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## Did gas-hydrate dissociation promote slope instability in the western Black Sea after the end of the last glacial period?

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### Abstract :

Submarine landslides constitute major marine and coastal geohazards, causing damage to marine infrastructures or even provoking tsunamis. For many authors, gas hydrate dissociation represents an effective triggering mechanism in generating sedimentary instabilities. In the Romanian upper slope of the Black Sea, failure headscarps are observed in an active gas-seep province close to the gas hydrate occurrence zone acting as an effective seal preventing gas from reaching the seafloor (Popescu et al., 2007; Riboulot et al., 2017). Through a chronostratigraphic interpretation of a large multi-resolution geophysical database, the aim of this article is, for a key period extending from the last glacial period (ca. 33.5-17 ka BP) to the present day, to test the claim of a sudden and instantaneous scenario developed by Kennett et al. (2003), which argue that hydrate dissociation can trigger large-scale landslides on submarine continental margins. Our results show that pronounced gas hydrate dissociation in the Black Sea in response to rapid environmental changes since the last glacial period (Riboulot et al., 2018), does not appear to be the exclusive and main triggering factor of the observed slope failures. This statement is supported by new dating of successive failure events put forward in this study, and the fact that the current and past modelled free gas and hydrate interfaces are much deeper than the basal shear surfaces of instabilities. Alternatively, we suggest that high sedimentation rates, falling hydrostatic pressure, and gas exsolution linked to rapid sea-level lowering are probably the most significant preconditioning factors to consider. Seismic activity cannot be ruled out, given the proximity of active faults on the outer shelf.

### HIGHLIGHTS

► Three surficial failure stages since the end of the last glacial period ► Landslides all initiated in the free-gas domain outside the hydrate zone ► The role of hydrate dissociation on recent failure stages is not suspected ► Fluid overpressure, sediment overload, canyon incision and tectonics are probable factors involved in slope instabilities

**Keywords** : Slope instability, fluid overpressure, gas hydrates, geohazards, western Black Sea, Last Glacial Period.



## 36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 Submarine slope failures redistribute large volumes of sediments from the shelf or the upper  
38 slope to the deep basin. They constitute a major threat to the coastal population (Maslin et al.,  
39 2010; Paull et al., 2011) and marine infrastructures (Locat and Lee, 2002; Schnyder et al., 2016;  
40 Zander et al., 2018). Consequently, increased effort has been invested over the last few decades  
41 to understand the timing and mechanisms controlling submarine landslides (e.g. Riboulot et al.,  
42 2013; Urlaub et al., 2013). Preconditioning factors and triggering mechanisms on continental  
43 margins strongly differ according to site-specific settings (Vanneste et al., 2014).

44 In this context, the question of the effect of Gas Hydrate (GH) dissociation on slope stability  
45 remains debated. Some authors suggest that dissociation of GH leads to a loss of sediment  
46 cohesion and excess pressure that is highly conducive to sediment failure (e.g. McIver, 1982;  
47 Kvenvolden, 1993, 1994, 1996; Paull et al., 1996; Pauli et al., 2003 ; Nixon et al., 2007 ; Nian et  
48 al., 2020 ; Nisbet and Piper, 1998; Bouriak et al., 2000; Mountjoy et al., 2014). Other authors,

49 based on numerical modelling, highlight the fact that hydrate dissociation is a slow process  
50 rather than an instantaneous and rapid event, where excess pore-pressure generation and  
51 recrystallization of hydrates, preferentially at the base of the Gas Hydrate Stability Zone  
52 (GHSZ), play a self-controlling role in hydrate dissociation progression and prevent instability  
53 (Sultan, 2007; Colin et al., 2020b). Sultan (2007) shows that the top of the GH occurrence zone  
54 is significantly more hazardous than its bottom due to the hydrate dissolution process generating  
55 overpressure and reducing sediment strength. The relationship between hydrate destabilisation  
56 and slope instability is of foremost importance since, governed by temperature-pressure  
57 changes, GH are currently undergoing dissociation in many margins of the world (Mienert et  
58 al., 2005; Westbrook et al., 2009; Ferré et al., 2012; Phrampus and Hornbach, 2012; Ketzer et  
59 al., 2020; Ruppel and Kessler, 2017; Li et al., 2017; Minshull et al., 2020; Davies et al., 2021)  
60 The Black Sea is recognized as a site of active free-gas seepage from the sediment into the sea,  
61 with the presence and dissociation of GH (Naudts et al., 2006; Riboulot et al., 2017; 2018;  
62 Riedel et al., 2021; Vassilev and Dimitrov, 2002; Popescu et al., 2007; Haeckel et al., 2015;  
63 Zander et al., 2017; Hillman et al., 2018a). The successive environmental changes that have  
64 taken place since the end of the Last Glacial Period (LGP) in the Black Sea have led the hydrate  
65 system to evolve spatially through time (Popescu et al., 2006), particularly in response to sea-  
66 level fluctuations and temperature warming (Constantinescu et al., 2015; Soulet et al., 2010).  
67 The recent work of Riboulot et al. (2018), based on numerical modelling, highlights the fact  
68 that the gas-hydrate dissociation is still in progress due to sediment re-salinisation of the Black  
69 Sea that began 9,000 years ago with the reconnection of the Black Sea with the Mediterranean  
70 Sea.  
71 Multiple head scarps and remobilized sediments are observed in the northern sector of the  
72 Danube-Viteaz Canyon, especially on the upper slope between the shelf break at 190 m and  
73 900 m water depths (Riboulot et al., 2017), mainly above the upper limit of the current GHSZ

74 at around 660 m water depth (Vassilev and Dimitrov, 2002; Popescu et al., 2007; Haeckel et  
75 al., 2015; Riboulot et al., 2017; Zander et al., 2017; Hillman et al., 2018a; Marsset et al., 2022).  
76 The presence of failure processes and the unique aspect of the Black Sea during deglaciation  
77 make it an appropriate site to test the hypothesis of hydrate dissociation causing slope instability  
78 during deglaciation. To this end, we have (1) conducted detailed mapping of recent landslides  
79 using a very comprehensive set of bathymetry and multi-resolution seismic data (GHASS and  
80 GHASS2 campaigns, [//doi.org/10.17600/15000500](https://doi.org/10.17600/15000500) and [//doi.org/10.17600/18001358](https://doi.org/10.17600/18001358)  
81 respectively), (2) published chronostratigraphic models (Ross and Degens, 1974; Major et al.,  
82 2002; Bahr et al., 2005; Soulet et al., 2011a; Constantinescu et al., 2015; Martinez Lamas et al.,  
83 2020) to constrain the age of the identified landslides (3) used numerical models of GH stability  
84 evolution since the end of the LGP published by Fabre et al. (2024), tested the role of hydrate  
85 dynamics on submarine landslide triggering.

## 86 **2. GEOLOGICAL AND OCEANOGRAPHIC SETTING, PREVIOUS** 87 **WORK**

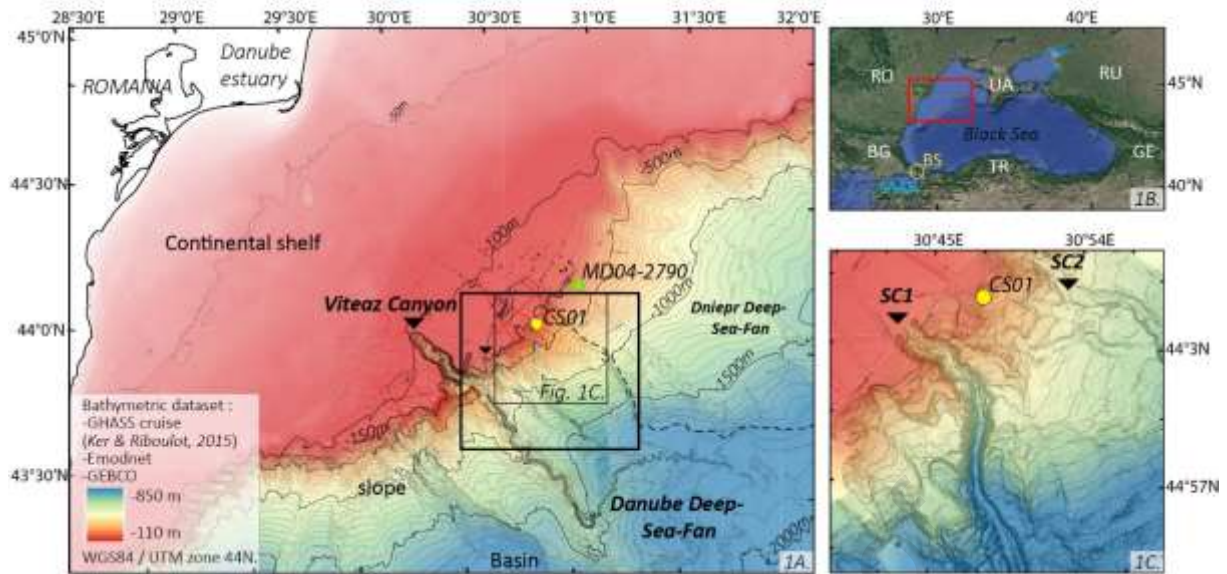
### 88 **2.1. Geological setting of the western Black Sea**

89 The western Black Sea is a semi-isolated basin (**Fig. 1b**), which formed in the Early to Late  
90 Cretaceous in a back-arc basin, in association with the northward subduction of the Tethyan  
91 Plate (Robinson, 1997; Nikishin et al., 2003). The back-arc opening of the Black Sea is marked  
92 by a major southwest-northeast extensional episode resulting in large crustal Mesozoic  
93 structures. This extension led to the formation of isolated block systems in horsts and grabens  
94 in the north-western zone on the present-day Romanian continental shelf (Dinu et al., 2005;  
95 Munteanu et al., 2011; Anton et al., 2019). At the end of the Eocene, the southward collision  
96 between the main tectonic units (Pontides and Taurides), led to a tectonic inversion of all the  
97 extensional fault systems formed during the Cretaceous (Dinu et al., 2002).

98 From the early Miocene, the Black Sea acted as a large sediment catchment area, which  
99 accumulated a sedimentary sequence 11 km to 19 km thick in its eastern and western basins  
100 respectively (Nikishin et al., 2003). The high sediment load on the outer shelf and upper slope  
101 and high subsidence rates led to gravitationally induced stress and thin-skinned tectonics from  
102 the shelf to the continental slope (Rowan et al., 2004; Konerding et al., 2010; Dinu et al., 2002,  
103 2003; Matenco et al., 2016), including northeast-southwest normal, reverse, and low-angle  
104 faults confined to the upper few kilometres of sediment. The décollement layer of this thin-  
105 skinned tectonics is identified within the Oligocene to Lower-Miocene series (Matenco et al.,  
106 2016).

107

108 During the Plio-Quaternary, sedimentation is controlled by western Black Sea rivers such as  
109 the Danube, the Dniepr, Dniester, and Bug (De Leeuw et al. 2018; Nikishin et al., 2003), which  
110 supply most of the sedimentary load from Central and Eastern Europe, and formed a 2.5 to 3-  
111 km-thick prograding depositional wedge. Its depocenter occupies the 100-km-wide continental  
112 whole shelf (<190 m water depth) and the present-day north-western continental slope of the  
113 Black Sea (**Fig. 1**) (Winguth et al., 2000; Irina Popescu et al., 2004; Lericolais et al., 2009).  
114 Northeast-southwest gravitational normal fault systems reactivated along the shelf break (later  
115 reactivated during the Pontian, i.e. Messinian) and were active in the Quaternary (Fig. 1). They  
116 produced offsets in the order of a few metres to tens of metres clearly visible on the current sea  
117 bottom (Tambrea et al., 2002; Dinu et al., 2002, 2005; Konerding, 2005, 2010; Marsset et al.,  
118 2022).



