1 <u>This manuscript is a preprint</u> of a revised version after peer review in *Basin Research*.

2 Please note that the published versions of this manuscript may have different content.

3 The final version of this manuscript will be available via the 'Peer-reviewed

4 Publication DOI' link on the right-hand side of this webpage. Please feel free to contact

5 any of the authors, we welcome feedback!

6

7 **Shear localization and its impact on mass-transport complexes seal potential: insights from**
8 **geophysical datasets**
9

10 Zhenghao Han[1], Nan Wu[1*], Jinfeng Ren[2,3], Zenggui Kuang[2,3]

11 [1]State Key Laboratory of Marine Geology, Tongji University, 1239 Siping Road, Shanghai, 200092, China

12 [2]National Engineering Research Center of Gas Hydrate Exploration and Development, Guangzhou Marine

13 Geological Survey, Guangzhou, 511458, China

14 [3]Key Laboratory of Marine Mineral Resources, Ministry of Natural Resources, Guangzhou, 510075, China

15 *Nan Wu (nanwu@tongji.edu.cn)

16 **Abstract**

17 Mass-transport complexes (MTCs), the deposits of submarine slope failures and common features of

18 sedimentary basins worldwide, can act as effective seals for hydrocarbons and carbon sequestration

19 due to shear-induced overcompaction. However, seal failure is occasionally observed in specific parts

20 of MTCs, leading to hydrocarbon and carbon dioxide leakage, and posing potential threats to seabed

21 stability. In this study, we combine 3D seismic and well log data from Qiongdongnan Basin, northern

22 South China Sea, to investigate the mechanisms that influence and control the seal potential of MTCs.

23 We identified three vertically stacked MTCs overlying a gas hydrate bearing interval. Seismic

24 interpretation reveals that MTCs seal tends to fail in intervals where MTCs overlies the frontal ramp

25 or remnant block, whereas the remaining intervals effectively seal the underlying gas hydrate.

26 Petrophysical analyses show that MTCs intervals overlying frontal ramps or remnant blocks exhibit

27 significantly lower density and velocity, higher porosity and permeability, indicating reduced

28 compaction in these intervals. Numerical simulations indicate that during MTCs emplacement, shear

29 localization normally develops in the lowermost part, forming a narrow (10~20% MTCs total

30 thickness), highly deformed basal shear zone. However, shear localization is disrupted by the remnant

31 block or frontal ramp, leading to low shear strain and thus low seal potential in MTCs intervals

32 overlying the remnant block or frontal ramp. Therefore, we propose that shear localization is a key

33 mechanism controlling the seal potential of MTCs. Disruption of this process during emplacement

34 can significantly compromise MTCs seal potential, with important implications for understanding

hydrocarbon distribution and for assessing the feasibility of submarine carbon sequestration using

MTCs as natural seals.

1 Introduction

Mass-transport complexes (MTCs) are intensely deformed sedimentary bodies generated by the

downslope movement of unstable sediments under gravity (Talling et al., 2007; Bull et al., 2009; Wu

et al., 2024). MTCs can cover areas ranging from a few square kilometers to over ten thousand square

kilometers, with volumes reaching up to several hundred cubic kilometers (Karstens et al., 2023;

Richardson et al., 2011; Lenz & Sawyer, 2022). Borehole-based studies indicate that mud-rich MTCs

typically exhibit increased resistivity, P-wave velocity, and density, along with reduced porosity and

water content compared to the surrounding strata (Dugan et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2021; Wu et al.,

2022). Additionally, the lower intervals of mud-rich MTCs are characterized by the highest P-wave

velocity and density along with the lowest porosity, representing the most compacted interval named

basal shear zone (Wu et al., 2021). In contrast, the internal sand-rich blocks typically exhibit lower

P-wave velocity and density, higher porosity and permeability compared to the surrounding matrix,

suggesting that they may maintain high reservoir space (Cox et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2021). Therefore,

MTCs and their basal shear zones are considered effective seals for hydrocarbons, while the sand-

rich blocks are considered potential reservoirs.

Although MTCs are generally considered effective hydrocarbon seals due to their high compaction

and low permeability, recent studies have shown that seal failure may occur in specific parts of MTCs.

For example, fluid escape features such as pockmarks, gas chimneys, and acoustic anomalies are

observed within MTCs, indicating vertical fluid migration and local seal failure (Lastras et al., 2004;

Noda et al., 2013; Pattier et al., 2013). The apparent contradiction between the compacted, low-

permeability nature of MTCs and the observed indicators of fluid migration prompts an important

question: when do MTCs serve as effective seals, and what conditions lead to their failure? To address

the above question, we focus on the Songnan Low Uplift region in the Qiongdongnan Basin, South

60 China Sea, where vertically stacked MTCs overlying gas hydrate-bearing layers have been repeatedly

61 breached by fluid migration (Yang et al., 2013; Kuang et al., 2023). We integrate 3D seismic

62 reflection and well log data to characterize MTCs morphological features and petrophysical

63 properties, and ultimately to identify the key factors that control their seal potential. We follow the

64 seminal definitions by Kaldi and Atkinson (1997), in which seal potential is defined as a combination

65 of seal capacity (the hydrocarbon column height that can physically be held back), seal geometry

66 (areal extent and thickness), and seal integrity (rock mechanical properties).

67 Our results reveal that during emplacement, MTCs are subject to a strain-focusing mechanism known

68 as shear localization. This process typically occurs along the basal interval and gives rise to a highly

69 deformed band that corresponds to the basal shear zone previously identified by Wu et al. (2021),

70 which plays a key role in controlling the mechanical and sealing behavior of MTCs. Intervals of the

71 in-situ strata in our study area were strengthened prior to MTCs emplacement by gas hydrate

72 cementation or sandy turbidite infilling. These mechanically strengthened layers resisted erosion

73 during downslope emplacement of the MTC, forcing the moving mass to ramp up them and leaving

74 the uneroded strata as remnant blocks or frontal ramps. Where such structures were encountered,

75 shear localization became disrupted and strain was reduced. As a result, the overlying intervals of the

76 MTCs underwent markedly reduced shear compaction, developing higher porosity, permeability and

77 therefore exhibiting significantly lower seal potential. Understanding the conditions when MTCs

78 maintain or lose their seal potential is critical for evaluating subsurface fluid migration pathways,

79 hydrocarbon trap integrity, and gas hydrate system evolution in deep-water basins. These insights

80 also aid in evaluating gas hydrate reservoirs and guiding site selection for future carbon sequestration

81 using MTCs as natural seals.

82 **2 Geological Setting**

83 Qiongdongnan Basin is a Cenozoic rift basin characterized by thick Paleogene to Quaternary

84 sediments (6000~12,000 m) situated atop a Mesozoic igneous basement in the northern South China

85 Sea (Huang et al., 2016). Due to regional erosion caused by the uplift of the Tibetan Plateau and the

86 associated East Asia monsoon, substantial volumes of siliceous sediment are transported from the

87 southwestern Yangtze Block through the Red River system with additional sources from eastern

88 Indochina Block and Hainan (Figure 1a; Su et al., 2019).

89 Multiple phases of rifting and post-rift thermal subsidence have shaped the basin, forming a complex

90 network of normal faults and fracture zones (Yang et al., 2022). These faults act as major conduits

91 for vertical fluid migration, as evidenced by the widespread development of gas chimneys and fault-

92 rooted seepage structures (Cartwright & Santamarina, 2015; Kuang et al., 2023; Serov et al., 2023).

93 Focused fluid flow along these faults promotes gas hydrate formation and overpressure buildup within

94 sediments, both of which contribute to reduced slope stability (Mountjoy et al., 2014; Omosanya 2018;

95 Wu et al., 2020). The interplay between high sedimentation rates, active faulting, and intense fluid

96 activity in the Qiongdongnan Basin thus creates favorable conditions for submarine slope failure and

97 the development of MTCs.

98 The study area specifically focuses on the Songnan Low Uplift within the Qiongdongnan Basin,

99 which encompasses key zones targeted for gas hydrate exploration in the South China Sea (Figure

100 1b). Since 2013, the Guangzhou Marine Geological Survey has identified multiple conventional gas

101 fields and gas hydrate reservoirs in the Qiongdongnan Basin (Figure 1b). Seismic and well log data

102 suggest that MTCs are widely developed in the Songnan Low Uplift and often occur in close spatial

103 association with gas hydrate-bearing intervals (Kuang et al., 2023; Ren et al., 2024). This spatial

104 configuration implies a possible sealing relationship between MTCs and the gas hydrate beneath them.

105 **3 Data and Methods**

106 **3.1 Seismic data and well log data**

107 We use 3D seismic data provided by Guangzhou Marine Geological Survey. The 3D seismic data

108 were collected from the Songnan Low Uplift region in 2018, covering an area of approximately 360

109 km² with water depths ranging from 1,650 to 1,800 m (Figure 1b). The 3D seismic data are post-stack

110   time-migrated and zero-phase processed with positive amplitudes represented by a red and yellow

111   peak and negative amplitudes represented by a blue and grey trough (Figure 2). The 3D seismic

112   surveys have a dominant frequency of 40 Hz and an average seismic velocity of 1,660 m/s near the

113   seabed sediment, which gives an approximate vertical resolution of c. 10 m for the near seabed

114   sediments.

115   The well log data were acquired using Schlumberger tools from four wells (W1, W2, W3, W4),

116   including density, resistivity, neutron, acoustic, nuclear magnetic measurements, and in-situ

117   temperature measurements (Figure 1b). To establish the relationship between depth domain (true

118   vertical depth; TVD) well log data and time domain (two-way traveltime; TWT) seismic data,

119   seismic-well tie is performed respectively for each well. Seismic-well tie begins with creating a

120   synthetic seismogram using sonic and density logs to simulate how seismic waves travel through

121   subsurface geobodies at the well site (Lines & Newrick, 2004). This synthetic seismogram is then

122   compared to the actual seismic data collected near the well. By aligning the synthetic seismogram

123   with the actual seismic trace, we can ensure that seismic reflections accurately match the geological

124   layers observed in the well, enhancing the reliability of subsurface interpretations (see **Appendix A**

125   for details).

126   **3.2 Seismic attributes analysis**

127   Seismic attributes are quantitative measurements derived from seismic data to reveal subsurface

128   structures and properties that may not be immediately apparent in raw datasets (Chopra & Marfurt,

129   2007). In this study, we use variance and spectral decomposition with RGB blending to enhance the

130   interpretation of complex geological features such as MTCs and fluid escape pipes.

131   The variance attribute measures the variability or heterogeneity within seismic traces, making it ideal

132   for highlighting discontinuities (Chopra & Marfurt, 2007). For MTCs, high variance often

133   corresponds to chaotic zones caused by sediment mixing during transport (Chopra & Marfurt, 2007;

134   Chen et al., 2022). For fluid escape pipes, these features create vertical disturbances in seismic data,

135   which manifest as zones of high variance (Cartwright et al., 2007; Cartwright & Santamarina, 2015).

136   By applying variance attribute, we identify the spatial extent, boundaries, internal architecture of

137   MTCs and enhance the visibility of fluid escape pipes.

138   Spectral decomposition is a frequency based seismic attribute analysis technique that breaks down

139   seismic data into its individual frequency components (Anomneze et al., 2025). RGB blending is a

140   visualization technique that builds on spectral decomposition to create an intuitive representation of

141   frequency content (Bataller et al., 2019). In this method, three narrow frequency bins are split from

142   the decomposed seismic data and assigned to the red (R), green (G), and blue (B) color channels,

143   respectively (Bataller et al., 2019). Areas with similar frequency characteristics then appear in similar

144   colors, allowing us to quickly spot patterns, transitions, or heterogeneities, such as intra-MTCs

145   structures or fluid escape pipes (Eckersley et al., 2018).

146   **3.3 MTCs and Gas hydrate observation**

147   MTCs are bounded by a continuous high-amplitude basal shear surface and a rugose medium- to

148   high-amplitude top surface (Moscardelli & Wood, 2008; Bull et al., 2009). MTCs are internally

149   chaotic to transparent, contrasting sharply with the continuous, parallel reflections of the surrounding

150   hemipelagic sediments (Moscardelli & Wood, 2008; Bull et al., 2009). From well log data, MTCs

151   intervals are characterized by increased density, resistivity, and decreased porosity, permeability,

152   compared to the overlying and underlying non-MTCs units (Dugan, 2012; Sawyer et al., 2009).

153   The presence of gas hydrates is identified through the presence of Bottom Simulating Reflector (BSR)

154   in seismic data and the distinct petrophysical responses in the well log data. From seismic data, BSR

155   is recognized as a high-amplitude reflection that parallels the seabed but has the opposite polarity to

156   the seabed (Korenaga et al., 1997). It represents the acoustic impedance contrast between the hydrate-

157   bearing sediments above and the free gas-bearing sediments below. From well log data, the hydrate-

158   bearing intervals are defined by increased resistivity and P-wave velocity relative to the surrounding

159   non-hydrate-bearing strata (Holbrook et al., 1996).

160 **3.4 Permeability calculation**

161 Permeability represents a direct quantitative indicator for evaluating seal potential (Schowalter, 1979).

162 However, in situ measurements of permeability in fine-grained MTCs are difficult and costly to

163 perform. To yield accurate permeability estimation for MTCs, we calculate the permeability from

164 nuclear magnetic resonance measurements through empirical Schlumberger-Doll Research equation

165 developed by Kenyon et al. (1988):

$$k = A\phi^4(T_{2LM})^2 \tag{1}$$

167 where φ $[m^3 \cdot m^{-3}]$ is the porosity, T_{2LM} $[ms]$ is the logarithmic mean of the T_2 distribution, and A

168 $[m^2 \cdot m^{-2}]$ is the fitting coefficient.

169 The investigated MTCs here exhibit increased clay content, ranging from 20% to 50% (Liang et al.,

170 2021; Kuang et al., 2023). For the determination of fitting coefficient *A*, we implement the function

171 of lithology developed by Daigle and Dugan (2009) specifically for silt- and clay-rich sediments:

$$A = -2.7 \times 10^{-18}GR + 2.4 \times 10^{-16} \tag{2}$$

173 where GR $[gAPI]$ is the gamma ray log value.

174 While the empirical Schlumberger-Doll Research equation provides the feasible means of estimating

175 permeability in fine-grained MTCs, we acknowledge that its accuracy is highly dependent on the

176 fitting coefficient *A* (Kenyon et al., 1988). Although the lithology-dependent function developed by

177 Daigle and Dugan (2009) can account for the high silt and clay content, this function is derived from

178 general sedimentary environments and is not validated against core-measured permeability specific

179 to the MTCs in the Qiongdongnan Basin. Therefore, the calculated permeability in our study should

180 be treated as quantitative indicators for relative permeability variations, rather than absolute values

181 of permeability.

