

Originally published as:

Baristeas, N., Anka, Z., di Primio, R., Rodriguez, J.F., Marchal, D., Dominguez, F. (2012): Distribution of hydrocarbon leakage indicators in the Malvinas Basin, offshore Argentine continental margin. - Marine Geology, 332-334, 56-74

DOI: 10.1016/j.margeo.2012.09.011

1	Distribution of hydrocarbon leakage indicators in the Malvinas Basin,
2	offshore Argentine continental margin
3	N. Baristeas ^{(1)*} ; Z. Anka ⁽¹⁾ ; R. di Primio ⁽¹⁾ ; J. F. Rodriguez ⁽²⁾ ; D. Marchal ⁽²⁾ , F. Dominguez ⁽²⁾
4	(1) Helmholtz-Centre Potsdam - GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences, Potsdam,
5	Germany.
6	(2) Petrobras Argentina Energía S.A., Buenos Aires, Argentina.
7	* Corresponding author: <u>baristeas@gfz-potsdam.de</u>
8	Abstract:
9	The Malvinas Basin is located in the southernmost Argentinian continental margin. Despite
10	the lack of commercial hydrocarbon accumulation discoveries, the presence of thermogenic
11	gas in gravity cores and seafloor oil slicks point to the existence of an active petroleum
12	system in this basin.
13	Based on the analysis of over 1000 2D industrial seismic-reflection profiles, covering the
14	shelf and upper-slope of the Malvinas Basin offshore the southernmost Argentinian margin,
15	we document the presence of buried and present-day features including subsurface seismic
16	chimneys, seabed and buried pockmarks, and buried-mounded structures which are probably
17	indicators of long-term leakage history of both liquid and gaseous hydrocarbons since the
18	Eccene to the Present.
19	Based on their distribution and likely controlling factors, these leakage features were
20	classified into four areas of leakage: Area I to area IV. Area I is located in the centre of the
21	basin and contains seismic anomalies as pipes originating above or in a polygonal faulted
22	Pliocene-Miocene interval accompanied by bright spots and seabed pockmarks. Area IIa/b is
23	located in the south of the basin and contains pipes and buried pockmarks located close to the
24	southern transpressional deformation front. Area III is located to the east of the basin and
25	consists of pipes hosted in a Mid-Cretaceous deltaic-fan. Area IV, located in the western part

26 of the basin, consists of buried Eocene mounded structures located near the Rio Chico High 27 and above basement highs and faults. They are interpreted as authigenic carbonate mounds possibly derived from oxidation of thermogenic methane that leaked upwards along 28 29 basement-rooted faults. A reversed-polarity seismic reflection showing a lineation of bright 30 spots has been identified at an average depth of 170 m below seafloor in water depths of 31 about 500 m. We interpret this reflection as a bottom simulating reflector (BSR), which 32 enables us to estimate a geothermal gradient of 23.9 ± 2.0 °C/km for the area. Near and above 33 the thrust faults of a transpressional deformation front, the vertical pipes in area II cross-cut 34 possible hydrate deposits, suggesting that there is a current breaching of these deposits due to 35 tectonically-driven upward focused fluid flow and heat transport.

The gas source for the features observed in areas I, IIa/b and IV is most likely leakage from the uppermost Jurassic-Barremian reservoir Springhill Fm., although a biogenic gas source for leakage indicators in area I can not be ruled out. The leakage indicators in area III are possibly sourced from the Mid-Cretaceous sediments of the Middle Inoceramus Fm.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 In the Malvinas Basin, the existence of an active petroleum system has been proposed in the 42 past (Galeazzi, 1996, and 1998) and the basin has been the target of several seismic reflection 43 and exploratory drilling campaigns since the 70's. Until now, five wells found non-44 commercial hydrocarbon shows and only one gas chimney has been reported in this basin, 45 identified by the observation of a diffuse, vertical cone-shaped area in 2D seismic reflection 46 data (Richards et al., 2006). In contrast, within the neighbouring Austral-Magallanes Basin, 47 Thomas (1949) reported the occurrence of numerous gas seeps and one oil seep. Since then, 48 several new on- and offshore hydrocarbon discoveries have been made and nowadays the 49 Austral-Magallanes Basin is a productive and proven basin for oil and gas.

50 Thus, it is interesting that neither commercial oil accumulations nor more evidence of natural 51 gas and oil seeps have been found in the Malvinas Basin, considering that it has a similar 52 geological history to the Austral-Magallanes Basin. In this study we have investigated the 53 possible existence of further evidence of hydrocarbon leakage indicators in the Malvinas 54 Basin and their possible relationship to the evolution of the basin. This contribution aims at 55 improving our understanding of the factors controlling hydrocarbon migration pathways and 56 natural gas leakage in complex tectonic settings offshore South American continental 57 margins.

58

59 Seismic manifestations of gas and fluid leakage in marine sediments

One of the most common features observed in marine seismic data associated with recent gas or fluid leakage are vertically elongated zones with a deteriorated seismic signal, which are referred to as pipes or gas chimneys (Cartwright et al., 2007; Judd and Hovland, 2007; Løseth et al., 2009). The form of these zones can range from diffuse broad shadows to sharp welldefined pipe like structures, and from cone- or funnel-shaped features to cigar-shaped features (Løseth et al., 2009).

In this study we use the term "pipe" for features with as straight or cylindrical, elongated 66 67 vertical shape with a straight to steeply-dipping conical zone that can narrow upwards or 68 downwards (after Cartwright et al., 2007; Moss and Cartwright, 2009; Løseth et al., 2011). The terms "gas chimney" or "seismic chimney" are used in this study in a broader sense for 69 70 any kind of vertically-elongated features associated with focused fluid flow and gas leakage 71 (after Judd and Hovland, 2007). Pipes are probably linked with very rapid, focused fluid flow 72 as blow out events (Cartwright et al., 2007). They provide a highly-permeable vertical zone 73 along which gas and fluids can migrate very rapidly upwards (Løseth et al., 2009). Focused 74 fluid flow is usually associated with fracture flow out of an overpressured buried reservoir 75 (Løseth et al., 2009), which can be filled with biogenic gases, thermogenic gases, oil, water,

76 or some combination of these fluids (Gay et al., 2006). In fracture flow, the sealing cap-rock 77 of the overpressured reservoir fails as structural conduits form and dilate, allowing fluids to migrate upwards. These conduits can come from various geological structures, including 78 79 normal and thrust faults, polygonal faults and hydro-fractures (e.g. Gay et al., 2004; Løseth et 80 al., 2009; Cartwright et al., 2007; Micallef et al., 2011). Polygonal faults provide good 81 leakage pathways. After their generation, deeper fluids can migrate upwards along conduits 82 generated by the intersection of the polygonal faults (Gay et al., 2004). Fluid flow above the 83 intersection of polygonal faults become more focused and can be associated with overlying 84 pipes and pockmarks (Berndt et al., 2003; Cartwright et al., 2007; Gay et al., 2004). 85 Areas with observed high-amplitude reflection anomalies located above a polygonal faulted 86 interval can indicate the presence of trapped fluids. In these areas, however, often no fluid 87 flow indicators are visible. This could be interpreted as a diffusive fluid flow out of the 88 polygonal faults. Dissolved gas would only result in an amplitude anomaly when it exsolves 89 from the water phase upon pressure decrease during vertical migration. A seismically 90 observable feature, however, would only be developed when a significant amount of gas is 91 trapped under a less permeable layer (Berndt et al., 2003). In this case pipes can be generated 92 when the trap fails, because of exceeding pore pressure of the accumulating gas and fluids 93 (Berndt et al., 2003). This will generate pipes without a clear root point in the underlying 94 polygonal faulted interval.

95 Free gas accumulations within marine sediment can cause high amplitude reflection 96 anomalies (e.g. bright spots or flat spots) as well as acoustic blanking or turbidity of the 97 seismic signal (Judd and Hovland 2007; Løseth et al., 2009; Gay et al., 2007). These features 98 often occur in the vicinity (on the flanks or directly above) of pipes and gas chimneys (Løseth 99 et al., 2009). Bright spots occur because of the presence of gas within a layer, which reduces 100 the seismic velocity of that layer, thereby increasing the impedance contrast with the 101 neighboring layer. Sometimes a phase reversal between the bright spot and the adjacent layers

102 is observable (Løseth et al., 2009). Flat spots indicate the gas-water interface between water 103 saturated sediments overlying gas saturated sediments (Judd and Hovland, 2007). Acoustic 104 blanking and turbidity is usually caused by absorption and scattering of acoustic energy of gas 105 charged sediments above the blanking area (Schroot et al., 2005; Gay et al., 2007). Seismic 106 reflections within or adjacent to a gas chimney can be pulled-down or pushed up due to 107 seismic velocity effects, creating v-shaped depressions or a mound-shaped layering 108 (Cartwright et al., 2007; Løseth et al., 2009). The presence of gas, which reduces the velocity, 109 can cause a velocity pull down. Conversely, an increase in sediment velocity, from 110 cementation with authigenic carbonates for example, can cause a velocity pull up. 111 Pockmarks are common expressions of leakage observed in marine seismic data (Hovland and 112 Judd, 1988; Hovland et al., 2002). These features are cylindrical to elliptical seabed 113 depressions, often seen in 2-D seismic cross-sections as v-shaped depressions. They are 114 associated with gas and/or fluid leakage out of the subsurface and range in depth from meters 115 to tens of meters and in diameter from meters to hundreds of meters (Hovland and Judd, 116 1988; Judd and Hovland, 2007). They are found on the seafloor and/or as paleo pockmarks on 117 the paleo seabed buried below sediments. Recent pockmarks are often linked with underlying 118 pipes (e.g. Cartwright et al., 2007). Pockmarks are generated by blow outs of fluids (often 119 gas) from the subsurface into the water column, whereby sediment is mobilized and eroded 120 (Judd and Hovland 2007; Løseth et al., 2009). Single v-shaped depressions can be interpreted 121 as pockmarks, whereas stacked v-shaped depressions are more likely generated by velocity 122 pull down effects caused by gas accumulations. 123 Aside from the above described manifestations of gas in sediments gas leakage is also often 124 associated with gas hydrates and the observation of a bottom simulating reflector (BSR) (e.g. 125 Lüdmann and Wong, 2003; Cathles et al., 2010). Gas hydrates are crystalline, ice like