119

120 *Figure 1: 1A.: Location map of the western Romanian margin of the Black Sea; 1B.: General view of the Black*  
 121 *Sea: RO for Romania, UA for Ukraine, RU for Russia, GE for Georgia, TR for Turkey, BG for Bulgaria, and BS*  
 122 *for Bosphorus Strait. 1C.: Detail on the study area. On Figure 1A., the Danube River, runs into the Black Sea*  
 123 *through the Danube estuary, 240 km away from the shelf break and extending seaward to the Viteaz Canyon, deeply*  
 124 *incising the outer shelf and the upper continental slope. The modern Danube deep-sea-Fan extends to more than*  
 125 *1500 m water depth. The black frame represents the location of the study area, located to the north of the Viteaz*  
 126 *Canyon, in an incised area, which extends from the outer shelf to the middle slope domain at 1500 m water depth.*  
 127 *Gravitational normal faults are represented on the outer-shelf, in black lines. 1C.: The close-up shows a*  
 128 *bathymetric detail of the study area characterised by the presence of secondary canyons SC1 and SC2, which are*  
 129 *highly incised the upper slope. This detail shows also numerous remobilised areas associated with head-scarps.*  
 130 *The core CS01 presented in the study is represented with a yellow disc. The core MD04-2790 used for the dating*  
 131 *is represented with a green disc.*

## 132 **2.2. Hydrologic and climatic Quaternary evolution of Black Sea**

133 During the Quaternary, the Black Sea oscillated from freshwater lake conditions to an open  
 134 saltwater marine environment (Deuser 1972), in response to alternating glacial and interglacial  
 135 periods (Ryan et al., 1997; Poort et al., 2005; Badertscher et al., 2011).

136 During low eustatic sea-level conditions, i.e. during glacial periods, disconnection with the Sea  
 137 of Marmara and the Mediterranean Sea, through the Dardanelles and Bosphorus straits (-35 m

138 water depth) (Fig. 1b, BS corresponding to Bosphorus) led to an evolution in sea level in the  
139 Black Sea decoupled from global sea-level fluctuations. The last low-stand fresh-water phase  
140 in Black-Sea, also known as the Neoeuxinian phase in Black-Sea literature, prevailed during  
141 the last glacial cycle, also known as the Last Glacial Period (LGP). The LGP occurred from the  
142 end of the Last Interglacial to the beginning of the Holocene, c. 115,000 – c. 11,700 years ago,  
143 and thus corresponds to most of the time span of the Late Pleistocene (Corrick et al., 2020). At  
144 the end of the LGP, the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), which took place in the Northern  
145 Hemisphere from -26.5 to -19 ka (Clark et al., 2009) is characterised by a maximum amplitude  
146 of sea-level fall, has no strict eustatic equivalent in the Black Sea. Thus, in this study, we define  
147 the End of the Last Glacial Period (E-LGP) specifically as a lapse of time extending from -34  
148 ka (the minimum age investigated in this study) to the reconnection with the Mediterranean at  
149 9 cal a BP (Soulet et al., 2011a).

150 Reconstruction of hydrological conditions using geochemical pore-water profiles provides  
151 some insights into salinity and bottom water temperatures during this E-LGP with values of ~2  
152 g/L and 4°C (Soulet et al., 2010). The Black Sea water level during the E-LGP was first  
153 estimated between ~90-150 m lower than the current one (Deuser 1972; Ryan et al., 1997;  
154 Popescu et al., 2004; Lericolais et al., 2011; Constantinescu et al., 2015; Yanchilina et al.,  
155 2017).

156 However, Martinez-Lamas et al. (2020) recorded periods of rising sea level during the E-LGP  
157 related to enhanced surface melting of the Alpine Ice Sheet. This consequently resulted in five  
158 main periods of increased river-flood frequency (ca. 33.5-15 ka interval), each of 1.5-3 ka  
159 duration, synchronous with Heinrich Stadial 3 (HS i.e. a stadial which contains a Heinrich  
160 event, Sanchez Goni and Harrison, 2010) (ca. 32-29 ka), Greenland Stadial 4 (ca. 28.6-27.8 ka)  
161 and Heinrich Stadial (HS 2) (ca. 26-23.5 ka).

162 After 15,700 ± 300 cal a. BP, a major sea-level rise ranging between +90 m to +120 m ensued



163 (Constantinescu et al., 2015), associated with North Hemisphere Ice-sheet melting at the end of  
164 the glacial period. This flood event induced reconnection of the Black Sea freshwater with the  
165 Mediterranean (Aksu et al., 2002; Hiscott et al., 2007) at 9,000 cal a. BP via the shallow  
166 Bosphorus Strait (Soulet et al., 2011b). This reconnection resulted in sea-bottom temperature  
167 warming (4°C to 8.9°C) and salinity increase (~2 g/L to ~22 g/L) associated with marine  
168 conditions (Soulet et al., 2010; Riboulot et al., 2017).

### 169 **2.3. The Danube sedimentary system in the Black Sea since the last** 170 **glacial period**

171 The Danube sedimentary system is dominated by the presence of the Viteaz Canyon (**Fig. 1a**)  
172 that developed since -34,000 cal a BP (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020) and which constitutes the  
173 modern offshore continuity of the Danube River, which was already functioning during the  
174 period of low-stand conditions of the Black Sea (Popescu et al., 2004). The Viteaz Canyon  
175 incised the continental margin over 26 km to 110 m water depth on the outer shelf, and  
176 continues as a channel with well-developed lateral levees on the upper slope, beyond the shelf  
177 break (Popescu et al., 2004) (**Fig. 1a**).

178 Previous studies show that periods of canyon and fan activity were systematically associated  
179 with the lacustrine phases of the basin, although this activity was interrupted during marine  
180 high-stand phases (Panin 1989, 1997, 2002; Wong et al., 1994; Constantinescu et al., 2015).  
181 Effectively, during the E-LGP, sediment supply was associated with hyperpycnal currents or  
182 with glacial melting discharge (Popescu et al., 2004; Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020). The  
183 sediments were mostly exported downslope through the Viteaz Canyon to the deep domain  
184 (Panin, 1989), resulting in a stack of channel-levee complexes ~450 m thick each, and the  
185 development of a deep-sea fan between 1500 and 2000 m water depth (*Danube Deep-Sea Fan*  
186 in **Fig. 1a**) (Wong et al., 1994; Winguth et al., 2000; Popescu et al., 2001, 2004, 2006; Lericolais  
187 et al., 2009, 2011; Lericolais et al., 2013).

188 Based on a long piston core description from the north-west Black Sea margin (core GAS-  
189 CS01), Martinez-Lamas et al. (2020) propose that the latest modern deep-sea fan complex  
190 developed after 34,000 cal a BP, during the lowstand lacustrine period, when the Danube River  
191 was connected to the Viteaz Canyon mouth (**Fig. 1a**). Through a sedimentological analysis on  
192 the upper slope, they show that the associated sediments consist of a succession of coarsening-  
193 upward and then fining-upward units characteristic of hyperpycnal turbidity-current deposits  
194 (Mulder et al., 2003), providing a high-resolution river flood record in the north-west Black Sea  
195 over the ca. 33.5-17 ka interval. Four main periods of enhanced Danube flood frequency, each  
196 of 1.5-3 ka duration, are recorded at 32.5-30.5 ka (F5), at 29-27.5 ka (F4), at 25.3-23.8 ka (F3)  
197 and at 22.3-19 ka (F2). Similarities in both the stratigraphy and sedimentology observed in core  
198 MD04-2790 (Soulet et al., 2011a), in the Dniepr domain, highlight the regional imprint of river  
199 floods in the study area.

200 The sedimentology and dating information used in this study derives from the Calypso long-  
201 piston core GAS-CS01 studied by Martinez Lamas et al. (2020). This 32.1-m-long core shows  
202 a lithological succession, observed from the western Black Sea upper slope (Bahr et al., 2005;  
203 Major et al., 2002; Soulet et al., 2011a) to the Danube deep-sea fan (Constantinescu et al.,  
204 2015). From the top down, it consists of marine Unit I (Marine Coccolith Ooze (MCO),  $<2720$   
205  $\pm 160$  cal a BP) and Unit II (sapropel, deposited from  $8,080 \pm 250$  cal a BP) and then, lacustrine  
206 Unit III described by Ross and Degens (1974). In order to more accurately date Unit III,  
207 Martinez-Lamas et al. (2020) used two approaches: (1) they correlated GAS-CS01 with core  
208 MD04-2790 (location in Figure 1a) (Soulet et al., 2011a) using their extremely similar XRF-  
209 Ca records (refer to Supplementary materials *Table 2* in Martinez Lamas et al., 2020). Indeed,  
210 the authors considered the robustness of the calendar age-depth model published by Soulet et  
211 al. (2011a), that was reconstructed with an alignment approach of TEX86-derived Lake Surface  
212 Temperature with the Hulu Cave  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  speleothem record (Wang et al., 2001), (2) in depth, the

213 chronology is based on radiocarbon age  $^{14}\text{C}$  yr BP (*Dreissena* sp. and bulk organic matter),  
214 bounding back to ~34 ka at the base of the core (refer to Supplementary materials *Table 2* in  
215 Martinez Lamas et al., 2020).

216 Accordingly, core GAS-CS01 contains a very-high-resolution record of the marine and glacial  
217 lacustrine Units I, II and III (until ca. 33.5 ka) (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020).

## 218 **2.4. The gas-hydrate system of the Black Sea**

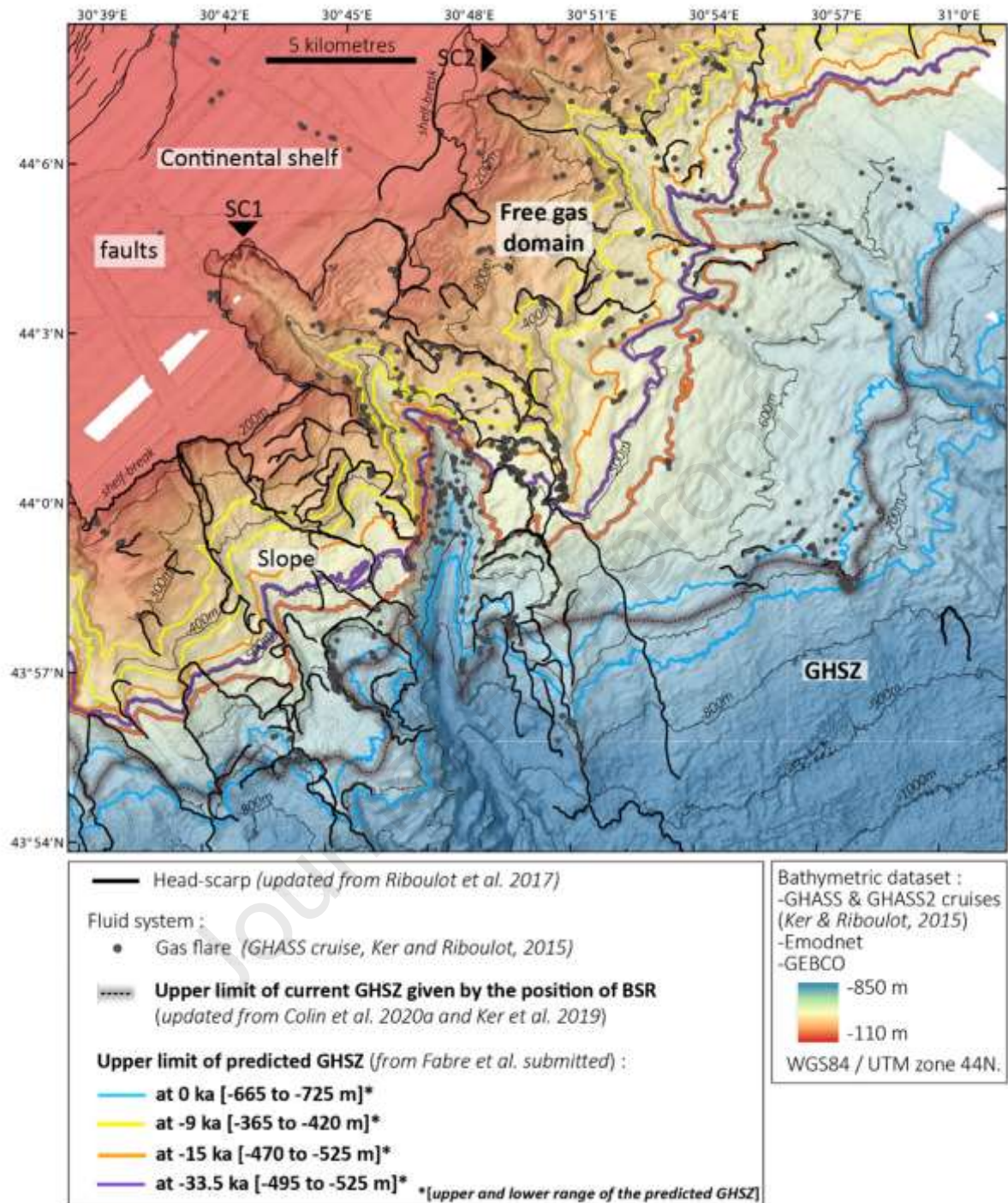
219 Limited water-circulation and water-body exchanges between the Black Sea and the  
220 Mediterranean via the shallow Bosphorus Strait led to unusually low oxygenation conditions of  
221 the water column through time. The highly saline Mediterranean water (38 psu) flows deep into  
222 the Black Sea under the freshwater it receives from its watershed (Panin and Jipa, 2002). It  
223 results in a very marked stratification of the water column, with low salinity (~18 psu),  
224 oxygenated surface waters and anoxic, salty (~22 psu) deep waters (Ozsoy et al., 2002; Bahr et  
225 al., 2005; Rank et al., 1999). The Black Sea is currently considered as the largest land-locked  
226 anoxic basin in the world (Caspers, 1957, Demaison & Moore, 1980). Consequently, high  
227 amounts of organic matter were preserved in deep and surficial sediments and their  
228 decomposition and cracking have led to high amounts of both biogenic and thermogenic  
229 methane being trapped in sediments (Burwicz & Haeckel, 2020).