182 **3.5 Numerical modelling**

183 To approximate the shear deformation within MTCs flowing above topographically variable strata,

184 we implement a two-dimensional numerical solver based on implicit pseudo-transient methods and

185 finite difference discretization (Räss et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2024). The momentum equations at steady

186 state can be simplified to:

$$\frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + F_i - \rho \left(u_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \right) = 0 \tag{3}$$

188 where τ_{ij} $[Pa]$ is the deviatoric stress tensor, p $[Pa]$ is the isotropic pressure, $F_i = \rho g(\sin \alpha, \cos \alpha)$

189 $[kg \cdot s^{-2} \cdot m^{-2}]$ is the gravitational body force at a tilted angle α, $u_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j}$ $[m \cdot s^{-2}]$ is the convective

190 acceleration term, and $i \in \{x, z\}$ indexes the two spatial components.

191 Herein, we describe failing MTCs as mass flow with Herschel-Bulkley rheology behavior. Failing

192 sediments behave as a fluid (i.e., $\tau > \tau_0$), thus neglecting the state of rigid solid. The rheology model

193 for simple shear is implemented using:

$$\tau_{ij} = \tau_0 + k_0 \dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^n \tag{4}$$

195 where τ_0 is the yield shear stress $[Pa]$, k_0 is the consistency index $[Pa \cdot s^n]$, n is the flow index

196 $[dimensionless]$. The key physical parameters of modelled fluid can be found in Table 1.

197 Failing sediments flow into the domain from the left boundary above undeforming strata and exits at

198 the right boundary. The analytical inflow field is calculated by solving the momentum balance along

199 the flow at steady state. The outlet boundary condition is following the approach of Kreiss (1968),

200 Gustafsson et al. (1972), and Orlanski (1976).

201 To prescribe the interface between MTCs and undeformed strata, we implement the immersed-

202 boundary method, a fictitious domain method that allows us to treat fluid and solid domains separately

203 and efficiently (Peskin, 1972, 2002). This method facilitates the independent and computationally

204 efficient handling of fluid and solid domains, making it well-suited for addressing the intricate

205 geometries and dynamic interactions prevalent in MTCs (Peskin, 1972, 2002; Zhao et al., 2021).

206 The detailed explanations of numerical simulation considering pseudo-transient methods, rheology

207 model generalization, boundary conditions, and immersed-boundary method can be accessed in

208 **Appendix B**.

209 **4 Results**

210 **4.1 MTC-1**

211 **Observation:** MTC-1 is bounded by horizon H1 at its base and horizon H2 at its top (Figure 2). The

212 lateral and distal boundaries of MTC-1 extend beyond the limits of the 3D seismic dataset. Structure

213 map and variance attribute map from horizon H1 shows a series of E-trending lineations that are

214 generally oriented downslope (Figure 3a & b). These lineations range from 50~100m in width,

215 2.5~5.0km in length, and exhibit erosional characteristics, cutting downward into the underlying

216 substrate. The central region of MTC-1 contains a block-shaped feature and exhibits a higher-variance

217 boundary compared to the surrounding area (Figures 3a & b). In the correlated seismic section, the

218 block exhibits internally sub-parallel, continuous, high-amplitude seismic reflections (Figure 2).

219 Below the block, the seismic reflections are marked by high-amplitude and negative polarity opposite

220 to the seabed reflection (Figure 2). Within the blocks, pull-up reflections that vertically traverse the

221 block and overlying MTC-1 (Figure 2). These pull-up seismic reflections form pipe like features

222 extending to the seabed, where they generate 200~500m wide depressions on the seabed (Figure 2).

223 The eastern region of MTC-1 shows a continuous SSW-trending scarp (Figure 3a). In the correlated

224 seismic section, the scarp manifests as a segment of the basal shear surface that discordantly cuts up

225 to a stratigraphically higher strata at a high angle (Figure 2). Spectral decomposition attribute

226 extracted from horizon H1 shows a series of concave-eastward, regularly spaced subparallel

227 lineations developed adjacent to the easternmost part of the scarp (Figure 3c). These subparallel

228 lineations appear in seismic section as semicontinuous, medium-amplitude reflections (Figure 2).

229   **Interpretation:** The E-trending lineations are interpreted as grooves, forming by clasts entrained

230   within the host flow that abraded the contemporaneous seabed (Figure 3d; Posamentier and Martinsen,

231   2011; Sobiesiak et al., 2018). Grooves typically develop parallel to the main flow direction,

232   suggesting that MTC-1 was emplaced in a E-direction (Bull et al., 2009). The block-shaped feature,

233   characterized by internally sub-parallel, continuous seismic reflections, is interpreted as a remnant

234   block, representing an isolated segment of sediment that has not undergone failure (Bull et al., 2009).

235   The pull-up seismic reflections with pipe-like geometries are interpreted as manifestations of fluid

236   escape structures (Wang et al., 2025). The seabed depressions are interpreted as pockmarks in

237   previous studies and are indicative of recurrent cold seep activity (Ye et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2024;

238   Wang et al., 2025). Considering the spatial correlation between fluid escape structures that crosscut

239   MTC-1, we infer that seal failure has occurred at the location of the remnant block.

240   The SSW-trending scarp is interpreted as a frontal ramp, formed by the upward incision of the MTCs

241   into shallower stratigraphic levels (Bull et al., 2009; Joanne et al., 2013). The concave-eastward,

242   regularly spaced subparallel lineations are interpreted as pressure ridges, formed by a combination of

243   shear compression and resistance from the undeformed sediments during the deceleration and

244   eventual cessation of MTCs movement (Figure 3d; Bull et al., 2009; Joanne et al., 2013; Ortiz-Karpf

245   et al., 2018).

246   **4.2 MTCs 2&3**

247   **Observation:** MTC-2 is bounded by Horizon H3 at its base and Horizon H4 at its top (Figure 2). Its

248   lateral extent surpasses the limits of the available 3D seismic dataset. Variance and spectral

249   decomposition attributes extracted from the basal shear surface (H3) reveal a series of E-trending

250   lineations, morphologically comparable to those on Horizon H1 (Figures 4a–4c). These lineations

251   terminate at the distal edge of MTC-2, defining a distinct boundary that marks the downslope limit

252   of the MTC-2 (Figures 4b & 4c).

253   MTC-3 is confined between Horizon H5 at the base and Horizon H6 at the top (Figure 2). Its lateral

254   margin extends beyond the 3D seismic dataset. Variance and spectral decomposition attributes from

255   Horizon H5 reveal a basal shear surface characterized by E-trending lineations, ranging from 0.1~2.5

256   km in width and 2.5~15 km in length (Figure 5a–5c). These E-trending lineations exhibit a divergent

257   pattern downslope, suggesting flow spreading and possible lateral unconfined emplacement (Figure

258   5c). The termination of these grooves delineates the distal margin of MTC-3, marked by a distinct

259   boundary of seismic striation cessation (Figures 5b & 5c).

260   A cluster of semi-rounded, crater-like depressions measuring 50~100 m in diameter is observed

261   beyond the distal margins of MTC-2 and MTC-3 (Figures 4b & 5b). In the variance attribute map,

262   they correspond to zones of increased variance (Figure 6a), while the spectral decomposition map

263   shows scattered bright spots coinciding with their locations (Figure 6b). In seismic sections, the

264   depressions are situated directly above the frontal ramp beneath MTC-1 (Figures 6c & 6d). They are

265   bounded by near-vertical (~90°) discontinuities but lack internal deformation typically linked to

266   MTCs emplacement, such as folding or faulting.

267   **Interpretation:** Consistent with MTC-1, the E-trending lineations on the basal shear surface of MTC-

268   2 and MTC-3 are interpreted as grooves (Figure 4d & 5d; Posamentier and Martinsen, 2011;

269   Sobiesiak et al., 2018). The E-trending erosional features with divergent shape on the basal shear

270   surface of MTC-3 are interpreted as scours, formed when the basal drag is great enough to allow the

271   mass movement to plough into the substrate (Figure 5d; Sobiesiak et al., 2018). Considering the

272   kinematic indicators provided by grooves and scours, the emplacement direction of MTC-2 and

273   MTC-3 is inferred as E-in general.

274   The semi-rounded, crater-like depressions observed beyond the distal margins of MTC-2 and MTC-

275   3 suggest a post-emplacement origin, likely associated with vertical fluid escape (Figure 6d).

276   Additionally, an exploration well drilled near the fluid escape pipes was halted due to significant

277   influx of methane gas from the borehole, confirming the escaping fluids were methane-bearing

278   (Kuang et al., 2023). The semi-rounded, crater-like depressions are thus interpreted as fluid escape

279   pipes caused by the seepage of methane-bearing fluids (Figure 6d; Cartwright & Santamarina, 2015;

280   Ye et al., 2019). The presence of fluid escape pipes directly above the frontal ramp of MTC-1 (Figure

281   6d) suggests that seal failure occurred at the frontal ramp crest.

282   **4.3 MTCs petrophysical properties**

283   **Observation:** Compared to the surrounding non-MTCs units, MTCs are normally characterized by

284   increased density (1.8~2.0 g/cm³), resistivity (1.3~2.5 Ω·m), and decreased porosity (45~65%),

285   permeability (0.5~6.5 mD), which remains consistent with previously published studies (Figure 7;

286   Dugan, 2012; Sawyer et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2022). However, the petrophysical properties of MTC-

287   1change abruptly across the deposit, with intervals overlying remnant blocks and frontal ramps

288   showing markedly different characteristics compared with the surrounding portions of the MTCs that

289   lack such underlying structures. Intervals of MTC-1 that overlie the remnant block and frontal ramp

290   display distinctly different petrophysical characteristics, including lower density (1.6~1.7 g/cm³),

291   lower resistivity (0.7~1.6 Ω·m), and higher porosity (55~80%) and permeability (2.5~10.5 mD)

292   compared to the normal MTC-1 intervals devoid of these features (Figure 8). More specifically, the

293   density of MTC-1 intervals overlying the remnant block and frontal ramp is approximately 13% lower

294   than that of remaining parts of MTC-1 (Figure 8a), while resistivity decreases by ~39% (Figure 8b),

295   porosity increases by ~23% (Figure 8c), and permeability increases by ~217% (Figure 8d).

296   **Interpretation:** The significantly lower density and resistivity, coupled with higher porosity and

297   permeability observed in MTC-1 intervals overlying the remnant block and frontal ramp, indicate a

298   substantially reduced degree of compaction. The reduced compaction in MTC-1 intervals overlying

299   the remnant block and frontal ramp implies that the seal potential in these zones is significantly

300   weakened. This is consistent with the fluid escape structures observed above the remnant block and

301   frontal ramp (Figure 2 & Figure 6). Thus, the seal potential of MTC-1 varies spatially, with intervals

302   overlying the remnant block and frontal ramp showing lower degrees of compaction and consequently

303   reduced seal potential.

5 Discussions and Implications

5.1 Shear localization as a key control on MTCs seal potential

Previous studies have identified two primary mechanisms responsible for MTCs seal failure: (1) fault-controlled fluid migration, where normal or thrust faults provide permeable pathways for fluid escape (e.g., Pattier et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2013); and (2) overpressure-driven breaching, where MTCs emplacement induces overpressure in underlying strata, triggering upward fluid migration and seal failure (e.g., Moernaut et al., 2017). In this study, the three MTCs exhibit no seismically resolvable internal faulting, and no evidence of overpressure is observed in the underlying gas hydrate system (Kuang et al., 2023), suggesting that neither fault-assisted nor overpressure-driven mechanisms can account for the observed seal failure. The following section investigates the potential triggers of MTCs seal failure in the study area.

We use a two-dimensional numerical solver based on finite difference discretization and implicit pseudo-transient methods to model the distribution and evolution of shear strain during MTCs emplacement (Räss et al., 2022; Trujillo-Vela et al., 2022). Numerical simulation shows that, under conditions of low-gradient (tilt angle 1.2°) basal shear surface without remnant block or frontal ramp, shear strain consistently develops within a 4.0~8.0, representing approximately 10~20% of the total MTCs thickness confined to its lowermost part (Figure 9a). This concentration of shear strain is referred to as shear localization, characterized by a distinct deformation band with increased shear strain rates during MTCs emplacement (Anders et al., 2000; Mitchell et al., 2015; Steventon et al., 2019). Shear localization describes the phenomenon where strain is not distributed uniformly and instead concentrates at a narrow band-like region. The boundary between the moving MTCs and the underlying in-situ strata is where the maximum velocity and rheology contrast locate (Anders et al., 2000; Mitchell et al., 2015; Steventon et al., 2019). Therefore, the shear localization normally occurs near the base of MTCs, forming the basal shear zone. The presence of shear localization in the lower part of the MTCs is consistent with petrophysical and outcrop-based studies, which identify the lowermost 15~30 m, accounting for 10~20% MTCs total thickness, as the densest interval that

330 accommodated the majority of shear deformation during emplacement (Hodgson et al., 2019; Wu et

331 al., 2021).

332 As seismic and well log interpretations reveal that seal failure occurs in MTC-1 where it overlies the

333 remnant block and frontal ramp, we simulate two additional emplacement scenarios. In the first

334 scenario, when the MTC encounters a frontal ramp, shear strain intensifies along the ramp edge but

335 diminishes across the ramp crest (Figure 9b). In the second scenario, when the MTC collides with a

336 remnant block, shear strain similarly increases along the block margins but is markedly reduced

337 across the block crest (Figure 9c). These modelling results, together with our seismic observations,

338 indicate that the formation of the remnant block and frontal ramp is attributed to the gas hydrate or

339 sandy turbidite in the in-situ strata predating MTC-1 emplacement (Figure 10a; Yang et al., 2013;

340 Wan et al., 2022; Kuang et al., 2023). The strengthening effect of hydrates and sandy turbidites

341 increased the shear strength of these strata by raising the critical shear stress threshold (Mitchener &

342 Torfs, 1996; Madhusudhan et al., 2019). As a result, MTC-1 was unable to erode these mechanically

343 strengthened strata and instead ramped up and over them, preserving them as remnant blocks or

344 frontal ramps (Figure 10b).

345 When MTCs overrides such mechanically strengthened strata, shear localization weakens above the

346 resulting remnant block or frontal ramp. The associated reduction in shear strain suppresses shear

347 compaction in these intervals, thereby lowering their seal potential. This mechanism is fully

348 consistent with the petrophysical evidence, in which MTC-1 intervals overlying the remnant block

349 and frontal ramp exhibit lower density and resistivity, and higher porosity and permeability, reflecting

350 reduced compaction. Seal failure in these zones may be further enhanced by locally thin MTCs cover

351 and by fluid focusing around the remnant block (Gamboa et al., 2011).

352 MTCs seal potential is primarily controlled by shear localization, as shear strain plays a key role in

353 shaping the microstructure of granular materials (Figure 11a). High shear strain promotes grain size

354 reduction (Mitchell et al., 2015; Siman-Tov & Brodsky, 2018), collapse of pore bodies (Emmanuel

355 & Day-Stirrat, 2012; Cardona et al., 2016) and realignment of pore throats (Kanamatsu et al., 2014;

356 Cardona et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2022). In contrast, low shear strain inhibits these processes and

357 instead promotes partial elastic rebound, allowing pore structures to reopen and seepage pathways to

358 widen (Gatter et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2023). Thus, the low strain in MTCs intervals overlying the

359 remnant block and frontal ramp lead to elastic rebound and limited grain size rearrangement, which

360 together widen seepage pathways and increase permeability (Figure 11b). This reduction in shear

361 compaction ultimately weakens the seal potential of these intervals and results in localized seal failure.

