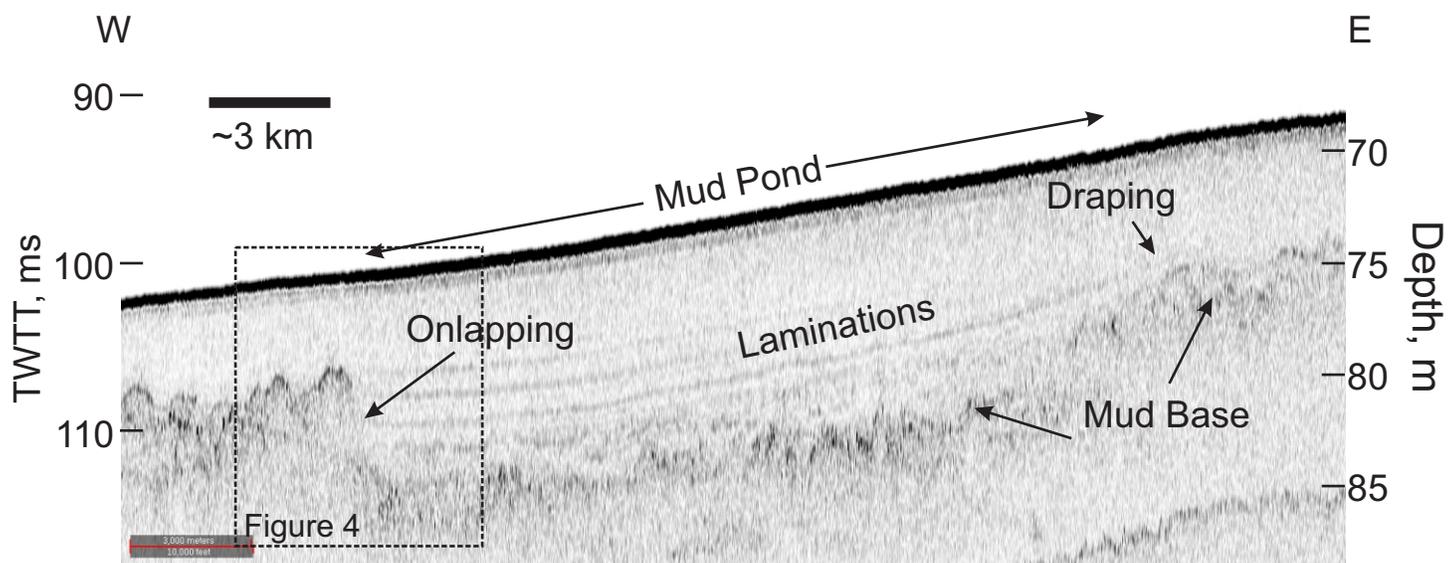


Figure 3