230 Numerous studies have evidenced active gas seepages from the seafloor in the Black Sea. They  
231 mainly occur on the upper slope and continental shelf (Dimitrov and Vassilev, 2003). Many  
232 fluid escape indicators such as pockmarks, carbonate chimneys, boiling seafloor swamps and  
233 mud volcanoes on the seafloor have been described (Dimitrov and Vassilev, 2003; Kruglyakova  
234 et al., 2004). More than 10,000 seepage sites over an area of ~ 3000 km<sup>2</sup> have been identified  
235 on the upper slope along the western Black Sea margin (Naudts et al., 2006). Among them, ~  
236 2000 have been detected in the Romanian sector (Riboulot et al., 2017; Riedel et al., 2021).  
237 Free gas mainly escapes along canyon incisions such as canyon SC1 (Figure 2), both along the

238 axial thalweg and canyon flanks, or through slope-failure head-scarps (Popescu et al., 2004;  
239 Riboulot et al., 2017, **Fig. 2**). Gas escapes also occur along deep-sea channels and levees  
240 deposits (Hillman et al., 2018b; Ker et al., 2019; Riedel et al., 2021) (**Fig. 2**). It is important to  
241 underline that the vast majority of observed active seepages occur outside the current GHSZ  
242 (**Fig. 2**) (Riboulot et al., 2017), where GH accumulation acts as an effective seal hampering free  
243 gas from reaching the seafloor and the water column.

244 The GH have been studied and largely mapped on the western Romanian slope of the Black  
245 Sea (Popescu et al., 2007; Zander et al., 2017; Riboulot et al., 2017, 2018; Riedel et al., 2021).  
246 Seismic data reveal the presence of a bottom-simulating reflector (BSR) imaging the current  
247 free gas and GH interface in response to a high impedance contrast in many areas of the  
248 Romanian margin (Popescu et al., 2006; Haeckel et al., 2015; Zander et al., 2017; Riboulot et  
249 al., 2018; Ker et al., 2019; Colin et al., 2020a; Marsset et al., 2022). The BSR appears as an  
250 enhanced high-amplitude reversed polarity reflection, cross-cutting the stratigraphy and can be  
251 considered as a good indicator of the presence of free gas below the base of the GHSZ.  
252 Thermodynamically stable at water depths greater than ~660 m, the position of the upper limit  
253 of the GHSZ influences the current limit of the gas flare area (**Fig. 2, black dashed line and**  
254 **blue lines**) (Haeckel et al., 2015; Riboulot et al., 2017). However, it is important to stress that  
255 this limit has evolved over time. Riboulot et al. (2018) demonstrate that, in response to the  
256 Holocene reconnection of the Black Sea with the Mediterranean at 9k (Soulet et al., 2011b), the  
257 recent warming of bottom water temperatures (4°C to 8.9 °C) and salt diffusion in sediments  
258 provoked an important dissociation process on the shallow GH deposits. This is supported by  
259 static modelling results from Ker et al., (2019) which highlight a reduction of the GH  
260 occurrence zone associated with a seaward migration of the GHSZ upper limit since the E-LGP  
261 (Riboulot et al. 2017; Hillman et al., 2018a; Colin et al., 2020a). Secondly and more recently,  
262 Fabre et al. (2024) presented 2D dynamic modelling of the GHSZ since the last 34 ka, taking

263 into account multi-parameters provided from in-situ measurements relative to current  
264 conditions (sea-bottom temperature, salinity, geothermal gradient), indirect assessments for  
265 past conditions (Soulet et al., 2011b), and local salt diffusion and thermal diffusivity in  
266 sediments (Riedel et al. 2020). These modelling results also indicate a potential present-day  
267 disequilibrium of the GH system in response to pressure induced by sea-level changes, bottom  
268 water temperature, heat diffusion, salinity and its downward diffusion: They show that the  
269 GHSZ remains stable between -33.5 and -20 ka (the upper limit extended from ~[495 to 525 m  
270 water-depth) (**Fig. 2, purple lines**). After -20 ka, there was a sudden back-and-forth movement  
271 of the GHSZ upper limit along the slope in response to a sea-level rise of  $\leq +100$  m at -16 ka,  
272 before it returned to its initial position (i.e. the E-LGP position recorded between -33.5 and -20  
273 ka) at -15 ka due to an episode of sea-level fall (**Fig. 2, orange lines**). This was followed by a  
274 landward extension of the GHSZ reaching its maximum extent at -9 ka, in response to the last  
275 sea-level rise (**Fig. 2, yellow lines**). After -9 ka, the extension of the GHSZ drastically decreased  
276 due to bottom water warming and re-salinisation of the Black Sea. The predicted present-day  
277 GHSZ reaches its termination close to the seafloor at 660 m water (**Fig. 2, blue lines**).



278

279 Figure 2: Geomorphologic map of the western Romanian margin, obtained from the interpretation of bathymetric  
 280 data and 2D seismic data. Grey dots represent the gas flares imaged in the water column during GHASS cruise  
 281 (Ker and Riboulot, 2015). We identified canyon incisions by SC1 and SC2, and bathymetric slope head-scarps  
 282 (black lines, updated from Riboulot et al., 2017). The upper limit of the current Gas-Hydrates Stability Zone  
 283 (GHSZ) (shaded black dashed line) has been extracted from seismic data (HR and VHR) acquired during GHASS  
 284 cruise (Ker and Riboulot, 2015) from the position of the shallow Bottom Simulating Reflector (BSR) (updated from

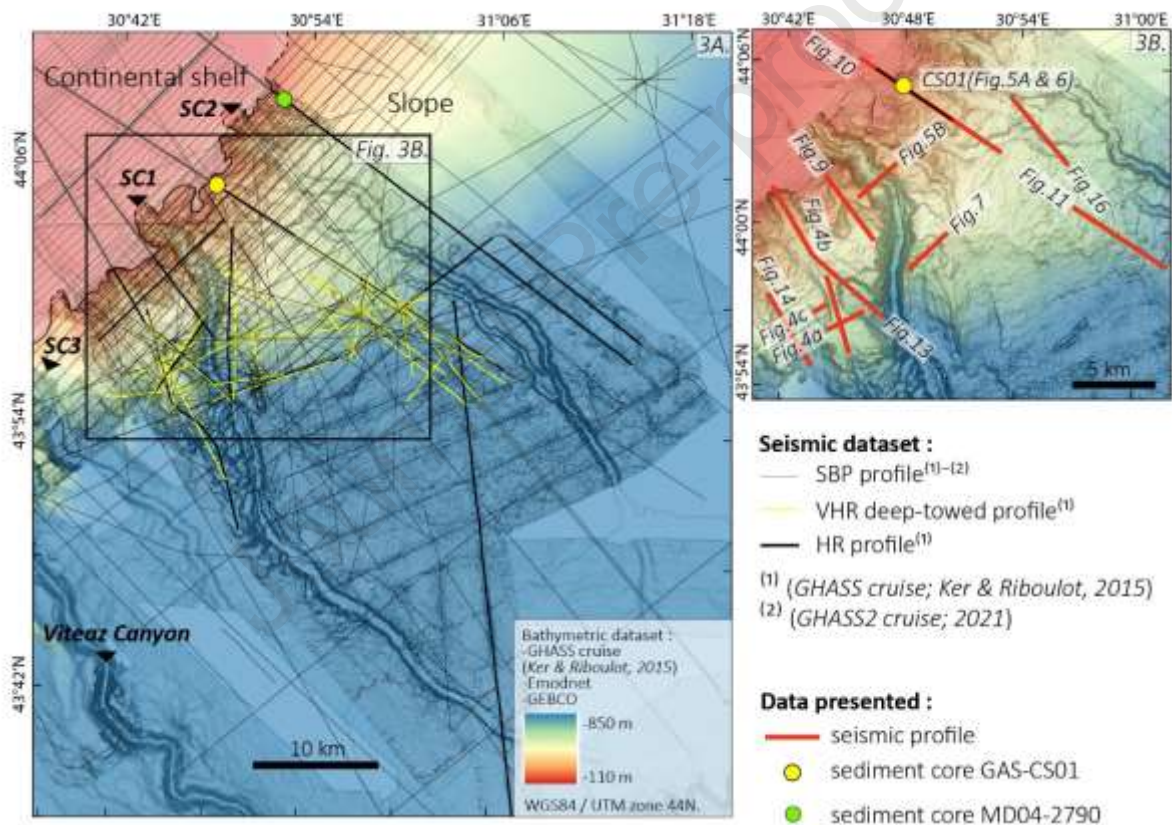
285 *Colin et al, 2020 and Ker et al, 2019). The upper limits of the E-LGP (purple, orange, and yellow lines) and*  
286 *current predicted GHSZ (blue lines) have been calculated by numerical modelling (Fabre et al., 2024). The*  
287 *position of predicted or observed upper limits of the GHSZ allow to distinguish the distribution of the present*  
288 *GHSZ, and the E-LGP GH Destabilisation zone (GHDZ) from the free gas domain.*

## 289 **2.5. Slope instability on the western Black Sea margin**

290 Through a seismic-stratigraphy approach, Hillman et al. (2018b) show that the sedimentary  
291 system of the Danube Fan in the western Romanian margin is not only controlled by channel-  
292 levee sedimentation but also by significant slope-failure events incising the margin and  
293 removing some of the slope deposits. In the deep-sea fan, Winguth et al. (2000) and Popescu et  
294 al. (2001) identified multiple slumps, slides and debris flows, possibly due to high turbidity  
295 current discharging or levee breaching. In the upper slope and shelf break off the Romanian  
296 margin, many of the scarp morphologies also result from instabilities and erosion along the  
297 Viteaz Canyon headwalls. Popescu et al. (2004) suggest they formed during the last sea-level  
298 low stand, and discuss the link with gas seepage in the upper slope, and the potential role of  
299 shallow gas in sediments as a preconditioning factor for slope failure. However, none of the  
300 above-described landslides has been absolutely dated. Finally, Marsset et al. (2022), propose a  
301 detailed mapping of Mass Transport Deposits (MTDs) in the study area based on GHASS and  
302 BLASON seismic data. They evidenced a set of regional massive MTDs associated with an  
303 unconformity interpreted to be the Base Neoeuxinian Sequence Boundary formed during the  
304 last major sea-level fall. The correlation with core GAS-CS01 (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020)  
305 indicates that this unconformity is significantly older than 34 ka (Marsset et al., 2022). Marsset  
306 et al., (2022) also mapped younger MTDs suggesting that sediment instability may also have  
307 occurred during a recent sea-level highstand. They did not correlate these later MTDs with core  
308 GAS-CS01. They propose that sediment pulses, seismicity, and gas-hydrate dynamics play  
309 determinant roles in sediment instability through time.

