

# 1        **Extrinsic controls on turbidity fan lobes spatial distribution and** 2        **potential reservoir presence prediction in half-graben lacustrine** 3        **basin during early syn-rift: insights from stratigraphic forward** 4        **modelling**

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## 12        **Abstract**

13        Turbidite strata are common along faulted margins of half-graben lacustrine basins, but  
14        complex lobe evolution may cause significant variability and uncertainty in the spatial  
15        distribution of turbidite sand bodies. This study integrates core samples, seismic and well  
16        log data from the Dongying Depression lacustrine basin in East China, and uses these data as  
17        inputs to a reduced-complexity stratigraphic forward model of turbidite fan lobe evolution.  
18        Data-unconstrained sensitivity analysis is used to investigate sensitivity of fan-lobe spatial  
19        distribution to fault-related subsidence rate, basin-margin slope, sediment input volume,  
20        and sediment input volume oscillation period. A data-constrained multiple-scenario  
21        approach then varied parameters within defined uncertainty ranges to generate a series of  
22        best-fit models to predict optimal reservoir presence locations. Results indicate that syn-rift  
23        segmentation of the Shengbei fault leads to spatial and temporal variation of fault-related  
24        subsidence in the hanging wall basin. External controls exert systematic impact on the  
25        spatial distribution of both smaller-scale flow beds and larger-scale fans on basin floor.  
26        Higher rates of fault-related subsidence and smaller sediment input volume produce more  
27        laterally confined fan lobe distribution. Higher basin-margin slope gradient produces more  
28        laterally clustered turbidites, but does not change fan lobe location, indicating break of  
29        slope is a more significant control on fan location. Multiple scenario reservoir presence  
30        probability maps suggest that bypass-dominated middle and inner fan areas, and smaller  
31        lengths of retrogradation-dominated feeder channels are most promising reservoir  
32        locations.

33        **Keywords:** Extrinsic controls, turbidity fan lobe, spatial distribution, early syn-rift,  
34        stratigraphic forward modelling, reservoir presence

## 35        **1 Introduction**

36        Ancient lacustrine basins are often prospective for hydrocarbons, providing potentially  
37        important energy resources, but also perhaps important reservoirs to sequester carbon.

38 Lacustrine basin faulted-margins particularly favour occurrence of turbidity flows that form  
39 sub-lacustrine fans (Weimer et al., 2000; Qiang et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2018; Liu & Xiong,  
40 2021; Luan et al., 2022). However, the complex nature and spatial distribution of turbidite  
41 fan lobes has been demonstrated in modern sedimentary process, ancient outcrops,  
42 subsurface strata, flume experiment (Nelson et al., 2009; Prelat et al., 2009, 2010; Koo et al.,  
43 2016; Ferguson et al., 2020) and also some numerical modelling (Groenenberg et al., 2010;  
44 Burgess et al., 2019). This complexity influences reservoir properties such as vertical  
45 connectivity, sand thickness, and grain size distribution (Sprague et al., 2005; Starek et al.,  
46 2017; Cullis et al., 2018), complicating predictions of potential reservoir presence and likely  
47 behaviour during injection of CO<sub>2</sub>.

48 To successfully explore for, develop, produce and then reuse these tight oil and gas  
49 reservoirs for sequestration, better prediction of the most likely location for optimal  
50 reservoir properties is required. Prediction depends on an understanding of fundamental  
51 controls on spatial distribution and evolution of turbidite sand bodies (Sprague et al., 2005).  
52 Previous studies have revealed that fan lobe dynamics and resultant strata are subject to  
53 both extrinsic and intrinsic controls (Cecil, 2003; Sprague et al., 2005; Nelson et al., 2009;  
54 Hamilton et al., 2013; Haas et al., 2016; Burgess et al., 2019; Ferguson et al., 2020; Meek et  
55 al., 2020). Intrinsic factors such as channel avulsion and incision, channel backfilling, and  
56 topographic compensation largely control the architecture of smaller-scale fan lobe  
57 deposition on basin floor (Meek et al., 2020, Ferguson et al., 2020), whereas extrinsic factors  
58 including tectonics, climate, water-level fluctuation, sediment supply etc. dominant at larger  
59 spatial and longer temporal scale (Groenenberg et al., 2010; Meek et al., 2020). Most  
60 previous studies emphasised intrinsic processes (Hamilton et al., 2013; Haas et al., 2016;  
61 Prelat et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2014), and influence of extrinsic process is  
62 less studied. Moreover, for those studies on extrinsic controls, greater importance is  
63 attached to sediment supply and sea or lake-level fluctuation (Normark et al., 2006;  
64 Knudson & Hendy, 2009; Ferguson et al., 2020), whereas few of them have investigated the  
65 influence of fault-related subsidence and margin slope (Normark et al., 2006; Meek et al.,  
66 2020). Therefore, analysing this range of extrinsic controls can provide us with a more  
67 comprehensive understanding on the interplay between extrinsic and intrinsic controls, and  
68 can also assist the prediction on potential reservoir presence and performance.

69 Traditionally, reservoir prediction is primarily driven by the data collected from basin  
70 including core samples, well logging, seismic data etc. However, relying on these datasets  
71 alone can be insufficient to accurately characterize strata given the uncertainties arising  
72 from complex geological process (Burgess et al., 2006; Gervais et al., 2017). Numerical  
73 stratigraphic forward modelling, however, provides practical and effective solution to  
74 address these problems because it can examine the influence of various controlling  
75 variables using a multiple-scenario approach to generate conditional probability maps that  
76 predict reservoir presence (Burgess et al., 2006; Gervais et al., 2017). A reduced-complexity  
77 stratigraphic forward model Lobyte3D is applied in this study in order to achieve the  
78 following goals: (1) to investigate both the paleoclimate-related (sediment input volume and  
79 sediment input oscillation period) and tectonic-related (fault-related subsidence and margin  
80 slope) extrinsic controls on fan lobe lateral movement, to better understand the sensitivity

81 and contribution of these allogenic factors to the turbidity fan lobe spatial distribution in the  
82 faulted margin of an Eocene half-graben lacustrine basin, (2) to quantify the uncertainty  
83 range of the considered extrinsic parameters, (3) to produce predictive reservoir presence  
84 probability maps.

## 85 **2 Geological setting**

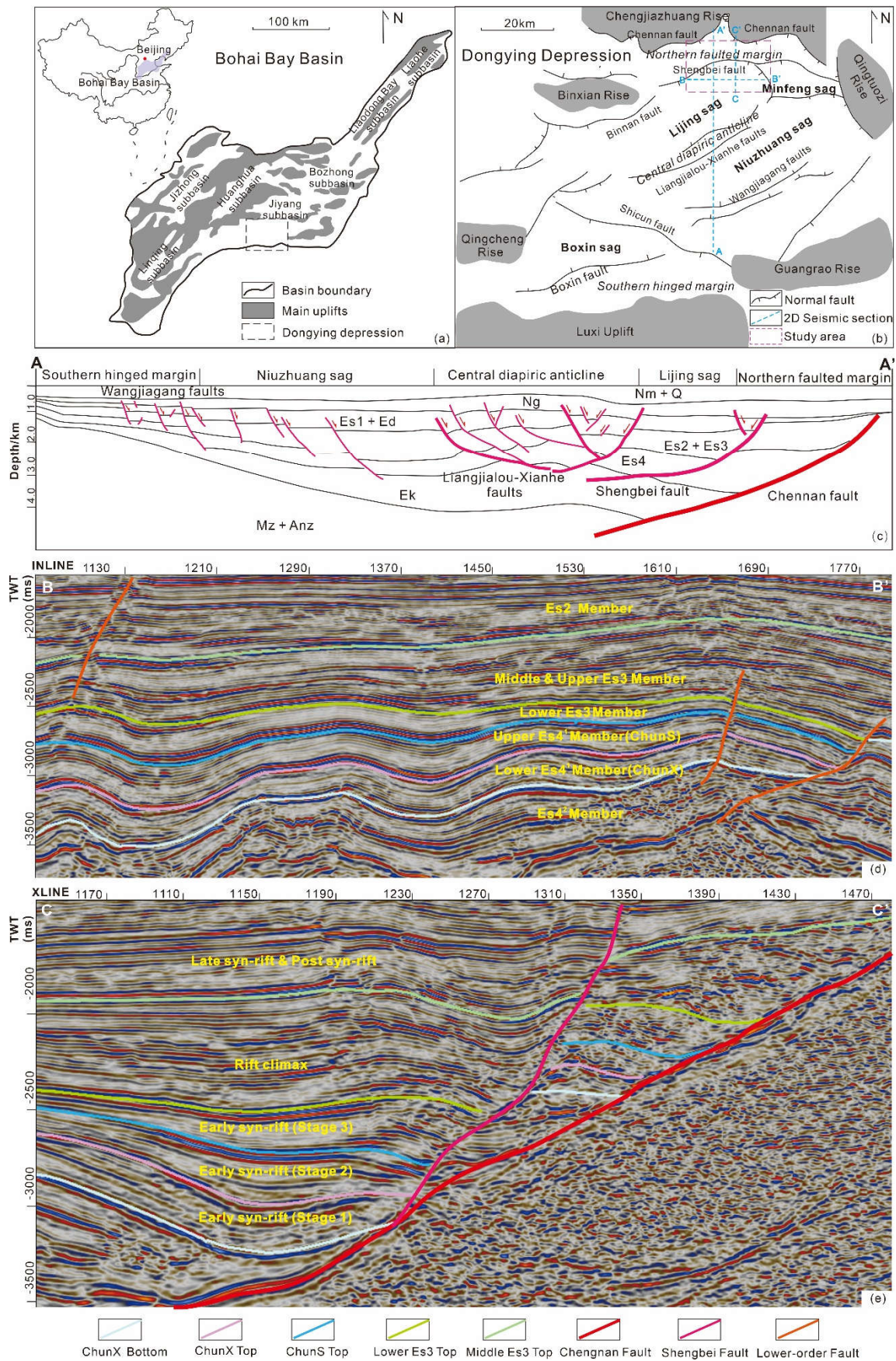
86 Bohai Bay Basin is a Mesozoic-Cenozoic continental rift basin located at East China, which  
87 comprises seven tectonically related petroliferous sub-basins (Jiyang, Hunaghua, Jizhong,  
88 Linqing, Bozhong, Liaodong Bay and Liaohe) separated by major internal uplifts within the  
89 Bohai Bay Basin (Allen et al., 1997) (Fig 1a). The Dongying Depression, a typical fault-  
90 controlled extensional lacustrine basin trending in NEE, is located at the southeast of Jiyang  
91 sub-basin, extending 90 km in W-E and 65 km in N-S and covering an area of approximately  
92 5700km<sup>2</sup> (Wang et al., 2016). Dongying depression is structurally shaped into an  
93 asymmetrical, half-graben basin by a faulted steep-slope margin to the north and a hinged  
94 gentle-slope margin to the south, surrounded by six major topographic highs raising from  
95 Precambrian basement (Chenjiashuang Rise to the north, Qingtuozi Rise to the east, Binxian  
96 Rise to the northwest, Qingcheng Rise to the southwest, Guangrao rise to the southeast,  
97 and Luxi Uplift bounding to the south), and could be further segmented into four sags within  
98 the depression: Lijin Sag, Minfeng Sag, Boxing Sag, and Niuzhuang Sag (Zhang et al., 2009)  
99 (Fig 1b, 1c).