- 126 compounds, where gas molecules are trapped within a cage-like structure of the water
- 127 molecules. They are only stable under specific conditions of depth, temperature, salinity and

128 water-gas compositions (Sloan, 1990), i.e. in the gas hydrate stability zone (GHSZ). A BSR is 129 the seismic reflection marking the base of the gas hydrate stability zone (BGHSZ), where 130 sediments partially saturated with gas hydrates overlie sediments devoid of hydrate and 131 usually containing free gas (e.g. Bangs et al., 1993). The impedance contrast is negative and a 132 phase reversal is visible compared to the seafloor reflector. In general the BSR follows the 133 seafloor morphology, because the BGHSZ is defined to be the lower stability boundary of gas 134 hydrates, i.e. it follows an isotherm line which is mostly parallel or sub-parallel to the seafloor 135 morphology (Hyndman and Davis, 1992; Hyndman and Spence, 1992). 136 Another manifestation of fluid and hydrocarbon leakage are mounded structures, associated 137 with hard carbonate formations derived by the microbiological oxidation of leaking methane 138 and further chemosynthetic reactions (Hovland, 1990b). The formation of these so called 139 methane or hydrocarbon derived authigenic carbonates (MDACs or HDACs) (Lein et al., 140 2004; León et al., 2007) can only occur if methane or hydrocarbons from the subsurface reach 141 the seafloor sediments. Once MDACs or HDACs are generated and the sediment is cemented, 142 organisms can colonize these authigenic carbonate grounds and carbonate mound growth can 143 take place (Judd and Hovland, 2007 and references therein). The process of carbonate mound 144 generation associated with fluid and hydrocarbon leakage is not vet completely understood. 145 but has been observed in several different locations on passive margins around the world. 146 Examples of giant carbonate mounds of deepwater coral reefs at high latitudes are in the 147 Southern Vøring Plateau, offshore Norway (Ivanov et al., 2010) or in the Porcupine Basin, 148 offshore Ireland (Naeth et al., 2005). MDAC and HDAC cemented sediments and dolomite 149 crusts associated with mud mounds have formed in the Gulf of Cadiz (León et al., 2007; 150 Magalhães et al., 2012). Beneath carbonate cemented sediments and mounds, amplitude 151 suppressions is often observed because of the high impedance of the well-indurated 152 structures, which can significantly reduce the transition of energy (Cowley and O'Brien, 153 2000).

155 2. General geological background

156 The study area is within the Malvinas Basin, located on the Argentinean continental shelf 157 offshore the south-easternmost margin of South America, in water depths of about 100 to 600 158 m (Fig. 1). The basin is bounded by the Malvinas/Falkland Islands to the East and by the Rio 159 Chico High (Dungeness Arch) to the West (Fig. 1). The basin is connected with the Austral-160 Magallanes Basin to the SW and with the South Malvinas Basin to the SE along a deep 161 basement trough, which is located north of a southern major sinistral transpressional 162 deformation front (Fig. 1). This major transform fault represents the boundary between the 163 South American and Scotia Plates (Ghiglione et al., 2010; Diraison et al., 2000). 164 The basin infill is influenced by multiple tectonic phases, which develop major stratigraphic 165 unconformities (Biddle et al., 1986; Yrigoyen, 1989; Galeazzi, 1998; Tassone et al., 2008; 166 Ghiglione et al., 2010), (Fig. 2). According to these unconformities, five major tectonic phases have been defined (Yrigoyen, 1989; Galeazzi, 1998), (Fig. 2): 1) the pre-rift phase 167 168 (168 Ma), 2) the extensional syn-rift phase (168-150.5 Ma), dominated by tuffs, tuffaceous 169 sandstones and rhyolithes, 3) the tectonic sag phase (150.5-68 Ma), which is made up of basal 170 sandstones followed by deep marine fine grained sediments, as shales, silt- and claystones and 171 terminates in a succession of glauconitic sandstones, 4) the extensional foredeep transition 172 phase (68-42.5 Ma), with the development of a deep trough in the south and a reduced 173 sedimentation consisting of a mixture of glauconitic sandstones, claystones, calcareous 174 claystones and carbonates, and 5) the transpressional foredeep phase (42.5 Ma-recent), with 175 the development of the southern transpressional deformation front and increased 176 sedimentation consisting mainly of glauconitic sandstones as well as finer intervals like 177 claystoens and limestones. For more detailed descriptions on the general Geology of the

Malvinas Basin, the reader is referred to the works of e.g. Yrigoyen (1989), Galeazzi, (1998),
Tassone et al. (2008), and Ghiglione et al. (2010).

180

181 **Petroleum system elements**

182 The petroleum system in the Malvinas Basin is proposed as Lower Inoceramus-Springhill

183 petroleum system (Rossello et al., 2008, and references therein), (Fig. 2). The source rock of

184 this system is the organic rich shale of the Hauterivian-Aptian Lower Inoceramus Fm. (Pampa

185 Rincon Fm.), (Fig. 2), (Biddle et al., 1986; Galeazzi et al., 1998; Rossello et al., 2008).

186 However, a minor source rock interval could also be the Albian-Cenomanian Margas Verdes

187 Fm. (Galeazzi, 1998). Some authors also propose the lacustrine shales of the Jurassic syn-rift

188 Tobífera Fm. and the continental shales of the latest Jurassic-Barremian Springhill Fm. as

189 possible source rocks for the Austral-Magallanes Basin (Pittion and Gouadain, 1992; Bravo

190 and Herrero, 1997; Pittion and Arbe, 1999).

191 Aside fom the fluvial and shoreline sandstones of the Springhill Fm., other minor reservoirs

are represented by the Maastrichtian-Eocene glauconitic sandstones or carbonate

193 sediments/mounds and Miocene turbiditic sandstones lobes (Galeazzi, 1998; Rossello et al.,

194 2008).

195 The critical stage of this petroleum system seems to have occured during the Eocene, at the

196 end of the transitional foredeep phase, when the basin had deepened towards the south and the

197 source rock entered into the oil and gas window (Galeazzi, 1998; Ghiglione et al., 2010).

198

199 3. Dataset and Methodology

200 **3.1** Dataset

201 Over 1000 2D-seismic profiles with a total length of over 65,000 km and a coverage area of 202 over 120,000 km² where analysed in this study. The seismic lines were kindly provided by

203 Petrobras Argentina S.A. in the form of standard industrial reflection lines. They cover a 204 dense grid over the southern Argentinian continental shelf with a grid spacing varying 205 between 2-5 km up to 25-50 km (Fig. 3). The highest grid density is along the western flank 206 of the Rio Chico High and towards the southwest of the basin. The grid density decreases 207 towards the edges of the coverage area. The seismic record depth ranges from 4 to 8 s two-208 way travel time (twt). The acquisition years of these surveys range from 1970 to 1998. 209 Acquisition information or detailed processing information was not available. Seismic 210 sections from surveys acquired pre-1990 have been scanned and transformed into SEGY 211 standard format. The average frequency range of the seismic signal for all surveys is in a 212 range of about 10-50 Hz, with a dominant frequency at about 20-25 Hz. 213 The best-quality data come from the 1998 surveys located in the centre of the basin at the 214 eastern part of the coverage area. Despite the limitations due to the low quality of the older 215 data, the 2D seismic grid covers almost the entire basin and provides a very good overview of 216 the basin structure, and allows the detection of hydrocarbon leakage indicators basin-wide. 217 Additionally, Petrobras Argentina S.A. provided information from 25 wells which was used 218 to tie the seismic data with the stratigraphy. Checkshot information from these wells was used 219 for the time-depth conversion of interpreted seismic horizons.

220

221 3.2 Methodology

In this study, a detailed seismo-stratigraphic interpretation and mapping of the main unconformities and seismic units in the Malvinas Basin was achieved. The seismic interpretation was carried out using the commercial software PetrelTM (Version 2009.1.1) of Schlumberger. We identified and mapped possible indicators of recent and paleo- gas leakage and the presence of free gas accumulations basin-wide. These indicators include features such as pockmarks, seismic chimneys or pipes, mounded structures, and high amplitude reflection anomalies (e.g. bright spots). In order to determine which of the geological factors control the

- 229 hydrocarbon leakage, a detailed correlation between the regional tectonics and the
- 230 stratigraphy of the basin was carried out.
- 231 Local geothermal gradient estimations can be made by using the depth of the observed BSR,
- 232 if present. The geothermal gradient (g) is thus obtained from:
- 233

$$g = (T_{BSR} - T_{ob})/Z_{BSR}$$
(1)

where T_{BSR} is the temperature at the BSR depth, T_{ob} is the temperature at the ocean bottom, and Z_{BSR} is the depth of the BSR below the seafloor.

236 T_{ob} was obtained from the NOAA online database for ocean water temperatures (Locarnini et 237 al., 2010). Several ocean water temperatures, in water depth of 500 m, located above the area 238 of observed BSR, and close to the seafloor (within tens of meters to it), were used to 239 interpolate the temperature on the ocean bottom (Appendix A). T_{BSR} was estimated by Miles' 240 (1995) equations, which are based on the fourth order polynomial fit to the experimental P-T 241 phase boundary curve of methane hydrate in a simplified pure methane-seawater system 242 (Sloan, 1990). In order to convert the BSR depth (Z_{BSR}) from twt into meters, we used a mean 243 sediment velocity of 1700 m/s obtained from a velocity model, which was derived from well 244 checkshot data. For the calculations we estimated an error of ± 0.2 °C for the ocean bottom 245 temperature and deviation of \pm 50 m/s for the sediment velocity used in the time-depth 246 conversion.

247 4. Identification of hydrocarbon leakage indicators

In our study area a large number of seismic features were observed, which could be interpreted as possible indications of either paleo- or presently active gas leakage, or as the presence of free gas and gas hydrate deposits in the basin. These features include several vertically-elongated low-amplitude zones, diapir-like structures, high-amplitude anomalies, vshaped depressions on the seafloor and in the sediments, buried mounded structures, and nearseafloor reflections that we interpret as BSRs. Figure 4 presents the distribution of the most prominent vertically-elongated low-amplitude zones, the buried mounded structures and the areas where a BSR was interpreted.