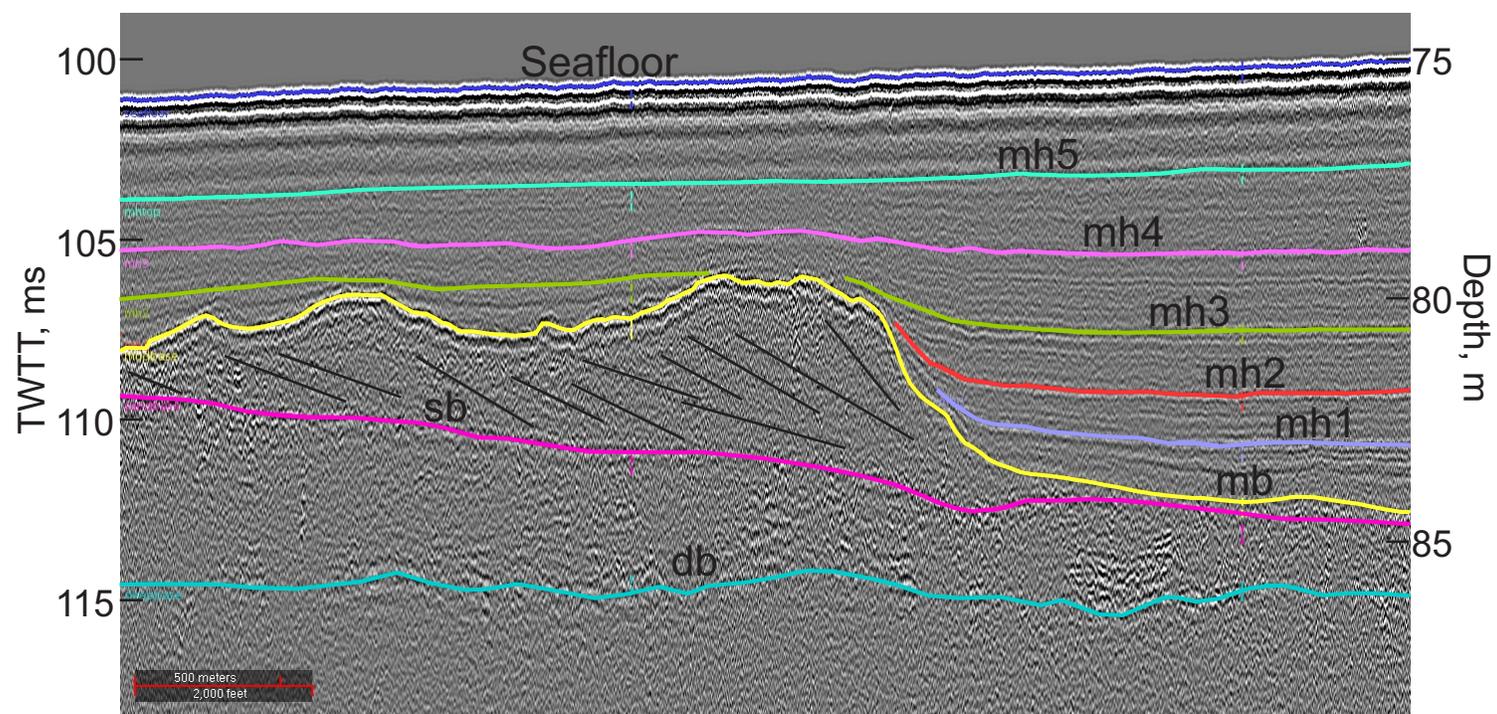
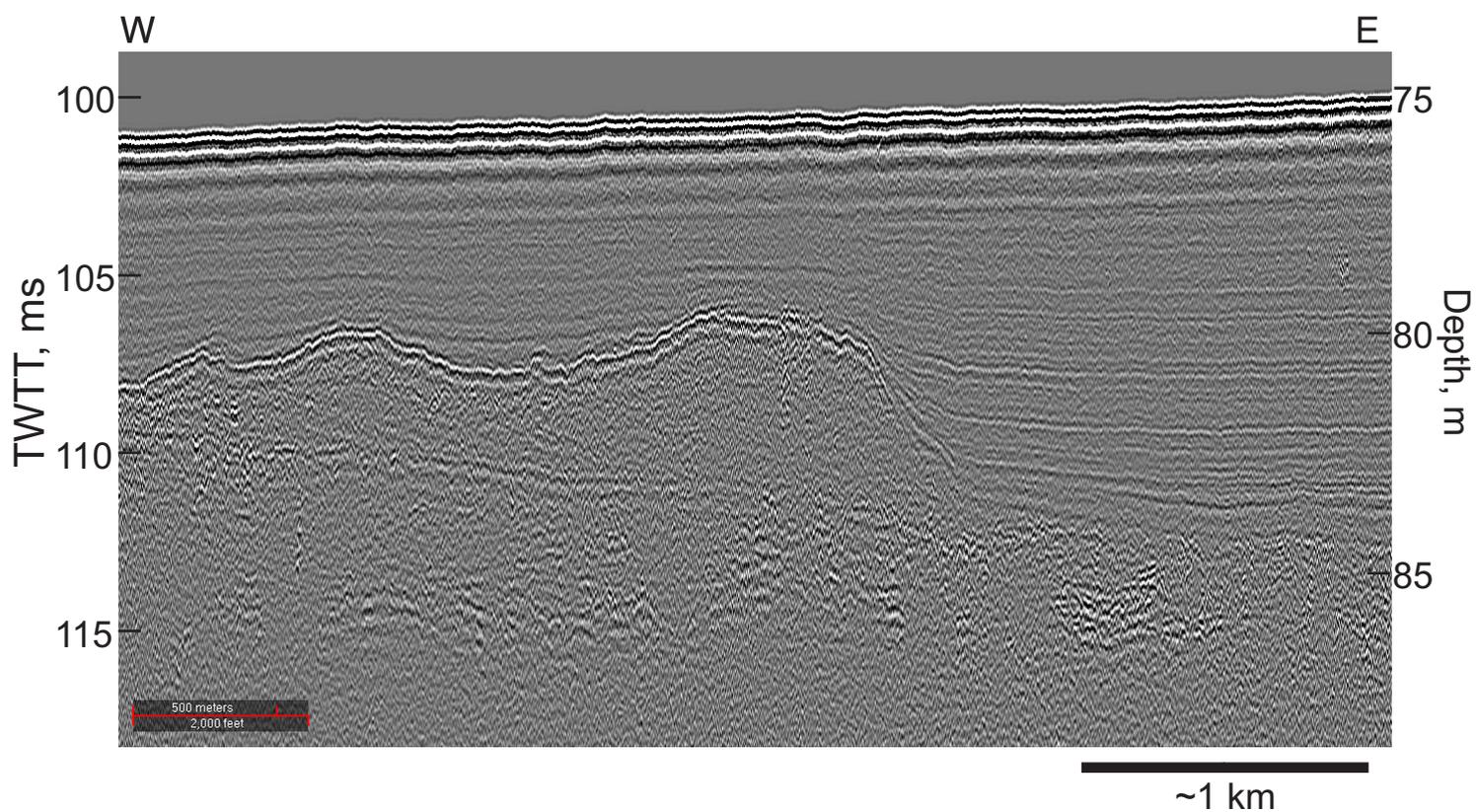