362 In comparison, areas of normal topography, or the edges of strengthened in-situ strata, tend to

363 experience increased shear strain during emplacement. These high-strain zones undergo grain size

364 reduction, pore-throat collapse, and directional pore alignment (Figure 11c; Gatter et al., 2021). This

365 increases compaction and enhances the seal potential of MTCs, thereby reducing the likelihood of

366 seal failure in such regions.

367 **5.2 Implications for gas hydrate formation and distribution**

368 Previous studies indicate that the BSRs in our study area display complex fluid migration and re-

369 accumulation behavior, as reflected by the presence of multiple double BSRs (Yang et al., 2013; Wan

370 et al., 2022). In this section, we focus on the re-accumulated gas hydrates after the emplacement of

371 MTC-3, rather than the residue gas hydrates responsible for generating the remnant block. Where

372 MTC-1 remains highly compacted and preserves a well-developed basal shear zone (i.e., in areas

373 lacking remnant blocks and frontal ramp), it retains high seal potential. This allows methane-rich

374 fluids sourced the Songnan Low Uplift to accumulate beneath the MTCs, forming BSR 1 (Table 2;

375 Figure 12; Kuang et al., 2023). The free gas associated with BSR 1 then migrates laterally, providing

376 the methane necessary for the subsequent formation of BSR 2 and BSR 3 (Figure 12).

377 BSR 2 lies beneath an area where MTC-1 also retains high seal potential. Under such conditions,

378 increased pressures favor gas-hydrate crystallization as methane-rich fluids cool during long-distance

379 lateral advection (Sloan, 2003; Walsh et al., 2009; Crutchley et al., 2014). This process ultimately

380 leads to the formation of high-saturation gas hydrates in BSR 2 (Table 2; Figure 12). In contrast, upon

381 reaching the crest of frontal ramp, where the seal potential of MTC-1 is compromised, methane-rich

382 fluids are able to migrate vertically. This upward migration traverses the under-compacted zones in

383 MTC-1 and the overlying MTC-2 and MTC-3, producing crater-like pockmarks on the seabed that

384 record focused fluid escape (Figure 12).

385 In contrast, BSR 3 lies beneath an area where the MTC-1 interval overlies a remnant block and

386 displays reduced seal potential (Figure 12). Under these weakened seal conditions, only moderate

387 pressures develop, allowing methane-rich fluids to partially crystallize into gas hydrate during

388 advective cooling while the remaining fraction persists as free gas (Ker et al., 2019; Milkov et al.,

389 2004; Ruppel & Kessler, 2017). This results in low-saturation gas hydrates that coexist with free gas

390 in BSR 3 (Table 2; Figure 12). The residual free gas then migrates upward through the under-

391 compacted zones above the remnant block and ultimately breaches the seabed, forming a cluster of

392 pockmarks and a cold seep system (Figure 12; Wang et al., 2025).

393 Thus, we demonstrate that the seal potential of MTCs is a first-order control on subsurface fluid

394 migration and hydrate accumulation. Where MTCs remain highly compacted and preserve a

395 continuous basal shear zone (i.e., lacking frontal ramps or remnant blocks), they function as effective

396 seals that prevents the vertical migration of methane-rich fluids. This promotes the development of

397 laterally focused free-gas accumulations (e.g., BSR 1) or high-saturation gas hydrates (e.g., BSR 2),

398 depending on the prevailing pressure-temperature conditions. In contrast, where basal shear zones are

399 disrupted by the presence of remnant blocks or frontal ramps, the seal potential of the MTCs is

400 reduced. In these zones, free gas can migrate vertically, producing seabed pockmarks when gas supply

401 is limited, or forming mixed-phase systems of coexisting free gas and low-saturation gas hydrates

402 when gas supply is sustained (e.g., BSR 3). Therefore, spatial variations in the seal potential of MTCs

403 dictate fluid migration pathways and exert a direct control on the formation, saturation, and

404 distribution of gas hydrates.

6 Conclusions

In this study, we integrate 3D seismic reflection and well log data to investigate the sealing behavior of three vertically stacked MTCs in the Qiongdongnan Basin, northern South China Sea, with the aim of identifying the key factor that control their seal potential. We show that:

(1) Shear localization normally develops in the lowermost part of MTCs during emplacement, forming a narrow (10~20% MTCs total thickness), highly deformed basal shear zone. This shear deformation enhances MTCs compaction, reduces porosity and permeability, and is therefore critical for the seal potential of MTCs.

(2) The remnant block and frontal ramp can disrupt shear localization during MTCs emplacement. This disruption results in lower degrees of compaction and higher permeability in intervals of MTCs overlying these basal structures, ultimately leading to seal failure at these locations.

(3) The quality of MTCs seals plays a key role in the spatial distribution and accumulation of gas hydrates. MTCs with high seal potential promote the accumulation of free gas or high-saturation hydrates, whereas those with reduced seal potential lead to low-saturation hydrates coexisting with free gas.

(4) Understanding the conditions under which MTCs function as effective seals, or fail, is crucial for predicting gas hydrate distribution and identifying suitable sites for carbon sequestration in submarine settings. Therefore, such knowledge of subsurface fluid flow is critical for derisking future hydrocarbon exploration and carbon sequestration initiatives.

Appendix A: Seismic well tie

We show one example of seismic-well tie using W1 (Figure A2). Here, sonic and density logs are used to generate synthetic seismograms:

$$Reflection\ coefficient = \frac{\rho_2 v_2 - \rho_1 v_1}{\rho_2 v_2 + \rho_1 v_1} \qquad (A1)$$

428 where ρ is density $[kg \cdot m^{-3}]$, v is P-wave velocity $[m \cdot s^{-1}]$, and the subscripts denote two

429 subsurface layers.

430 The set of reflection coefficients is then band limited to the same frequency band as the actual seismic

431 data (Lines & Newrick, 2004). Between the well log synthetic seismograms and actual seismic data,

432 correlations are made through the vertical stretch or squeeze of the seismograms to match key

433 subsurface intervals. Finally, the relationship between depth domain well log data and time domain

434 seismic data can be established.

435 **Appendix B: Numerical modelling**

436 **B1. Implicit pseudo-transient methods**

437 The implicit pseudo-transient method is a powerful numerical technique renowned for its robustness

438 in tackling highly nonlinear problems, such as shear band formation in visco-elasto-plastic media

439 (Räss et al., 2022). This iterative approach enhances stability in the solution process by introducing a

440 pseudo-time derivative, making it highly effective for modeling complex rheological behaviors (Räss

441 et al., 2022). Studies have shown it can deliver over 96% parallel efficiency on distributed-memory

442 systems utilizing up to 2197 graphics processing units (Räss et al., 2022). Under these circumstances,

443 implicit pseudo-transient method possesses high robustness and scalability, which makes it well

444 suited for solving the momentum equation to approximate the shear deformation within MTCs.

445 At each physical time step, implicit pseudo-transient method is implemented for the iterative solution

446 to the momentum equation:

447
$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial \Gamma_p} = -\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_i} \tag{B1}$$

448
$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial \Gamma_u} = \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_i} + F_i - \rho \left(u_j \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} \right) \tag{B2}$$

449 where Γ presents the pseudo-time step.

450   An implicit solution of the momentum equations can be achieved when the continuity residual $\frac{\partial p}{\partial \Gamma_p}$

451   and the momentum residual $\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial \Gamma_u}$ are minimized. The detailed implementation processes of implicit

452   pseudo-transient methods can be found in Räss et al. (2022).

453   **B2. Herschel-Bulkley rheology model**

454   The generalized rheology model for simple shear is implemented using:

455
$$\tau_{ij} = \tau_0 + k_0 \dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}^n \tag{B3}$$

456
$$\left| \frac{\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}}{\dot{\varepsilon}_r} \right|^n = \mathrm{sgn}(\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}) \frac{\tau_{ij}}{\tau_0} - 1 \tag{B4}$$

457   where τ_0 is the yield shear stress $[Pa]$, k_0 is the consistency index $[Pa \cdot s^n]$, n is the flow index

458    $[dimensionless]$, $\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}$ is the strain rate tensor $[s^{-1}]$, given as:

459
$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \tau_{ij} \tau_{ij}} \tag{B5}$$

460    $\dot{\varepsilon}_r$ is the reference strain rate $[s^{-1}]$, given as:

461
$$\dot{\varepsilon}_r = \left(\frac{\tau_0}{k_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \tag{B6}$$

462   The detailed implementation processes can be found in Zafar et al. (2024).

463   **B3. Outlet boundary conditions**

464   We use the outlet boundary condition from Orlanski (1976). This boundary condition allows

465   phenomena generated in the domain of interest to pass through the boundary without undergoing

466   significant distortion or influencing the interior solution, and it is an optimal solution for balancing

467   accuracy and efficiency.

468
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + U \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 \tag{B7}$$

469 From Kreiss (1968) and Gustafsson et al. (1972), the propagation speed U is numerically estimated

470 by $U = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$, where Δx and Δt are the spatial and temporal grid sizes. The speed at the outlet boundary

471 is then as follows:

472
$$u_{n_x}^{n_t} = 2u_{n_{x-1}}^{n_{t-1}} - u_{n_{x-2}}^{n_{t-2}} \tag{B8}$$

473 where n_x is the boundary point and n_t is the current time step.

474 **B4. Immersed-boundary method**

475 Immersed-boundary method is used to prescribe the fictitious interface between MTCs and

476 undeformed strata. The general idea is using both Eulerian and Lagrangian approaches to solve the

477 governing equations on the MTCs domain with a correction on the interface between MTCs and

478 undeformed strata (Zhao et al., 2021). Lagrangian approach describes fluid motion focusing on an

479 individual fluid parcel as it moves through space and time, while Eulerian approach describes fluid

480 motion focusing on specific locations in the space through which the fluid flows as time passes

481 (Peskin, 1972, 2002). The interface (the immersed boundary) is represented independently as a set of

482 discrete points (Lagrangian variables) that define its shape and position (Peskin, 1972, 2002). This

483 interface cuts through the MTCs domain grid (Eulerian variables), which is the fixed grid where the

484 governing equations are solved (Peskin, 1972, 2002). This method avoids the computationally

485 expensive and often challenging task of generating and deforming body-conforming meshes for

486 intricate or rapidly moving boundaries (e.g. basal shear surface). The detailed implementation

487 processes of the immersed-boundary method can be found in Zhao et al. (2021) and Liu et al. (2024).

488 **Appendix C: Gas hydrate saturation estimation**

489 To determine the actual formations of multiple amplitude anomalies in seismic data, gas hydrate

490 saturation is calculated using Archie's porosity-resistivity equation and saturation equation (Archie,

491   1942):

492
$$S_h = 1 - \left(\frac{R_0}{R_m}\right)^{\frac{1}{n_{Ar}}}, \qquad R_0 = \frac{R_w}{\phi^m} \tag{C1}$$

493   where S_h $[m^3 \cdot ms^{-3}]$ is the gas hydrate saturation, R_0 $[\Omega_m]$ is the background resistivity, R_m $[\Omega_m]$

494   is the measured resistivity, n_{Arch} $[dimensionless]$ is Archie's saturation exponent (set equal to 2.5

495   according to Cook and Waite, 2018), R_w $[\Omega_m]$ is the pore water resistivity (set equal to $0.3\Omega_m$

496   according to the resistivity of seawater), m is the cementation exponent (set equal to 2 according to

497   Cook et al., 2023).

509   **Data Availability Statement**

510   The 3D seismic and well log data were obtained from a series of proprietary surveys conducted by

511   the Guangzhou Marine Geological Survey in 2018, 2021 and 2022 for the gas hydrate exploration.

512   These data, uploaded by Kuang et al. (2023), are available in the Zenodo repository

513   (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7721790). The codes used for numerical simulations are available in

514   the Zenodo repository (https://zenodo.org/records/16252096). Requests for datasets can be made

515   through Guangzhou Marine Geological Survey via the corresponding author.

516   **References**

517   Alves, T. M., & Cartwright, J. A. (2010). The effect of mass-transport deposits on the younger slope
518   morphology, offshore Brazil. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *27*(9), 2027–2036.
519   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2010.05.006
520   Alves, T. M., Kurtev, K., Moore, G. F., & Strasser, M. (2014). Assessing the internal character,
521   reservoir potential, and seal competence of mass-transport deposits using seismic texture: A
522   geophysical and petrophysical approach. *AAPG Bulletin*, *98*(4), 793–824.
523   https://doi.org/10.1306/09121313117
524   Anders, M. H., Aharonov, E., & Walsh, J. J. (2000). Stratified granular media beneath large slide
525   blocks: Implications for mode of emplacement. *Geology*, *28*(11), 971–974.
526   https://doi.org/10.1130/0091-7613(2000)28<971:SGMBLS>2.0.CO;2
527   Anomneze, D. O., Oguadinma, V. O., Ayodele, I. J., & Ajaegwu, N. E. (2025). Application of iso-
528   frequency extractions and spectral frequency blending in hydrocarbon delineation of thin-pay
529   and thick-pay reservoirs, Niger Delta Basin. *Energy Geoscience*, *6*(2), 100396.
530   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engeos.2025.100396
531   Archie, G. E. (1942). The Electrical Resistivity Log as an Aid in Determining Some Reservoir
532   Characteristics. *Transactions of the AIME*, *146*(01), 54–62. https://doi.org/10.2118/942054-
533   G
534   Bataller, F. J., McDougall, N., & Moscariello, A. (2019). Ordovician glacial paleogeography:
535   Integration of seismic spectral decomposition, well sedimentological data, and glacial modern
536   analogs in the Murzuq Basin, Libya. *Interpretation*, *7*(2), T383–T408.
537   https://doi.org/10.1190/INT-2018-0069.1
538   Bull, S., Cartwright, J., & Huuse, M. (2009). A review of kinematic indicators from mass-transport
539   complexes using 3D seismic data. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, 26(7), 1132–1151.
540   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2008.09.011
541   Cardona, S., Kobayashi, H., Wood, L., Dugan, B., & Milkov, A. V. (2022). Assessing the sealing
542   quality of submarine mass transport complexes and deposits. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*,
543   143, 105748. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2022.105748
544   Cardona, S., Wood, L.J., Day-Stirrat, R.J., Moscardelli, L. (2016). Fabric Development and Pore-
545   Throat Reduction in a Mass-Transport Deposit in the Jubilee Gas Field, Eastern Gulf of
546   Mexico: Consequences for the Sealing Capacity of MTDs. In: Lamarche, G., *et al.* Submarine
547   Mass Movements and their Consequences. Advances in Natural and Technological Hazards
548   Research, vol 41. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-20979-1_3
549   Cartwright, J., Huuse, M., & Aplin, A. (2007). Seal bypass systems. *AAPG bulletin*, *91*(8), 1141-
550   1166.
551   Cartwright, J., & Santamarina, C. (2015). Seismic characteristics of fluid escape pipes in sedimentary
552   basins: Implications for pipe genesis. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *65*, 126-140.
553   Chen, D., Zhang, G., Dong, D., Zhao, M., & Wang, X. (2022). Widespread Fluid Seepage Related to
554   Buried Submarine Landslide Deposits in the Northwestern South China Sea. *Geophysical*
555   *Research Letters*, *49*(6), e2021GL096584. https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GL096584
556   Chopra, S., & Marfurt, K. J. (2007). *Seismic Attributes for Prospect Identification and Reservoir*
557   *Characterization*. Society of Exploration Geophysicists and European Association of
558   Geoscientists and Engineers. https://doi.org/10.1190/1.9781560801900
559   Cook, A. E., Portnov, A., Heber, R. C., Vadakkepuliyambatta, S., & Bünz, S. (2023). Widespread
560   subseafloor gas hydrate in the Barents Sea and Norwegian Margin. *Earth and Planetary*
561   *Science Letters*, *604*, 117993. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2023.117993