256 Additionally, other non-seismic evidences of leakage exists in the Malvinas Basin, including

257 indications of thermogenic gas from isotopic analysis of gas in piston cores and oil slicks

258 (Petrobras internal reports), (Fig. 4).

259 4.1 The central part of the basin:

260 We observe several vertically-elongated features with low-amplitude zones and a diffuse-to-261 chaotic seismic pattern in the central part of the basin, overlying a deep basement graben (area 262 I in figure 4), (Figs. 5, 6). These features extend very close to the seafloor and their base can 263 often be traced down to the upper limit of a polygonal fault interval (Fig. 6). In some cases 264 there is no clearly visible root. Their vertical-length is at least 500 to 800 ms (twt), and their 265 width is between 700 and 2400 m (Fig. 6). The shapes are typically cylindrical to conic. 266 Several high-amplitude reflection anomalies can be observed in the upper parts of these 267 vertically-elongated features or adjacent to them (Figs. 5, 6). In the surrounding areas, several 268 enhanced amplitudes also occur along particular stratigraphic levels. These can extend 269 laterally up to some hundreds of meters to kilometres (Fig. 5). 270 A few v-shaped depressions are observed on the seafloor in the area where the enhanced 271 amplitudes and the vertically-elongated features occur, with some of them located directly 272 above them (Figs. 5, 6). Enhanced amplitudes near the vertically-elongated features are 273 sometimes underlain by a zone of reduced amplitudes. In places, stacked v-shaped

depressions are observed within the vertically-elongated features (Fig. 6). Other enhanced

amplitude anomalies present a phase reversal compared to the neighbouring stratigraphic

276 layers (Fig. 6).

Features in area I occur within the Pleistocene to recent sedimentary succession (Figs. 5, 6),
located above a Miocene-Pliocene polygonal faulted interval (Figs. 5, 6). The lower part of

279 this faulted interval is identified as over-bank sediments, probably associated with a nearby 280 Miocene channel-levee-system from lowstand deposits (Galeazzi, 1998, Weimer, 1990). 281 Above the over-bank sediments, a Pliocene elongated mounded feature similar to a contourite 282 deposit is identified (Fig. 5). Below the area of the observed features, within the Cretaceous 283 sediments, we have identified an up to 80 km wide fan body of the Mid. Inoceramus Fm. (Fig. 284 5). By examining several seismic lines we observe that this fan progrades towards the SW. 285 The progradational fan front dips towards the SE. The whole fan body is located between 286 about 1.5 and 2.0 s (twt) and the progradational fan front is located at approximately 1.75 -287 2.5 s (twt). The most prominent features observed in area I are located above the fan front. 288 Both the Mid-Cretaceous Middle Inoceramus Fm. and the Upper Cretaceous sedimentary 289 succession deposited above the Mid Inoceramus fan body are characterized by a highly 290 chaotic and disturbed seismic pattern with relatively low-amplitudes and locally enhanced 291 reflectors. Both intervals are disrupted by polygonal faults (Fig 5).

292 4. 2 The southern part of the basin:

Several vertically-elongated features with low-amplitude zones and a diffuse-to-chaotic
seismic pattern are also identified in the central-southern part of the Malvinas Basin, where
the basement reaches its greatest depths in front of the deformation front (Fig. 4, area IIa and
Fig. 7). Some similar features have also been observed in the Austral-Magallanes Basin (Fig.
4, area IIb). They are situated either above deep-rooted Miocene/Pliocene thrust faults of the
deformation front or above Eocene/Miocene normal faults (Fig. 7).

299 The vertical zones occur in the upper stratigraphic column, within the Pliocene-Recent

300 sediments. With variable sizes they exhibit an average vertical length of 300 to 1000 ms (twt)

301 and reach maximum depths of up to 2.5 s (twt). Their widths range between 300 and 1200 m,

- 302 with the exception of one feature that has a width of 4.5 km (Figs. 8, 9). Almost all of these
- 303 features reach up to a distinct level below the seafloor, terminating at a high-amplitude

304 anomaly (Fig. 8.). Below these enhanced reflections the signal is deteriorated or blanked. 305 Stacked v-shaped depressions can often be observed within the vertical features and single v-306 shaped depressions are identified along stratigraphic layers or within the Pliocene to recent 307 sedimentary interval in depths ranging from 0.85 to 2.25 s (twt) (Figs. 7, 8, 9). 308 In the area of the deformation front, the deteriorated signal can often be followed down to the 309 upper termination of the deep rooting thrust faults (Figs. 7, 8, 9). Some of the high-amplitude 310 anomalies show a phase reversal compared to the seafloor (Fig. 8). This level mimics the 311 seafloor morphology and occurs in a water depth of 690 ms (twt) (about 500 m, assuming a 312 seawater velocity of 1450 m/s) and at a depth of 200 ms (twt) below the seafloor (about 170 313 m \pm 5 m below the seafloor assuming an average sediment velocity of 1700 m/s \pm 50 m/s). 314 The zone above this level shows very low to transparent amplitudes (Figs. 7, 8). Additionally, 315 above the phase-reversed, enhanced reflections a zone of amplitude variations and reduced 316 amplitudes is observed up to the seafloor (Figs. 7, 8, 9). 317 We also identified a very broad diapir-like structure in area IIa (Fig. 9). This feature is located 318 at 500 m water depth and is considerably larger (with a width of 3.5 to 4.5 km) than all 319 vertically-elongated features observed in areas IIa and IIb. The top of this structure is located 320 65 ms (twt) below the seafloor (approximately 55 ± 2 m, assuming an average sediment 321 velocity of 1700 ± 50 m/s). The reflections at the top of the structure show a phase reversal 322 compared to the seafloor reflection, which itself exhibits anomalously low amplitudes above 323 this feature (Fig. 9). In the uppermost 500 ms (twt), pull-down effects can be observed within 324 the structure. Deeper than the uppermost 500 ms, no layering is visible and the internal signal 325 is completely distorted and deteriorated – its base is not visible.

326 Calculations of the geothermal gradient were made for an assumed BGHSZ at the level where

both phase-reversed reflection anomalies occur. As explained in the methodology this was

328 calculated for ocean bottom temperature of 4.2 ± 0.2 °C. The observed phase-reversed

329 enhanced reflection showed in figure 8 would then correspond to the BGHSZ if the

330 geothermal gradient is 23.9 ± 2.0 °C/km (Fig. 9c).

331 On the other hand, the observed phase-reversed enhanced reflection above the broader diapir-

332 like feature shown in figure 9a and b would correspond to a geothermal gradient of 43.5 ± 2.0

³³³ °C/km if they are considered as an upwardly shifted BGHSZ (Fig. 9c).

334 The vertically elongated features can be classified as 1) features located to the NW of the

deformation front and above the deeply- rooted Eocene/Miocene normal faults, and 2)

features overlying the thrust faults of the deformation front (Fig. 7). This latter type also

337 occurs in the neighbouring Austral-Magallanes Basin (Fig. 4). In general, the frequency of

338 observed vertically-elongated features decreases towards the NW in the basin.

339 **4**.3 The eastern part of the basin:

340 We could observe a few straight vertically-elongated features, with a reduced amplitude and a 341 diffuse-to-almost-chaotic internal seismic pattern at the southwestern flank of the Malvinas 342 Islands (Fig. 4, area III). These features are found within the Upper Cretaceous–Recent 343 sediments overlying a Mid-Cretaceous progradational fan body of the Lower Inoceramus Fm. 344 (Richards et al., 2006), (Fig. 10). They are about 0.7 - 2.5 s (twt) long and approximately 1 -345 1.4 km wide. They reach, or are very close to, the seafloor. They have a conic to straight 346 shape with diffuse lateral boundaries. The most prominent feature corresponds to one 347 previously reported by Richards et al. (2006), (Fig. 10). It has a total length of about 2.5 s 348 (twt), while the eastern features have a length of only 0.7 to 1.5 s (twt). Stacked v-shaped 349 depressions can be distinguished within the internal structure. Below the westernmost 350 prominent feature, late Jurassic-early Cretaceous normal faults are found and the basin is 351 relatively deep. Whereas towards the east, the basement rises up to 2.5 s (twt) and has several 352 normal faults, which reach up to the lowermost Cretaceous.

353 4. 4 The western part of the basin:

354 We have identified a series of mounded structures buried within the relatively thin Paleocene-355 Eocene unit (Figs. 11, 12), and located south and southwest of the Rio Chico High (Fig. 4, 356 area IV). The Paleocene-Eocene unit thickens from 50 ms (twt) in the north up to 400 ms 357 (twt) in the south. Some other buried mounds are also found in the overlying Miocene 358 succession (Fig. 12). These structures are about 50 - 300 ms (twt) high (approximately 50 -359 250 m) and 600 -1600 m wide, although other less abundant and smaller mounds, about 100 360 m wide, where also identified. One interesting observation is that these structures are mostly 361 located above basement normal faults or structural highs and stratigraphic features like strata 362 truncations (Fig. 11). The Eocene layers lap onto the mounds (Figs. 11, 12). The morphology 363 is predominantly symmetrical and internally well stratified, but some may be asymmetrical, 364 displaying prograding internal reflections (Fig. 12). These mounds often occur in clusters of 4 365 to 10, and the highest density is observed along a NW-SE axis in the SW edge of the Rio 366 Chico High (Fig. 4). Below the largest mounds, the seismic signal is reduced and the 367 stratification is not clearly visible, although occasionally local pull-ups can be observed (Fig. 368 11). The well Lapa penetrated a mound at 1320 m depth and the cutting samples were 369 described as micritic limestones, locally dolomitized, associated with abundant fragments of 370 echinoid spines, bryozoan colonies, and gastropod shells (Galeazzi, 1998, Petrobras internal 371 reports). Samples from the well Merluza, drilled about 2.5 km from two of the mounds, show 372 calcitic fragments and pyrite minerals in depths of about 1060-1100 m within a glauconitic 373 sandy environment (internal well report).