100 The formation of Dongying depression occurred in three primary stages: Precambrian  
101 crystalline basement formation and consolidation platform stabilization from the late  
102 Proterozoic to the Paleozoic, and basin-rifting during the Cenozoic (Tao et al., 2022).  
103 Cenozoic rifting of the Dongying depression involved Paleogene syn-rift differential  
104 subsidence followed by Neogene post-rift thermal subsidence. Paleogene rifting is  
105 composed of four rifting episodic stages: (1) pre to early rifting from the Paleocene to the  
106 Early Eocene (65–50.4 Ma); (2) early rifting from the Early to the Middle Eocene (50.4–42.5  
107 Ma); (3) rift climax from the Middle to the Late Eocene (42.5–38 Ma); and (4) late rifting  
108 from the Late Eocene to the Oligocene (38–24.6 Ma) (Tao et al., 2022; Feng et al., 2013) (Fig  
109 2). Rift faults occur across a range of different scales, mostly oriented W-E and SW-NE  
110 (Allen et al., 1997). The Chengnan Fault, active from late Mesozoic to Late Cenozoic, is the  
111 N-E trending regional basin boundary fault separating the basin from the Chenjiashuang Rise  
112 in the north. The Shengbei fault sets and other lower-order faults comprise the ‘northern  
113 faulted margin’ in the Dongying depression (Zhang et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2022).

114 Paleogene strata are underlain by the Mesozoic pre-rift basement and disconformably  
115 overlain by post-rift Neogene fluvial strata. Paleogene strata comprise three formations,  
116 from bottom to the top the Kongdian (Ek), Shahejie (Es), and Dongying (Ed) formations  
117 (Feng et al., 2013). The upper part of the fourth member of Shahejie formation (Es<sup>4</sup>) is the  
118 main interval of interest in this study. The Shahejie Formation (Es) comprises four members.  
119 The fourth member of Shahejie Formation (Es<sup>4</sup>) was deposited when the Dongying  
120 depression lake deepened and expanded due to ongoing rifting. It starts with alternating  
121 layers of red sandstone and mudstone, interbedded with salt in its lower part (Es<sup>4</sup><sup>2</sup>)

122 transitioning to black shale and grey mudstone intercalated with sandstones and thin  
123 limestone layers in its upper part (Es4<sup>1</sup>). It is overlain by the third member of Shahejie  
124 formation (Es3) consisting predominantly of oil shale, dark mudstones and interbedded fine-  
125 grained sandstones (Allen et al., 1997) from deep lacustrine environment during rift climax  
126 stage. The subsequent second member (Es2) and first member (Es1) of Shahejie Formation  
127 are deposited in shallow lacustrine during the lake shrinkage period resulting from the  
128 attenuation of tectonic activity, both with higher proportion of coarser terrigenous clastic.  
129 The Shahejie Formation is conformably overlain by the Dongying formation and mainly  
130 comprised of fluvial-deltaic deposits including coarse sandstone, medium-fine sandstones  
131 interbedded with greyish to reddish mudstone, marking the end of late-rifting stage (Allen  
132 et al., 1997; Feng et al., 2013; Tao et al., 2022) (Fig 2).

133 The study area is located in the northeast of Lijin sag, a hanging wall basin immediately  
134 bounded by the Shengbei fault within the northern faulted margin of the Dongying  
135 depression (Fig 1d, 1e). Chenjiazhuang rise to the north was the primary local sediment  
136 sources, with the Binxian rise to the west, the Qingtuozi rise to the east, and a central  
137 diapiric anticline to the south. The upper part of the fourth member of Shahejie formation  
138 (Es4<sup>1</sup>), which is the interval of interest in this study, were primarily deposited during the  
139 early syn-rift stage, with thickness ranging between 800m to 900m and burial depth  
140 between 3300m to 4500m. It can be further divided into two parts by a regionally  
141 continuous mud layer: ChunX (stage one) and the overlying ChunS (stage two) (Fig 1e).  
142 During the deposition of Es4<sup>1</sup>, the study area was undergoing lake expansion and lake level  
143 increase, with superimposed lake-level oscillations (Jiang et al., 2011). The semi-arid to  
144 humid climate produced an increasing amount of siliciclastic sediment supply from the up-  
145 dip Chenjiazhuang rise, together with intensified tectonic events along Shengbei fault,  
146 resulting in numerous turbidites in the study area (Yang et al., 2019). The turbidites are  
147 characterised by relatively thin-bedded greyish fine-medium sandstone to sandy gravel  
148 interbedded with thick-bedded grey-to-dark mudstone (Fig 3).



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Figure 1: Location map of study area showing (a) the sub-tectonic units of the Bohai Bay Basin and (b) structural features of Dongying depression. (c) N-S tectonostratigraphy section of Dongying depression showing the northern faulted margin and southern hinged margin, (d) W-E seismic section profile B-B' of the

study area. (e) N-S seismic section profile C'-C of the study area

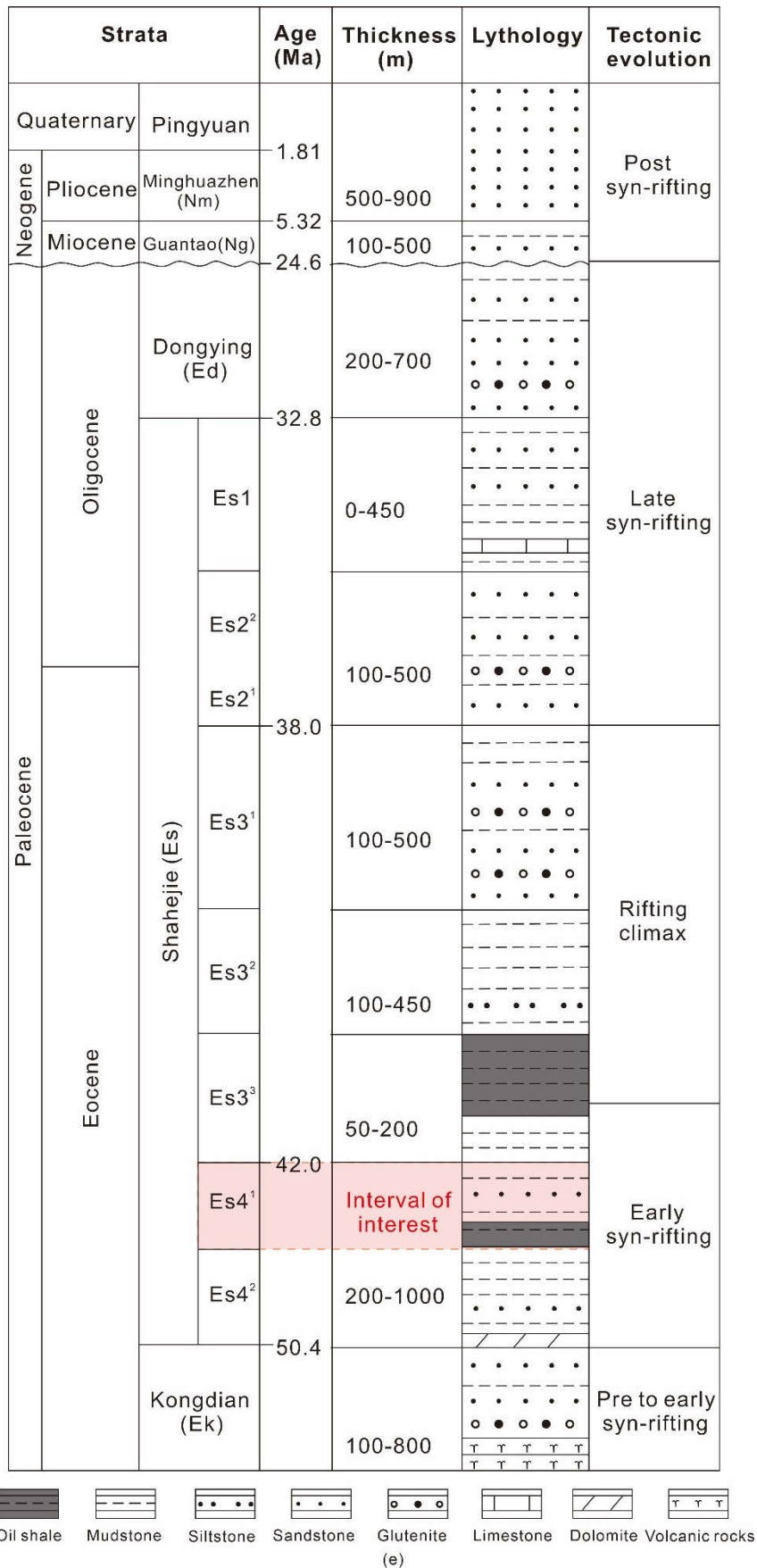
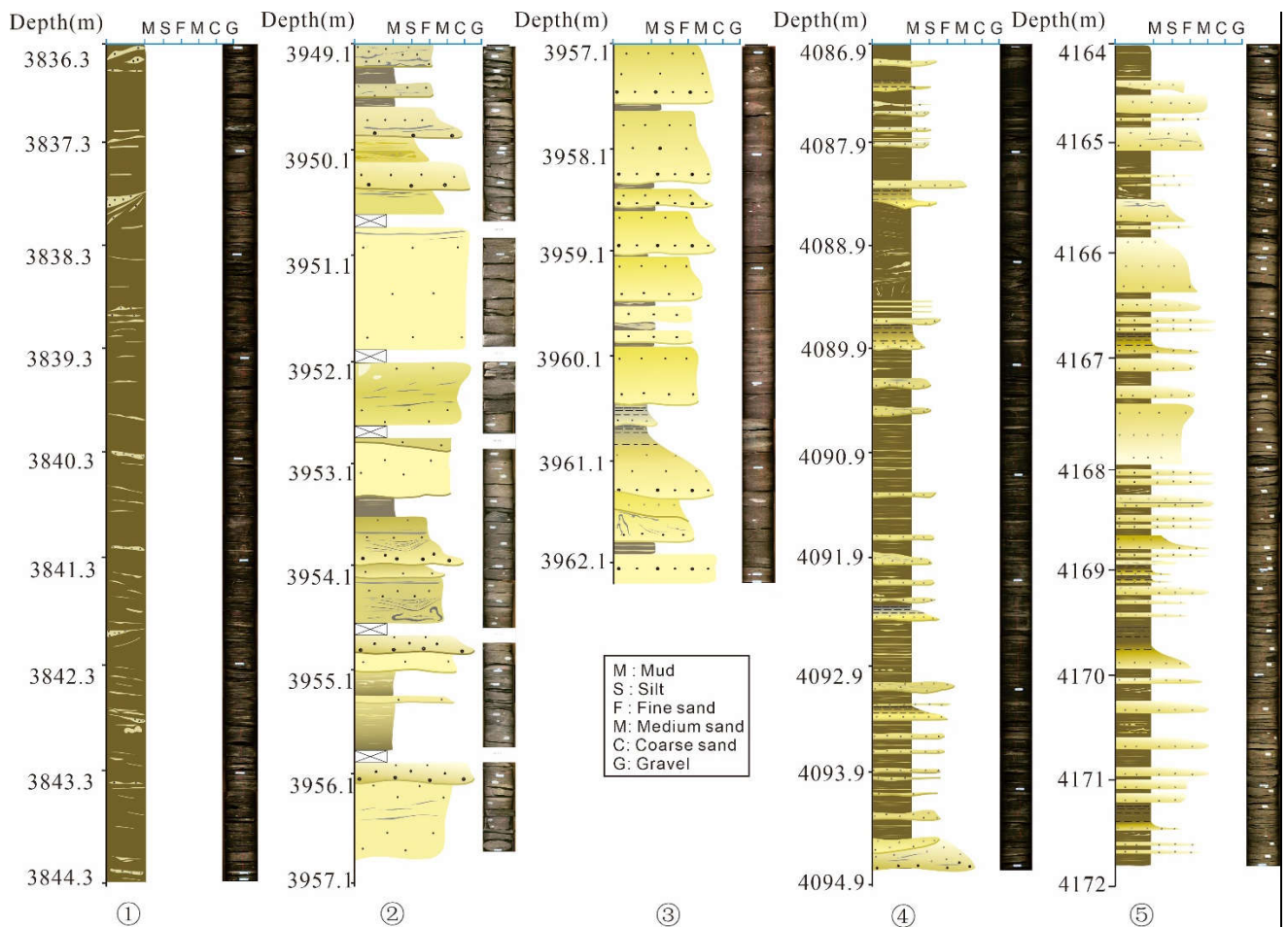