Figure 4

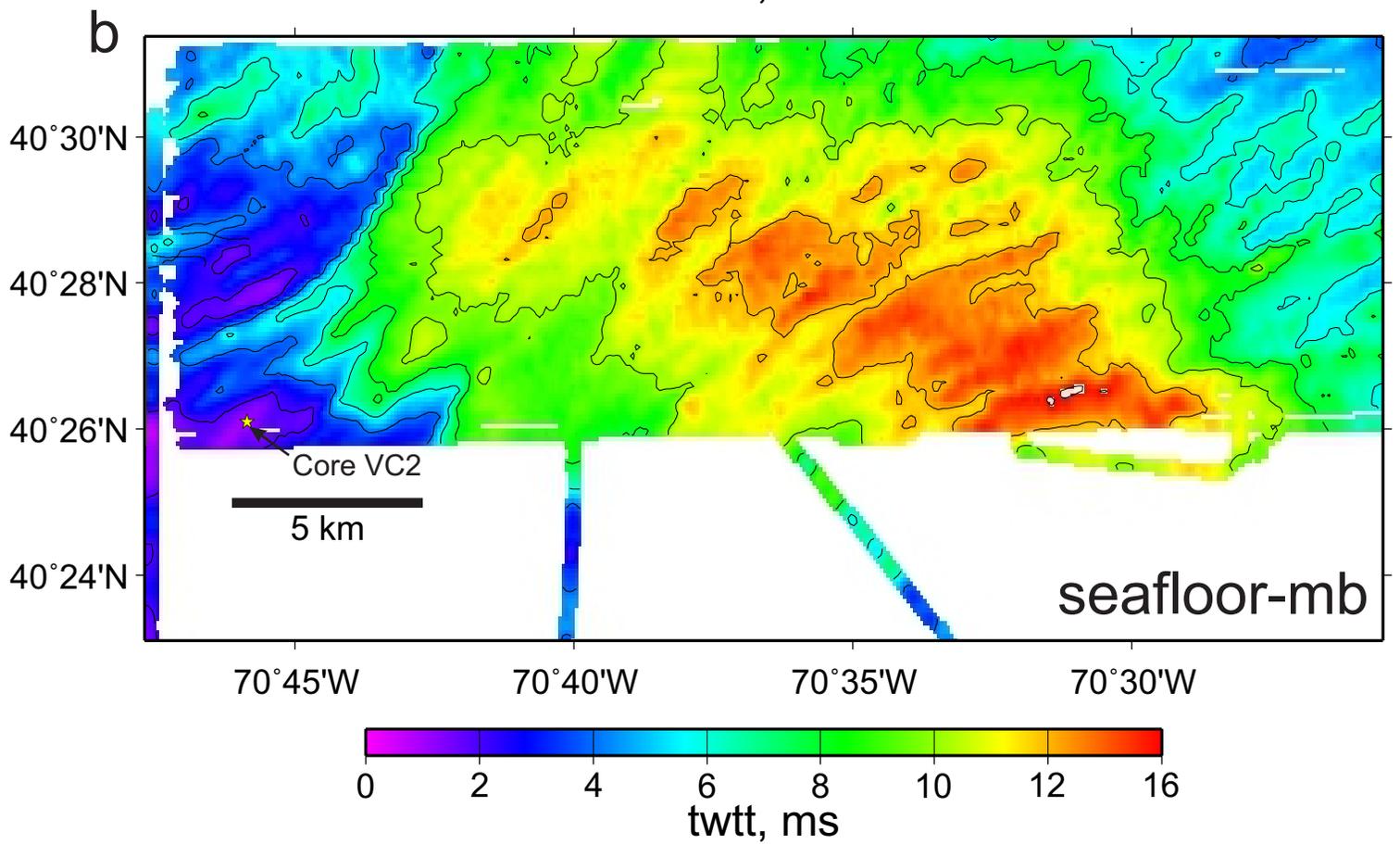