374

375 5. Interpretations

Based on their seismic character and geometry we interpret the vertically-elongated featureswith reduced amplitudes observed in area I, IIa/b and III as seismic pipes and the enhanced

378 amplitude anomalies as bright spots indicating the presence of gas. Hence, each area 379 corresponds to an active leakage population (Judd and Hovland, 2007). The low amplitude 380 areas of the seismic pipes indicate active gas leakage. The low amplitudes are most likely 381 caused by the partial saturation of gas within the sediments (Løseth et al., 2009). The v-382 shaped seabed depressions in areas I and IIa are interpreted as seafloor pockmarks produced 383 by blow out events (Figs. 6, 8). If the pockmarks are not linked to underlying pipes they are 384 interpreted as paleo pockmarks derived from a past, no longer active, blow-out event 385 (Hovland and Judd, 1988, Judd and Hovland, 2007). If the pipes have a root within the 386 polygonal faulted interval they are interpreted as a part of a seal-bypass system (Cartwright et 387 al., 2007). Some pipes in area I are rooted in the polygonal faulted interval but also linked to 388 seafloor pockmarks, indicating a seal-bypass system and a recent escape event (Cartwright et 389 al., 2007). However, some pipes in areas I and II situated above the polygonal faulted interval 390 do not show a clear root in this interval, this could be explained by a diffusive flow through 391 the polygonal faults as described by Berndt et al. (2003). The same process is interpreted for 392 rootless pipes near the deformation front in area IIa/b, overlying deeper faults of the 393 deformation front (Figs. 7, 8, 9). The diffusive flow presumably becomes more focused, due 394 to failures of the stratigraphic trap (Berndt et al., 2003). Conversely, the pipes rooted in the 395 deep faults of the deformation front would result from focused fluid flow out of the faults 396 crest (Løseth et al., 2009). The interpretation of the vertically-elongated features as pipes in 397 area III remains uncertain, because of the weak and low quality of the seismic signal (Fig. 398 10). Only the gas chimney identified previously by Richards et al. (2006) is clearly visible. 399 The pipes could be rooted within the Mid Inoceramus fan, but a leakage mechanism is 400 uncertain. One possibility could be focused fluid flow out of an overpressured reservoir fan 401 wit hydro-fractures providing leakage pathways through the sealing cap-rock (Løseth et al., 402 2009).

403 The stacked v-shaped depressions observed in some of the pipes in all areas are most likely 404 caused by velocity pull-down effects due to the presence of gas (Løseth et al., 2009). The 405 blanked zones below the bright spots (Figs. 6, 8, 9) probably result from the absorption or 406 scattering of acoustic energy by the presence of gas in the sediments. A similar interpretation 407 is given to the blanked zones below the seafloor in area I, which are most likely related to the 408 presence of shallow gas below the seafloor (e.g. Schroot, et al., 2005). The phase-reversed 409 enhanced reflections, which underlie a blanked zone and replicate the seafloor morphology 410 are interpreted as bottom simulating reflectors (BSR) (Figs 7, 8, 9).

411 The level where these reflections are located corresponds to a BGHSZ (Hyndman and Davis, 412 1992, Hyndman and Spence, 1992), from which geothermal gradient of 23.9 ± 2.0 °C/km was 413 calculated. The BSR distribution map (Fig. 4) shows that this gas hydrate stability zone is 414 located at the deepest part of the study area. Where the BSR disappears, patchy high 415 amplitudes anomalies occur below the observed blanking level. This blanked area may 416 represent gas hydrates cemented in the sediments, resulting in a reduced impedance contrast between layers (Lee and Dillon, 2001) and/or the presence of shallow gas accumulations 417 418 below the seafloor, which can also reduce the seismic signal (Schroot et al., 2005). The thin 419 low amplitude pipes observed above the BSRs up to the seafloor (Fig. 8) could be evidence of 420 fluids and gas breaching up to the seafloor. The upward migrating hot fluids along deeply-421 rooted faults bringing heat from the deeper parts of the stratigraphic section to higher levels 422 could change locally the stability conditions of the GHSZ. Above the conduits, heat would 423 dissociate the gas hydrates and increase the amount of gas, which would promote the 424 generation of BSRs (Holbrook et al., 1996). Alternatively, gas from deep parts of the section 425 could preferentially migrate upwards along faults. These mechanisms could explain why the 426 BSRs are exclusively located above the area with deep rooting faults (Figs. 7, 8, 9). The local 427 dissociation of the gas hydrates by increased temperatures could lead to the development of 428 leakage pathways for gas and fluids through the otherwise sealing GHSZ. Similar

429	observations have been made in other areas, e.g. at the Cascadia margin off the coast of
430	Vancouver Island (Wood et al., 2002), or offshore Korea, where they have been referred to as
431	"hydrate-choked chimneys" (Haacke et al., 2009). In some areas where BSRs are observed, an
432	amplitude variation is visible at the seafloor (Figs. 8, 9). The suppressed amplitudes of the
433	seafloor reflector might be explainable by partial gas saturation of the seafloor sediments
434	(Crutchley et al., 2010) and the amplitude suppression within the GHSZ could be related to
435	amplitude and signal reduction caused by the presence of gas (Løseth et al., 2009). However,
436	this interpretation is made tentatively, because processing parameters could have
437	compromised true amplitudes in this area of the GHSZ and the seafloor.
438	The phase-reversed enhanced reflections above the diapir-like feature (Fig. 9) are most likely
439	also the result of gas accumulations below gas hydrates. The BGHSZ seems to be upwardly
440	shifted compared to the BGHSZ in the surroundings. If these reflectors represent an upward
441	shifted BGHSZ, a higher geothermal gradient of 43.5 ± 2.0 °C/km is required (Fig. 9c),
442	approximately 19.6 \pm 2.0 °C/km higher than the estimated geothermal gradient for the deeper
443	BSR in the surrounding areas. We suggest that a local upward shift of the
444	pressure/temperature equilibrium boundary by upward migrating hot fluids could be
445	responsible for this.
446	The diapir-like feature could be therefore interpreted as a mud diaper, or an initial stage in the
447	evolutionary development of a mud volcano conduit (Cartwright et al., 2007), allowing the
448	migration of hot fluids from greater depths in this localized area. The theoretical conditions
449	for blow out pipes and for mud volcano conduits are similar (Karakin et al., 2001). Local heat
450	flow anomalies have been reported in the geologically similar Austral-Magallanes Basin on
451	Tierra del Fuego, above and close to the San Sebastian oil and gas field (Uyeda et al, 1978,
452	Zielinski and Bruchhausen, 1983). Uyeda et al. (1978) reported a geothermal gradient of 32
453	°C/km and Zielinski and Bruchhausen (1983) reported 34.6 \pm 2.5 °C/km. Upward fluid

454 migration was proposed to bring up heat from depth, which increases the steady state

455 geothermal gradient, which is supposed to be 20.0 °C/km on Tierra del Fuego (Zielinski and 456 Bruchhausen, 1983). A similar geothermal gradient of 21.5 ± 2.0 °C/km was also obtained 457 from the well Unicorno located offshore Tierra del Fuego (Fig. 3). This value was estimated 458 from not corrected bottom hole temperatures. The range of our calculated values is higher 459 than the reported values, but the increase of the geothermal gradient of 19.6 ± 2.0 °C/km is 460 similar to the increase on Tierra del Fuego, where increases of 12 and 14.4 ± 2.5 °C/km have 461 been reported (Uyeda et al, 1978, Zielinski and Bruchhausen, 1983). Areas of mud diapirism 462 can increase the geothermal gradient by up to a factor of two to three (e.g. Shyu et al., 1998; 463 Lüdmann and Wong et al., 2003), supporting our interpretation of an upward shifted BGHSZ 464 induced by a local heat flow anomaly.

An alternative mechanism for uplifting the BGHS would be rapid uplift of the seafloor caused by tectonic activity. A recent tectonically-induced uplift in the range of tens of meters would have reduced the pressure sufficiently to promote gas hydrate dissociation. The region is tectonically active and primarily affected by wrench deformation (Ghiglione et al., 2010). Tectonic uplift of a localized area with the width of 3-5 kilometres, similar to the observed diapir structure, would be observable in the seismic data as an elevated fault block. We do not observe such a feature (Fig. 9) and therefore rule out this hypothesis.

472

473 Interpretation of the buried Eocene mounded structures

474 A previous interpretation of the buried mounded structures was proposed by Galeazzi (1998),

475 where they were interpreted as carbonate mounds. This interpretation is based on samples of

- 476 the well Lapa and on seismic observations of internal stratification and progradational
- 477 patterns in the mounds. Another strong argument in support of this is the observation of
- 478 pulled-up layers located below of some mounds, as increased seismic velocity by carbonate-
- 479 cemented sediments and carbonate itself may produce this effect (Løseth et al., 2009).
- 480 Further, Galeazzi (1998) interpreted these carbonate mounds as carbonate build-ups favoured

481 by warm waters coming from the northern South Atlantic and by a Paleocene/Eocene warm 482 climate period with a climate maximum at the early Eocene, which might have increased 483 global water temperatures. We confirm the presence of seismic pull-ups (Fig. 11) as a result 484 of the carbonate, which is also supported by the observation of reduced amplitudes and 485 chaotic reflections below several of the mounds (Fig. 11, 12). We think that these structures 486 are associated with MDAC. This interpretation is supported by the reported onset of 487 hydrocarbon generation in the Eocene, and that in our study area, the presence of pyrite is 488 confirmed in the well Merluza (internal well report) close to two buried mounded structures 489 and dolomite has been found in the well Lapa (Galeazzi, 1998). Both observations support the 490 interpretation of MDAC generation, because authigenic carbonate build-ups contain pyrite 491 (Lein, 2004) and are often associated with dolomite (e.g. León et al., 2007).