Cook, A. E., & Waite, W. F. (2018). Archie's Saturation Exponent for Natural Gas Hydrate in Coarse-Grained Reservoirs. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, *123*(3), 2069–2089. https://doi.org/10.1002/2017JB015138

Cox, D. R., Huuse, M., Newton, A. M. W., Gannon, P., & Clayburn, J. (2020). Slip sliding away: Enigma of large sandy blocks within a gas-bearing mass transport deposit, offshore northwestern Greenland. *AAPG Bulletin*, *104*(5), 1011–1043. https://doi.org/10.1306/10031919011

Crutchley, G. J., Klaeschen, D., Planert, L., Bialas, J., Berndt, C., Papenberg, C., Hensen, C., Hornbach, M. J., Krastel, S., & Brueckmann, W. (2014). The impact of fluid advection on gas hydrate stability: Investigations at sites of methane seepage offshore Costa Rica. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 401, 95–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2014.05.045

Daigle, H., & Dugan, B. (2009). Extending NMR data for permeability estimation in fine-grained sediments. *Marine and Petroleum Geology, 26*(8), 1419–1427. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2009.02.008

Day-Stirrat, R. J., Flemings, P. B., You, Y., & van der Pluijm, B. A. (2013). Modification of mudstone fabric and pore structure as a result of slope failure: Ursa Basin, Gulf of Mexico. *Marine Geology*, *341*, 58–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2013.05.003

Dugan, B. (2012). Petrophysical and consolidation behavior of mass transport deposits from the northern Gulf of Mexico, IODP Expedition 308. *Marine Geology, 315–318*, 98–107. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2012.05.001

Eckersley, A. J., Lowell, J., & Szafian, P. (2018). High-definition frequency decomposition. *Geophysical Prospecting*, *66*(6), 1138–1143. https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2478.12642

Emmanuel, S., & Day-Stirrat, R. J. (2012). A framework for quantifying size dependent deformation of nano-scale pores in mudrocks. *Journal of Applied Geophysics*, *86*, 29–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jappgeo.2012.07.011

Gamboa, D., Alves, T., & Cartwright, J. (2011). Distribution and characterization of failed (mega)blocks along salt ridges, southeast Brazil: Implications for vertical fluid flow on continental margins. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, *116*(B8). https://doi.org/10.1029/2011JB008357

Gatter, R., Clare, M. A., Kuhlmann, J., & Huhn, K. (2021). Characterisation of weak layers, physical controls on their global distribution and their role in submarine landslide formation. *Earth-Science Reviews*, *223*, 103845. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2021.103845

Gustafsson, B., Kreiss, H.-O., & Sundström, A. (1972). Stability Theory of Difference Approximations for Mixed Initial Boundary Value Problems. II. *Mathematics of Computation*, *26*(119), 649–686. https://doi.org/10.2307/2005093

Han, Z. (2025). Shear localization as a key control on mass-transport complexes seal integrity: insights from geophysical datasets [Dataset]. *Zenodo.* https://zenodo.org/records/16252096

Hodgson, D. M., Brooks, H. L., Ortiz-Karpf, A., Spychala, Y., Lee, D. R., & Jackson, C. A.-L. (2019). Entrainment and abrasion of megaclasts during submarine landsliding and their impact on flow behaviour. *Geological Society, London, Special Publications*, *477*(1), 223–240. https://doi.org/10.1144/SP477.26

Holbrook, W. S., Hoskins, H., Wood, W. T., Stephen, R. A., & Lizarralde, D. (1996). Methane Hydrate and Free Gas on the Blake Ridge from Vertical Seismic Profiling. *Science*, *273*(5283), 1840–1843. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.273.5283.1840

Huang, B., Tian, H., Li, X., Wang, Z., & Xiao, X. (2016). Geochemistry, origin and accumulation of natural gases in the deepwater area of the Qiongdongnan Basin, South China Sea. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *72*, 254–267. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2016.02.007

Iverson, R. M. (1997). The physics of debris flows. *Reviews of Geophysics, 35*(3), 245–296. https://doi.org/10.1029/97RG00426

Jackson, C. A.-L. (2011). Three-dimensional seismic analysis of megaclast deformation within a mass transport deposit; implications for debris flow kinematics. *Geology*, *39*(3), 203–206. https://doi.org/10.1130/G31767.1

614 Joanne, C., Lamarche, G., & Collot, J.-Y. (2013). Dynamics of giant mass transport in deep
615   submarine environments: The Matakaoa Debris Flow, New Zealand. *Basin Research*, *25*(4),
616   471–488. https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12006

617 Kaldi, J. G., & Atkinson, C. D. (1997). Evaluating seal potential: example from the Talang Akar
618   Formation, offshore northwest Java, Indonesia.

619 Kanamatsu, T., Kawamura, K., Strasser, M., Novak, B., & Kitamura, Y. (2014). Flow dynamics of
620   Nankai Trough submarine landslide inferred from internal deformation using magnetic fabric.
621   *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, *15*(10), 4079–4092.
622   https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GC005409

623 Karstens, J., Haflidason, H., Berndt, C., & Crutchley, G. J. (2023). Revised Storegga Slide
624   reconstruction reveals two major submarine landslides 12,000 years apart. *Communications*
625   *Earth & Environment*, *4*(1), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-023-00710-y

626 Kenyon, W. E., Day, P. I., Straley, C., & Willemsen, J. F. (1988). A three-part study of NMR
627   longitudinal relaxation properties of water-saturated sandstones. *SPE formation*
628   *evaluation, 3*(03), 622-636.

629 Ker, S., Thomas, Y., Riboulot, V., Sultan, N., Bernard, C., Scalabrin, C., Ion, G., & Marsset, B. (2019).
630   Anomalously Deep BSR Related to a Transient State of the Gas Hydrate System in the
631   Western Black Sea. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, *20*(1), 442–459.
632   https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GC007861

633 Korenaga, J., Holbrook, W. S., Singh, S. C., & Minshull, T. A. (1997). Natural gas hydrates on the
634   southeast U.S. margin: Constraints from full waveform and travel time inversions of wide-
635   angle seismic data. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, *102*(B7), 15345–15365.
636   https://doi.org/10.1029/97JB00725

637 Kreiss, H.-O. (1968). Stability Theory for Difference Approximations of Mixed Initial Boundary
638   Value Problems. I. *Mathematics of Computation*, *22*(104), 703–714.
639   https://doi.org/10.2307/2004572

640 Kuang, Z., Cook, A., Ren, J., Deng, W., Cao, Y., & Cai, H. (2023). A Flat-Lying Transitional Free
641   Gas to Gas Hydrate System in a Sand Layer in the Qiongdongnan Basin of the South China
642   Sea. *Geophysical Research Letters, 50*(24), e2023GL105744.
643   https://doi.org/10.1029/2023GL105744

644 Kuang, Z., Cook, A., Ren, J., Deng, W., Cao, Y., & Cai, H. (2023). A flat-lying transitional free gas
645   to gas hydrate system in a sand layer in the Qiongdongnan Basin of the South China Sea
646   [Dataset]. *Zenodo.* https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7721790

647 Lastras, G., Canals, M., Urgeles, R., Hughes-Clarke, J. E., & Acosta, J. (2004). Shallow slides and
648   pockmark swarms in the Eivissa Channel, western Mediterranean Sea. *Sedimentology*, *51*(4),
649   837-850.

650 Lenz, B. L., & Sawyer, D. E. (2022). Mass transport deposits in reflection seismic data offshore
651   Oregon, USA. *Basin Research*, *34*(1), 81–98. https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12611

652 Liang, C., Liu, C., Xie, X., Yu, X., He, Y., Su, M., Chen, H., Zhou, Z., Tian, D., Mi, H., Li, M., &
653   Zhang, H. (2021). Basal shear zones of recurrent mass transport deposits serve as potential
654   reservoirs for gas hydrates in the Central Canyon area, South China Sea. *Marine Geology*,
655   *441*, 106631. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2021.106631

656 Lines, L. R., & Newrick, R. T. (2004). *Fundamentals of geophysical interpretation*. Society of
657   Exploration Geophysicists.

658 Liu, E. W., Räss, L., Herman, F., Podladchikov, Y., & Suckale, J. (2024). Spontaneous Formation of
659   an Internal Shear Band in Ice Flowing Over Topographically Variable Bedrock. *Journal of*
660   *Geophysical Research: Earth Surface, 129*(4), e2022JF007040.
661   https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JF007040

662 Madhusudhan, B. N., Clayton, C. R. I., & Priest, J. A. (2019). The Effects of Hydrate on the Strength
663   and Stiffness of Some Sands. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, *124*(1), 65–75.
664   https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JB015880

Milkov, A. V., Dickens, G. R., Claypool, G. E., Lee, Y.-J., Borowski, W. S., Torres, M. E., Xu, W., Tomaru, H., Tréhu, A. M., & Schultheiss, P. (2004). Co-existence of gas hydrate, free gas, and brine within the regional gas hydrate stability zone at Hydrate Ridge (Oregon margin): Evidence from prolonged degassing of a pressurized core. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 222*(3), 829–843. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2004.03.028

Mitchell, T. M., Smith, S. A. F., Anders, M. H., Di Toro, G., Nielsen, S., Cavallo, A., & Beard, A. D. (2015). Catastrophic emplacement of giant landslides aided by thermal decomposition: Heart Mountain, Wyoming. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, *411*, 199–207. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2014.10.051

Mitchener, H., & Torfs, H. (1996). Erosion of mud/sand mixtures. *Coastal Engineering*, *29*(1), 1–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-3839(96)00002-6

Moernaut, J., Wiemer, G., Reusch, A., Stark, N., De Batist, M., Urrutia, R., Ladrón de Guevara, B., Kopf, A., & Strasser, M. (2017). The influence of overpressure and focused fluid flow on subaquatic slope stability in a formerly glaciated basin: Lake Villarrica (South-Central Chile). *Marine Geology*, *383*, 35–54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.margeo.2016.11.012

Moscardelli, L., & Wood, L. (2008). New classification system for mass transport complexes in offshore Trinidad. *Basin Research*, *20*(1), 73–98. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2117.2007.00340.x

Mountjoy, J. J., Pecher, I., Henrys, S., Crutchley, G., Barnes, P. M., & Plaza-Faverola, A. (2014). Shallow methane hydrate system controls ongoing, downslope sediment transport in a low-velocity active submarine landslide complex, Hikurangi Margin, New Zealand. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems, 15*(11), 4137–4156. https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GC005379

Noda, A., TuZino, T., Joshima, M., & Goto, S. (2013). Mass transport-dominated sedimentation in a foreland basin, the Hidaka Trough, northern Japan. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*, *14*(8), 2638–2660. https://doi.org/10.1002/ggge.20169

Nugraha, H. D., Jackson, C. A.-L., Johnson, H. D., & Hodgson, D. M. (2020). Lateral variability in strain along the toewall of a mass transport deposit: A case study from the Makassar Strait, offshore Indonesia. *Journal of the Geological Society*, *177*(6), 1261–1279. https://doi.org/10.1144/jgs2020-071

Omosanya, K. O. (2018). Episodic fluid flow as a trigger for Miocene-Pliocene slope instability on the Utgard High, Norwegian Sea. *Basin Research*, *30*(5), 942–964. https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12288

Orlanski, I. (1976). A simple boundary condition for unbounded hyperbolic flows. *Journal of computational physics*, *21*(3), 251-269.

Ortiz-Karpf, A., Hodgson, D. M., Jackson, C. A.-L., & McCaffrey, William. D. (2017). Influence of Seabed Morphology and Substrate Composition On Mass-Transport Flow Processes and Pathways: Insights From the Magdalena Fan, Offshore Colombia. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, *87*(3), 189–209. https://doi.org/10.2110/jsr.2017.10

Ortiz-Karpf, A., Hodgson, D. M., Jackson, C. A.-L., & McCaffrey, W. D. (2018). Mass-transport complexes as markers of deep-water fold-and-thrust belt evolution: Insights from the southern Magdalena fan, offshore Colombia. *Basin Research*, *30*(S1), 65–88. https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12208

Pattier, F., Loncke, L., Gaullier, V., Basile, C., Maillard, A., Imbert, P., Roest, W. R., Vendeville, B. C., Patriat, M., & Loubrieu, B. (2013). Mass-transport deposits and fluid venting in a transform margin setting, the eastern Demerara Plateau (French Guiana). *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *46*, 287–303. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2013.06.010

Peskin, C. S. (1972). Flow patterns around heart valves: a numerical method. *Journal of computational physics*, *10*(2), 252-271.

Peskin, C. S. (2002). The immersed boundary method. *Acta numerica*, *11*, 479-517.

Posamentier, H. W., & Martinsen, O. J. (2011). The character and genesis of submarine mass-transport deposits: insights from outcrop and 3D seismic data. Mass-transport deposits in deepwater settings. *Society for Sedimentary Geology (SEPM) Special Publication, 96*, 7-38.