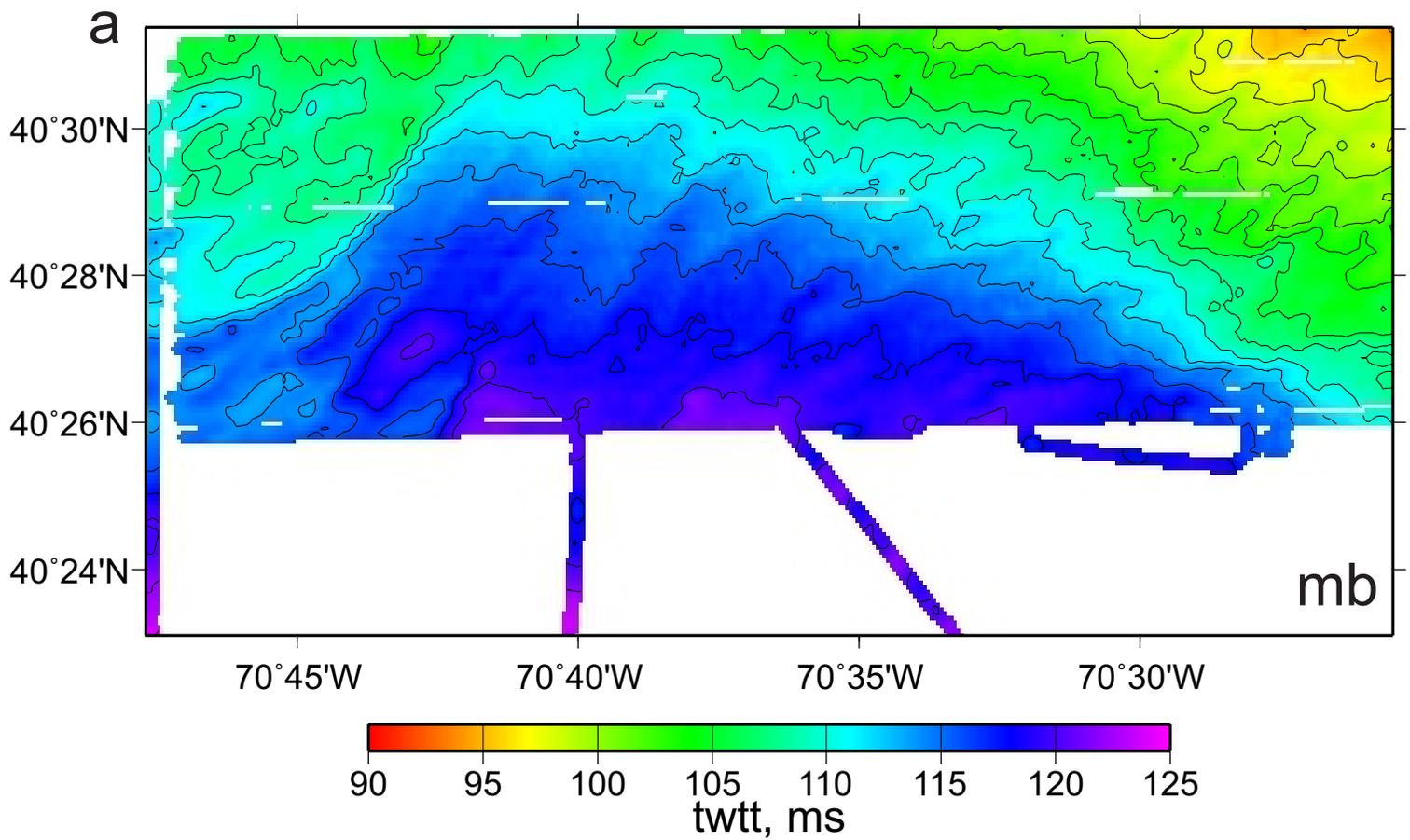


Figure 5