Figure 2: Summary Stratigraphic column for Cenozoic–Pleistocene strata in the Dongying

157 depression lacustrine basin.

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Figure 3: Lithology sketch of core samples from Well 1 in the study area. Thin-bedded greyish fine-medium sandstone to sandy gravel turbidites are interbedded with thick-bedded grey to dark mudstones

### 164 3 Data and methods

165 This study is primarily based on datasets supplied from Shengli Oil Field, China Petroleum &  
166 Chemical Corporation (SINOPEC), including 3D seismic data, horizon data, well log data of  
167 four wells and scanning photos of cores samples from one well. The 3D seismic data cover  
168 an area of 247km<sup>2</sup> (19km\*13km), with sampling interval of 1ms and bin spacing of 25m, a  
169 frequency range from 10 Hz to 40 Hz, and a dominant frequency at 25 Hz. Conventional  
170 well-log data include spontaneous potential, resistivity, natural gamma, acoustic, and  
171 density logs.

#### 172 3.1 seismic and well log interpretation

173 Seismic interpretation used Schlumberger's Petrel and well log interpretation used  
174 ResForm. Based on seismic horizon interpretations, displacement rate along the Shengbei  
175 fault during stage one and stage two of Es<sub>4</sub><sup>1</sup> deposition is calculated via 'throw back-  
176 stripping' (Dawers et al., 1995; Nixon et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2020; Alghuraybi, 2021) -- using  
177 the thickness projection difference (TWT in ms,) between hanging wall and footwall across  
178 syn-depositional fault, to reflect the faulting activity variation along fault strike. Additionally,  
179 major turbidity fan lobes deposited during ChunX (stage one) and ChunS (stage two) of Es<sub>4</sub><sup>1</sup>

180 are identified, picked and mapped based on their geometry and termination patterns. A  
 181 seismic-to-well tie, based on synthetic seismograms, verifies the credibility of fan lobe  
 182 interpretation from seismic. Fan lobe area and sediment volume are calculated for each  
 183 interpreted lobe, and cutting logs and core photos allow calculation of the number of  
 184 individual turbidity events contained in each interpreted fan lobe.

### 185 3.2 Stratigraphic forward modelling—Lobyte 3D

186 A reduced-complexity model Lobyte 3D is used to produce three-dimensional fan strata  
 187 model, and to test the sensitivity of turbidity fan lateral mobility to multiple external  
 188 influence in this study. Lobyte 3D consists of a pre-defined number of time-steps, with one  
 189 turbidity flow events per time step, starting at a single point-source origin, flowing down  
 190 slope, decelerating as slope decreases and depositing dispersively. There are two primary  
 191 turbidity current processes included in Lobyte 3D, erosive and bypassing downslope  
 192 sediment transport generating feeder channels, and dispersive flow deposition producing  
 193 fan lobes. Fine grained hemiplegic deposition occurring at a fix rate caps the turbidite  
 194 deposition at each time step (Burgess et al., 2019, Mackie et al. in review).

195 Sediment supply parameters specify the sediment volume of each flow event. Flows are fed  
 196 from source points that can be pre-defined at any position on the model grid. Flows are  
 197 assumed to occupy a single model grid point and follow a steepest gradient downslope.  
 198 Flow velocity is a function of topographic gradient and flow thickness, calculated with a  
 199 Chezy-type formula appropriate for low concentration flows under steady, turbulent, open  
 200 channel flow conditions such that:

$$201 \quad U = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_g g C_v H_f \sin \theta}{C_d}} \quad (1)$$

202 where  $\rho_g$  is the specific density of sediment in water,  $g$  is gravitational acceleration  
 203 ( $9.81\text{m/s}^2$ ),  $C_v$  is flow sediment concentration (dimensionless),  $H_f$  is the height of the  
 204 velocity maximum from the bed (flow thickness),  $\vartheta$  is the downstream angle of dip,  $C_d$  is  
 205 basal friction coefficient (dimensionless).

206 In this reduced-complexity model, a single grain diameter is used for all calculations. This  
 207 allows particle settling velocity  $v_s$  of the modelled grain size to be used as the threshold for  
 208 sediment transport (Burgess et al., 2019; Mackie et al. in review):

$$209 \quad v_s = \frac{\nu}{d_{50}} [(10.36^2 + 1.049D_*^3)^{1/2} - 10.36] \quad (2)$$

210 Where  $\nu$  = kinematic viscosity of water,  $d_{50}$  = median grain size, and  $D_*$  the non-dimensional  
 211 grain size parameter.

212 If the velocity  $U$  is above a calculated threshold, the flow will erode and entrain sediment  
 213 ( $E_s$ ) following:

$$214 \quad E_s = v_s \frac{A (Z')^5}{1 + \frac{A}{0.3} (Z')^5} \quad (3)$$

215 where  $A$  is an empirically derived constant ( $1.3 \times 10^{-7}$ ),  $v_s$  is particle settling velocity, and  $Z'$  is  
 216 modified tractive stress



217 Two conditions trigger deposition. If the flow velocity  $U$  decreases below the threshold for  
218 sediment transport, the flow will begin to deposit its load. The flow velocity  $U$  is compared  
219 with a deposition threshold velocity  $U_{depos}$  to determine whether the flow continues to  
220 flow down slope, or starts to deposit. Deposition commences at the point where  $U <$   
221  $U_{depos}$ . Deposition can also be triggered through interaction with topography. If the flow  
222 encounters a topographic obstacle with a height less than flow thickness, the flow will  
223 become partially blocked and deposit.