310 In this work, we complete and describe the landslide mapping carried out by Marsset et al,  
 311 (2022) over the recent period from 34 thousand years ago to the present day, adding the GHASS  
 312 sub-bottom profiler data and the new GHASS-2 sub-bottom profiler data acquired in 2021. This  
 313 densification of data and improved resolution for recent sediments makes it possible to  
 314 distinguish additional landslide phases and to optimistically correlate the main seismic  
 315 reflectors with the GAS-CS01 core.

### 316 3. MATERIALS



317  
 318 Figure 3: 3A.: Dataset used for this study, including multi-resolution seismic data, bathymetry, and sediment core  
 319 data. The black bold lines represents the high resolution seismic lines (GHASS cruise, Ker and Riboulot (2015)),  
 320 yellow lines correspond to the deep-towed seismic lines (GHASS cruise, Ker and Riboulot (2015)) and light black  
 321 lines the sub-bottom profiler data (GHASS (Ker and Riboulot, 2015) and GHASS-2 (2021) cruises) ; SBP: from  
 322 Sub Bottom Profiler, VHR: Very-High-Resolution data from SYSIF device, HR: High-Resolution data from  
 323 multichannel device. 3B.: Location of seismic profiles and core GAS-CS01 (44°05.10'N, 30°47.50'E) presented  
 324 in this work appear respectively with red lines and one yellow dot.



## 325      2.1.      Geophysical dataset

### 326      3.1.1.      Bathymetry and water-column acoustic data

327      This study is based on a newly compiled bathymetric map (**Fig. 1A**) including a 15-m very-  
328      high-resolution Digital Terrain Model (DTM) of the study area (**Fig. 1A, and 1C and Fig. 2**)  
329      acquired with the SMF7111 (100 kHz) and SMF7150 (12 kHz/24 kHz) multi-beam sounders  
330      from the GHASS (R/V Pourquoi pas?, Ker and Riboulot, 2015), and recent GHASS2 cruises  
331      (R/V Pourquoi pas?, 2021) and a 250-m-resolution DTM provided from *the European Marine*  
332      *Observation Data Network (EMODnet) Seabed Habitats initiative* ([//www.emodnet-](http://www.emodnet-seabedhabitats.eu/)  
333      [seabedhabitats.eu/](http://www.emodnet-seabedhabitats.eu/)) (**Fig. 2**).

334      The multi-beam echosounder SMF7111 (100 kHz) and SMF7150 (12 kHz/24 kHz) profiles  
335      acquired on the GHASS cruise (R/V Pourquoi pas?, Ker and Riboulot, 2015) and already  
336      presented in Riboulot et al. (2017), also identified the position of gas flares in the water column  
337      between the shelf and slope domain, generating regional mapping of active fluid-escape  
338      distribution on the Romanian margin presented in Figure 2. In both cases, this novel data were  
339      processed using IFREMER's Globe Software.

### 340      3.1.2.      Multi-resolution seismic reflection data

341      All multi-channel seismic (MCS) reflection data used in this study (**Fig. 3**) were acquired during  
342      the GHASS cruise, combining multi-resolution source data (high-resolution (HR) multichannel  
343      seismic, very-high-resolution (VHR) deep-towed seismic, and sub-bottom profiler, **Table 1**).  
344      In addition, for the study, we included the sub-bottom profiler dataset acquired during the  
345      GHASS2 cruise. All profiles are newly presented in this study. The resulting dataset covers a  
346      large part of the Romanian margin from the shelf to the middle slope domain (**Fig. 3**).  
347      Processing of High-Resolution (HR) surface and Very-High-Resolution (VHR) deep-towed  
348      seismic data was carried out with the software SolidQC® (IFREMER), SeisSpace

349 ProMAX® and MATLAB®, and QCSubop® (IFREMER) for sub-bottom profile quality  
350 control. Seismic profiles were interpreted on a workstation with KingdomSuite software®, and  
351 interpretations integrated into a Geographic Information System (QGIS platform®), together  
352 with bathymetric and water-column acoustic data.

### 353 3.1.2.1. High-resolution seismic data

354 Multi-channel seismic (MCS) reflection data (**Fig. 3**) were obtained with a small airgun source  
355 (central frequency: 110 Hz) and a 96-channel streamer with 6.25-m spacing between traces.  
356 The depth of the source and the streamer were set at 1.5 and 2 m, respectively. The penetration  
357 of this acoustic signal reaches ~ 500 m below the seafloor (mbsf) with a resolution in the order  
358 of 3.5 m vertically and between 15-25 m horizontally (**Table 1**). It images the deep geometry  
359 of the slope and the BSR zone. MCS profiles were mostly obtained by applying a conventional  
360 post-stack processing sequence. For specific profiles, a pre-stack depth migration was  
361 performed after migration velocity analysis (Ker et al., 2019).

### 362 3.1.2.2. Very-High-Resolution (VHR) deep-towed seismic data

363 To image the sedimentary architecture in detail and investigate the GHSZ, we used the VHR  
364 deep-towed seismic reflection data (**Fig. 3**) from the IFREMER SYSIF system (Ker et al., 2014;  
365 Marsset et al., 2014). Towing both the source and streamer at 50-100 m above the seafloor  
366 provides an improved lateral resolution, lower sensitivity of 3D effects and a better signal-to-  
367 noise ratio. This system works with a very-high-resolution source (220 Hz -1050 Hz) and a 52-  
368 channel streamer with 2 m spacing and obtains seismic data with a vertical resolution of less  
369 than 1 m, with penetration up to 200 mbsf (**Table 1**). Recent developments have allowed fine-  
370 scale velocity analysis to determine P-wave velocity distribution, down to 50-100 mbsf thanks  
371 to streamer length (Colin et al., 2020b; Marsset et al., 2018). For greater depth, the velocity  
372 field required for depth migration is defined with neighbouring HR data analysis.

### 373 3.1.2.3. Very-high-resolution sub-bottom profiles

374 A total of 344 sub-bottom profiles cross the shelf edge and were acquired along HR seismic  
 375 profiles (**Fig. 3**). The CHIRP source operates at a frequency-modulated signal ranging between  
 376 1800 Hz and 5000 Hz to obtain an infra-metric vertical resolution with optimal penetration at  
 377 80 mbsf (**Table 1**) for precise correlation with long piston-core data collected in the study area.  
 378

Acoustic specifications	Frequency range (Hz)	Vertical resolution (m)	Horizontal resolution (m)	Penetration (mbsf)	Interest for this work
<b>Seismic source</b>					
<b>MCS (HR)</b>	45-170	3.5	15 m	500	Deep architecture of slope system
<b>Deep-towed seismics (VHR)</b>	220-1050	<1	2 m	150-200	Characterisation of landslides geometry
<b>Sub bottom profiler</b>	1800-5000	0.5	15 (for 800 m water depth)	80	Characterisation of landslides geometry Correlation with core data and dating

Table 1: Specifications of seismic reflection data used for this study.

379

## 380 2.2. Sediment core

381 Constraining geophysical observations with core data allows to deduce the lithological  
 382 succession and information on the ages of landslide units observed in the study area.

383 Sedimentology data comes from the Calypso long-piston core GAS-CS01 (44°05.10N,  
 384 30°47.50E) collected during the GHASS cruise (R/V Pourquoi pas?, Ker and Riboulot, 2015)  
 385 at 240 m water depth from the shelf margin, ~40 km east of the Danube Canyon head, i.e.  
 386 between northern canyons SC1 and SC2 (**Fig. 3**).

387 The 32.1-m-long core GAS-CS01 records the regional lithological succession of the western  
 388 Black Sea, and has been described in detail by Martinez Lamas et al. (2020). This lithological  
 389 succession, observed from the western Black Sea upper slope (Bahr et al., 2005; Major et al.,  
 390 2002; Soulet et al., 2011a) to the Danube deep-sea fan (Constantinescu et al., 2015), consists,  
 391 at the surface, of marine Unit I (Marine Coccolith Ooze (MCO),  $<2720 \pm 160$  cal a BP) and

392 Unit II (sapropel, deposited from  $8,080 \pm 250$  cal a BP) and below, lacustrine Unit III described  
393 by Ross and Degens (1974). Core GAS-CS01 therefore contains a very-high-resolution record  
394 of the marine and glacial lacustrine Units I, II and III (until ca. 33.5 ka) (Martinez-Lamas et al.,  
395 2020).

396 Through the correlation of their respective XRF-Ca records (Soulet et al., 2011a; Martinez-  
397 Lamas et al., 2020), the GAS-CS01 calendar age-depth model, between core-depth intervals  
398 253 cmbsf to 1595 cmbsf, is based on that of core MD04-2790 (N 44°12.8', E 30°59.6'),  
399 collected at 352 m water depth, ~19.6 km east of GAS-CS01 during the ASSEMBLAGE cruise  
400 (2004) (refer to Supplementary materials *Table 2* in Martinez Lamas et al., 2020). This calendar  
401 age-depth model was reconstructed with an alignment approach of the TEX86-derived Lake  
402 Surface Temperature with the Hulu Cave  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  speleothem record (Wang et al., 2001). Below  
403 the depth 1595 cmbsf, chronology is based on radiocarbon age  $^{14}\text{C}$  yr BP (Dreissena sp. and  
404 bulk organic matter) bounding back to ~34 ka at the base of the core (3214 cmbsf). Lastly, no  
405 dating is available above 253 cmbsf, at the top of core GAS-CS01 (refer to Supplementary  
406 materials *Table 2* in Martinez Lamas et al., 2020). However, identification of a 20-30-cm-thick  
407 Sapropel layer, well-documented and identified as the 'lacustrine' Unit II in the western Black  
408 Sea margin (Ross and Degens, 1974; Soulet et al., 2011a; Constantinescu et al., 2015) can be  
409 considered as a temporal reference interval for our study, deposited from  $8,080 \pm 250$  cal a BP  
410 (Soulet et al., 2011a).

## 411 **4. METHODS**

### 412 **2.1. Seismic stratigraphy and correlation with core GAS-CS01**

413 Analysis of the available seismic database (**Fig. 3**) provided the very-high-resolution  
414 sedimentary architecture of the upper slope of the Romanian margin, and thus highlights the  
415 relative chronology of the different landslides which highly imprint the seafloor (**Fig. 2**).

416 Based on seismic stratigraphic principles, we firstly identified major discontinuities and  
417 depositional units derived from reflection terminations (erosional truncations, onlaps,  
418 downlaps), seismic facies and geometric analysis (Mitchum et al., 1977). This consequently led  
419 to identifying successive erosional and remoulded landslide seismic units interstratified  
420 between continuous and conformable sediment successions (**Fig. 4**).