492

493 Another explanation for the carbonate mounds is that they are a combination of MDAC and 494 contourite deposits. Contourite depositional systems and giant mounded drifts associated with 495 a BSR and hydrocarbons accumulations have been observed on the Argentinean slope and 496 margin (Hernández-Molina et al., 2009, 2010). These are associated with the influence of 497 strong water currents of Antarctic water masses associated with the opening of the Drake 498 Passage and the generation of a strong Antarctic bottom water current at the Eocene-499 Oligocene boundary (Hernández-Molina et al., 2009, 2010). It is possible that water influxes 500 from the Pacific into the South Atlantic existed before the opening of the Drake Passage from 501 50 Ma onwards (Livermore et al., 2005; Lawver and Gahagan, 2003). During this phase of 502 early rifting, a shallow or intermediate depth oceanic circulation between the Pacific and 503 South Atlantic ocean could have been established for the first time (Eagles et al., 2006). This 504 might have produced a strong current similar to the Malvinas Current observed nowadays 505 (Hernández-Molina et al., 2010), which could have generated mounded drifts. However, all

the mounds reported by Hernández-Molina et al.(2010) from the Argentine continental
margin are elongated and have lengths of up to 250 km.

508 Our observed drift mounds could have developed MDAC as carbonate cemented sediments 509 and dolomite crusts during hydrocarbon leakage in the Eocene. Most of the mounded 510 structures observed are above early Cretaceous basement faults or above basement highs and 511 within the Eocene sedimentary succession (Figs. 11, 12), indicating a possible relationship 512 between leakage pathways, an Eocene onset of leakage, and contourite development. 513 Additionally, the location of the mounds parallel to and along the left side of this possible 514 proto Malvinas Current, and the observation of progradation (Fig. 12), would favour this 515 interpretation. After 43-39 Ma the Drake Passage opened (Scher and Martin, 2006) with a 516 proto Drake Passage at around 43 Ma generating the first deep Antarctic Circumpolar 517 Current. Influences of strong currents in this area decreased and mounds only exist until the 518 lower Miocene. However, the seismic pattern and size of the observed giant mounds of 519 Hernández-Molina et al. (2010) differ from our mounds. They are internally bounded by 520 unconformities and they are tens to hundreds of times larger than the examples of carbonate 521 mounds mentioned in the introduction.

522

523 Other possibilities, which are associated with carbonate mound structures, such as MDAC 524 associated with mud volcanism (e.g. León et al., 2007) or deep water coral reefs grown on 525 authigenic carbonate hard-grounds (e.g. Ivanov et al., 2010) can be ruled out because no mud 526 volcanoes or corals have been observed and there was no development of a deepwater 527 environment during that time (Galeazzi, 1998).

528

529 **6.** Discussion

530 6.1 Possible origin of fluids and driving mechanisms of active leakage

531 Area I

532 We discuss three main possibilities regarding the origin of the fluids and gas:

533 1) Thermogenic gas could be leaking vertically from the Springhill Fm., which is the main 534 reservoir of the active petroleum system (Figs. 2, 13). This unit is located below the sealing 535 Lower Inoceramus Fm., which is considered to be a Kerogen type II source rock and the main 536 source rock of the petroleum system (Galeazzi, 1998). This source rock is buried to depths of 537 approximately 1.6 to 2.8 km (1.75 to 2.75 s (twt), assuming an average velocity of 1800 m/s). 538 Based on our calculated geothermal gradient (23.9 ± 2.0 °C/km), it can be assumed that the unit just entered the oil window at the deepest locations in the area I. In general, the oil 539 540 window starts at approximately 60 °C for a source rock with type II kerogen (Tissot and 541 Welke, 1984). A mature Inoceramus source is, however, most likely located further southeast 542 in the main depocenter underlying the area IIa/b (Fig. 4). The source rock has likely reached 543 elevated levels of maturity towards the southeast. Long range secondary migration along the 544 underlying Springhill Fm. could focus petroleum towards the basin margins. Here leakage 545 along fractures crosscutting the Springhill and Lower Inoceramus Fm. could provide leakage 546 pathways to the area I (Løseth et al., 2009). Some deeper normal faults exist below the 547 leaking area in depth of about 1.75 to 3.0 s (twt) (Fig. 5). These crosscut the Springhill and 548 Lower Inoceramus Fm. They likely provide leakage pathways into the progradational fan of 549 the Middle Inoceramus Fm. (Figs. 5, 13). We propose that the polygonal faults observed in 550 the mid and upper Cretaceous and in the Miocene/Pliocene sedimentary succession then 551 provide seal bypass systems (Cartwright et al., 2007), which allow gas and fluids to migrate 552 upwards.

553 The other possible source rock interval is the organic-rich black lacustrine shale within the 554 Tobífera Fm. that has been reported for the Austral-Magallanes Basin (Fig. 2) (Bravo and 555 Herrero, 1997; Pittion and Gouadain, 1992). Almost all of the pipes in area I are located 556 above a deep basement graben, which deepens up to 5 s (twt) (Figs. 4, 13). Using the 557 calculated geothermal gradient of 23.9 ± 2.0 °C/km derived from the BSR depth, this depth 558 would be sufficient to get the source rock into the oil and gas window. In this scenario, a 559 vertical migration of hydrocarbons and fluids along faults and through less permeable layers 560 up to the Springhill Fm. reservoir may be possible. Further vertical migration into the upper 561 levels would be as described above.

562

563 2) Another possibility is a long-range lateral migration of fluids and dissolved gases. The 564 origin of the fluids would be in the deeper part of the deformation front located 80 km to the 565 south (Figs. 4, 13) in depths of more then 5 s (twt) (Fig. 7) (approximately 4.5 km, assuming 566 an average velocity of 1800 m/s). Fluids and Hydrocarbons from the Springhill Fm. reservoir 567 or Miocene turbidites reservoirs would be mobilized by the compressional regime and migrate 568 upwards along the deeply-rooted thrust faults at the deformation front and then possibly 569 laterally (Fig. 13). Some fluids may leak near the seafloor, guided by faults terminating close 570 to the seafloor. Other fluids likely migrated further, laterally up dip through the Miocene 571 permeable layers until they reached the Miocene polygonal faulted interval where they could 572 ascend vertically (Fig. 13). An upward migration along more permeable, upwardly dipping, 573 Pleistocene stratigraphic layers could also be possible.

574 Although such a long-range migration of 80 km and more may seem difficult to conceive,

575 particularly for gas, Pittion and Gouadain (1992) pointed out that the distances between the

576 hydrocarbon kitchens and the discovered reservoirs in the neighbouring Austral-Magallanes

577 Basin are in the range of 20 to 150 km for oil and 60 - 200 km for gas. The observation of oil

578 slicks and thermogenic gas in the uppermost sediments at the shallower edge of the Malvinas

579 Basin (Fig. 4) away from the proposed hydrocarbon kitchen also supports the notion of long580 distance migration in the Malvinas Basin.

581 3) Biogenic gas contributions should not be neglected. Biogenic gas generation from organic 582 rich shales is favoured in shelves and deepwater settings, where it can be generated at very 583 shallow sediment depths in the range of centimetres up to more than 1000 m depth (Rice, 584 1993). Generation of biogenic methane can be summarized as the reduction of CO_2 into 585 methane (Judd and Hovland, 2007). This process requires both high sedimentation rates of at 586 least 200 m/Ma, and a minimum of 0.5% total organic carbon (TOC) in the sediments 587 (Clayton, 1992). Additional conditions required are anoxic and low-sulfate environments, low 588 temperatures, type III/II organic matter and sufficient pore space (Rice, 1992). 589 The top of the Pliocene is buried to approximately 0.5 - 0.75 s (twt) in the area where the 590 pipes occur (Figs. 5, 6, 13). This is equivalent to roughly 425 - 640 m below seafloor (using 591 an average sediment velocity of 1700 m/s). The estimated sedimentation rate for the Pliocene-592 Recent sedimentary interval is around 170 - 250 m/Ma, which is at the minimum possible 593 range for favouring biogenic gas generation. The Pleistocene-Recent litoral marine deposits 594 on Tierra del Fuego consist of gravel, sand, silt, and shell limestone (Olivero and Malumian, 595 2008), which indicates a succession coarser than the Pliocene and Miocene successions. The 596 pore space therefore should be large enough for biogenic gas generation (Rice, 1993). Lateral 597 facies variations can be assumed by the observed progradational pattern of the Pleistocene-598 Recent interval (Tassone et al., 2008). Although we do not have reports of increased TOC or 599 anoxic/sulfate conditions in the Pliocene to Recent sediments, we cannot rule out their 600 existence. However, in our opinion, this is very unlikely since the burial depth, sedimentation 601 rate and temperatures are only very marginally within the biogenic gas window. Therefore, 602 we favour a thermogenic origin for the migrating gas, most likely sourced by lateral migration 603 from the deformation front, although a combination of both leaking deep-thermogenic gas and 604 shallow biogenic gas could also be possible.

606 Area II a/b

607 The origin of fluids and gas of the pipes in area IIa/b is most likely the Springhill Fm. as pore 608 fluids, gas and oil can migrate upwards along the deeply-rooted faults from the deformation 609 front and Eocene/Miocene normal faults (Figs. 7, 8, 9, 13). Migration pathways of fluids 610 along older normal faults and thrust faults could be explained by the overall compressional 611 regime, caused by tectonic shortening and sediment overburden. These structures crosscut the 612 Springhill Fm., providing pathways to the upper stratigraphic levels. Once fluids and gas 613 reach the upper stratigraphic levels, they could charge Miocene turbidite channel reservoirs or 614 be trapped below low permeability fine-grained sediments. At the Miocene stratigraphic level, 615 fine-grained sediments dominate, aside from the sandy channels (Yrigoyen, 1989, Galeazzi, 616 1998), and fluid migration through these low permeable sediments is likely difficult. Once 617 fluids reached the Miocene level, the polygonal faulted interval located at the top of the 618 Miocene succession (Figs. 7, 8) likely provided a seal-bypass system for fluids and gas 619 (Cartwright et al., 2007) or possible diffusive leakage out of polygonal faults (Berndt et al., 620 2003).