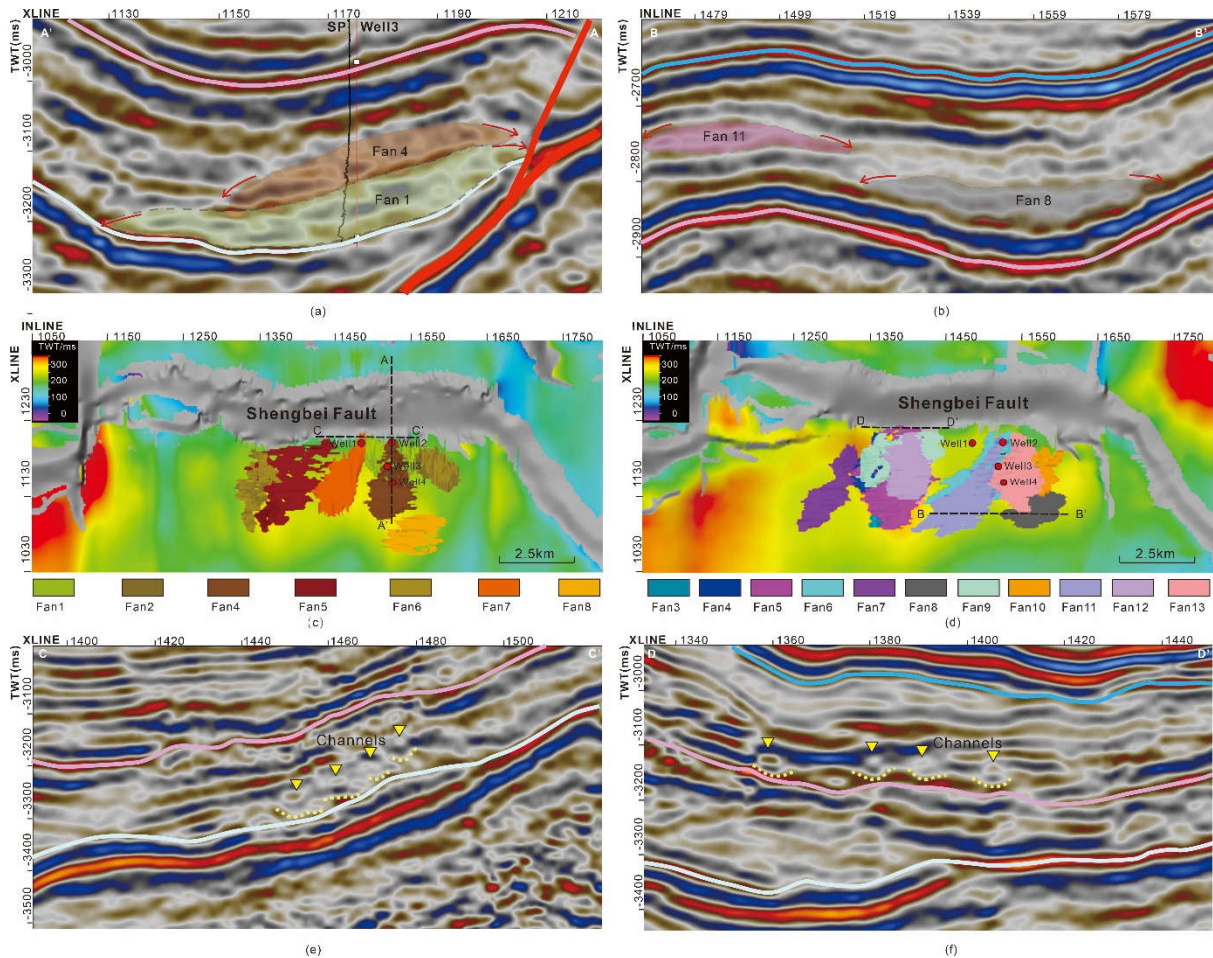
224 During deposition downslope flow continues and the flow volume flux into each  
225 surrounding cell is proportional to topographic slope. Proportion,  $\Delta V_k$ , of sediment volume  
226  $V_{i,j}$  received by each surrounding cell is calculated by:

$$227 \quad \Delta V_k = [G_k^{FRF} \cdot (\sum_{k=1}^8 G_k)^{-1}] \cdot V_{i,j} \quad \text{where } k = 1,2,3, \dots, 8; \quad (4)$$

228 where  $G_k$  is the gradient from the source cell,  $FRF$  is flow radiation factor which controls  
229 the degree of flow dispersion (Burgess et al., 2019), and the choice of flow radiation factor is  
230 constrained by the seismic data that show the shape of the lobes.

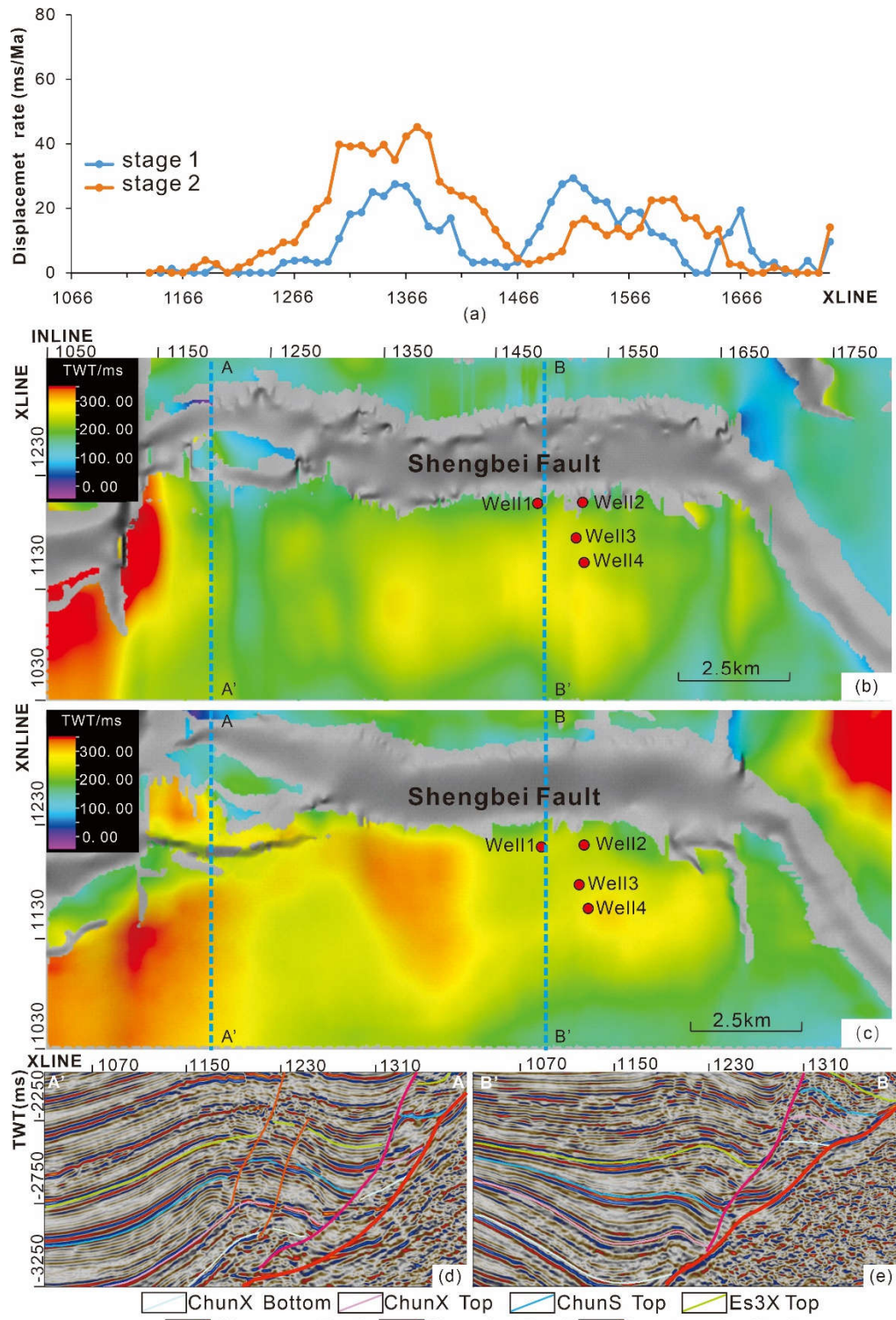
## 231 **4 Fan lobe spatial distribution patterns**

232 Fan lobes in Es4<sup>1</sup> strata are picked and interpreted from seismic data based on their geometry  
233 and reflector termination patterns. Proximal fan lobes display wedge-like geometries with  
234 up-dip onlap and down-dip downlap (Fig 4a), whereas distal lobes more typically have a  
235 lenticular geometry with downlap onto the underlying strata or unresolved pinchouts (Fig  
236 4b). Channels are featured by small scale concave geometry (“v” shape) in seismic section  
237 (Fig 4e, 4f). There are 8 fan lobes mapped in stage 1 (Fig 4c) and 12 fan lobes in stage 2 (Fig  
238 4d).



239  
 240 Figure 4: Fan maps in stage one and stage two interpreted from seismic and well logs. (a) fan lobes interpreted  
 241 from along dip seismic profile and seismic-well tie, showing wedge-like shape (b) fan lobes interpreted from  
 242 along strike seismic profile showing lenticular geometry with two ends of its top reflector onlap onto the  
 243 underlying strata. (c) fan map of stage one. (d) fan map of stage two. (e) (f) Channels interpreted from along  
 244 strike seismic section in stage one and stage two respectively, exhibiting concave geometry (“v” shape).  
 245

246 Fan maps show more confinement in Stage 2 lobes, whereas Stage 1 lobes are more  
 247 dispersive. Along-strike variations in displacement rate of the Shengbei fault (Fig 5) suggest  
 248 the fault probably initially comprised multiple unlinked fault segments during early syn-rift  
 249 (Cowie et al 2000). This suggests increasing subsidence from synrift stage one to synrift  
 250 stage two (Fig 5a). Additionally, growth folds in low displacement rate zones (Fig 5 d, e) also  
 251 indicate initially separated fault segments and subsequent fault linkage (Schlische 1995;  
 252 Gupta et al., 1999; Gawthorpe et al., 2000). During early synrift, the unbreached transfer zone  
 253 between fault segments lacks footwall tilting to divert antecedent drainage networks and  
 254 can therefore serve as an important sediment input route for turbidity flows into hanging  
 255 wall depocenters (Gawthorpe et al., 1993, 2000).



256  
 257 Figure 5: Variations in tectonic activity on the Shengbei Fault during stage one and stage two early syn-rift. (a)  
 258 Displacement rate versus strike distance along Fault. (b) stage one thickness map plotted on the present-day  
 259 structural map, yellow-orange color indicates location of hanging wall depocenters adjacent to Shengbei fault  
 260 in stage one (c) thickness map of stage two plotted on the present-day structural map, yellow-orange color  
 261 indicates location of hanging wall depocenter adjacent to Shengbei fault in stage two, (d)(e) seismic sections  
 262 throughlow displacement rate areas showing growth fold features.  
 263

264 **5 Reference Lobyte-3D model run**

265 A Lobyte 3D reference model was constructed aiming to reproduce key aspects of the  
 266 ChunX sub-member turbidite-dominated strata. Several minor modifications are made to  
 267 the original Lobyte 3D code to: (1) model multiple fan deposition with varied sediment input  
 268 volume supplied from different source point coordinates, and also to (2) model spatially  
 269 variable subsidence rates. These modifications allow the model to better represent complex  
 270 turbidity fan deposition in a steep-slope half-graben margin in a lacustrine basin as observed  
 271 in the study area.