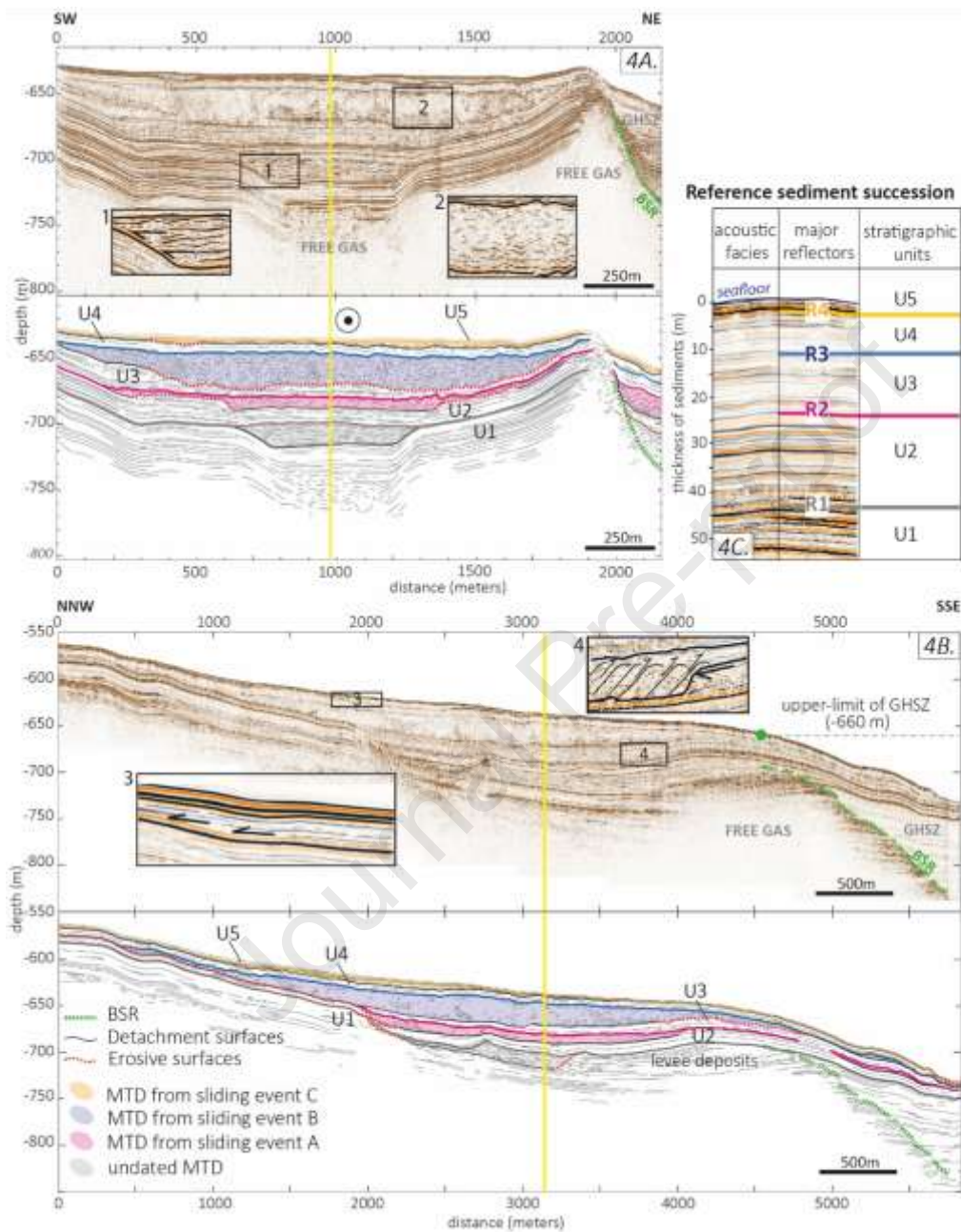
421 Four distinct major reflectors **R(X)**, corresponding to conformable correlative surfaces, were  
422 selected and followed along the entire dataset. They were identified in MCS and deep-towed  
423 profiles by continuous, high-amplitude reflectors, and, by strong contrasts in the sub-bottom  
424 profiles. We were consequently able to distinguish different seismic units labelled U1 to U5  
425 (from oldest to youngest) (**Fig. 4C**), with concordant, continuous and parallel reflectors. **R(X)**  
426 reflectors have been propagated towards core GAS-CS01 (**Fig. 5**). In some areas, they are  
427 truncated by younger MTDs (**Fig. 4B**). To explore landslide occurrence and study their  
428 distribution on the western upper slope, the depths of the **R(X)** reflections and respective basal  
429 surfaces of each landslide unit were checked at all tie-points and tracked interactively over the  
430 whole dataset.

431 When dating MTDs, we considered that failure events occurred during a time lapse bounded  
432 between the youngest MTD truncated seismic reflector and the first deposits overlying MTDs.  
433 Dating MTDs with calibrated ages equates to correlating seismic observations with dating  
434 information extracted from the 32.1 m long Calypso piston core GAS-CS01 (**Fig. 5**), positioned  
435 on the northern side of the canyon SC1 (**Fig. 3**), in a sector where strata were preserved from  
436 erosive/landslide surface processes (**Fig. 5**).

437 Propagating and comparing seismic observations on both sides of the canyon SC1 through  
438 different crossing points (from profile to profile), favours a robust correlation strategy (**Fig.**  
439 **5B**).

440 Next, for each landslide, we correlated the youngest eroded reflector and top MTD surfaces

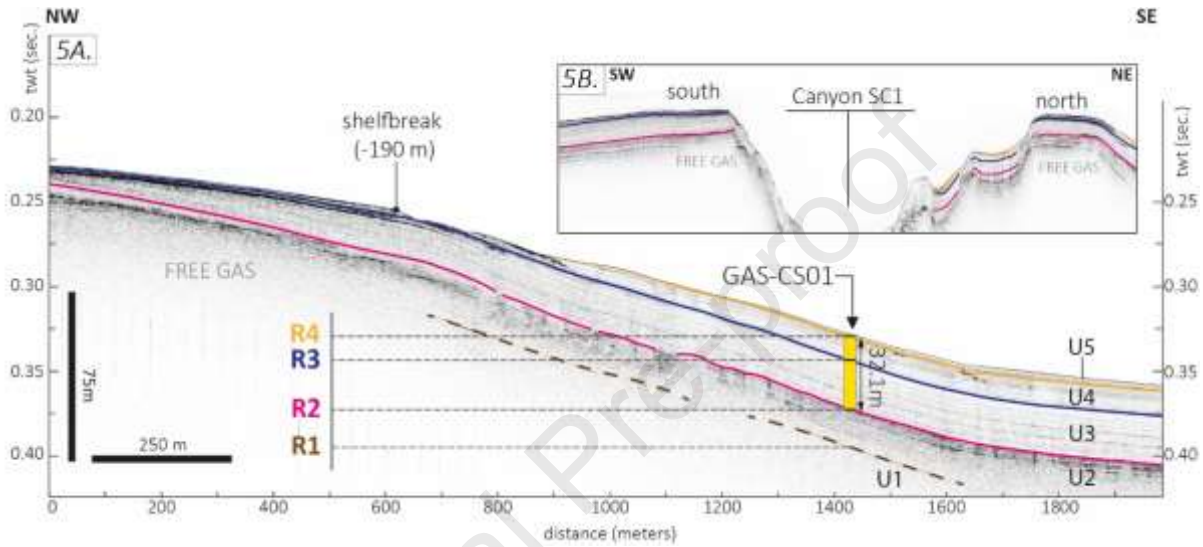
441 with the GASC01 core for which the lithological facies and age-model are published (Martinez-  
 442 Lamas et al., 2020) (Fig. 6).



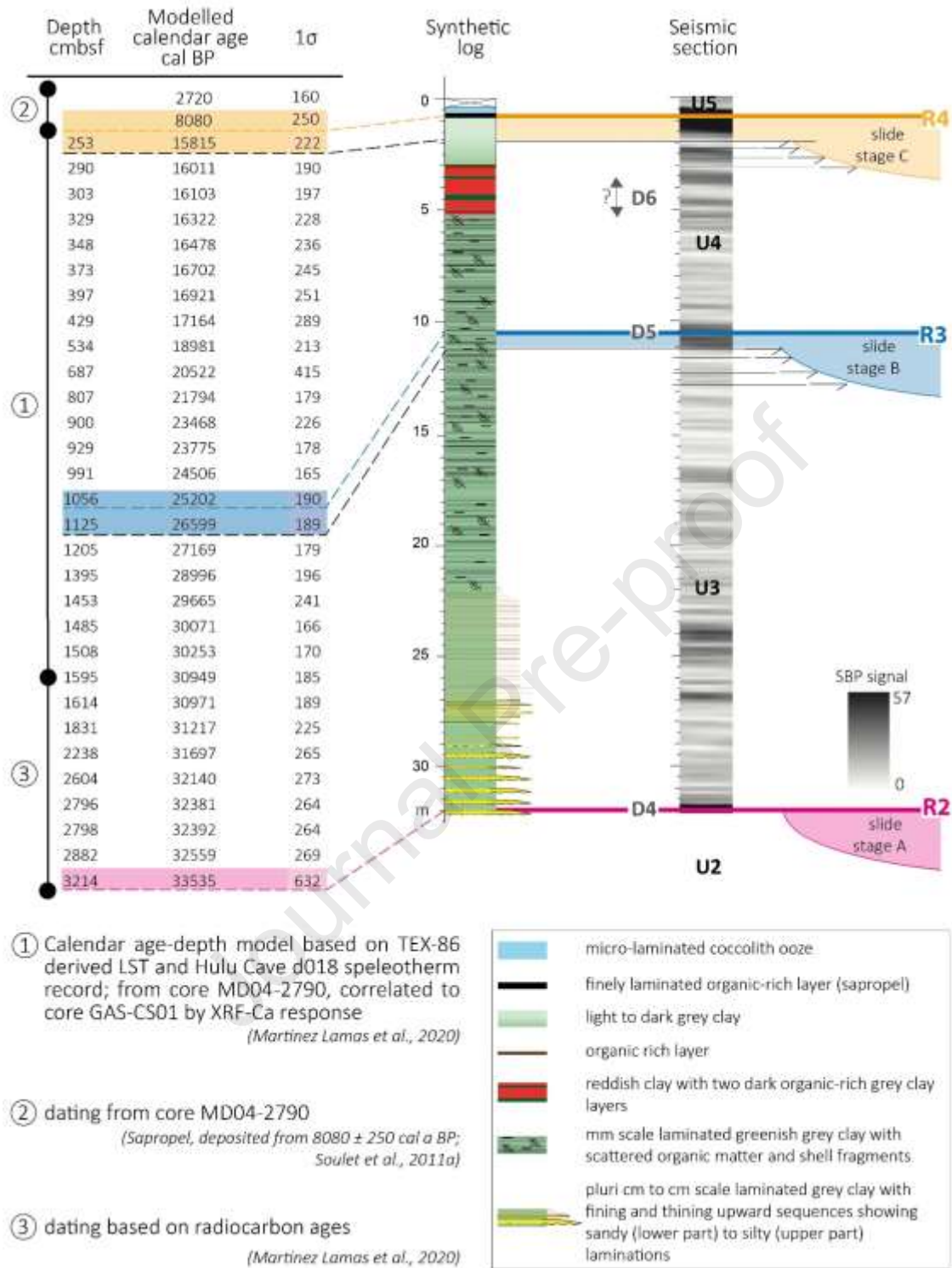
443

444 Figure 4: Presentation and interpretation of seismic very-high-resolution deep-towed profiles to describe different  
 445 landslide events on the upper slope of the study area (4A.: PR01PL06 for transversal point of view and 4B.:  
 446 PL01PR02 for longitudinal point of view). Profile presented on Figure 4A. crosses over the profile in Figure 4B.  
 447 (yellow line). The MTDs, identified by seismic chaotic to transparent units with low amplitude and discontinuous  
 448 reflectors have been coloured. The inserts 1 to 4 show the detail of the acoustic characteristics of the different  
 449 MTDs and their internal organisation. They erode and contrast with conformed units highlighted by line drawing.

450 Details of unit U(X) typology and positions of reflector R(X) are presented on the stratigraphic reference profile  
 451 (PL03PR02) on the Figure 4C. The dashed green line marks the position of the Bottom Simulating Reflector (BSR),  
 452 which cross-cuts the stratigraphy at the top of enhanced reflectors with high amplitude, and represents the  
 453 interface between free gas and the hydrate reservoir. Seismic data shows that MTDs generally extend above the  
 454 upper limit of the actual BSR (-660m), and their glide planes are very superficial in comparison with the present-  
 455 day BSR. Lines location reported in Figure 3B.