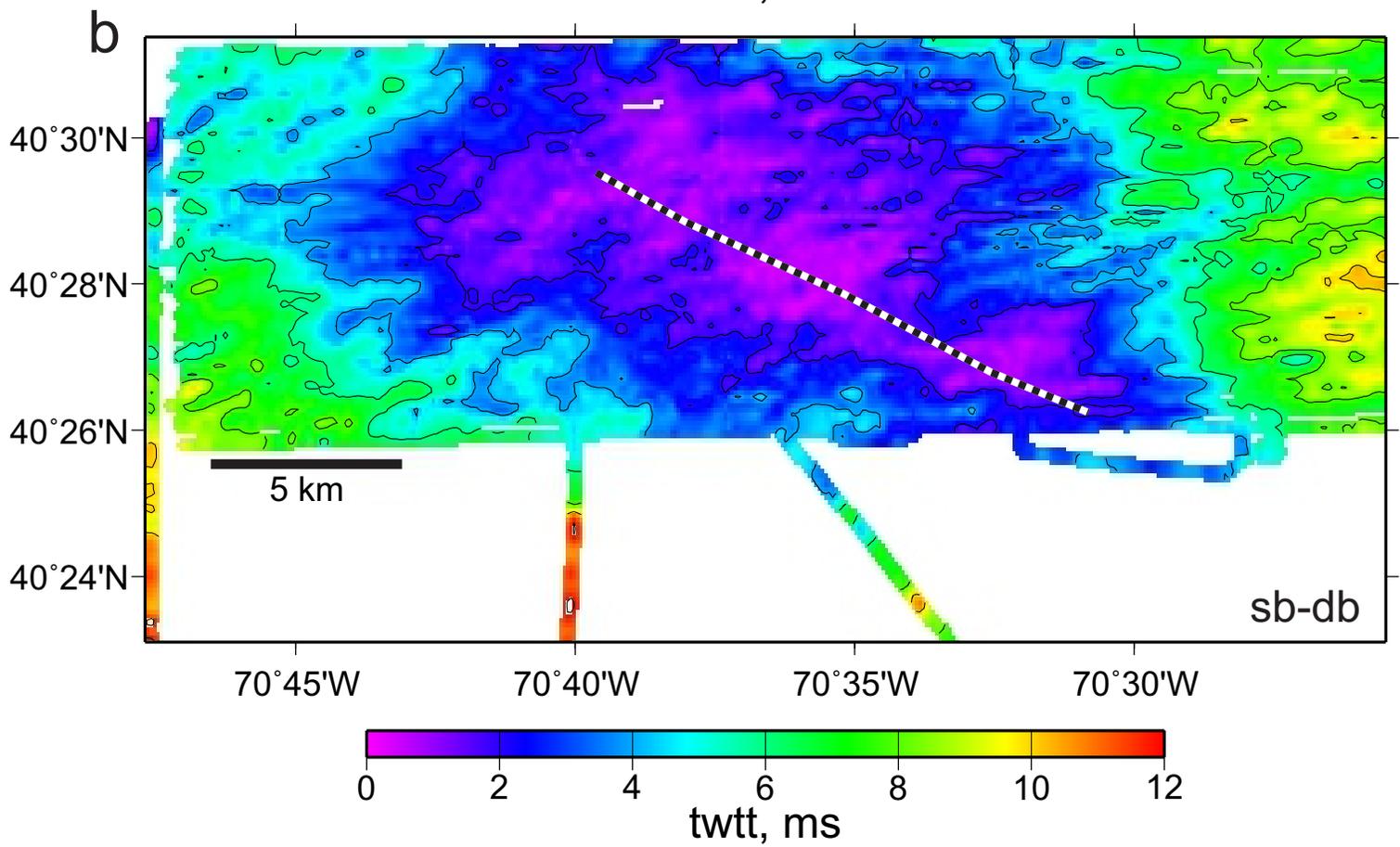
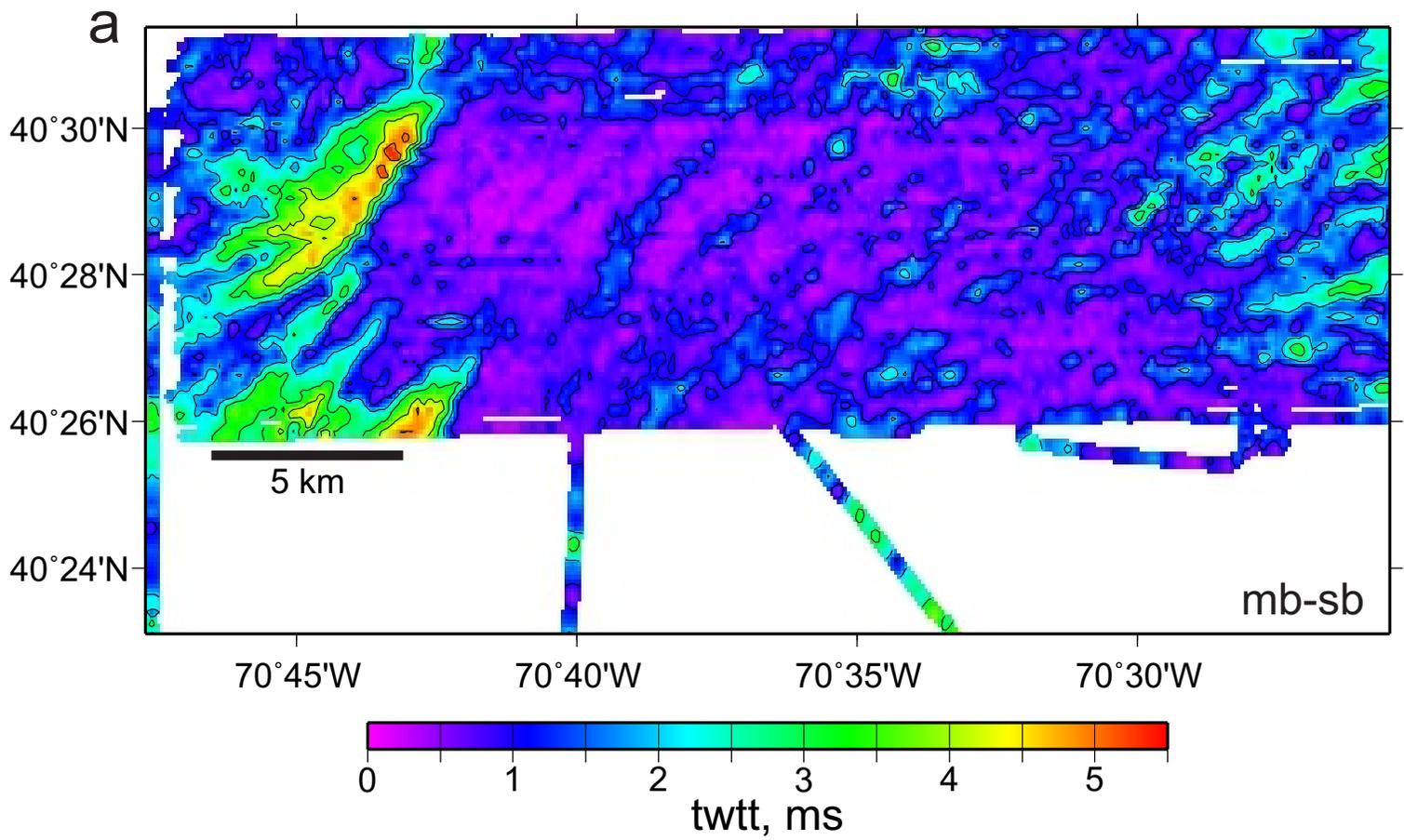