621 Fluids in pipes located directly above the deformation front are sourced either directly from 622 the fault terminations as focused flow, or from diffusive flow out of the fault planes. The 623 fluids are most likely directly linked with the charged Springhill Fm. reservoir, which is 624 located below the sealing main Kerogen type II source rock interval, the Lower Inoceramus 625 Fm. (Galeazzi, 1998). It is buried to depths of up to 3.6 - 6.5 km (calculated from 3.5 to 6 s 626 (twt) and an average velocity of 2100 m/s taken from our velocity model). Based on our 627 calculated geothermal gradient of 23.9 ± 2.0 °C/km, it can be assumed that the source rock 628 has entered into the oil and gas window (Tissot and Welke, 1984).

Biogenic production of methane as a main source for methane can be ruled out since isotopic
analysis of gas from piston cores indicates a thermogenic origin (Fig. 4), (Petrobras personal
communication).

The limited distribution of area IIa/b could be explained through two possible hypotheses. 1) All the identified pipes in area IIa have been observed in the most recent 2D seismic surveys (from year 1998), which have the highest resolution and best quality, but end to the east of the basin (Fig. 3). To the west the seismic coverage is also very dense, but of lower resolution and quality (older surveys), which could have masked the presence of leakage features in that area, except for area IIb in the Austral-Magallanes Basin, where surveys from the year 1994 were used.

2) Another possible explanation may be that there is a link between the deepest parts of the
basement and the distribution of the pipes in area IIa, since most pipes in area IIa are located
above the deepest areas of the basin; associated with basement depths of about 5 - 8 s (twt)
(Fig. 4) where the source rock will have the highest maturity. The leakage features found in
the Austral-Magallanes Basin in area IIb are found above shallower basement depths at about
2 - 3 s (twt) (Fig. 4). They are most likely linked with the petroleum system of the AustralMagallanes Basin.

646

647 Area III

The origin of fluids feeding pipes in area III seems to be a Mid-Cretaceous fan system located exclusively at the eastern part of Malvinas Basin. It is a NW-SE elongated sedimentary body prograding from the Malvinas/ Falkland Islands towards the SW into the Malvinas Basin. It is bounded at the top and its base by two prominent reflectors, which can be traced over the entire basin (Figs. 5, 7, 10, 11). The top is represented by the base of the Upper Inoceramus Fm. and at the base is the top of the Margas Verdes Fm. (Fig. 10). The prograding fan consists most likely of clastic-dominated sediments derived from possible Paleozoic quartz-rich

655 sedimentary rocks located in the hinterlands (Richards et al., 2006). A single interpreted pipe 656 located at the toe-set sandstones of the fan system has been identified by Richards et al. 657 (2006). Although no well information exists regarding the lithologic composition of the 658 Middle Inoceramus Fm. in this area, the fan of the Middle Inoceramus Fm. may contain sandy 659 reservoirs (Richards et al., 2006) charged by hydrocarbons generated from the main source 660 rock interval the Lower Inoceramus Fm. or by the minor source rock interval of the Margas 661 Verdes Fm. (Galeazzi, 1998). The oil kitchen is located towards the S and SW, in the deeper 662 part of the basin as discussed above (area IIa/b). After the hydrocarbons have migrated into 663 the Middle Inoceramus Fm. reservoirs along thrust faults of the deformation front, they could 664 migrate laterally updip (Fig. 14).

665 We considered the possibility that leakage out of the main Springhill Fm. reservoir could also 666 be possible in much the same manner as described for pipes in area I (Fig. 4). As for pipes in 667 area I, basement faults crosscutting the Springhill Fm. could provide migration pathways to 668 the Middle Inoceramus Fm. and provide leakage pathways. However, no deep rooting faults 669 are visible in the seismic line in the area where the pipes occur (Fig. 10). Only in the east, 670 some faults cut through the sealing formations and the Springhill Fm. reservoir, but in this 671 area no pipes have been recognised and the faults are too far from the observed pipes in the 672 west (Fig. 10). Therefore, leakage out of the Springhill Fm. reservoir can probably be 673 discounted. Leakage most likely occurs out of the prograding fan of the Middle Inoceramus 674 Fm. We therefore propose that pipes in area III are the result of focused fluid flow induced by 675 a hydro-fractured cap-rock above an overpressured fan reservoir.

676

677 6.2 Origin of fluids for authigenic carbonate generation in the Eocene

The origin of the seeping hydrocarbons could be leaking from the Springhill Fm. reservoirs.

679 The Lower Inoceramus Fm. source rock could have generated oil and gas from Eocene times

680 in the southern regions where the basin developed a deep trough during the Eocene and the 681 source rock entered into the oil window during that time (Galeazzi, 1998). Hydrocarbons 682 would be able to migrate into the Springhill Fm. reservoir. On regional basement highs, where 683 the Springhill Fm. pinches out or at basement fault controlled traps, hydrocarbons trapped 684 below the sealing Lower Inoceramus Fm. cap-rock may have accumulated during the Eocene. 685 Leakage through this sealing formation could occur by capillary leakage, overpressure or 686 along tectonic fractures (Løseth et al., 2009). For instance, several of the basement normal 687 faults continue up to the early Cretaceous, crosscutting the Springhill Fm. and provide 688 tectonically fractured pathways to upper stratigraphic levels, making leakage possible. 689

We think the link between timing of carbonate mound generation, timing of hydrocarbon
generation and possible leakage is very strong, because the mounds are mostly above
structural basement highs or faults, which provide favourable pathways for hydrocarbon
leakage and therefore favourable conditions for MDAC generation.

694

695 7. Summary and Conclusions

We have identified several active, recent and possible paleo hydrocarbon leakage indicators in
the Malvinas Basin. Active leakage indicators include pipes, pockmarks, and high amplitude
reflection anomalies. Possible paleo leakage indicators include buried Paleocene/Eocene and
some Miocene mounds interpreted as MDAC mounds.

700 The active and paleo leakage indicators have different controlling mechanisms, distributions

- and seismic patterns. Most of them are controlled by different structural mechanisms.
- 702 Based on our observations, we propose four different areas (area I-IV) of active and past
- 703 leakage indicators in the Malvinas Basin.

Area I is an active-leakage population, which contains seismic anomalies manifested as pipes originating above or within a polygonal faulted Pliocene-Miocene interval. Pipes of area I are accompanied by high amplitude reflection anomalies and seabed pockmarks located in the centre of the Malvinas Basin. The origin of the hydrocarbons is either thermogenic, biogenic or a combination of both.

709 Area IIa/b is an active-leakage population located in the south. It consists of pipes either

710 located in or above thrust faults of the deformation front, or above deeply-rooted

711 Eocene/Miocene basement normal faults. The gas chimneys are accompanied by high

amplitude reflection anomalies and paleo pockmarks. In area IIa we also identified a BSR that

713 is locally uplifted, indicative of a local disturbance of the base of gas hydrate-bearing

sediments. The origin of the hydrocarbons in this area is most likely thermogenic.

715 Area III is an active-leakage population and consists of seismic-blanking anomalies and pipes

716 originated from a Mid-Cretaceous deltaic-fan front. This population is located at the eastern

717 edge of the Malvinas Basin. The origin of the hydrocarbons is most likely thermogenic.

718 Area IV is a possible paleo-leakage population consisting mostly of buried Eocene and some

719 Miocene mounded structures located southeast of the Rio Chico High. They are mostly

720 located above basement highs and faults and some stratigraphic pinch outs. They are

721 interpreted as MDAC mounds derived from oxidation of thermogenic methane that leaked

722 upwards along basement-rooted Lower Cretaceous faults.

The gas source of the leakage indicators in areas I, IIa/b and IV is most likely from the uppermost Jurassic-Barremian reservoir of the Springhill Fm., although a biogenic gas source in area I can not be ruled out. Leakage indicators in area III are probably sourced directly from Mid-Cretaceous sediments of the Middle Inoceramus Fm.

Based on the BSR depth in area IIa, we could calculate a geothermal gradient of 23.9 ± 2.0

[°]C/km. Gas hydrate dissociation and gas leakage to the seafloor through the GHSZ could be

possible along migration pathways generated by ascending fluids and heat from the

deformation front faults. A local increased geothermal gradient of up to 43.5 ± 2.0 °C/km was

731 calculated from the locally-uplifted BSR. The identification of a significant number of

hydrocarbon leakage indicators previously unknown in the Malvinas Basin indicates the

existence of an active petroleum system, including gas hydrate deposits.

734

735 Acknowledgments

736 We acknowledge the support of Eduardo Vallejo (Petrobras S.A.) for his valuable help on the

implementation of this project. Petrobras Argentina S.A. is thanked for providing the data and

allowing publication. We like to thank the editors Dr. Aurélian Gay, Dr. Christian Berndt, and

739 Dr. Zahie Anka for their work on this special issue. We like to thank also the two reviewers

740 Dr. Luis Somoza and Dr. Gareth Crutchly for their thoughtful input and suggestions that

741 improved this manuscript. This research is funded by the Helmholtz Association's Initiative

and Networking Fund in the framework of Z. Anka's Helmholtz-University Young

743 Investigator Group.

744

745 Appendix A:

The table 1 is showing the geographic coordinates of the measured ocean water temperatures

at 500 m water depth from the NOAA online database (Locarnini et al., 2010), which were

vised to estimate the ocean bottom temperature at the area of the observed BSR.

749

Latitude	Longitude	Ocean temperature
		measured at 500 m
		depth [℃].
-53.3703	-63.3726	4.035
-53.3717	-63.1258	4.339
-53.6293	-63.3729	3.877
-53.6228	-63.1299	4.292
-53.6224	-62.8717	4.521
-53.8741	-63.131	4.252

750

Table 1: Geographic coordinates in decimal degrees (WGS 1984) of measured ocean water
temperatures at 500 m water depth.

754

755 **8. References**

Amante, C., Eakins, B.W., 2009. ETOPO1 1 Arc-Minute Global Relief Model: Procedures,

757 Data Sources and Analysis. NOAA Technical Memorandum NESDIS NGDC-24, 19.

758

759 Bangs, N.L.B., Sawyer, D.S., Golovchenko, X., 1993. Free gas at the base of the gas hydrate

zone in the vicinity of the Chile triple junction. Geology 21 (10), 905–908.