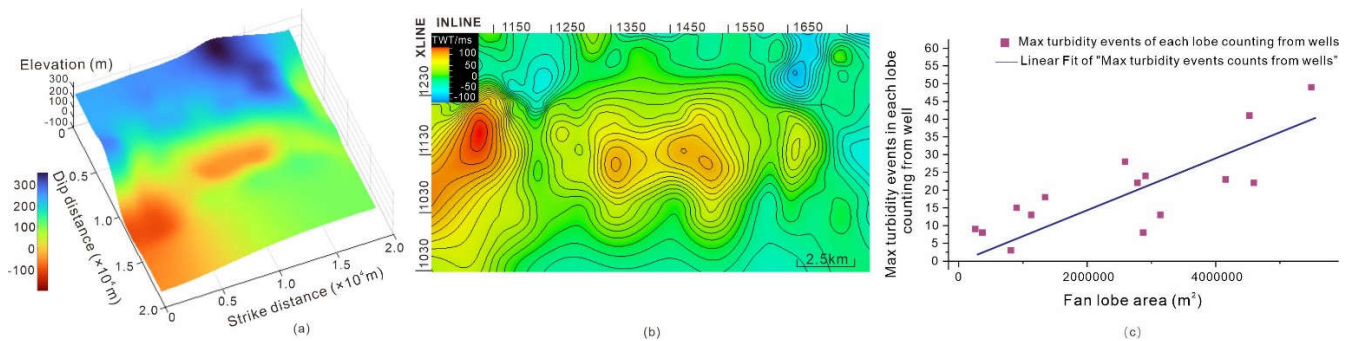
## 272 5.1 Input data of best-fit reference model

273 This model uses a 190 by 190 grid with individual grid cells of 100m by 100m. Parameter  
 274 values used in the reference model were summarized in table 1.

275 Table 1: Major input data used in reference model and their description

| Input Category                      | Input data                         | Reference value | Description   |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|---|
| <b>Model dimension</b>              | model grid                         | 190*190         | Grid x,y dimension  |
|                                     | cell size                          | 0.1*0.1         | Grid cell x,y size (km)   |
|                                     | time step                          | 0.001           | Interval between turbidity current events (My)  |
| <b>Sediment supply</b>              | $d_{50}$                           | 0.00025         | median grain diameter(m) (medium/fine sand)   |
|                                     | $\rho_g$                           | 2660            | Grain density(kg/m <sup>3</sup> ) in gravity flow typically quartz/feldspar                             |
|                                     | Number of fans                     | 8               | total number of fans modelled   |
|                                     | Number of flow events of each fan  | 10 ~ 47         | number of flow events comprises individual fan deposition   |
|                                     | Vmax                               | 4.2 ~18.5       | Maximum sediment volume(km <sup>3</sup> ) in individual gravity flow event during model run             |
|                                     | Vmin                               | 1.4 ~10.5       | Minimum sediment volume(km <sup>3</sup> ) in individual gravity flow during model run                   |
|                                     | sediment supply oscillation period | 25              | Representing sediment supply oscillation frequency  |
| <b>Tectonic and topographic map</b> | initial topographic map            | /               | Topography of study area before deposition of Es4 <sup>1</sup>  |
|                                     | subsidence map                     | /               | Subsidence and uplift distribution of study area during stage one of Es4 <sup>1</sup>                   |
| <b>Transport and deposition</b>     | Density of ambient water $\rho_w$  | 1000            | Density of ambient water (kg/m <sup>3</sup> ) for subaqueous gravity flows.                             |
|                                     | Basal friction coefficient $C_d$   | 0.004           | Darcy-Weisbach friction coefficient used for erosion calculation (Burgess, et al. 2019)                 |
|                                     | sediment concentration $C_v$       | 0.01            | Volumetric sediment concentration of subaqueous gravity flow  |
|                                     | Flow radiation factor FRF          | 1               | Control whether flow dispersion in a wider or narrower and more elongate manner. (Burgess, et al. 2019) |

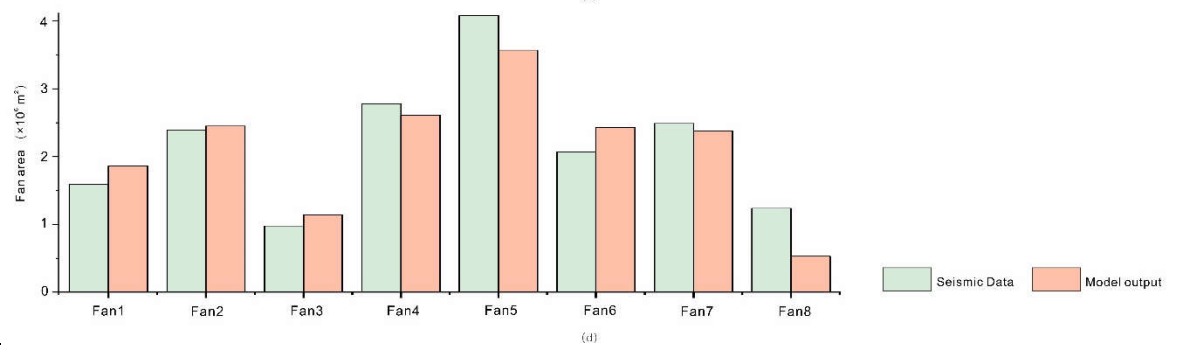
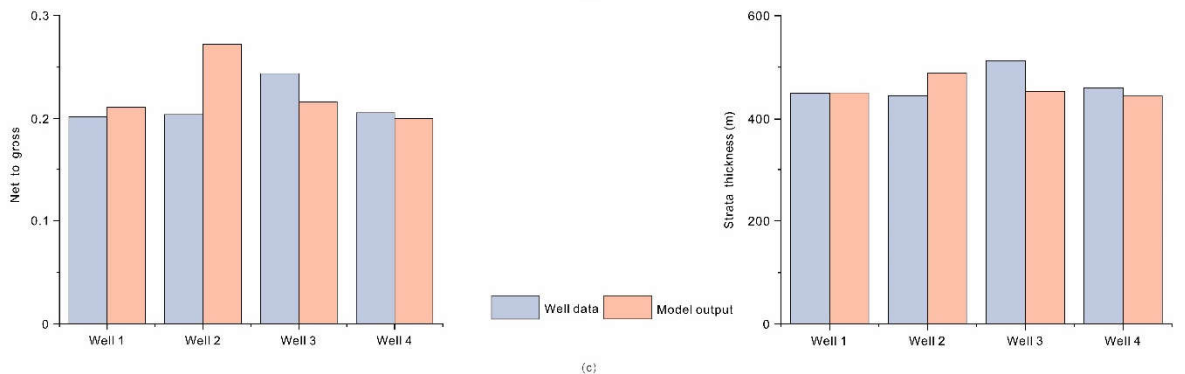
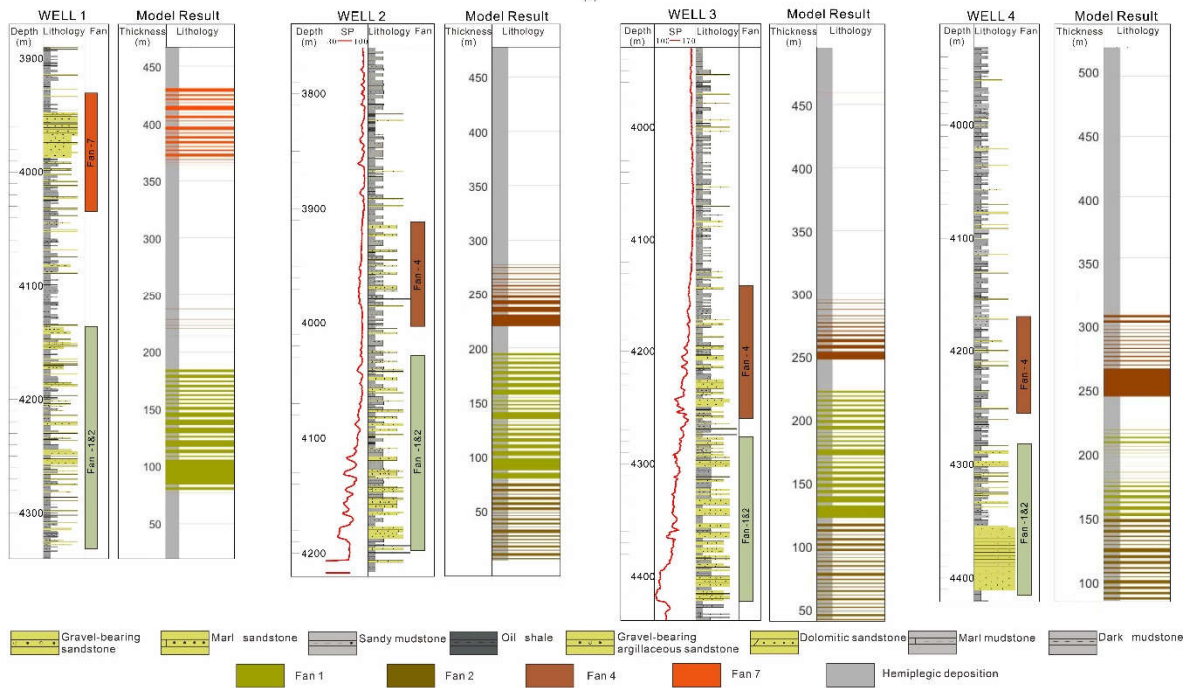
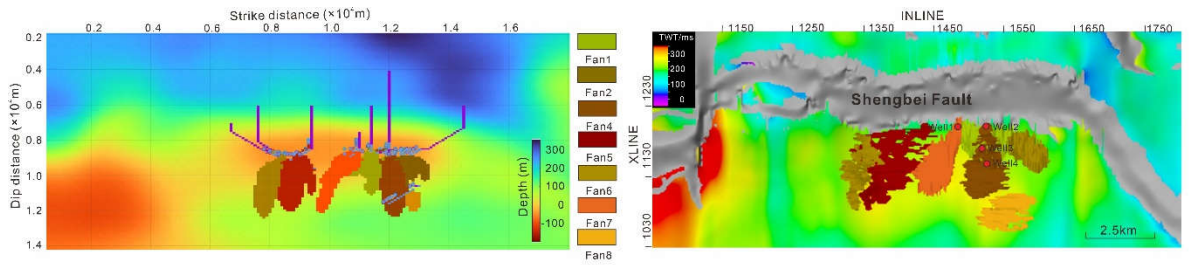
276 The initial topography map is derived from interpreted seismic data (Fig 6a), and the  
 277 subsidence map is generated based on thickness map of stage one (Fig 6b). Number of flow  
 278 events is estimated based on the number of individual turbidity flow events identified from  
 279 core photos, calibrated by the number of sandy intervals interpreted from well logs. Lobe  
 280 areas are calculated from fan maps derived from seismic. For lobes without well  
 281 penetration, a linear regression relation between lobe area and number of flow events is  
 282 applied, based on statistics from fan lobes where well data is available, to estimate the  
 283 number of flow events of each lobe (Fig 6c). Volume of sediment input required for  
 284 individual flow events is calculated based on lobe area and individual turbidity event  
 285 thickness.