717 Räss, L., Utkin, I., Duretz, T., Omlin, S., & Podladchikov, Y. Y. (2022). Assessing the robustness
718   and scalability of the accelerated pseudo-transient method. *Geoscientific Model Development*,
719   *15*(14), 5757–5786. https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-15-5757-2022
720 Ren, J., Qiu, H., Kuang, Z., Li, T., He, Y., Xu, M., Wang, X., Lai, H., & Liang, J. (2024). Deep-large
721   faults controlling on the distribution of the venting gas hydrate system in the middle of the
722   Qiongdongnan Basin, South China Sea. *China Geology,* *7*(1), 36–50.
723   https://doi.org/10.31035/cg2023086
724 Richardson, S. E. J., Davies, R. J., Allen, M. B., & Grant, S. F. (2011). Structure and evolution of
725   mass transport deposits in the South Caspian Basin, Azerbaijan. *Basin Research*, *23*(6),
726   702–719. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2117.2011.00508.x
727 Roy, N., Frost, J. D., & Viggiani, G. (2022). Pore space evolution of granular assemblies under shear:
728   An experimental study using X-ray tomography. *Granular Matter, 24*(2), 63.
729 Ruppel, C. D., & Kessler, J. D. (2017). The interaction of climate change and methane hydrates.
730   *Reviews of Geophysics, 55*(1), 126–168. https://doi.org/10.1002/2016RG000534
731 Sawyer, D. E., Flemings, P. B., Dugan, B., & Germaine, J. T. (2009). Retrogressive failures recorded
732   in mass transport deposits in the Ursa Basin, Northern Gulf of Mexico. *Journal of Geophysical*
733   *Research: Solid Earth*, *114*(B10). https://doi.org/10.1029/2008JB006159
734 Schowalter, T. T. (1979). Mechanics of secondary hydrocarbon migration and entrapment. *AAPG*
735   *bulletin*, *63*(5), 723-760.
736 Serov, P., Mattingsdal, R., Winsborrow, M., Patton, H., & Andreassen, K. (2023). Widespread natural
737   methane and oil leakage from sub-marine Arctic reservoirs. *Nature Communications*, *14*(1),
738   1782. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-37514-9
739 Siman-Tov, S., & Brodsky, E. E. (2018). Gravity-Independent Grain Size Segregation in
740   Experimental Granular Shear Flows as a Mechanism of Layer Formation. *Geophysical*
741   *Research Letters, 45*(16), 8136–8144. https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GL078486
742 Sloan, E. D. (2003). Fundamental principles and applications of natural gas hydrates. *Nature*,
743   426(6964), 353–359. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02135
744 Sobiesiak, M. S., Kneller, B., Alsop, G. I., & Milana, J. P. (2018). Styles of basal interaction beneath
745   mass transport deposits. *Marine and Petroleum Geology, 98*, 629–639.
746   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2018.08.028
747 Steventon, M. J., Jackson, C. A.-L., Hodgson, D. M., & Johnson, H. D. (2019). Strain analysis of a
748   seismically imaged mass-transport complex, offshore Uruguay. *Basin Research*, *31*(3), 600–
749   620. https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12337
750 Su, M., Wu, C., Chen, H., Li, D., Jiang, T., Xie, X., Jiao, H., Wang, Z., & Sun, X. (2019). Late
751   Miocene provenance evolution at the head of Central Canyon in the Qiongdongnan Basin,
752   Northern South China Sea. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *110*, 787–796.
753   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2019.07.053
754 Talling, P. J., Wynn, R. B., Masson, D. G., Frenz, M., Cronin, B. T., Schiebel, R., Akhmetzhanov, A.
755   M., Dallmeier-Tiessen, S., Benetti, S., Weaver, P. P. E., Georgiopoulou, A., Zühlsdorff, C.,
756   & Amy, L. A. (2007). Onset of submarine debris flow deposition far from original giant
757   landslide. *Nature, 450*(7169), 541–544. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06313
758 Trujillo-Vela, M. G., Ramos-Cañón, A. M., Escobar-Vargas, J. A., & Galindo-Torres, S. A. (2022).
759   An overview of debris-flow mathematical modelling. *Earth-Science Reviews*, *232*, 104135.
760   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2022.104135
761 Walsh, M. R., Koh, C. A., Sloan, E. D., Sum, A. K., & Wu, D. T. (2009). Microsecond Simulations
762   of Spontaneous Methane Hydrate Nucleation and Growth. *Science, 326*(5956), 1095–1098.
763   https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1174010
764 Walton, M. A. L., Conrad, J. E., Papesh, A. G., Brothers, D. S., Kluesner, J. W., McGann, M., &
765   Dartnell, P. (2024). A Comprehensive Assessment of Submarine Landslides and Mass
766   Wasting Processes Offshore Southern California. *Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems*,
767   *25*(3), e2023GC011258. https://doi.org/10.1029/2023GC011258

Wan, Z.-F., Zhang, W., Ma, C., Liang, J.-Q., Li, A., Meng, D.-J., Huang, W., Yang, C.-Z., Zhang, J.-F., & Sun, Y.-F. (2022). Dissociation of gas hydrates by hydrocarbon migration and accumulation-derived slope failures: An example from the South China Sea. *Geoscience Frontiers*, *13*(2), 101345. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gsf.2021.101345

Wang, X., Wang, W., Jin, J., Zhang, G., Luan, Z., Li, C., Wang, M., Zhang, Z., Liu, B., Li, W., & Li, S. (2025). Multiple observations to delineate the characteristics of cold seep system in the Qiongdongnan Basin. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *181*, 107522. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2025.107522

Wang, Y., Wang, Y., & Zhang, J. (2020). Connecting shear localization with the long-range correlated polarized stress fields in granular materials. *Nature Communications*, *11*(1), 4349. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18217-x

Wu, N., Jackson, C. A.-L., Clare, M. A., Hodgson, D. M., Nugraha, H. D., Steventon, M. J., & Zhong, G. (2022). Diagenetic priming of submarine landslides in ooze-rich substrates. Geology, 51(1), 85–90. https://doi.org/10.1130/G50458.1

Wu, N., Jackson, C. A.-L., Hodgson, D., Nugraha, H. D., & Zhong, F. G. (2024). Interactions between buried mass-transport complexes and subsequent slope failures on a passive margin. https://doi.org/10.31223/X5CT37

Wu, N., Jackson, C. A.-L., Johnson, H. D., & Hodgson, D. M. (2021). Lithological, petrophysical, and seal properties of mass-transport complexes, northern Gulf of Mexico. *AAPG Bulletin, 105*(7), 1461–1489. https://doi.org/10.1306/06242019056

Wu, N., Jackson, C. A.-L., Johnson, H. D., Hodgson, D. M., & Nugraha, H. D. (2020). Mass-transport complexes (MTCs) document subsidence patterns in a northern Gulf of Mexico salt minibasin. *Basin Research*, *32*(6), 1300–1327. https://doi.org/10.1111/bre.12429

Yang, G., Yin, H., Gan, J., Wang, W., Zhu, J., Jia, D., Xiong, X., & Xu, W. (2022). Explaining structural difference between the eastern and western zones of the Qiongdongnan Basin, northern South China Sea: Insights from scaled physical models. *Tectonics*, *41*(2), e2021TC006899.

Yang, J., Davies, R. J., & Huuse, M. (2013). Gas migration below gas hydrates controlled by mass transport complexes, offshore Mauritania. *Marine and Petroleum Geology, 48*, 366–378. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2013.09.003

Ye, J., Wei, J., Liang, J., Lu, J., Lu, H., & Zhang, W. (2019). Complex gas hydrate system in a gas chimney, South China Sea. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *104*, 29–39. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2019.03.023

Yoneda, J., Masui, A., Konno, Y., Jin, Y., Egawa, K., Kida, M., Ito, T., Nagao, J., & Tenma, N. (2015). Mechanical properties of hydrate-bearing turbidite reservoir in the first gas production test site of the Eastern Nankai Trough. *Marine and Petroleum Geology*, *66*, 471–486. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2015.02.029

Zafar, M. N., Dutykh, D., Sabatier, P., Banjan, M., & Kim, J. (2024). Numerical Reconstruction of Landslide Paleotsunami Using Geological Records in Alpine Lake Aiguebelette. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Solid Earth*, *129*(5), e2023JB028629. https://doi.org/10.1029/2023JB028629

Zhao, E., Dong, Y., Tang, Y., & Cui, L. (2021). Numerical study on hydrodynamic load and vibration of pipeline exerted by submarine debris flow. *Ocean Engineering*, *239*, 109754. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oceaneng.2021.109754

Zhao, Y., Liu, J., Sang, S., Hua, L., Kong, L., Zeng, Z., & Yuan, Q. (2023). Experimental investigation on the permeability characteristics of methane hydrate-bearing clayey-silty sediments considering various factors. *Energy, 269*, 126811. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2023.126811

816 **Table and Figure Captions**

817 Table 1. Parameters and corresponding values for numerical simulation.

818 Table 2. Petrophysical properties of BSRs and associated interpretations. Data are collected from the

819 raw well log data in W 1 to W 4. The values are shown as mean values of each parameter.

820 Figure 1. (a) Overview map of the South China Sea showing the boundary of the Qiongdongnan Basin

821 (red polygon). The black box indicates the extent of Figure 1b. The arrows indicate the sediment

822 transport directions. (b) Structural units of the Qiongdongnan Basin with locations of the 3D seismic

823 surveys and key wells. QDNB: Qiongdongnan Basin; SNLU: Songnan Low Uplift. LS18-1, LS18-2

824 and Y8-1 are adjacent conventional gas fields.

825 Figure 2. Perspective view of seismic volume with cross-wells section A-A' (See Figure 1b for

826 location). The upper surface of the seismic volume is shown as a horizon slice 25ms downwards from

827 seismic horizon H1.

828 Figure 3. (a) Structure map of Horizon H1 illustrating the basal shear surface of MTC-1. (b) Variance

829 attribute extracted along Horizon H1, showing the grooves, remnant block, frontal ramp. (c) Spectral

830 decomposition and associated frequency attribute extracted along Horizon H1, showing the pressure

831 ridges. RGB Blending is applied as 45Hz, 50Hz, and 60Hz. (d) Interpreted sketch of MTC-1, showing

832 its key kinematic indicators and transport direction.

833 Figure 4. (a) Structure map of Horizon H3 illustrating the basal shear surface of MTC-2. (b) Variance

834 attribute extracted along the surface 10ms above Horizon H3, showing the grooves, fluid escape pipes,

835 and boundaries of the MTC-2. (c) Spectral decomposition and associated frequency attributes

836 extracted along Horizon H3, showing the grooves, and boundaries of MTC-2. RGB Blending is

837 applied as 40Hz, 50Hz, and 60Hz. (d) Interpreted sketch of MTC-2, showing its boundaries, key

838 kinematic indicators, and transport direction.

839 Figure 5. (a) Structure map of Horizon H5 illustrating the basal shear surface of MTC-3. (b) Variance

840   attribute extracted along the surface 25ms above Horizon H5, showing the grooves, scours, fluid

841   escape pipes, and boundaries of MTC-3. (c) Spectral decomposition and associated frequency

842   attributes extracted along Horizon H5, showing the scours and boundaries of MTC-3. RGB Blending

843   is applied as 45Hz, 50Hz, and 60Hz. (d) Interpreted sketch of MTC-3, showing its boundaries, key

844   kinematic indicators, and transport direction.

845   Figure 6. (a) Variance horizon slice through the area with semi-rounded, crater-like depressions

846   (25ms above Horizon H5). See Figure 5d for the extent of Figure 6a. (b) Spectral decomposition

847   horizon slice through the area with semi-rounded, crater-like depressions (25ms above Horizon H5).

848   See Figure 5d for the extent of Figure 6b. (c) Uninterpreted seismic section B-B' showing the seismic

849   characteristics of semi-rounded, crater-like depressions. (d) Interpreted sketch of section B-B',

850   showing the high-angle deformation characteristics indicative of fluid escape pipes.

851   Figure 7. Multi-well correlation showing the log responses of MTCs, free gas-bearing sediments, and

852   gas hydrate-bearing sediments. The shaded blue units represent MTCs intervals. The shaded orange

853   units represent remnant block or frontal ramp intervals. GR: gamma ray; TNPH: thermal neutron

854   porosity; DEN: bulk density; RES_BS: shallow button resistivity; RES_BD: deep button resistivity;

855   *Vp*: P-wave velocity; Gas Vol: undisturbed zone gas volume fraction; DHAT: downhole annulus

856   temperature. See **Appendix C** for details of hydrate saturation calculations.

857   Figure 8. Petrophysical differences between MTC-1 intervals overlying the remnant block and frontal

858   ramp and other MTC-1 intervals. (a) density; (b) resistivity; (c) porosity; (d) permeability. The data

859   are retrieved from well log data in the interval between horizon H1 and H2, see Figure 2 and Figure

860   7 for more details. The depth of color reflects the kernel density which is a measurement of data

861   tendency.

862   Figure 9. Numerical simulation showing shear strain distribution in MTCs under different

863   topographies: (a) normal topography; (b) frontal ramp; (c) remnant block.

864   Figure 10. The formation process of the remnant block and frontal ramp. (a) MTC-1 pre-emplacement:

865   Gas hydrate or sandy turbidites formed in the in-situ strata; (b) MTC-1 emplacement: MTC-1 was

866   unable to erode strengthened in-situ strata, thus moving upward to avoid them; (c) MTC-1 post-

867   emplacement: strengthened in-situ strata remained and manifested as remnant block or frontal ramp,

868   depending on the extent of the strengthened intervals.

869   Figure 11. The role of shear localization in controlling seal potential of MTCs. (a) Three-dimensional

870   sketch showing the effect of the strengthened in-situ strata on shear localization development; (b)

871   microscopic change of pore structure when shear is weakened; (c) microscopic change of pore

872   structure when shear is strengthened.

873   Figure 12. Three-dimensional schematic diagram showing the methane-bearing fluid migration

874   pathways. Reddish yellow arrows indicate the migration of methane-bearing fluid. The upper surface

875   of the seismic volume is a composite of two time slices at 2,490 ms and 2,536 ms in TWT to manifest

876   three BSRs. Horizon slices of H1, H3, and H5 are presented to show the basal shear surfaces of MTCs.

877   The locations of pockmarks are conceptual representations based on Figure 4 and Figure 5. BD:

878   background deposit.