Figure 6

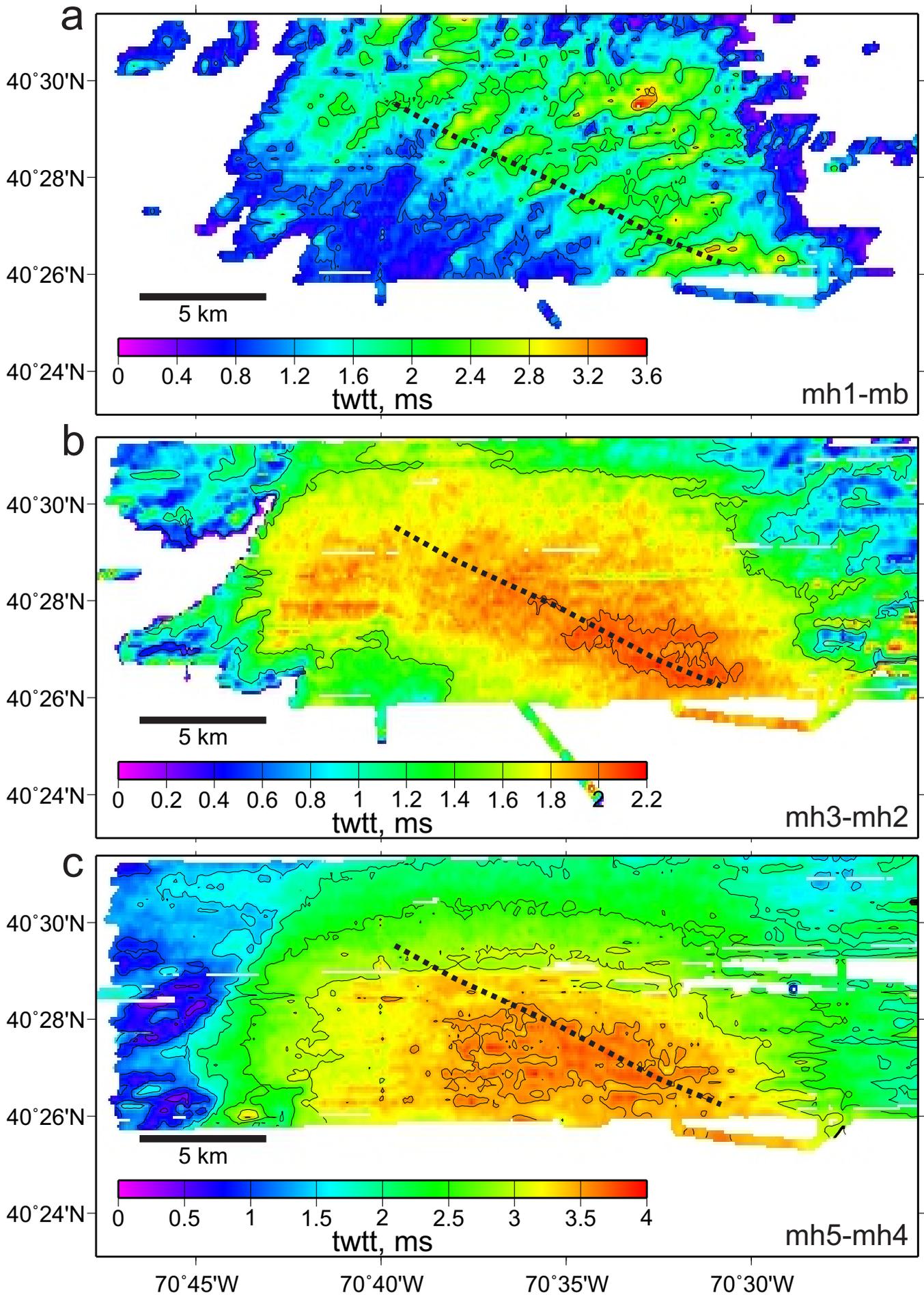