456  
 457 Figure 5: 5A.: Propagation of the regional reflectors R1, R2, R3 and R4 (Fig. 4), from failure zone to the VHR  
 458 sub-bottom profile GAS-SDS031b (Fig. 3), and correlation with the 32.1 m long core GAS-CS01 (GHASS cruise,  
 459 Ker and Riboulot (2015)). The core GAS-CS01 is positioned on the northern side of the SC1 (Fig. 3). As shown in  
 460 5B., (profile GAS-SDS-0015) the correlation from profile to profile required the propagation of seismic reflectors  
 461 on both sides of the SC1 though multiple crossing points in between different seismic sections. SBP n° GAS-SDS-  
 462 0031b (5A) and GAS-SDS-0015 (5B) locations are reported in Figure 3B.



463

464 Figure 6: Regional lithological succession, given by core GAS-CS01 (Fig. 3). Core chronologies from core GAS-

465 CS01 are presented and compared with the very-high-resolution sub-bottom profile (SBP) GAS-SDS031b

466 presented in Figure 5. ① Between 253 cmbfsf until to the depth 1595 cmbfsf, the GAS-CS01 calendar age-depth

467 model provided from Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020, with standard deviation  $1\sigma$ . It is based on a correlation with

468 the calendar age-depth model of core MD04-2790 (N 44°12.8', E 30°59.6') established by Soulet et al., 2011a,



469 (collected ~19.6 km east of GAS-CS01 during ASSEMBLAGE cruise (Lericolais, 2004)), reconstructed with  
470 alignment approach of TEX86-derived Lake Surface Temperature with the Hulu Cave  $\delta^{18}O$  speleothem record  
471 (Wang et al., 2001). ② No published dating have been established above 253 cmbsf; however, the 20-30 cm thick  
472 Sapropel layer, identified as the 'lacustrine' Unit II in western Black Sea margin is deposited from  $8,080 \pm 250$  to  
473  $2,720 \pm 160$  cal a BP, derived from core MD04-2790 by Soulet et al., 2011a. ③ Below the depth 1595 cmbsf, the  
474 chronology is based on radiocarbon age  $^{14}C$  yr BP (*Dreissena* sp. and bulk organic matter) bounding back to ~  
475 33,500 cal a BP at the base of the core (3214 cmbsf) (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020). Chronological constraints  
476 from core GAS-CS01 are compared with the well logs representing described lithological facies. On the right, a  
477 simplified sketch which explains the method used to date landslides considering dated regional reflectors R(X) as  
478 sealing the chaotic units and representing the first deposits not-affected by the deformation. Thus, assigning them  
479 a calendar age provides data on the maximum age of failure events A, B and C. The locations of SBP profile and  
480 core GAS-CS01 are presented in Figure 3B. in the study area; The entire SBP profile is presented in figure 5.

## 481 **2.2. Thickness and surface models of mass transport complexes**

482 By digitalising the top and basal MTD surfaces, we created isochron maps of the identified  
483 Mass Transport Complexes (MTCs, made of multiple MTDs), which were computed by means  
484 of the “flex-gridding” algorithm on the KingdomSuite-software toolbox. In view of the  
485 objective of this article, and the available chronostratigraphic constraints (Martinez et al., 2020,  
486 Soulet et al., 2011b) we computed thickness and surface models only for landslides that  
487 occurred since 33.5 ka (E-LGP to present). For grid interpolation, the closest to the thickness  
488 information, we chose the convex hull method to define the calculation bounds. Smoothing of  
489 data was required to correct the outliers of side effects. Isochron maps allow to calculate surface  
490 and thickness statistics and represent the lateral extent of each landslide regarding the  
491 distribution of scar failures highlighted by the bathymetric data. The two-way-travel-time-to-  
492 depth conversion (Twtt in seconds to metres) considered a water velocity and surficial  
493 sediments of 1480 m/s provided from sonic cone in-situ measurements made during the GHASS  
494 cruise (Ker and Riboulot, 2015). It is important to note that for failure zones initiated directly  
495 near the canyon, part of the reworked masses were transported towards the canyon and were

496 not systematically preserved. This consequently prevents an accurate evaluation of total  
497 removed sediment volumes.

## 498 **5. RESULTS**

499 Submarine landslides in the study area engender morphological evidence on the seafloor (**Fig.**  
500 **2**). Nevertheless, the presence of landslide head scarps on bathymetry does not imply recent  
501 instability. Age can be understood only through seismic stratigraphic analysis and correlation  
502 of core data.

503 Some chaotic units are identified on seismic data by similar general geometry and an acoustic  
504 signature as presented in Figure 4. They display lenticular geometries.

505 Most landslide units are characterised by the same general geometry and acoustic signature.  
506 They are represented by lenticular geometries of varied size (Fig. 4), and interstratified between  
507 continuous and conformal reflection packages (Fig. 4). In MCS and deep-towed data, these  
508 units are characterised by low-amplitude chaotic facies, discontinuous and hummocky  
509 reflectors (Fig. 4 inserts 1, 2, 3) and by transparent facies in sub-bottom profiles. In some cases,  
510 it is possible to identify internal reverse faults (**see insert 4 in Fig. 4**), which suggest  
511 gravitational contraction, generally at the distal part of the MTDs. Their basal surface is  
512 generally erosional grading, laterally to conformal.

513 We distinguished failure events (events A, B, C) characterised by contemporary individual  
514 MTDs (**Fig. 4**).

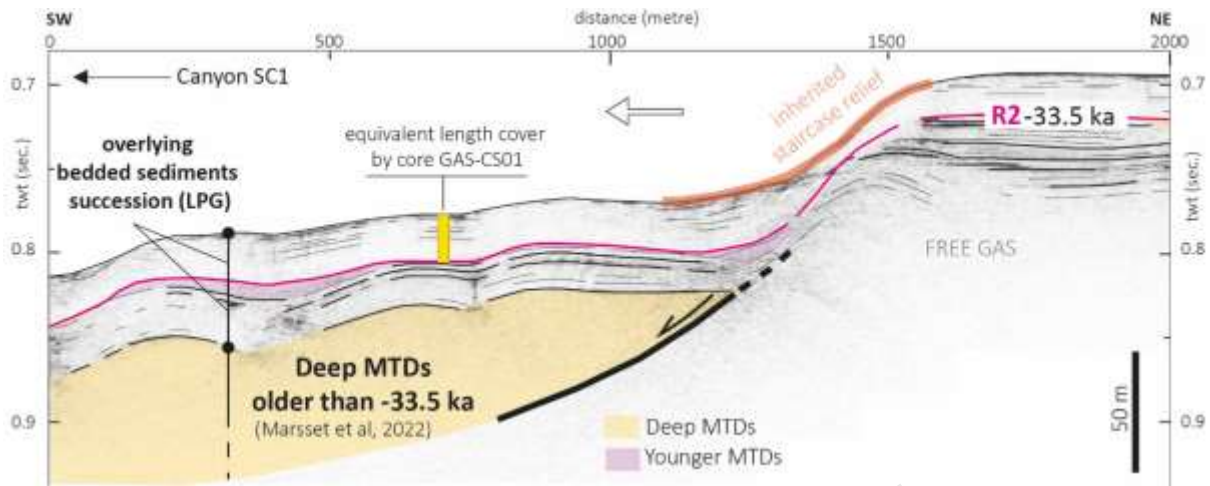
### 515 **2.1. Dating of MTDs**

516 Numerous buried MTDs that were not reached by GAS-CS01 (Fig. 5) could not be absolutely  
517 dated. In turn, the failure event A, sealed by **R2** was dated at a minimum age of 33,500 cal a  
518 BP (**Figs. 4 and 6**). The failure event B, sealed by **R3**, was dated between 26,600 and 25200  
519 cal a BP (**Figs. 4 and 6**). Finally, **R4** seals the failure event C. Since **R4** corresponds to the top

520 of the Sapropel unit observed on GASCS01 and dated at 8,080 cal a BP by Soulet et al. (2011a),  
521 we associated the failure event C to the period included between 15,800 cal a BP and 8,080 cal  
522 a BP (**R4**) (**Figs. 4 and 6**).

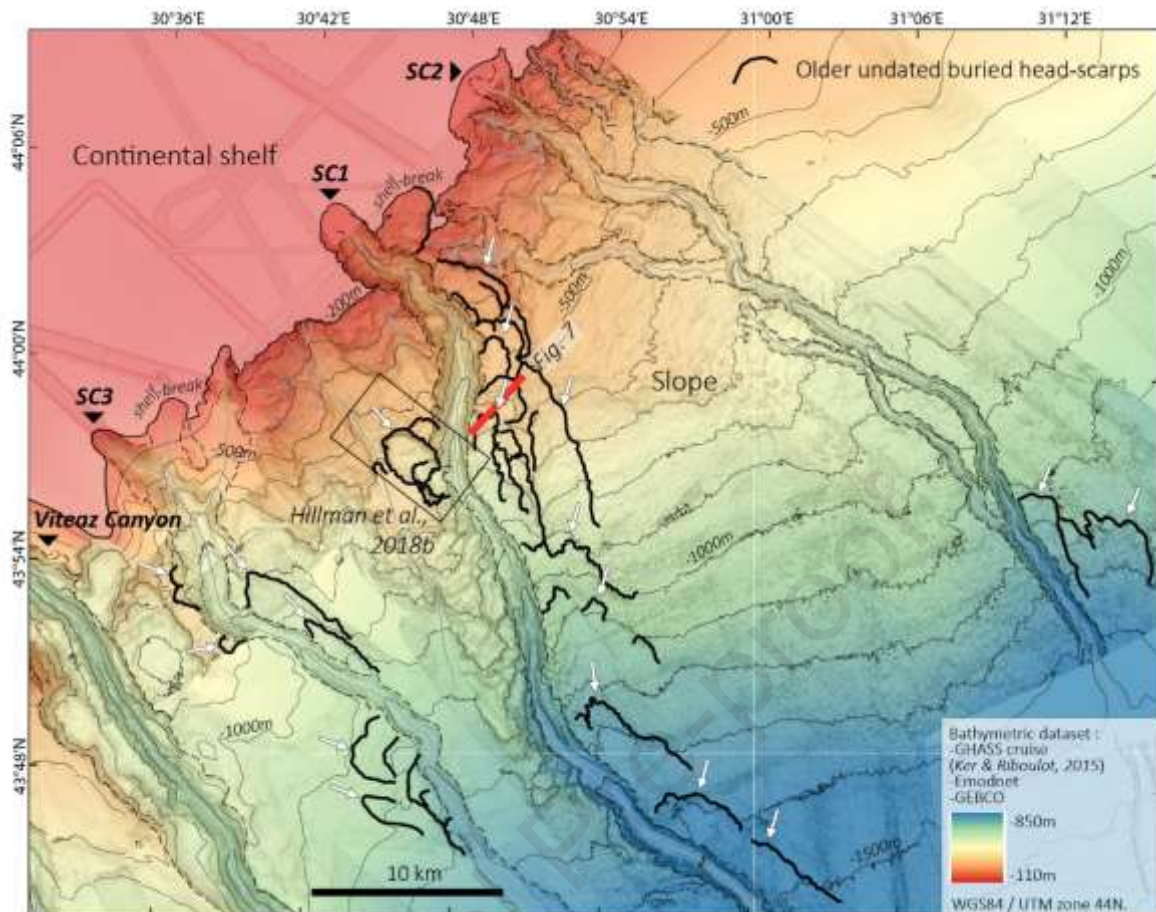
## 523 **2.2. MTDs older than 34 ka**

524 A series of MTDs are positioned below **R2**, thus older than -33,500 cal a BP (**Figs. 6 and 7**).  
525 They are all sealed by a ~ 80-m-thick bedded sedimentary strata (**Fig. 7**) characterised by low  
526 to high-amplitude reflectors interrupted by thin landslides (example in Figure 7, in yellow, an  
527 MTD older than 34 ka, and in pink, a younger MTD). Their thicknesses vary between ~40 and  
528 110 m and their basal surfaces are erosive and truncate deeper units. Younger sediments and  
529 MTCs overlie these MTDs without completely filling the head scarps, therefore they still have  
530 surface expression (**Fig. 8, associated head scarps underlined in black on bathymetry**).  
531 MTDs older than 34 ka and associated head scarps are located along the head walls of canyons  
532 SC1, SC3 and SC2 between 190 m to >1500 m water depth (**Fig. 8**). They result in around  
533 twenty head scarps, 1.5 to 3 km wide, easily perceptible on seafloor morphology, and account  
534 for 80% of the present-day scar failures identified in bathymetry. For example, a major head  
535 scarp along the south SC1 canyon edge located below 560 m water depth, presents a well-  
536 defined circular shape, ~2.5 km wide and more than 3 km long, creating a negative  
537 offset/incision 80 m high (**Fig. 8, black box**, studied by Hillman et al., 2018b). These events are  
538 clearly identified on some MCS and deep-towed seismic profiles, labelled as ‘regional MTD’  
539 but are not detailed in this article (see Marsset et al., 2022 for more information on these events,  
540 older than 34 ka).