879   Figure A1. Demonstration of seismic-well tie using well W1 as an example.

Parameters	Notation	Unit	Value
Length of slope	L	m	4,800
Slope angle	α	$degree$	1.2
Density	ρ	$Kg \cdot m^{-3}$	1,700
Gravity acceleration	g	$m \cdot s^{-2}$	9.81
Yield stress	τ_0	Pa	8,000
Reference strain rate	$\dot{\varepsilon}_r$	s^{-1}	0.1
Flow index	n	/	0.75
Numerical grid resolution	n_x	/	511
	n_y	/	127
CFL coefficient	CFL	/	0.2

880   Table 1

Amplitude anomaly	Petrophysical properties				Interpretation
	Density	Resistivity	P-velocity	Temperature	
BSR 1	Low ~1.6 g/cm^3	Slightly high ~2 Ωm	Low ~1,600 m/s	High ~8 ^oC	Free gas sourced from the Songnan Low Uplift
BSR 2	Slightly high ~1.85 g/cm^3	High ~200 Ωm	High ~2,300 m/s	Low ~2 ^oC	High-saturation gas hydrate (~90% saturation)
BSR 3	Moderate ~1.8 g/cm^3	Slightly high ~2 Ωm	Slightly low ~1,700 m/s	High ~9 ^oC	Coexistence of free gas and low-saturation gas hydrate (~10% saturation)
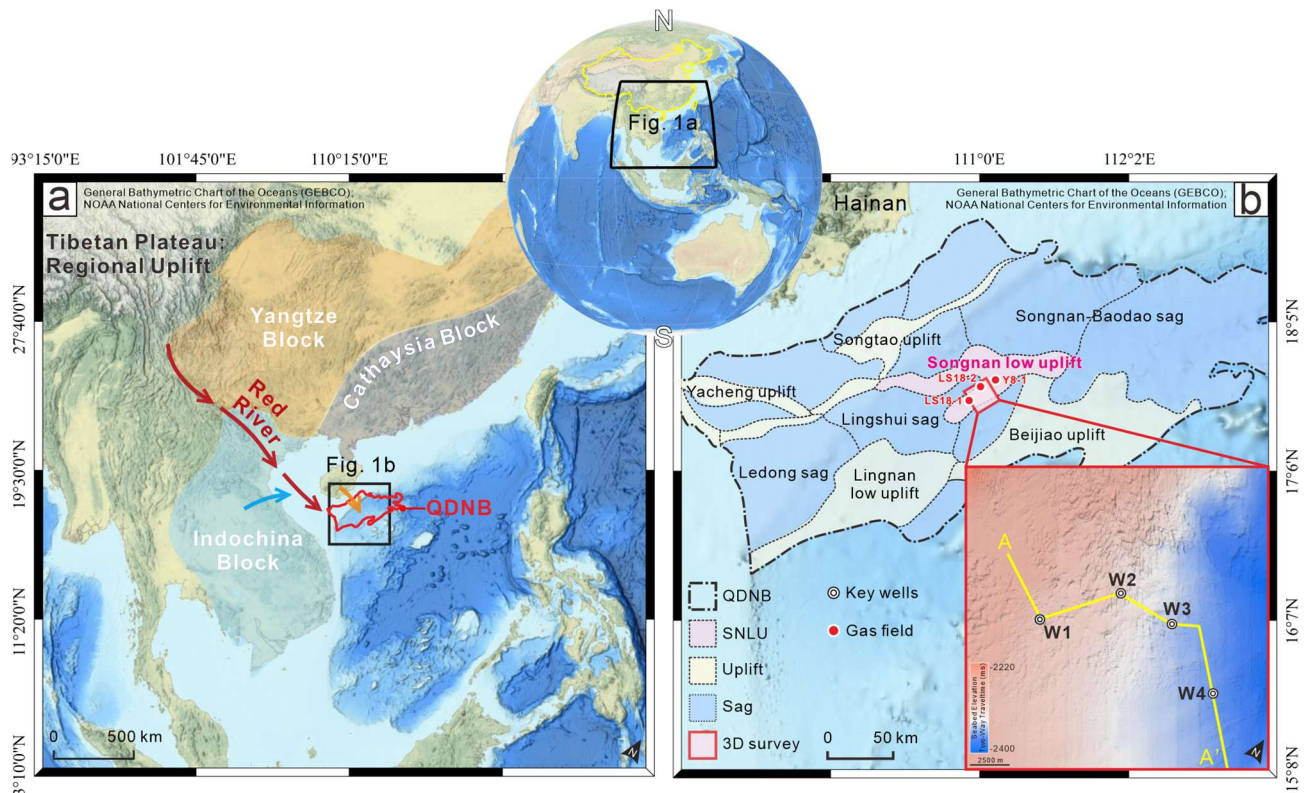
881   Table 2