Figure 7

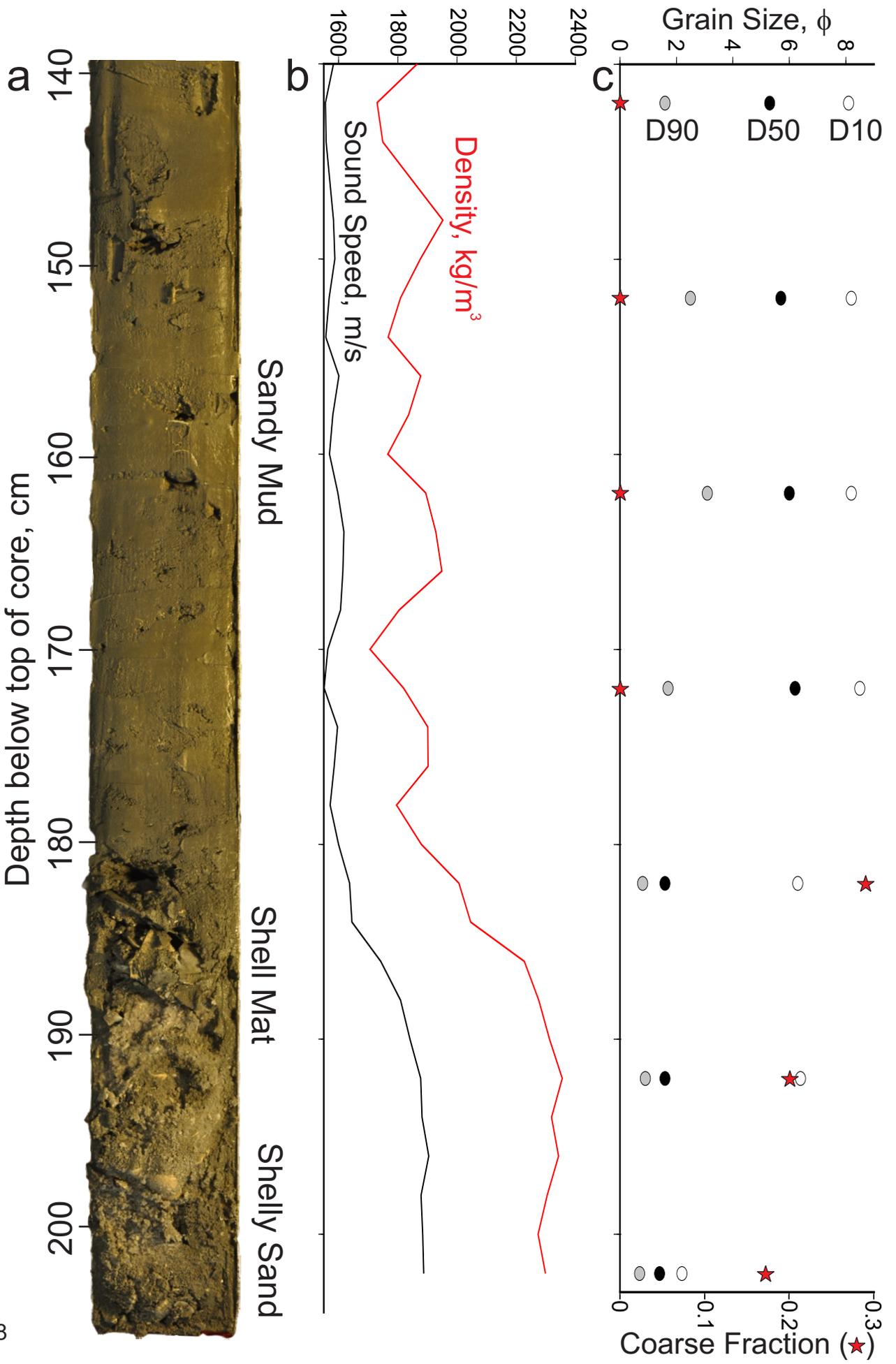