286  
 287 Figure 6: Some input maps and parameters for reference model run. (a) initial topography of stage one. (b)  
 288 subsidence map of stage one. (c) linear regression relation between lobe area and number of flow events  
 289 based on statistics from fan lobes which are penetrated by wells.  
 290

## 291 5.2 Comparison between model output and actual data

292 A best-fit model was produced via a trial-and-error manual calibration process using both  
 293 map and vertical section data. Seismically mapped lobe location, shape and size was  
 294 compared with forward modelled fan lobe planform distributions until a reasonable match  
 295 was obtained (Fig 7a) including a good match with overall lobe areas (Fig. 7d). Vertical  
 296 stratigraphic columns extracted from four model grid cells, located in the same relative  
 297 position as the four well sites, exhibit a reasonable match with the vertical bed thickness,  
 298 bed frequencies (Fig 7b) and net-gross and overall thickness (Fig 7c) interpreted from core  
 299 and well logs. The three proxies exhibit an average error of 10.8% for net-gross value, 6% for  
 300 stratal thickness, and 15.8% for fan area. These comparators suggest a reasonable match  
 301 between the best-fit reference model and data.



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Figure 7: Comparison between fan maps interpreted from seismic & well log (right) and generated from Lobyte3D model run (left). (b) comparison between well logs and vertical succession extracted from Lobyte3D model output for respective well location. (c) comparison of net-to-gross (left) and overall strata thickness (right) between well data and

307 model output. (d) comparison of fan area between seismic interpretation and model output.

308

## 309 **6 Sensitivity analysis of fan lobe spatial distribution to extrinsic** 310 **factors**

311 Analysis of modelled fan lobe spatial distribution is carried out to determine sensitivity to  
312 allogenic controls including fault-related subsidence, basin margin slope, sediment input  
313 volume and sediment input oscillation period. Related parameters are varied across a  
314 defined range. Fan lobe spatial distribution is quantified via consecutive flow centroid  
315 separation distance ( $D_{\text{separation}}$ ), where greater separations suggest greater lateral  
316 movement. Mapped centroid spatial distribution (Fig 8) and frequency distribution of  
317 centroid separation distance (Fig 9) are then used to measure sensitivity of fan geometry to  
318 varying subsidence rate, margin slope, sediment input oscillation frequency and sediment  
319 input volume.

320

### 321 **6.1 Sensitivity to subsidence rate**

322 Non-uniform fault-related subsidence influencing paleo-topography change is a significant  
323 feature in the study area. To investigate influence of subsidence rate on lobe lateral mobility  
324 and vertical stacking we run models with the best-fit reference model inputs, except for  
325 modified subsidence rate. Three forward models are calculated with subsidence rate  
326 ranging from zero subsidence rates to 1.4 times the reference model subsidence rate.  
327 Model results show increasingly clustered flow centroids as subsidence rate increases (Fig 8  
328 a-c, Fig 9a). This suggests fan lobe lateral movement decreases as subsidence rate increases  
329 because higher subsidence rate decreases the impact of depositional topography, and  
330 decreases the avulsion rate which is the key process creating lateral variability in the lobe  
331 strata (Bridge & Leeder 1979; Koo et al., 2016; Meek et al., 2020; Brooks et al., 2022)

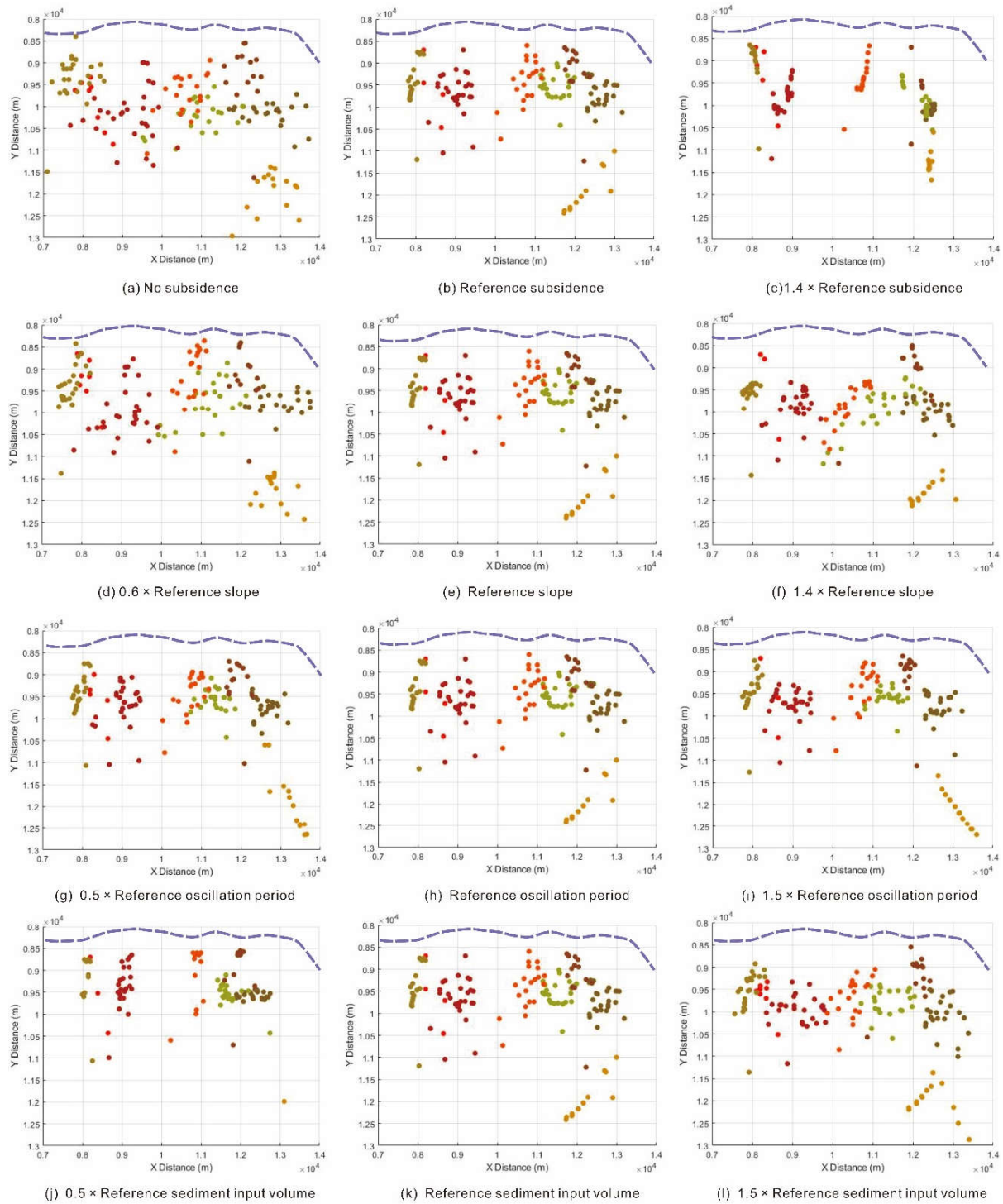
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### 333 **6.2 Sensitivity to fault-related margin slope**

334 To test the influence of margin slope on fan lateral mobility, we use three different slope  
335 values across a range from 0.6 to 1.4 times the reference model margin slope, with other  
336 input parameters unchanged. The results show that steeper margin slope will lead to slightly  
337 more clustered lobe deposition (Fig 8 d-f, Fig 9b) probably due to greater flow velocity  
338 creating deeper and more confined channels (Yu et al., 2013). Flow centroid positions show  
339 that fan lobes deposition always starts at the slope-to-basin-floor break of slope (Fig 8)  
340 irrespective of variation in basin-margin slope (Fig 8 d-f), which indicates that break of slope  
341 is a more important control on the location and deposition of fan lobe strata than the up-dip  
342 slope gradient. The abrupt slope gradient decrease at break of slope can decelerate the  
343 flows, triggering dispersive deposition.

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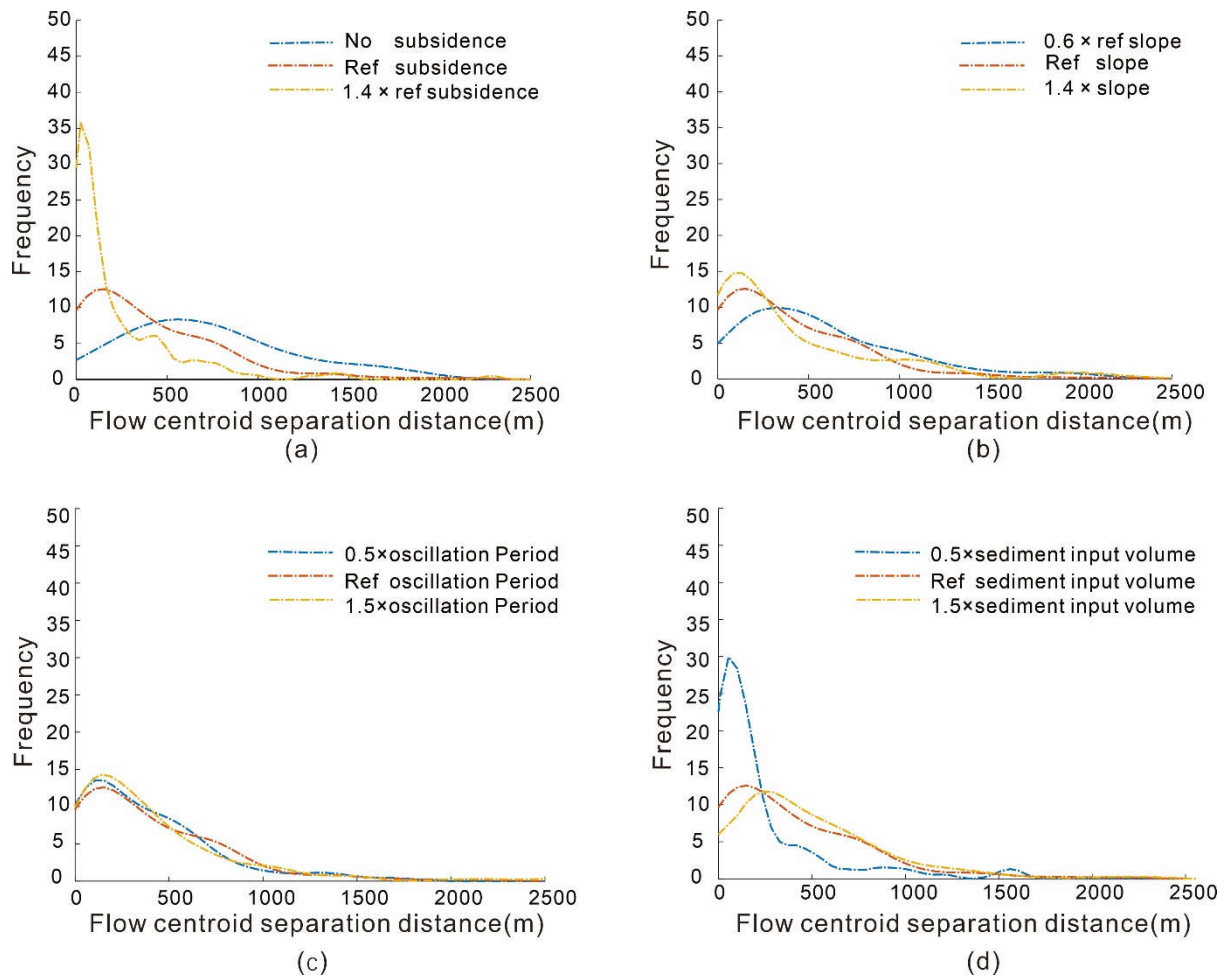
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Figure 8: Maps of flow bed centroid map view spatial distribution. (a-c) Varying subsidence rate from no subsidence to 1.3 times the reference subsidence, showing more clustered stacking of fan lobes as subsidence increases (d-f) Varying slope from 0.6 to 1.4 times the reference slope, showing a little more convergent stacking pattern of fan lobes as margin slope increases. (g-i) Varying sediment input oscillation period from 0.5 to 1.5 times the reference oscillation period, showing no significant fan lobe distribution difference. (j-l) Varying sediment input volume, showing more dispersive stacking as supply volume increases.