883   Figure 1
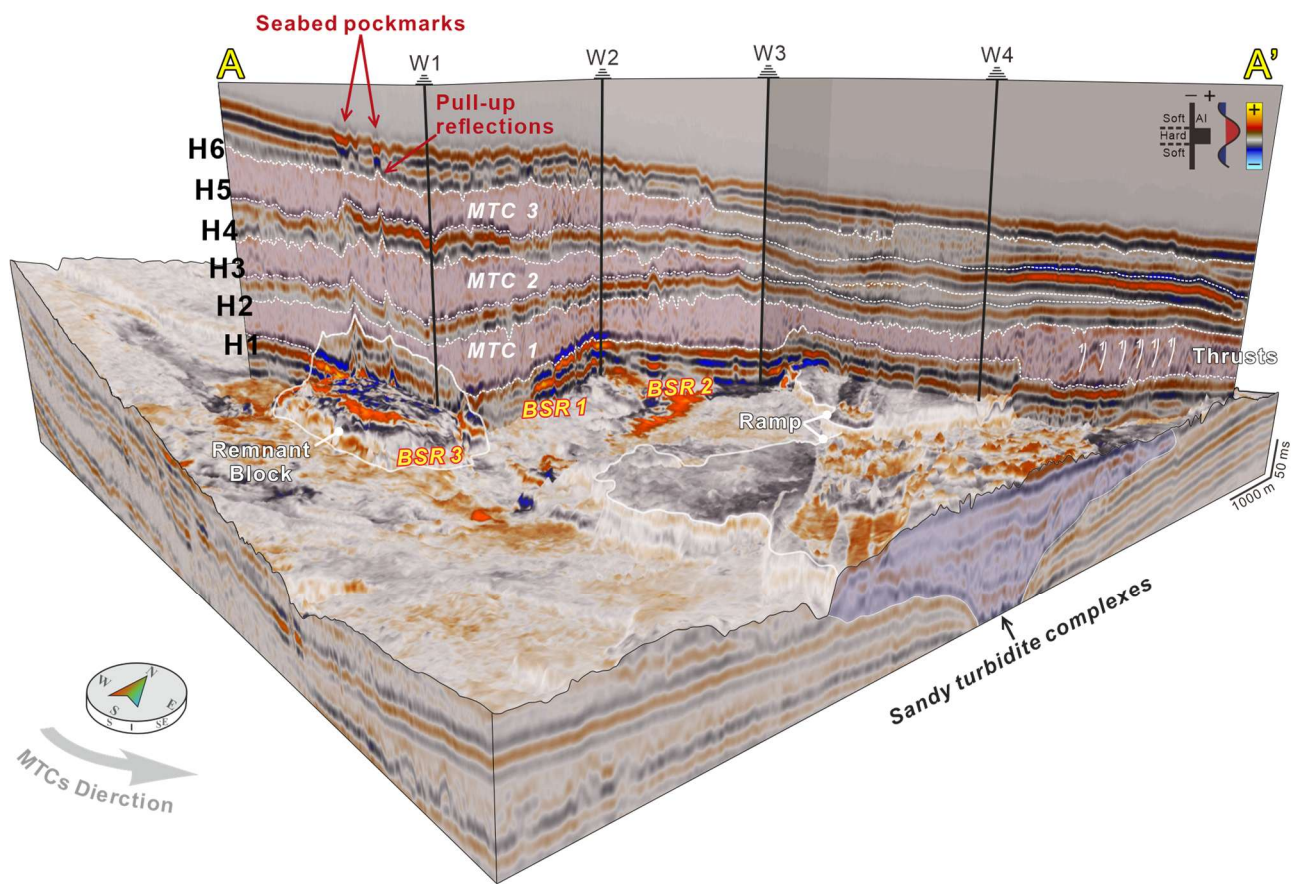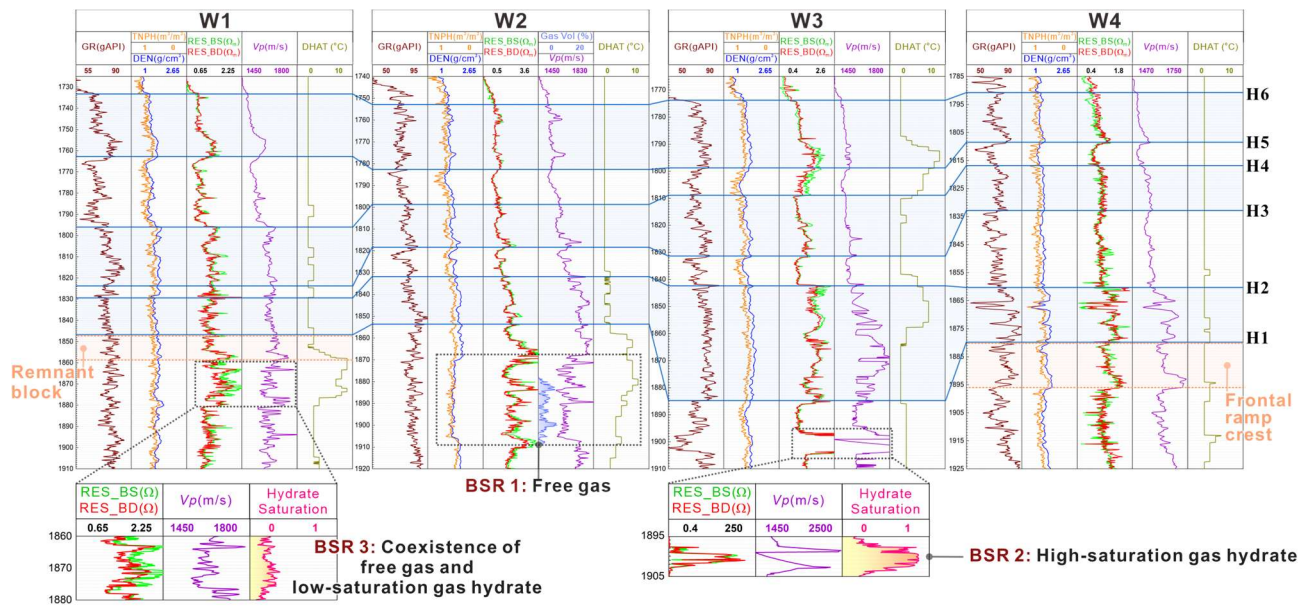
884

885   Figure 2
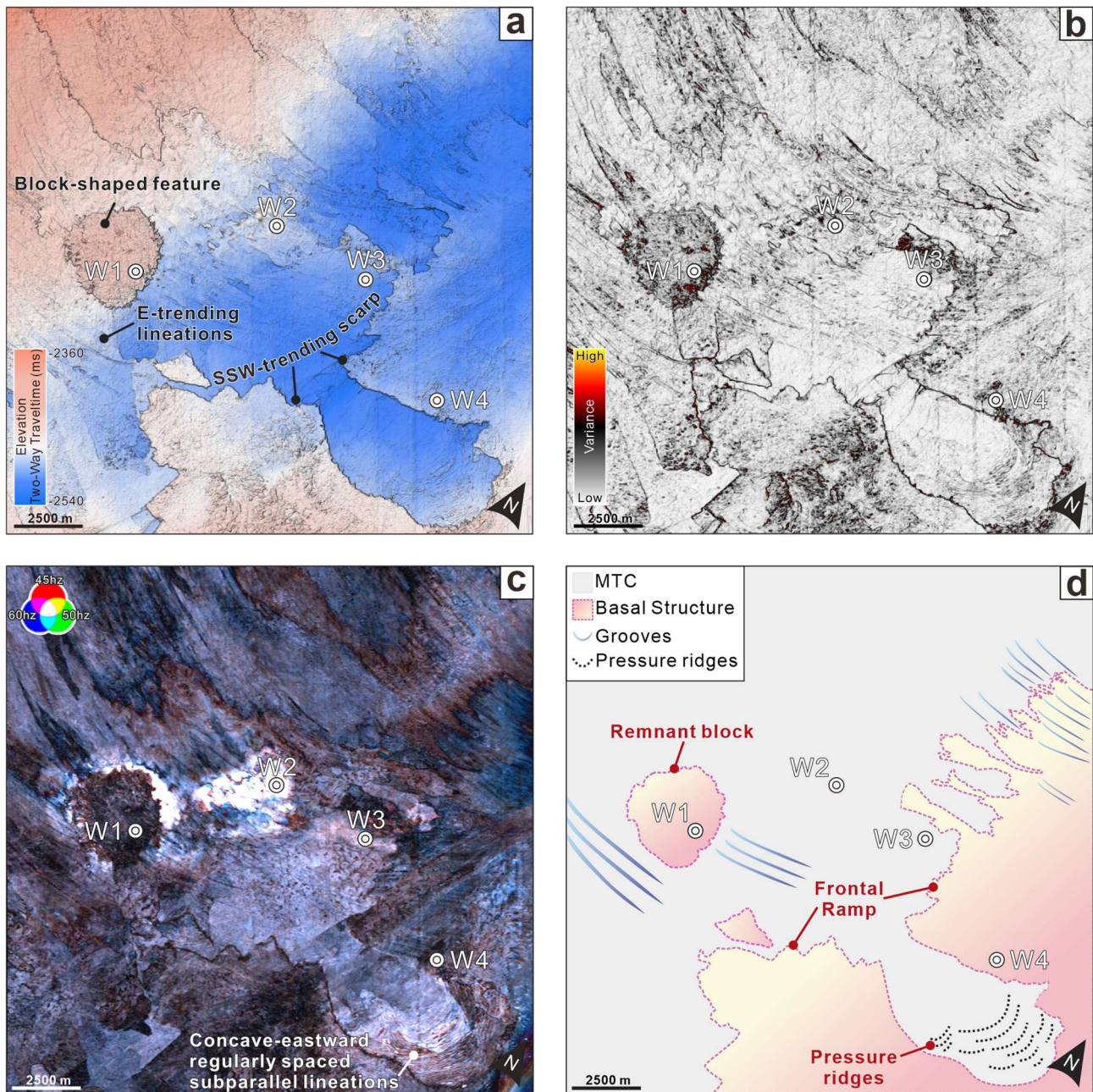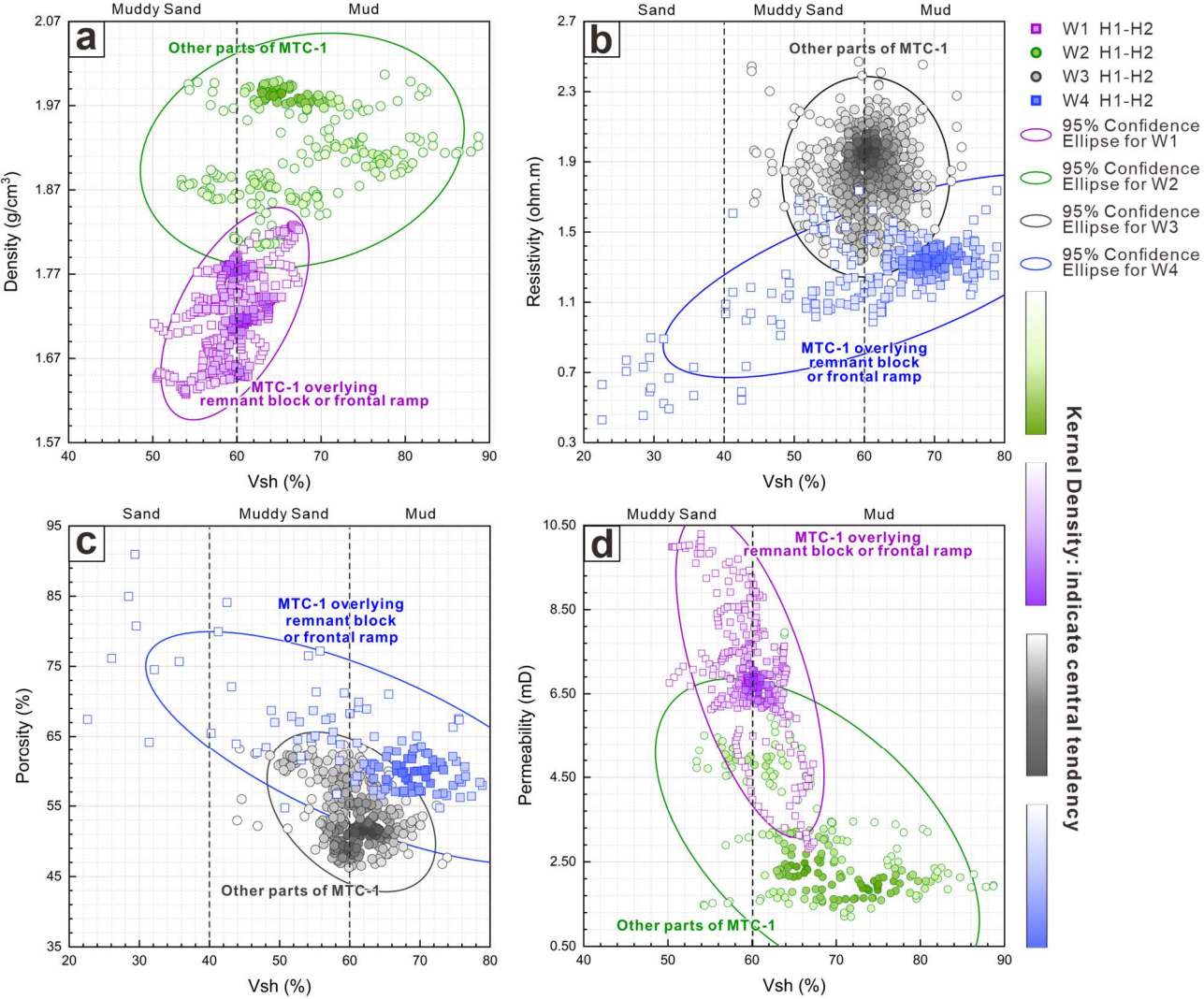
886

887   Figure 3
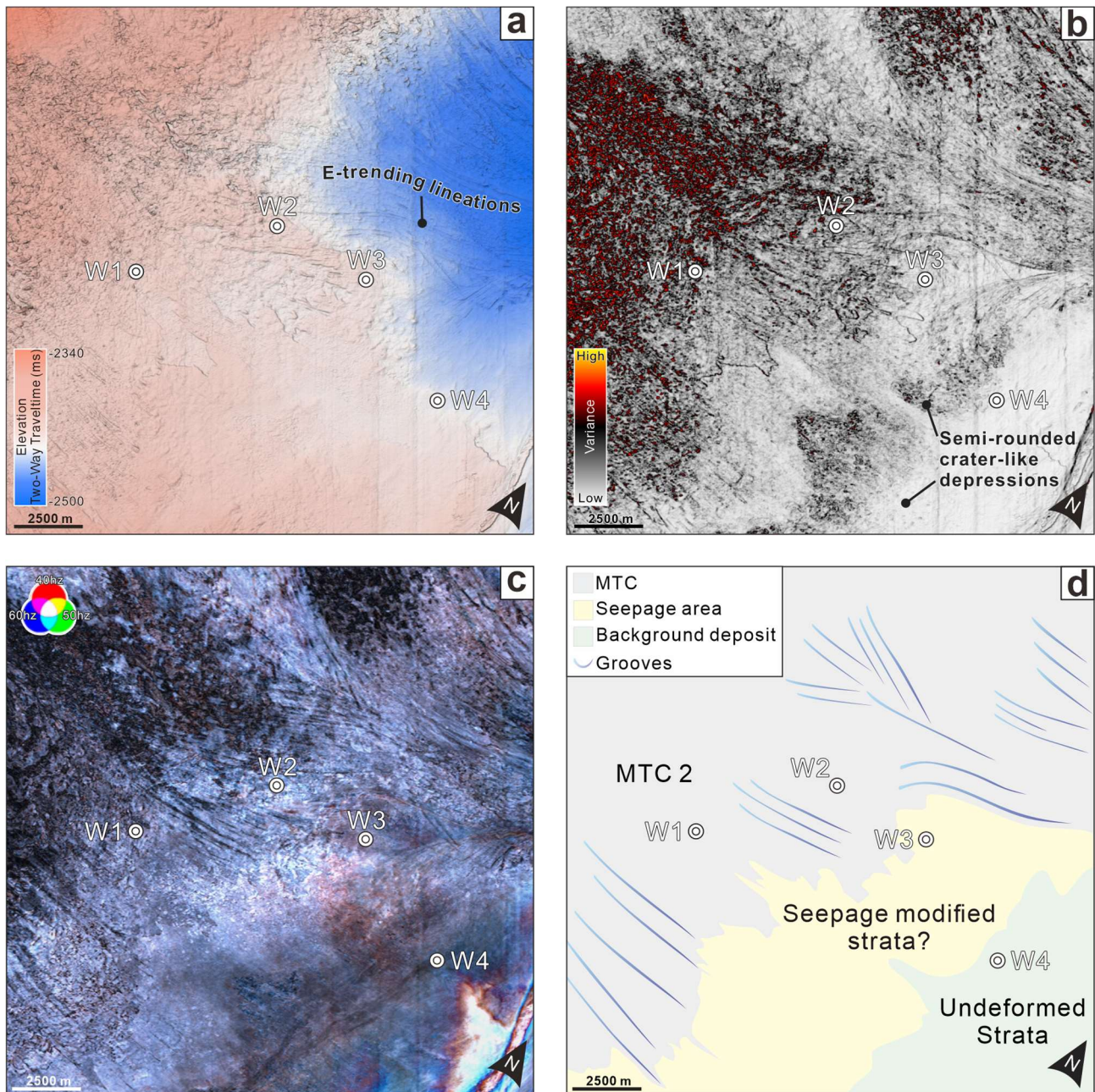
888

889   Figure 4

890
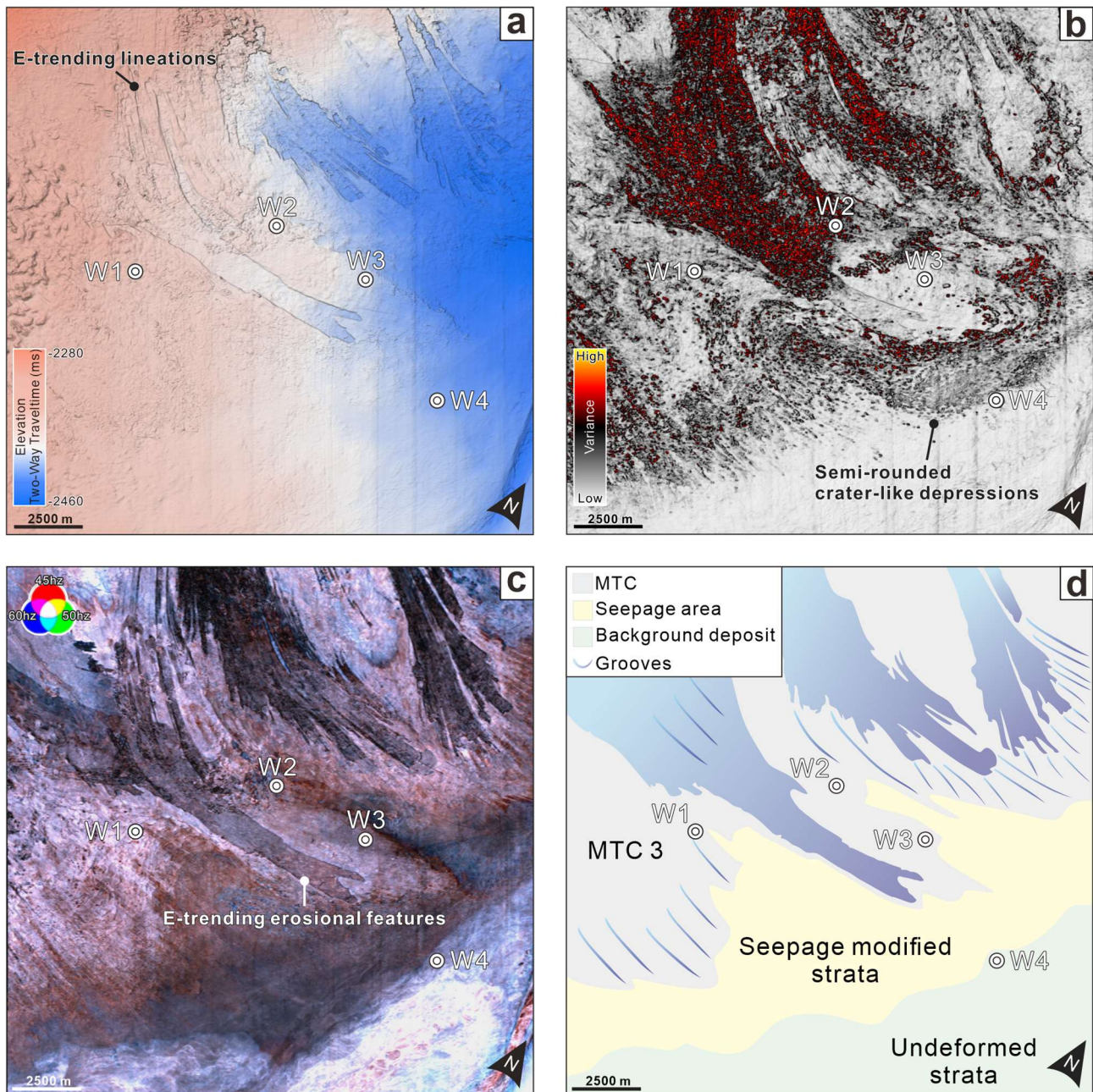
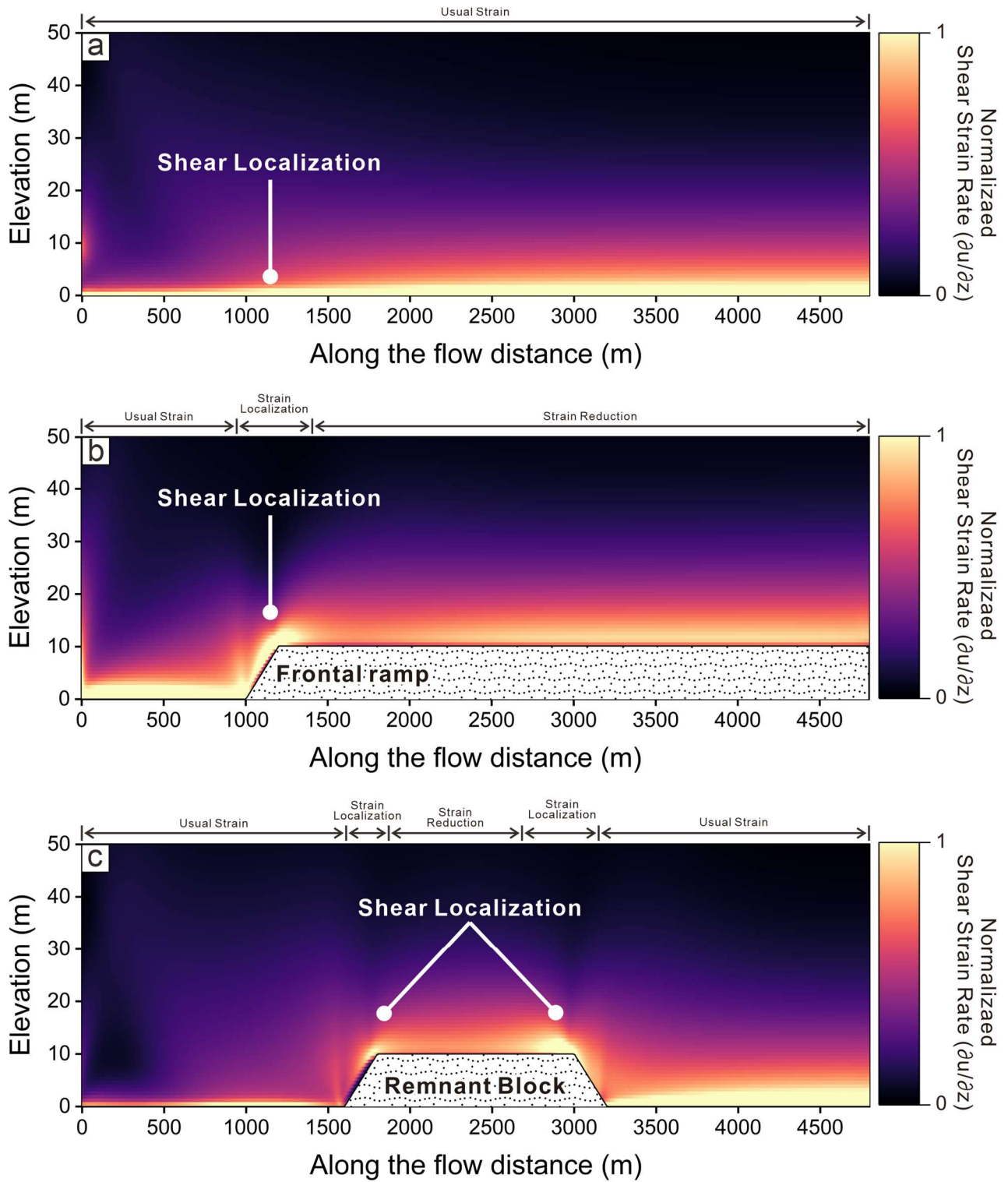891   Figure 5
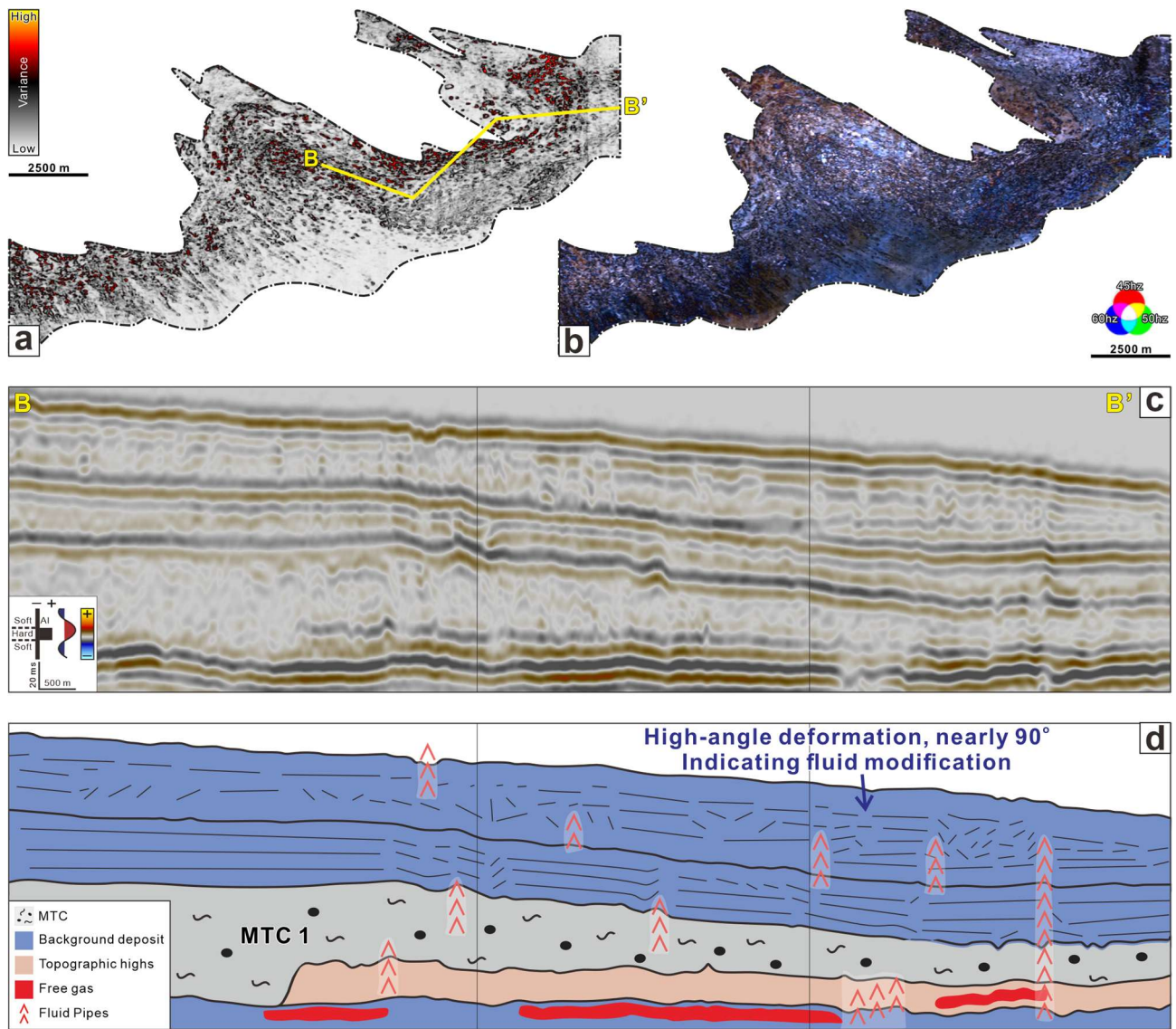
Figure 6