Figure 8

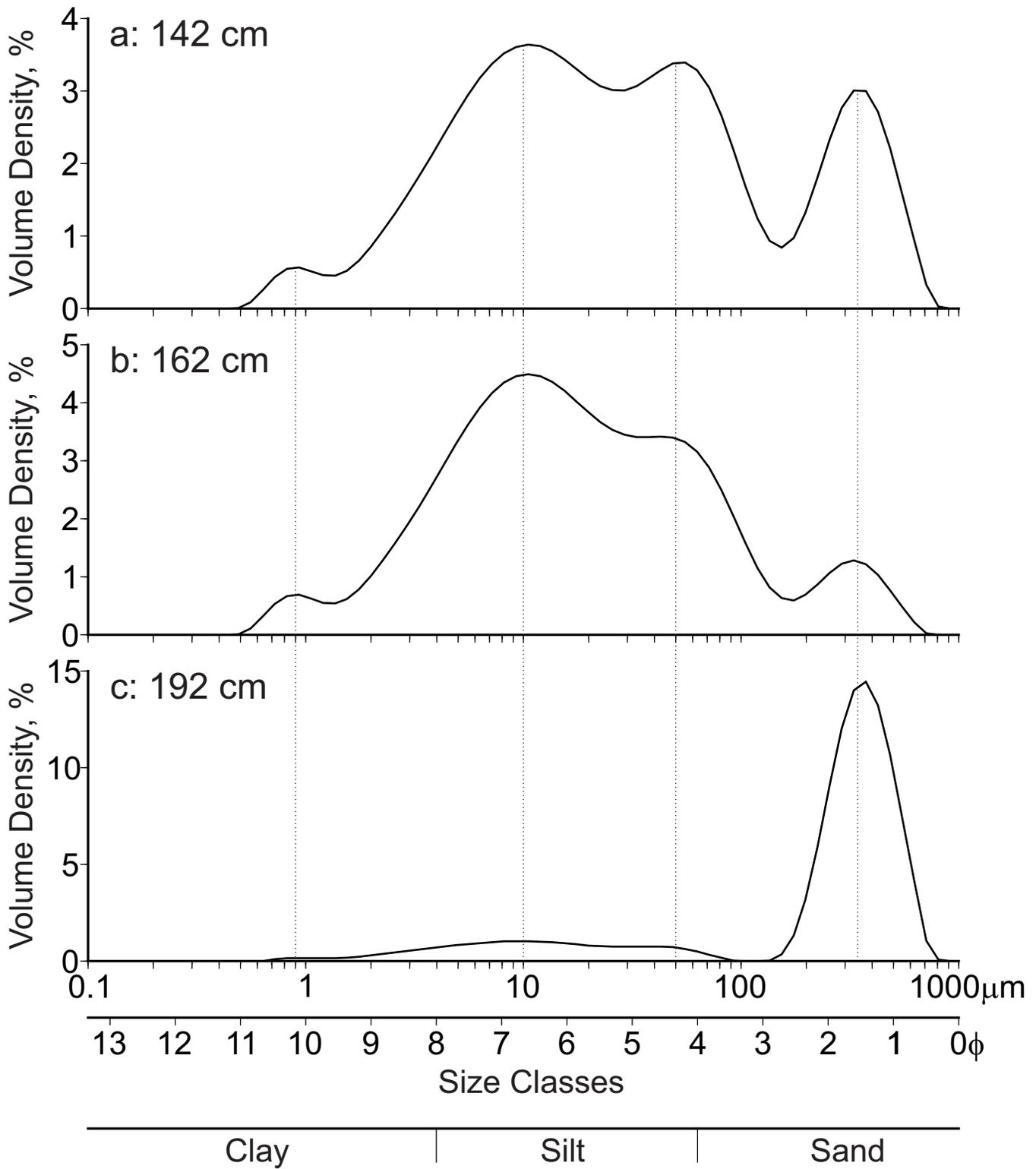


Figure 9