541

542 *Figure 7: Geometry of deep MTDs older than 34 ka, identified in the SC1 canyon edge. These chaotic units are*  
 543 *generally characterised by lenticular units. Their basal surfaces are erosive and truncate deeper units. In sub-*  
 544 *bottom profiler data, they appear as transparent acoustic bodies. Those deep MTDs are sealed by younger*  
 545 *sediments. Additional small remobilized units that occurred after -34 ka, presented in this study, are interbedded*  
 546 *(MTDs coloured in pink) within this draping cover. Note that post-bedded sediments and recent MTCs overlay the*  
 547 *deep MTDs without completely filling the head-scarps. The length of core-GAS-CS01 has been added in the SBP*  
 548 *section to show the depth investigated for dating in this study (Fig. 6). SBP n° GAS-SDS-0010 location is reported*  
 549 *in Figure 3B.*



550

551 *Figure 8: Distribution of head-scarps related to failure events older than 34 ka (black lines) (Fig. 7A.). Note that*  
 552 *they generally extend in the north and south SC1 canyon edge, between the shelf break domain at -190 m and -*  
 553 *1500 m. No head-scarps related to this older stage have been identified along the canyon SC2 edge. According to*  
 554 *the orientation of the scar, the destabilised sediments (white arrows) discharged directly in the canyon.*

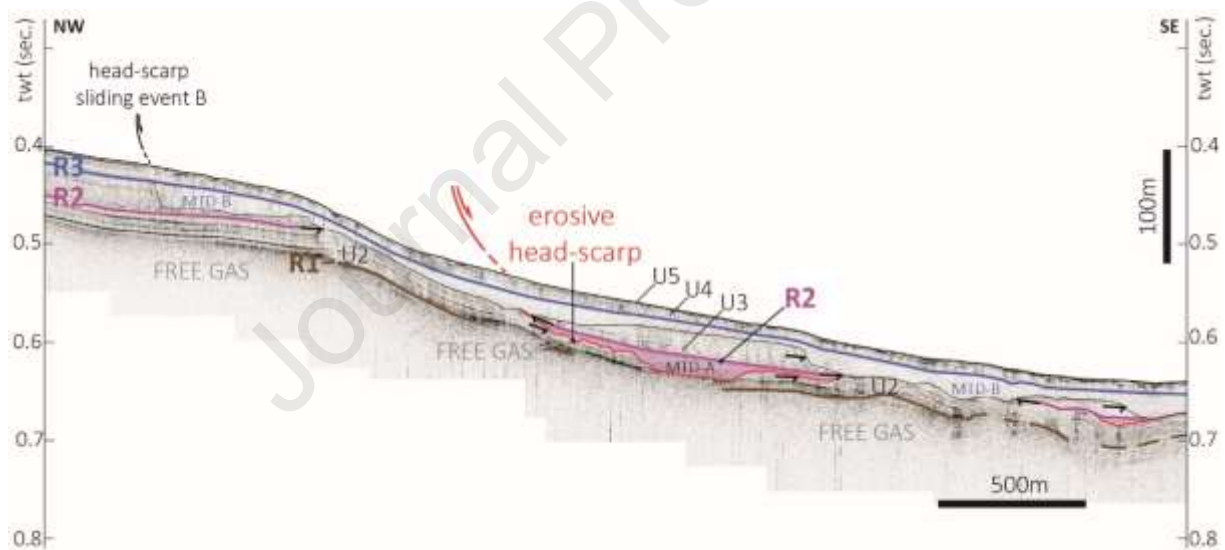
### 555 **2.3. ‘Surficial’ landslides initiated after -34 ka**

#### 556 **3.1.1. Failure stage A**

##### 557 **3.1.2.1. Main characteristics of seismic and sub-bottom profiler data**

558 The failure event A, sealed by **R2 (Figs. 4 and 6)**, is composed of several synchronous MTDs  
 559 deposited at 33,500 cal a BP during the E-LGP. As shown in **Figure 4**, this Mass Transport  
 560 Complex (MTC)-A gathers MTDs characterised on MCS and deep-towed data by a transparent  
 561 to chaotic seismic facies, with low to medium amplitude and discontinuous hummocky

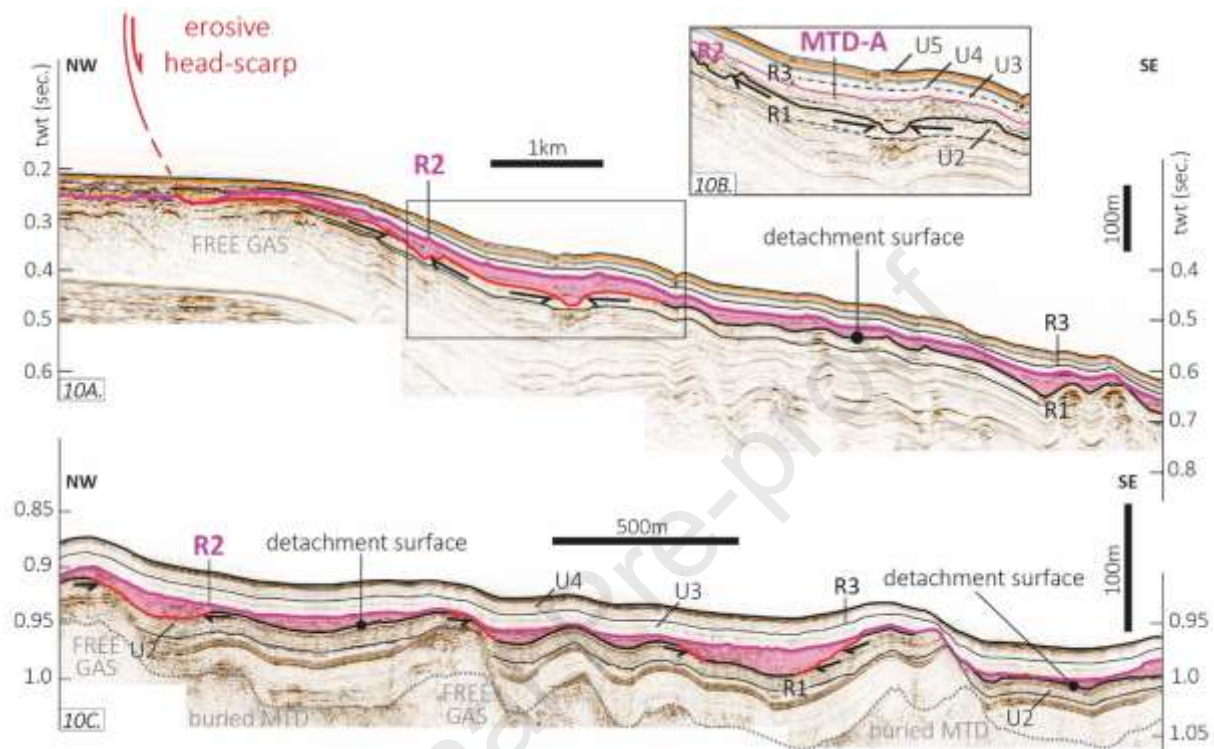
562 reflectors. On sub-bottom profiles, they usually appear with transparent acoustic facies (**Fig. 9**).  
 563 The basal surfaces of MTDs belonging to MTCs-A display irregular surfaces and  
 564 unconformities (**Figs. 4B, 9, and 10A-10B**) in seismic data. In head-scarp zones, these  
 565 landslides incise **U2 (Figs. 4, 9, and 10A)**, locally **U1**, and older deep sediments in the northern  
 566 part (**Fig. 10A**). In many cases, the basal surfaces of MTC-A are not clearly identified in the  
 567 failure area because of signal perturbation due to high free-gas content approaching the shelf  
 568 break (**Fig. 10**). However, we highlight that this major event in the north part of the study area  
 569 has truncated sediments up to ~ 80 m and remoulded large amounts of sediments seaward, down  
 570 to 1500 m water depth (**Figs. 10 and 11B**). Going downslope, MTC-A MTDs evolve in  
 571 lenticular units that are characterised by transparent acoustic facies, without internal coherent  
 572 organisation of sediments. These lenticular units show erosional or conformal bases (**Fig. 10C**).



573  
 574 *Figure 9: Typical upslope to downslope evolution related to the failure stage A at 33,500 cal a BP, on a sub-*  
 575 *bottom-profiler (SBP) profile n° GAS-SDS-038. SBP location is reported in Figure 3B. Upslope, this MTC is*  
 576 *characterised by an erosional basal surface connecting to an erosive failure zone (roughly located as “erosive*  
 577 *head-scarp”) that initiated in the south SCI canyon edge (zone (1) in Fig. 12A.). Erosional truncations are*  
 578 *represented by black arrows. Downslope, the associated MTD (coloured in pink) basal surface evolves towards*  
 579 *a less erosional system, correlating with a stratigraphic detachment layer characterised by a conform and*

580 continuous reflector. Seismic units and regional reflectors are labelled U(X) and R(X) respectively, according to  
 581 the typology defined in figure 4C.

582



583

584 Figure 10: Typical upslope to downslope evolution related to the failure stage A at 33,500 cal a BP, 10A. and  
 585 10B.: on a MCS line n° mig031, and 10C.: on a VHR deep-towed seismic line n° PL03PR07. MCS and VHR deep-  
 586 towed seismic lines locations are reported in Figure 3B. 10A: Upslope, this MTC is characterised by an erosive  
 587 failure zone (erosion domains underlined in red, erosional truncations represented by black arrows) that resulted  
 588 in a massive MTC (coloured in pink) that extended between -190 m and -1500 m (zone (3) in Fig. 12A.). This MTD  
 589 is characterised by chaotic facies in comparison with non-affected bedded sediment succession, as showed in 10B.  
 590 10C.: Going downslope, the basal MTC surface evolves toward a stratigraphic detachment layer, characterised  
 591 by a conform and continuous reflector (detachment layer underlined in black). Seismic units and regional  
 592 reflectors are labelled U(X) and R(X) respectively, according to the typology defined in figure 4C.