353  
 354 Figure 9: Frequency distribution plots of flow centroid separation distance under external influences (a) lower  
 355 subsidence produces more dispersive flow bed distribution, greater subsidence lowers the mean centroid  
 356 separation and results in more clustered distribution , (b) margin slope is a minor control, greater margin slope  
 357 produces slightly more clustered distribution, (c) sediment oscillation period have no obvious influence on lobe  
 358 spatial distribution (d) greater sediment input volume produces more dispersive flow bed distribution.  
 359

### 360 6.3 Sensitivity to sediment input oscillation period

361 Sediment input oscillation period reflects the frequency at which flow volumes fluctuate  
 362 between maximum and minimum representing changes in climatic and tectonic forcing of  
 363 flow volumes. In this test, we used three different oscillation period ranging from 0.5 to 1.5  
 364 times the reference oscillation period. The results show that no flow bed distribution  
 365 difference is observed as sediment input oscillation period varied (Fig 8 g-i, Fig 9c),  
 366 indicating that sediment input oscillation frequency doesn't have significant influence on fan  
 367 lobe lateral movement.

### 368 6.4 Sensitivity to sediment input volume

369 Variable sediment input volume is a key allogenic control on submarine fan evolution (Koo  
 370 et al., 2016; Meek et al., 2020; Ferguson et al., 2020). Sediment input volume is varied from  
 371 0.5 to 1.5 times the best-fit reference input volume. The results suggest that flow beds are  
 372 less clustered as sediment input volume increases, exhibiting a relatively strong sensitivity  
 373 (Fig 8 j-l Fig 9d) probably due to greater supply input infilling the topographic low relief  
 374 more, smoothing out the basin floor relief and reducing the confinements of topography on

375 turbidity flow. This may further imply that turbidity fan lobes formed under humid climate  
376 where higher sediment influx is usually triggered by greater precipitation and water  
377 discharge can exhibit wider and more dispersive spatial distribution than that formed under  
378 more arid climate. Comparing with the result of sediment input oscillation period, it also  
379 indicates that changing supply oscillation period (Fig 9c) has no significant effect on fan lobe  
380 morphology or stacking, but changing the magnitude of supply input volume does have  
381 some systemic effect.

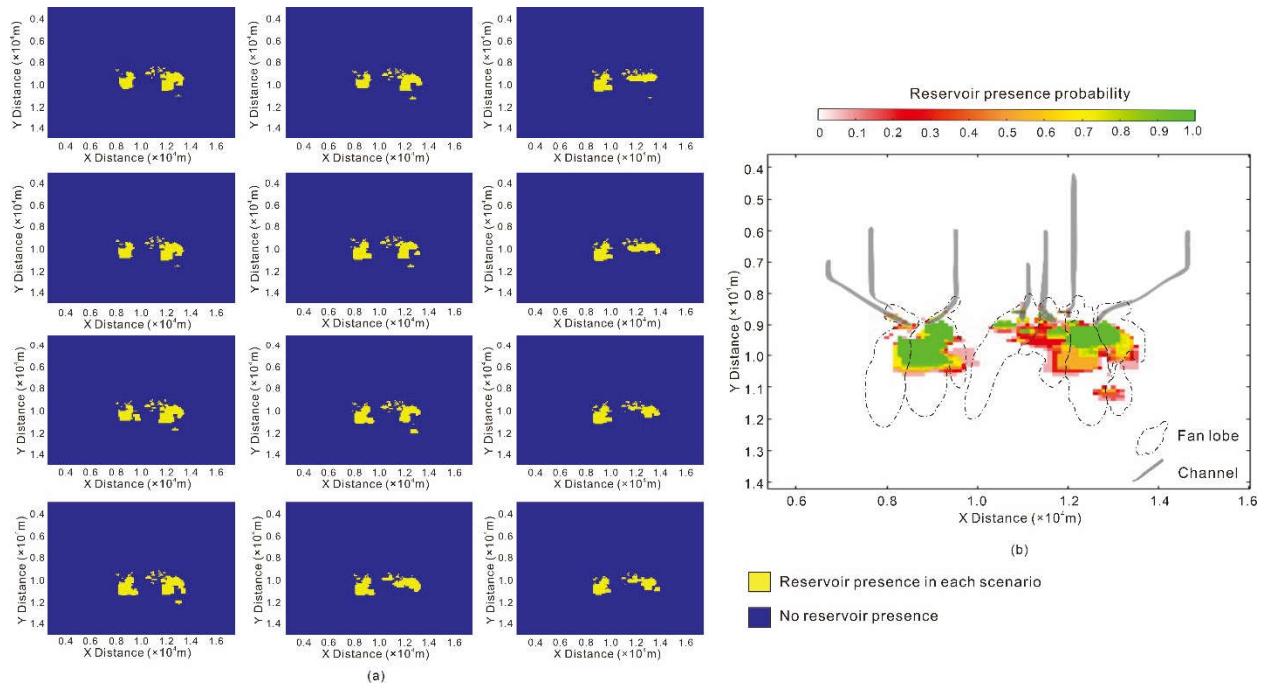
## 382 **6.5 Comparison with submarine fan lobes**

383 Submarine and lacustrine environments may both be controlled by extrinsic factors such as  
384 asymmetric subsidence, slope and sediment supply controlling fan lobe distribution and  
385 stacking patterns. For example, previous studies indicate that submarine fan lobes formed  
386 on tectonically active basin margins (Brooks et al., 2022) commonly feature a fixed,  
387 aggradational base-of-slope position, whereas those formed in tectonically quiescent basins  
388 expand and contracting with more variable stacking behaviour (Brooks et al., 2018).  
389 Similarly, Koo et al. (2016) showed that base-of-slope high-supply submarine fans tend to be  
390 more extensive than the more localized fans with relatively fixed slope channels that  
391 develop in accommodation-dominated settings (Koo et al., 2016). These submarine fan  
392 patterns are in line with these modelling results discussed above. Previous studies also  
393 found that stacking behaviour of deep-water submarine lobe complexes can be linked to the  
394 coeval shelf-edge delta's stacking patterns and overall shelf-edge trajectory (Koo et al.,  
395 2016), but no shelf-edge delta is observed in the smaller-scale lacustrine basin in this study.

## 396 **7 Reservoir presence prediction**

397 Because the best-fit model (Fig 7a) is probably not a unique best fit, predictive power of  
398 such a single calibrated reference model is likely to be limited. Therefore, a multiple  
399 scenario approach which varies parameters within their respective uncertainty range to  
400 generate a series of best-fit models (Burgess et al., 2006; Agrawal, D., 2015; Gervais et al.,  
401 2017) is adopted. to better understand the impact of parameter uncertainty on the model  
402 output, and to enhance the reservoir presence predictive power of the modelling.

403 Four sets of models are calculated, each containing 12 best-fit scenarios with 8 non-fit  
404 scenarios being discarded in each set (Fig 10 a). Respective model sets investigate fault-  
405 related subsidence, fault-related margin slope, sediment input oscillation period and  
406 sediment input volume and models from each set are used to calculate a conditional  
407 probability map that is also a reservoir presence map (Burgess et al., 2006). All other  
408 parameters have the best-fit model values.



409

410

Figure 10: Multiple scenario approach and conditional probability map. (a) 12 scenarios of reservoir presence

411 in study area generated by varying subsidence rate within its uncertainty range. (b) a reservoir presence

412 probability map exclusively considering the subsidence rate parameter is produced by combining the 12

413 scenarios together, where green area indicates high likelihood for reservoir presence whereas red indicates low

414 likelihood.

415 Conditional probability maps are defined by the following criteria: (1) the thickness of an

416 individual turbidite bed is greater than 5m, (2) reservoir occurred in the middle 1/3 section

417 of an individual flow bed (which represents the optimal grain size). The conditional

418 probability map is then calculated such that

419

$$P_{x,y} = \frac{\sum_1^{n_s} C_{x,y}}{n_s}$$

420 where P is the conditional probability at any x,y model grid cell,  $n_s$  is the total number of

421 model runs in the set being used to calculate the map, and C is the result of the criteria test

422 at each x, y point on the model grid, 1 if the criteria are met, and 0 otherwise. The

423 conditional probability map is then presented as a reservoir presence probability map with

424 colour coding such that high probability of reservoir, when most models meet the criteria at

425 a grid point, is green to yellow, low probability is red, and zero probability is white (Fig 10b).