761

- 762 Berndt, C., Bünz, S., Mienert, J., 2003. Polygonal fault systems on the mid-Norwegian
- 763 margin: a long term source for fluid flow. In: van Rensbergen, P., Hillis, R.R., Maltman, A.J.,
- 764 Morley, C.K. (Eds.), 2003. Subsurface sediment mobilization. Geological Society of London,
- 765 Special Publications 216, 283–290.

766

- 767 Biddle, K.T., Uliana, M.A., Mitchum, R.M, Fitzgerald, M.G., Wright, R.C., 1986. The
- stratigraphy and structural evolution of the central and eastern Magallanes
- 769 Basin, southern South America. In: Allen, A., Homewood (Eds.), Foreland Basins. Blackwell
- 770 Scientific Publications, London, International Association of Sedimentologist, Special
- 771 Publication 8, 41–61.

- 773 Bravo, P., Herrero, C., 1997. Reservorios naturalmente fracturados en rocas volcánicas
- jurásicas, Cuenca de Magallanes, Chile. VI Simposio Bolivariano, Cartagena, I, 66-84.
- 775

- Cartwright, J., Huuse, M., Aplin, A., 2007. Seal bypass systems. AAPG Bulletin 91 (8), 1141-1166.
- 778
- 779 Cathles, L.M., Su, Z., Chen., D, 2010. The physics of gas chimneys and pockmark formation,
- 780 with implications for assessment of seafloor hazards and gas sequestration. Marine and
- 781 Petroleum Geology 27, 82-91.
- 782
- Clayton, C., 1992. Source volumetrics of biogenic gas generation, in Vially, R., ed., Bacterial
 gas: Paris, Editions Technip, 191-204.
- 785
- 786 Cowley, R., O'Brien, G.W., (2000). Identification and interpretation of leaking hydrocarbons
- vising seismic data: a comparative montage of examples from the major fields in Australia's

North West Shelf and Gippsland Basin. APPEA Journal, 40 (2000), 121–150.

- 789
- 790 Crutchley, G.J., Pecher, I.A., Gorman, A.R., Henrys, S.A., Greinert, J., 2010. Seismic
- imaging of gas conduits beneath seafloor seep sites in a shallow marine gas hydrate province,
- Hikurangi Margin, New Zealand. Marine Geology 272, 114-126.
- 793
- Diraison, M., Cobbold, P.R., Gapais, D., Rossello, E.A., Le Corre, C., 2000. Cenozoic crustal
- thickening, wrenching and rifting in the foothills of the southernmost Andes. Tectonophysics316 (1-2), 91-119.
- 797
- Eagles, G., Livermore, R., Morris, P., 2006. Small basins in the Scotia Sea: The Eocene
- 799 Drake Passage gateway. Earth and Planetary Science Letters 242, 343–353.
- 800
- 801 Galeazzi, J.S., 1996. Cuenca de Malvinas. In: Ramos, V.A., Turic, M. (Eds.), Geología y

802 Recursos Naturales de la Plataforma Continental Argentina. XIII Congreso Geológico
803 Argentino, 273-309.

804

Galeazzi, J.S., 1998. Structural and stratigraphic evolution of the western Malvinas Basin,
Argentina. AAPG Bulletin 82, 596–636.

807

808 Gay, A., Lopez, M, Cochonat, P. Sermondadaz, G, 2004. Polygonal fault-furrows system

809 related to early stages of compaction-Upper Miocene to present sediments of the Lower

810 Congo Basin. Basin Research 16, 101-116.

811

812 Gay, A., Lopez, M., Cochonat, P., Levache, D., Sermondadaz, G., Seranne, M., 2006.

813 Evidences of early to late fluid migration from an upper Miocene turbiditic channel revealed

by 3D seismic coupled to geochemical sampling within seafloor pockmarks, Lower Congo

815 Basin. Marine and Petroleum Geology 23 (3), 387-399.

- 816
- 817 Gay, A., Lopez, M., Berndt, C., Séranne, M., 2007. Geological controls on focused fluid flow

818 associated with seafloor seeps in the Lower Congo Basin. Marine Geology 244, 68-92.

819

- 820 Ghiglione, M.C., Quinteros, J., Yagupsky, D., Bonillo-Martínez, P., Hlebszevtich, J., Ramos,
- 821 V.A., Vergani, G., Figueroa, D., Quesada, S., Zapata, T., 2010. Structure and tectonic history
- 822 of the foreland basins of southernmost South America. Journal of South American Earth
- 823 Sciences 29, 262-277. doi: 10.1016/j.jsames. 2009.07.006.

- 825 Gradstein, F.M., Ogg, J.G., Smith, A.G., Agterberg, F.P., Bleeker, W., Cooper, R.A.,
- 826 Davydov, V., Gibbard, P., Hinnov, L., House, M.R., Lourens, L., Luterbacher, H.-P.,
- 827 McArthur, J., Melchin, M.J., Robb, L.J., Shergold, J., Villeneuve, M., Wardlaw, B.R., Ali, J.,

- 828 Brinkhuis, H., Hilgen, F.J., Hooker, J., Howarth, R.J., Knoll, A.H., Laskar, J., Monechi, S.,
- 829 Powell, J., Plumb, K.A., Raffi, I., Röhl, U., Sanfilippo, A., Schmitz, B., Shackleton, N.J.,
- 830 Shields, G.A., Strauss, H., Van Dam, J., Veizer, J., Kolfschoten van, T., Wilson, D., 2004. A
- 831 Geologic Time Scale 2004. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- 832
- 833 Haacke, R.R., Hyndman, R.D., Park, K.-P., Yoo, D.-G., Stoian, I., Schmidt, U., 2009.
- 834 Migration and venting of deep gases into the ocean through hydrate-choked chimneys
- 835 offshore Korea. Geology 37 (6), 531-534. doi: 10.1130/G25681A.1.
- 836
- 837 Hernández-Molina, F.J., Paterlini, Violante, R., Marshall, P., M., de Isasi, M., Somoza, L.,
- 838 Rebesco, M., 2009. Contourite depositional system on the Argentine slope: An exceptional

record of the influence of Antarctic water masses. Geology 37, 507-510.

- 840
- 841 Hernández-Molina, F.J., Paterlini, M., Somoza, L., Violante, R., Arecco, M.A., de Isasi, M.,
- 842 Rebesco, M., Uenzelmann-Neben, G., Neben, S., Marshall, P., 2010. Giant mounded drifts in
- 843 the Argentine Continental Margin: Origins, and global implications for the history of
- thermohaline circulation. Marine and Petroleum Geology 27 (7), 1508-1530.
- 845
- 846 Holbrook, W. S., Hoskins, H., Wood, W. T., Stephen, R. A., Lizarralde, D., 1996. Leg 164
- 847 Science Party: Methane hydrate and free gas on the Blake Ridge from vertical seismic
- 848 profiling. Science 273 (5283), 1840–1843.
- 849
- 850 Hovland, M. and Judd, A.G., 1988. Seabed Pockmarks and Seepages. Impact on Geology,
- Biology and the Marine Environment. Graham & Trotman Ltd., London, 293.
- 852

- Hovland, M., 1990b. Do carbonate mounds reefs form due to fluid seepage. Terra Nova 2, 818.
- 855
- 856 Hovland, M., Gardner, J. V., Judd, A. G., 2002. The significance of pockmarks to
- understanding fluid flow processes and geohazards. Geofluids 2 (2), 127–136.
- 858
- Hyndman R.D., Davis, E.E., 1992. A Mechanism for the Formation of Methane Hydrate and
 Seafloor Bottom-Simulating Reflectors by Vertical Fluid Expulsion. Journal of Geophysical
 Research 97 (B5), 7025-7041.
- 862
- 863 Hyndman R., Spence, G., 1992. A Seismic Study of Methane Hydrate Marine Bottom
- 864 Simulating Reflectors. Journal of Geophysical Research 97 (B5), 6683-6698.
- 865
- 866 Ivanov, M., Mazzini, A., Blinova, V., Kozlova, E., Laberg, J.-S., Matveeva, T., Taviani, M.,
- Kaskov, N., 2010. Seep mounds on the Southern Vøring Plateau (offshore Norway). Marine
 and Petroleum Geology 27 (6), 1235-1261.
- 869
- Judd, A. G., Hovland, M., 2007. Seabed Fluid Flow. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University
 Press, 475.
- 872
- 873 Karakin, A. V., Karakin, S. A., Kambarova, G. N., 2001. Movement of a mud mixture
- through a mud volcano channel: Izvestiya. Physics of the Solid Earth 37, 817–824.
- 875
- 876 Lawver, L.A., Gahagan, L.M., 2003. Evolution of Cenozoic seaways in the circum-Antarctic
- region. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 198, 11-37.
- 878

- 879 Lee, M.W., Dillon, W.P., 2001. Amplitude blanking related to the pore-filling of gas hydrate 880 sediments. Marine Geophysical Researches 22 (2), 101–109.
- 881

882 Lein, A., 2004. Authigenic carbonate formation in the Ocean. Lithology and Mineral 883 Resources 39 (1), 1-30.

884

- 885 León, R., Somoza, L., Medialdea, T., González F.J., Díaz-del-Río, V., Fernández-Puga, M.C.,
- 886 Maestro, A., Mata, M.P., 2007. Sea-floor features related to hydrocarbon seeps in deepwater
- 887 carbonate-mud mounds of the Gulf of Cádiz: from mud flows to carbonate precipitates. Geo-
- 888 Marine Letters 27, 237-247.

889

- 890 Livermore, R., Nankivell, A., Eagles, G., Morris, P., 2005. Paleogene opening of the Drake 891 Passage. Earth and Planetary Science Letters 236, 459-470.
- 892
- 893 Løseth, H., Gading, M., Wensaas, L., 2009. Hydrocarbon leakage interpreted on seismic data. 894 Marine and Petroleum Geology 26, 1304–1319.

895

896 Løseth, H., Wensaas, L., Arntsen, B., Hanken, N.-M., Basire, C., Graue, K., 2011. 1000 m 897 long gas blow-out pipes. Marine and Petroleum Geology 28 (5), 1047-1060.