894

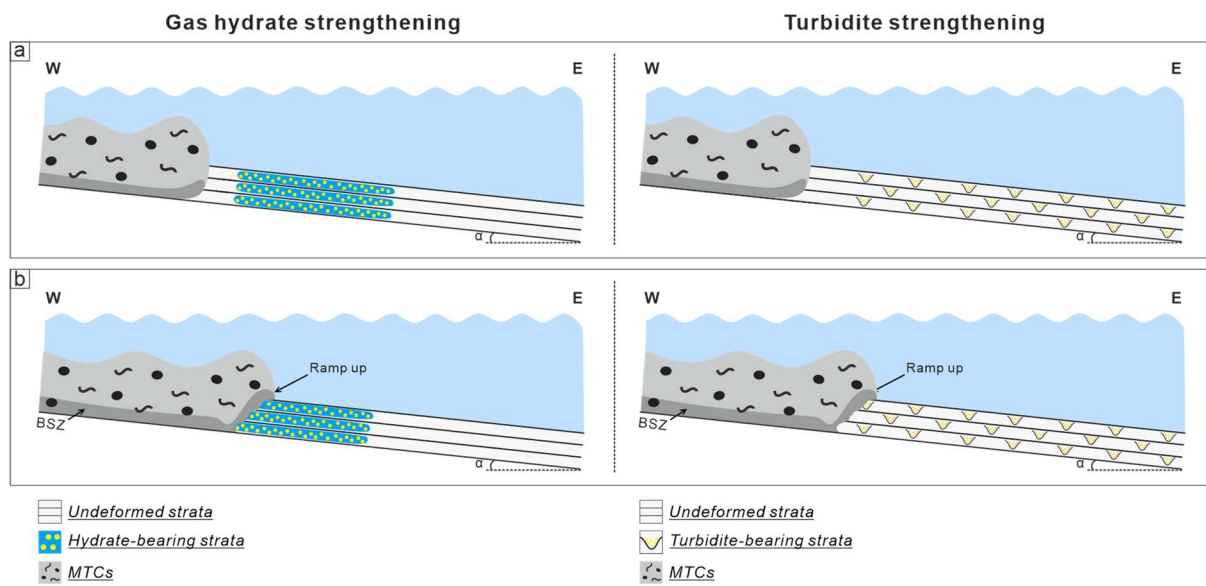895   Figure 7

896

897   Figure 8
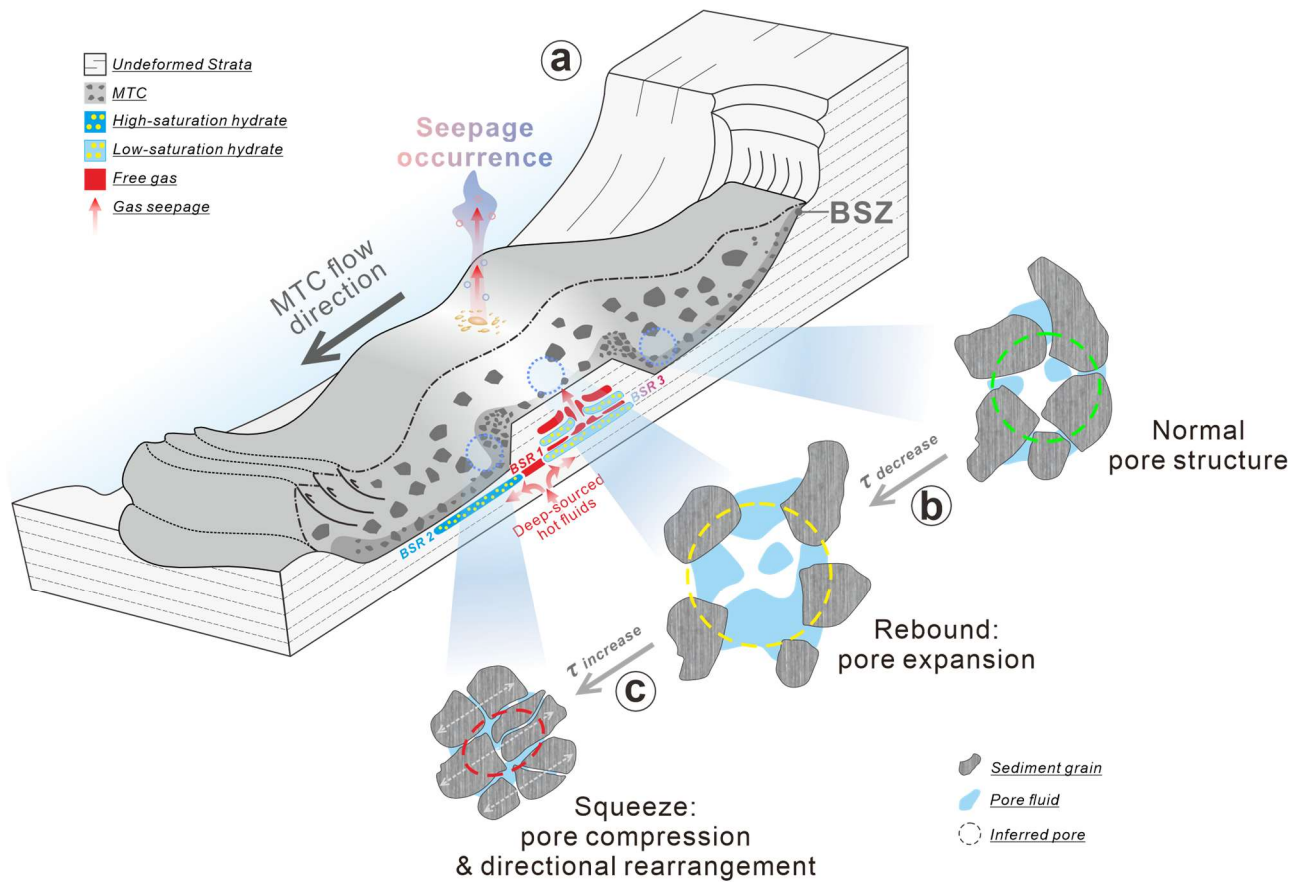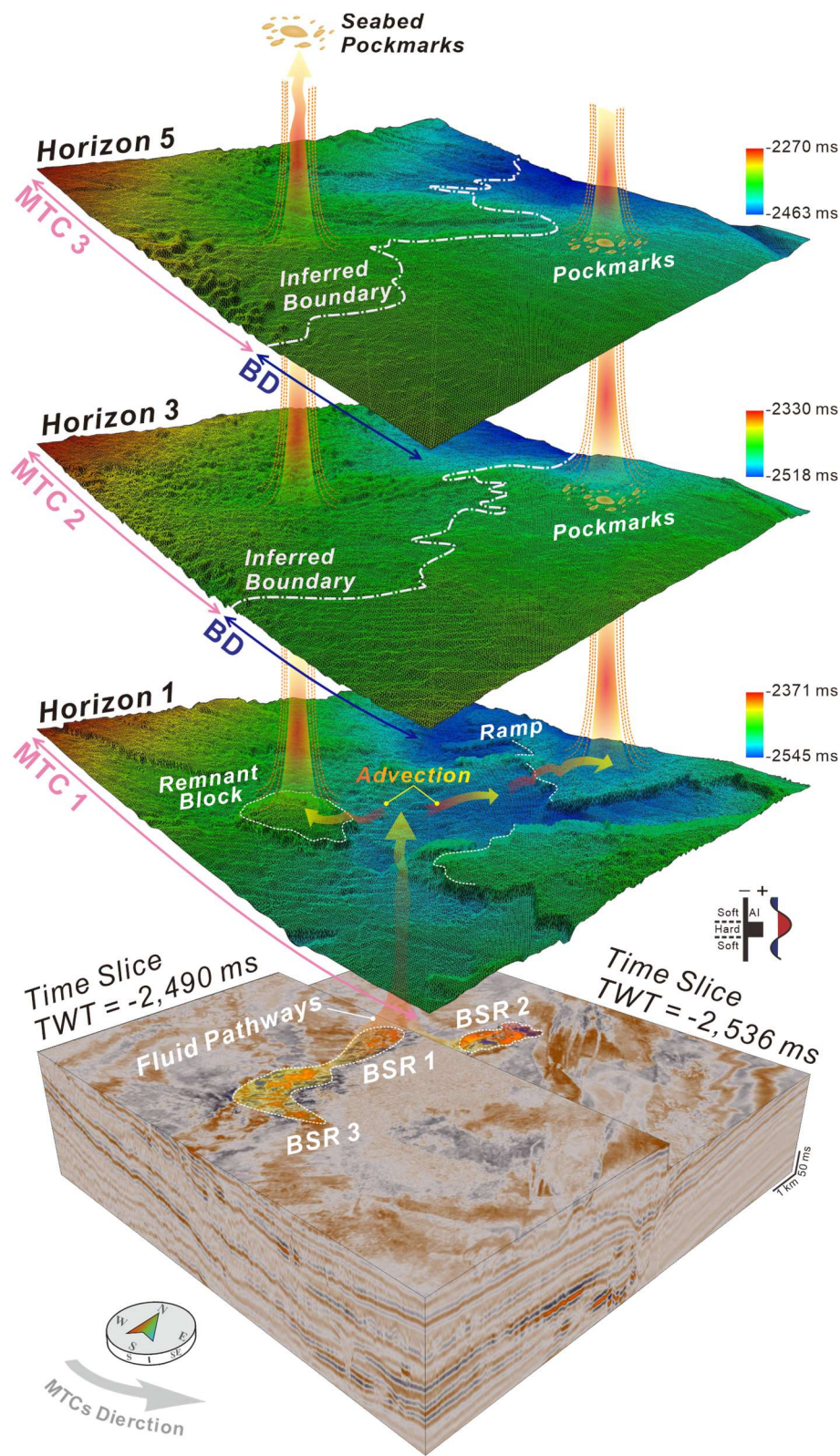
898

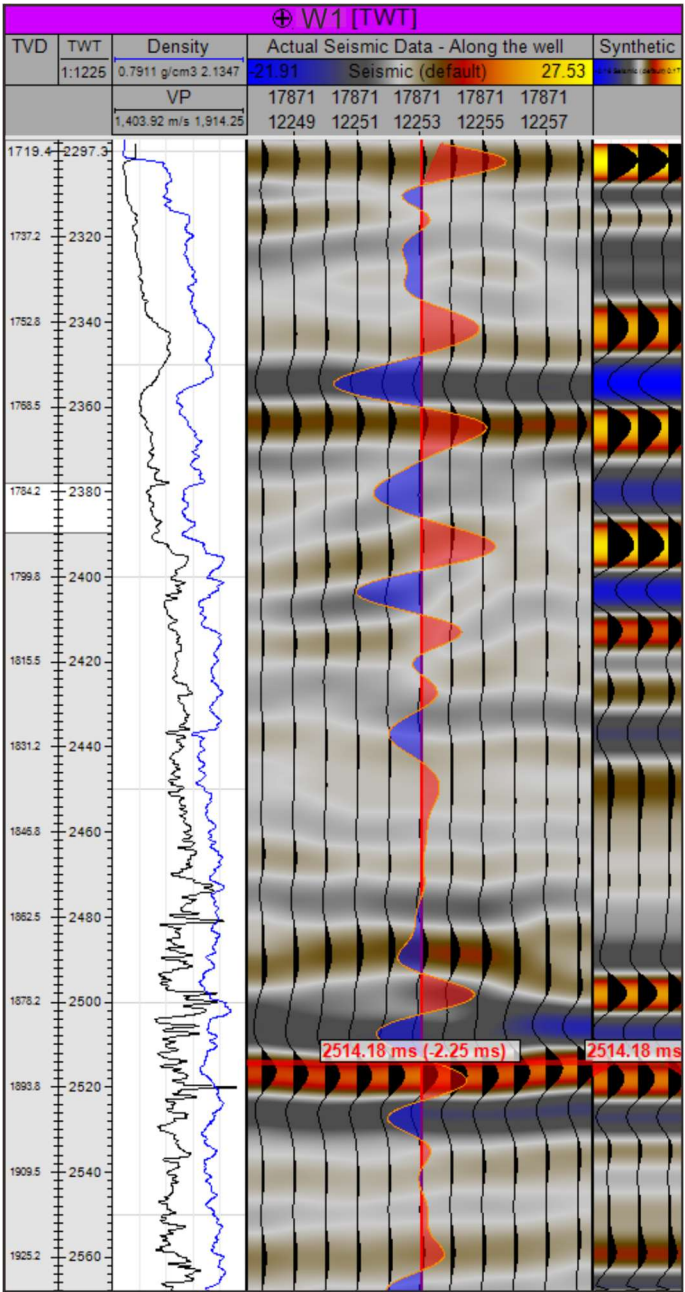899   Figure 9

900

901   Figure 10

902

903   Figure 11

904

905

906   Figure 12

907

908

909 Figure A1