426 Following this procedure four reservoir presence probability maps are calculated and

427 plotted from the sensitivity analysis model sets (Fig 11). The maps are similar overall but do

428 exhibit some important variability. Areas of reservoir presence probability greater than 80%

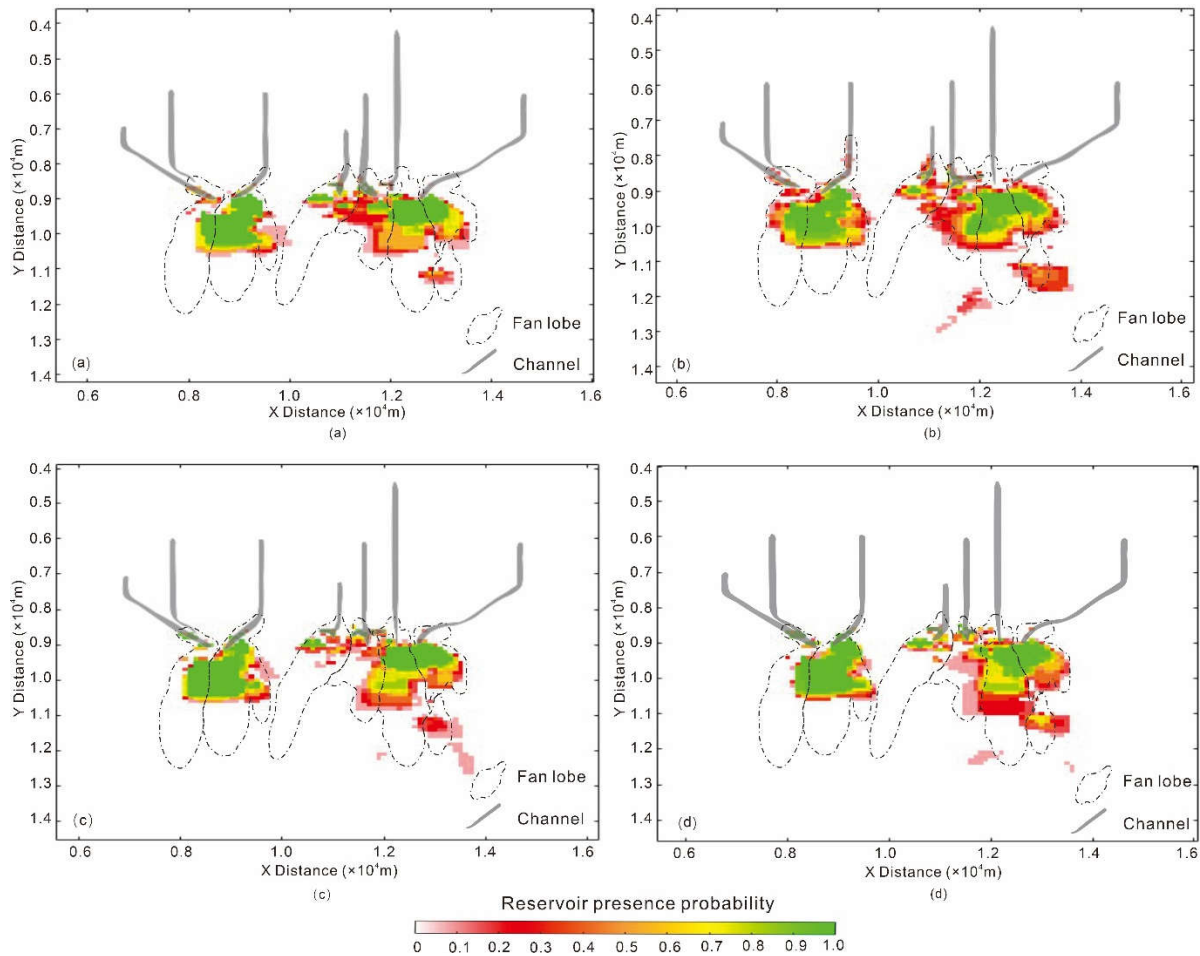
429 compose 2.9% (Fig 11a), 3.3% (Fig 11b), 3.4% (Fig 11c), 3.6% (Fig 11d) of the entire fan

430 deposition area. Predicted best reservoir is more laterally extensive in the subsidence model

431 sets (Fig 11a) and more elongated down-dip in the margin slope, sediment input oscillation

432 period and sediment input volume model sets (Fig 11B, C&D), indicating that fan lobe lateral

433 migration is most sensitive to subsidence rate.



434 Figure 11: Reservoir presence probability maps produced by considering (a) subsidence rate, (b) margin slope,  
 435 (c) sediment oscillation period and (d) sediment input volume separately, showing that, despite their  
 436 resemblance, the reservoir presence areas of map (a) and (b) are more laterally extended whereas that of map  
 437 (c) and (d) are elongated more in the down-dip direction  
 438  
 439

440 Combining all 48 model scenario outputs into one reservoir presence probability map (Fig  
 441 12) highlights locations where the presence of good reservoir is relatively insensitive to the  
 442 uncertainty in the subsidence rate, sediment input oscillation period, margin slope, and  
 443 sediment input volume. Best reservoir mainly occurs in the middle fan area with some more  
 444 scattered sweet spots in feeder channels and inner fan area.

445 Sweet spot area located at basin floor down-dip of the break of slope indicates bypass  
 446 dominated inner to middle fan deposition. It is more laterally dispersive covering a greater  
 447 area, and the reservoir presence probability decreases toward outer fringe due to the lack of  
 448 thick beds. Whereas reservoir located at up-dip of the slope break is retrogradational  
 449 backstep dominated feeder channels deposition which is formed by channel backfilling and  
 450 lobe retrogradation (Hamilton et al., 2013; Haas et al., 2016; Meek et al., 2020, Ferguson et  
 451 al., 2020). It is more laterally confined and scattered at the lower slope. Outer fan areas show  
 452 lower reservoir presence probability, simply due to absence of thick beds and coarse grains.  
 453 Therefore, in the fault-controlled basin margin, besides the middle fan area on basin floor,  
 454 some lower slope feeder channel could also be a possible sweet spot location.

455

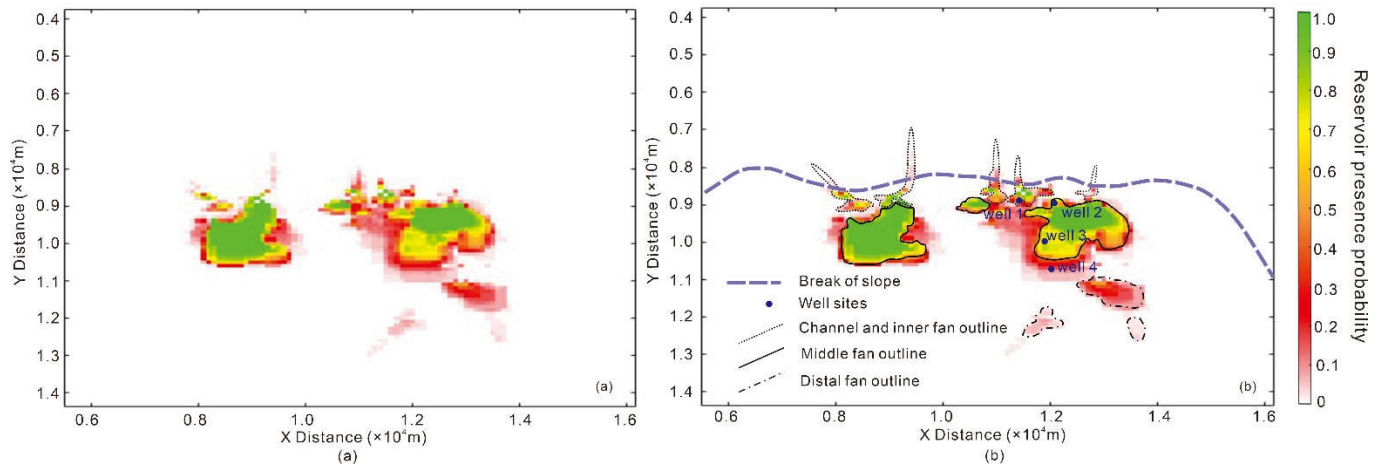


Figure 12: Final reservoir presence probability map by combining all the 48 scenarios outputs of the four external factors, showing that middle fan area and part of feeding channels in inner fan area are more greenish which means these areas are most likely for good quality reservoir to occur in study area.

## 8 Conclusion

1. During the early syn-rift stage, the Shengbei fault comprised multiple smaller fault segments with displacement rates decreasing from the segment centres towards segment tips. The unbreached transfer zone between two fault segments served as the sediment influx pathway for turbidity flow to transport into hanging wall depocenters.
2. External controls exert systematic impact on the spatial distribution of both larger-scale fans and smaller-scale flow beds on basin floor. The tectonic setting of the early syn-rift basin margin controlled location of sediment input points through transfer zones between two fault segments, and local subsidence, which further controls the locus and aggradation of larger-scale fans. The non-uniform fault-related subsidence and sediment input volume can also modify basin floor topography significantly, either creating or smoothing out basin-floor relief, which in return impact the interaction between turbidity flow and depositional topography that influences the loci of erosion and deposition of subsequent flows, controlling smaller-scale flow bed geometry and stacking.
3. Fault-related subsidence is a significant control. Greater fault-related subsidence produces more laterally confined fan lobe distribution. Fault-related basin-margin slope gradient is a relatively minor control producing only slightly more clustered flow bed deposition. Higher sediment input volume produces more dispersive fan lobe distribution, but changing supply oscillation period has no systematic effect on fan lobe morphology or stacking.
4. Despite demonstrated allogenic control, in all the included model runs, location of fan lobe deposition is always determined by the position of the slope-to-basin-floor break of slope which is a key control on the location of fan lobe strata. This is a consequence of model assumptions of flow velocity being a function topographic gradient and a simple velocity threshold for dispersive deposition. If these assumptions are realistic, this result is perhaps predictive for real deep-water depositional systems.

488 5. Multiple scenarios reservoir presence probability map suggests that some bypass-  
489 dominated middle-to-inner fan areas, and sections of the retrogradationally-filling lobe  
490 feeder channels have best reservoir presence probability.

491

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499

## 500 Conflict of interest

501 There is no conflict of interest in the preparation or publication of this work.

502

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