898

- 899 Locarnini, R. A., Mishonov, A. V. Antonov, J. I. Boyer, T. P. Garcia, H. E. Baranova, O. K.
- 900 Zweng, M. M. Johnson, D. R., 2010. World Ocean Atlas 2009, Volume 1: Temperature. S.
- 901 Levitus, Ed. NOAA Atlas NESDIS 68, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 184.
- 902

- Lüdmann, T., Wong, H.K., 2003. Characteristics of gas hydrate occurrences associated with
 mud diapirism and gas escape structures in the northwestern Sea of Okhotsk. Marine Geology
 201, 269-286.
- 907
- 908 Magalhães, V.H., Pinheiro, L.M., Ivanov, M.K., Kozlova, E., Blinova, V., Kolganova., J.,
- 909 Vasconcelos, C., McKenzie J. A., Bernasconi, S.M., Kopf, A.J., Díaz-del-Río, V., González,
- 910 F.J., Somoza, L., 2012. Formation processes of methane-derived authigenic carbonates from
- 911 the Gulf of Cadiz. Sedimentary Geology 243-244, 155-168.
- 912
- 913 Micallef, A., Berndt, C., Debono, G., 2011. Fluid flow systems of the Malta Plateau, Central
- 914 Mediterranean Sea. Marine Geology 284, 74–85.
- 915
- Miles, P.R., 1995. Potential distribution of methane hydrate beneath the European continental
 margins. Geophysical Research Letters 22 (23), 3179-3182.
- 918
- 919 Moss, J.L.; Cartwright, J., 2009. The spatial and temporal distribution of pipe formation,
- 920 offshore Namibia. Marine and Petroleum Geology 27 (6), 1216-1234.
- 921
- 922 Naeth, J., di Primio, R., Horsfield, B., Schaefer, R. G., Shannon, P. M., Bailey, W. R.,
- 923 Henriet, J. P., 2005. Hydrocarbon Seepage and Carbonate Mound Formation: a Basin
- Modelling Study From the Porcupine Basin (Offshore Ireland). Journal of Petroleum Geology
 28 (2), 147-166.
- 926
- 927 Olivero, E.B., Malumian, N., 2008. Mesozoic-Cenozoic stratigraphy of the Fuegian Andes.
- 928 Argentina. Geologica Acta, 6 (1), 5-18. doi: 10.1344/105.
- 929

- 930 Pittion, J.L., Arbe, H.A., 1999. Sistema petrolero de la Cuenca Austral. IV Congreso
- 931 Exploración y desarrollo de hidrocarburos, Mar del Plata, Actas I, 239-262.
- 932
- 933 Pittion, J.L., Gouadain, J., 1992. Source-rocks and oil generation in the Austral Basin.
- 13thWorld Petroleum Congress, Buenos Aires, Proceedings 2, 113-120.
- 935
- Rice, D. D., 1992. Controls, habitat, and resource potential of ancient bacterial gas. In: Vially,
 R. (ed.), Bacterial Gas. Paris, Editions Technip, 91-118.
- 938
- Rice, D. D., 1993. Biogenic Gas: controls, habitat, and resource potential. In: Howells, D. G.
- 940 (ed.), The Future of Energy Gases. United States Geological Survey Professional Paper 1570,
- 941 583-606.
- 942
- 943 Richards, P., Duncan, I., Phipps, C., Pickering, G., Grzywacz, J., Hoult, R., Merritt, J., 2006.
- 944 Exploring for Fan and Delta Sandstones in the Offshore Falklands Basins. Journal of
- 945 Petroleum Geology 29 (3), 199-214.
- 946
- 947 Rossello, E.A., Haring, C.E., Cardinali, G., Laffitte, G.A., Nevistic, A.V., 2008.
- 948 Hydrocarbons and petroleum geology of Tierra del Fuego, Argentina. Geologica Acta 6 (1),
- 949 69-83. doi: 10.1344/105.000000242.
- 950
- Scher, H.D., Martin, E.E., 2006. Timing and Climatic Consequences of the Opening of Drake
 Passage. Science 312, 428-430.
- 953

954	Schroot, B.M., Klaver, G.T., Schüttenhelm, R.T.E., 2005. Surface and subsurface expressions
955	of gas seepage to the seabed - examples from the Southern North Sea. Marine and Petroleum
956	Geology 22, 499-515.

- 958 Shyu, C.T., Hsu, S.K., Liu, C.S., 1998. Heat flows off southwest Taiwan: Measurements over
- 959 mud diapirs and estimated from bottom simulating reflectors. Terrestrial, Atmospheric and

960 Oceanic Sciences 9 (4), 795-812.

961

- Sloan, E. D., (1990). Clathrate hydrates of natural gases, Marcel Dekker, N.Y., 641.
- 964 Tassone, A., Lodolo, E., Menichetti, M., Yagupsky, D., Caffau, M., Vilas, J.F., 2008.

965 Seismostratigraphic and structural setting of the Malvinas Basin and its southern margin

966 (Tierra del Fuego Atlantic offshore). Geologica Acta 6, 55–67.

967

968 Thomas, C.R., 1949. Geology and Petroleum Exploration in Magallanes Province, Chile.
969 AAPG Bulletin 33 (9), 1553-1578.

970

- 971 Tissot, B.P., Welte, D.H., 1984. Petroleum Formation and Occurence. Springer-Verlag Berlin
 972 Heidelberg New York Tokio, pp. 699.
- 973
- 974 Uyeda, S., Watanabe, T., Kausel, E., Kubo, M., Yashiro, Y., 1978. Report of Heat Flow
- 975 Measurements in Chile. Bulletin of the Earthquake Research Institute 53, 131-163.

976

- 977 Weimer, P., 1990. Sequence stratigraphy, facies geometries, and depositional history of the
- 978 Mississippi fan, Gulf of Mexico. AAPG Bulletin, 74, 425-453.

979

980	Wood, W.T., Gettrust, J.F., Chapman, N.R., Spence, G.D., Hyndman, R.D., 2002. Decreased
981	stability of methane hydrates in marine sediments owing to phase-boundary roughness.
982	Nature 420, 656- 660.

- 983
- 984 Yrigoyen, M.R., 1989. Cuenca de Malvinas. In: Chebli, G., Spalletti, L. (eds). Cuencas
- 985 Sedimentarias Argentinas. Universidad Nacional de Tucumán, Serie Correlación Geológica 6,
 986 481-491.
- 987
- 988 Zielinski, G.W., Bruchhausen, P.M., (1983). Shallow temperature and thermal regime in the
- 989 hydrocarbon province of Tierra del Fuego. AAPG Bulletin 67 (1), 166-177.

990 **Figures:**





992 Figure 1: Tectonic setting of the Malvinas Basin and study area (white dashed line). Contour

- 993 lines (thin black lines) show the sediment thickness in km deposited in the Malvinas Basin
- and adjacent areas (modified after Ghiglione et al., 2010). Bathymetry and relief from Amante
- and Eakins (2009). Read text for detailed description.





- 999 petroleum system elements and main tectonic events (compiled from Biddle et al., 1986;
- 1000 Yrigoyen, 1989; Galeazzi, 1998; Tassone et al., 2008; Ghiglione et al., 2010). 1) ages after
- 1001 Gradstein et al. (2004); 2) modified after Galeazzi (1998) and Yrigoyen (1989); 3) after
- 1002 Galeazzi (1998); 4) Ghiglione et al. (2010).











indicators. Basement depth (black lines) in msec (twt) mapped from 2D seismic. Bathymetry and relief from Amante and Eakins (2009).





Figure 5: Interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) 2D seismic line showing an overview of the
observed vertically-elongated features, v-depression on the seabed and enhanced reflections
located above polygonal faulted interval. For details shown in the black box see fig 6. (For
location see fig. 3).



1019

Figure 6: Detail of interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) 2D seismic line (Fig. 5) showing vertically-elongated features, v-depression on the seabed and enhanced reflections located above polygonal faulted interval. In the uninterpreted figure b) amplitude inversions are shown within the boxes and the areas with stacked v-shaped depression is indicated within the ellipses in a). (c), (d), and (e) are enlargements of the boxes with an

1023 amplitude inversion. BL = blanked area. (For location see figs. 3, and 5).



Figure 7: Interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) composite 2D seismic line showing examples
of vertically-elongated features and leakage indicators in area II in front and above the
deformation front. For details shown in the black box see fig 8. (For location see fig. 3).



1028

1029 Figure 8: Detail of interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) 2D seismic line (Fig. 7) showing

- 1030 vertically-elongated features and leakage indicators in area II above and near the deformation
- 1031 front. Read text for details. (For location see figs. 3, and 7).



Figure 9: Examples of interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) vertically-elongated features in area II, enhanced reflection anomalies with and without a phase reversal, a diapir-shaped vertically-elongated feature, stacked and single v-shaped depressions. (c) is showing the P/T phase diagram of a possible gas hydrate stability boundary calculated after Miles (1995). The calculated geothermal gradient (g) has an error of ± 2.0 °C/km. It corresponds to a possible BGHSZ proposed to be located at the two observed enhanced reflections with a phase reversal

1039 observed in 8a/b and 9a/b above the diaper-shaped feature. t_{ob} = temperature at ocean bottom;





Figure 10: Examples of interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) vertically-elongated features inarea III. (For location see fig. 3).







buried mounded structures. (For location see fig. 3).





Figure 12: Examples of interpreted (a) and uninterpreted (b) asymmetric and symmetric
buried Eocene and Miocene mounded structures with internal progradation pattern during
Eocene and internal aggradation pattern during Miocene. Thick black lines represent ages in
Ma of the main unconformities. (For location see fig. 3).





1056 Figure 13: Sketch of composite seismic lines of figs. 5, and 7 and proposed possible leakage

1057 pathways responsible for active leakage populations in area I and II. Age of main

1058 unconformities in Ma. (For location see fig. 3).



Figure 14: Sketch of composite seismic lines of figs. 7 and 10 and proposed possible leakage
pathways responsible for active leakage populations in area II and III. (For location see fig.
3).