### 593 3.1.2.2. Spatial distribution and thicknesses

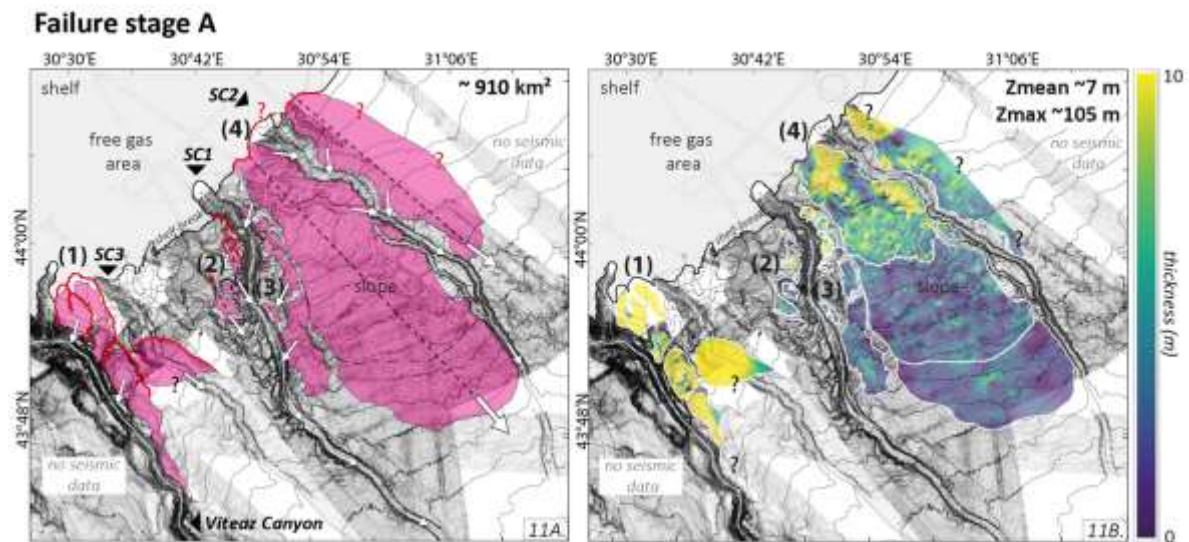
594 Failure stage A consists of several MTDs, which differ in their location and size (**location and**  
 595 **extension in Fig. 11A**). They mostly initiate along the shelf-break edge and along SC1 and

596 Viteaz canyons (**Fig. 11A**). The MTCs-A represents a cumulative surface up to  $\sim 910 \text{ km}^2$  with  
597 thicknesses  $\sim 7 \text{ m}$  on average, reaching  $\sim 105 \text{ m}$  in the northern part (**Fig. 11B**).

598 We observed a lateral evolution of MTC-A from west to east (**Fig. 11B**): in **zone (1)** near the  
599 head of the Viteaz Canyon. Large MTDs initiated along the flanks of the canyon axial talweg;  
600 in **zone (2)**, along the western side of canyon SC1. Small MTDs initiated along the canyon edge  
601 forming new elongated head scarps associated with transported lobate deposits. Their mean  
602 thickness is  $\sim 5 \text{ m}$  with a maximum of  $\sim 26 \text{ m}$  (**Fig. 11B**). In **zone (3)**, along the eastern side of  
603 canyon SC1, MTDs initiated along the canyon edge, reactivating older head-scarp incisions  
604 (**Fig. 8**). In these areas, MTC-A represents  $60 \text{ km}^2$  of the MTC-A total surface and are  
605 characterised by low mean thicknesses of  $\sim 6 \text{ m}$  with a maximum of  $\sim 28 \text{ m}$  (**Fig. 11B**). The  
606 sediment movements of MTC-A in **zones (2)** and **(3)** show two major flow directions: a north-  
607 west/south-east flow on the western-headwall of canyon SC1 and a north-east/south-west flow  
608 on the eastern headwall of canyon SC1.

609 Finally, in **zone (4)**, along canyon SC2, a major MTD related to the failure stage A (**Fig. 11A**)  
610 has been mapped on both sides of the canyon. It seems to initiate along the shelf edge. This  
611 MTD represents more than 80% of the total MTC-A surface with a regional extent of  $760 \text{ km}^2$ .  
612 It is  $45 \text{ km}$  long, and  $23 \text{ km}$  wide, and is bounded at the south by canyon SC1 levees and  
613 progressively disappears northward (**Fig. 11A**). MTC-A can be subdivided (**Fig. 11B**) into  
614 different sediment distribution areas: upslope, starting from the shelf break at  $-190 \text{ m}$ , MTC-A  
615 displays large thickness patches, (**Fig. 11B**, in yellow). Further downslope, accumulation zones  
616 consist of thinner lenticular units, infilling pre-existing depression morphologies inherited from  
617 an underlying regional MTD (described by Marsset et al., 2022) (**Fig. 10C**). Seaward,  
618 accumulation decreases between  $-700 \text{ m}$  and  $-1200 \text{ m}$  water depth, thinning drastically between  
619  $-1200 \text{ m}$  and  $-1500 \text{ m}$ , and totally disappearing under  $1500 \text{ m}$  water depth (**Fig. 11B**).





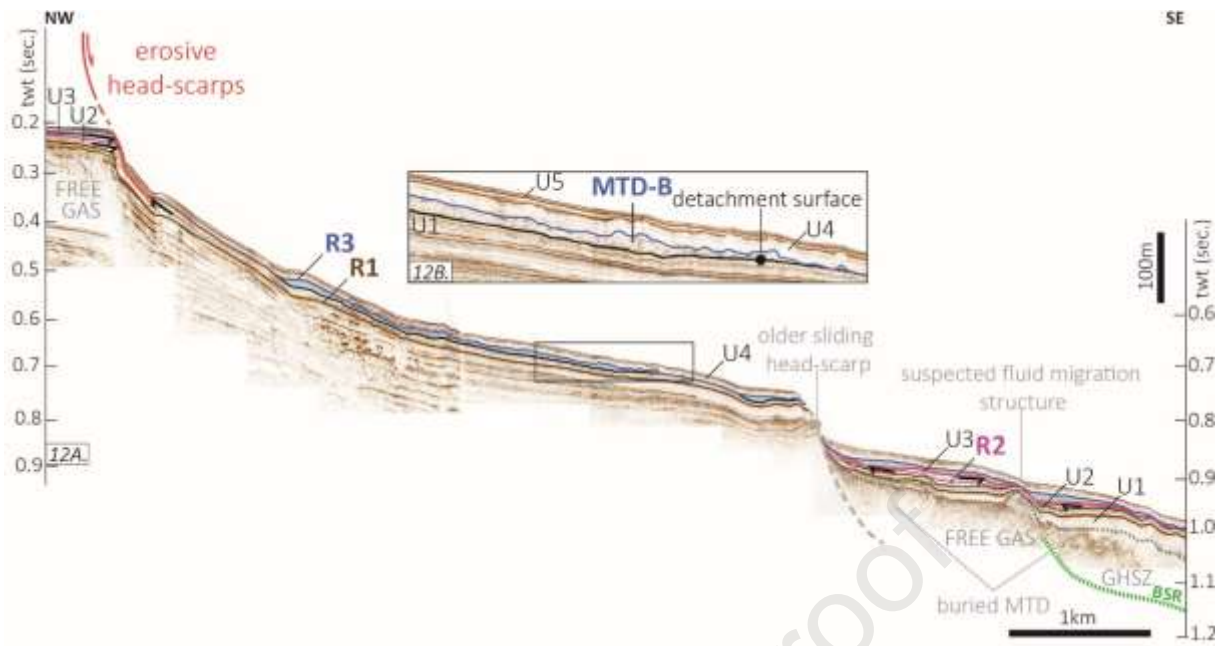
620

621 Figure 11: 11A. Spatial distribution of MTDs related to the failure event A (coloured in pink). The major head-  
 622 scarps are digitalized in red (bold lines). Dashed black lines and white arrows represent respectively major and  
 623 local directions of mass wasting. 11B. Isochron map of MTC-A obtained by subtracting the basal surface and the  
 624 top of MTC-A. The thickness colour-scale is in metres.  $T_{wtt}$  has been converted in depth considering a water  
 625 velocity of 1480 m/s provided from in-situ measurements. White lines in Figure 11B. represent the limits of  
 626 individual MTDs within MTC-A defined by Figure 11A. Information about interpolation calculation are detailed  
 627 in the section 4.2. Thickness and surface models of MTCs.

### 628 3.1.2. Failure stage B

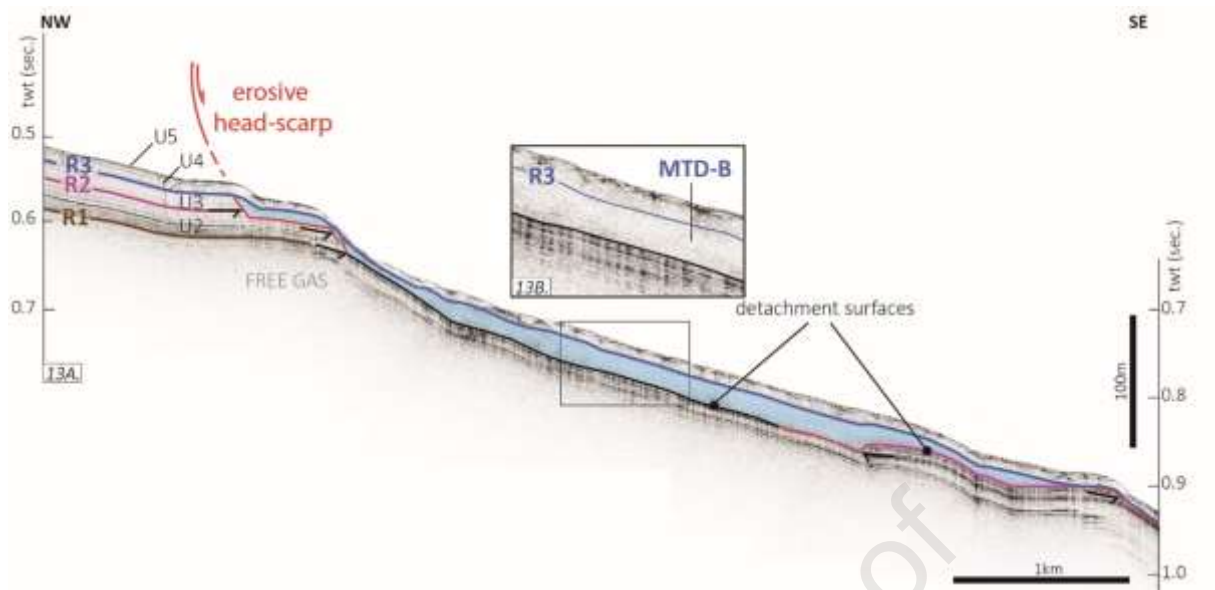
#### 629 3.1.2.1. Main characteristics on seismic and sub-bottom profiler data

630 Failure event B consists of several synchronous MTDs that occurred during the E-LGP,  
 631 between 26,600 and 25,200 cal a BP, sealed by R3 (Fig. 6). MTC-B are characterised by  
 632 discontinuous and low-amplitude reflectors with chaotic configuration in MCS and deep-towed  
 633 data (Figs. 4 and 12), and by transparent responses in the sub-bottom profiler (Fig. 13). The  
 634 basal surfaces of these MTDs (Fig. 4) incise U3, and U2 as attested by the presence of erosional  
 635 truncations in the head-scarp zone (Figs. 12A and 13). The top of these MTDs can be irregular  
 636 as shown in Figure 12B.



637

638 *Figure 12: Typical upslope to downslope evolution, related to the failure stage B, that occurred between 26,600*  
 639 *and 25,200 cal a BP, on a MCS line n°mig033b and a VHR deep-towed seismic line n° PL01PR03. Location of*  
 640 *MCS and VHR deep-towed seismic lines locations are reported in Figure 3B. 12A.: Upslope, near the shelf-edge*  
 641 *and downslope, near inherited head-scarps, the base of MTC-B is erosive (underlined in red, erosional truncations*  
 642 *represented by black arrows). Laterally, the basal surface of MTC-B evolves to a stratigraphic detachment layer,*  
 643 *characterised by a conform and continuous reflector (basal surface underlined in black). This MTC is*  
 644 *characterised by chaotic facies in comparison with non-affected bedded sediment succession, as showed in the*  
 645 *insert 12B. Seismic units and regional reflectors are labelled U(X) and R(X) respectively, according to the typology*  
 646 *defined in Figure 4C.*



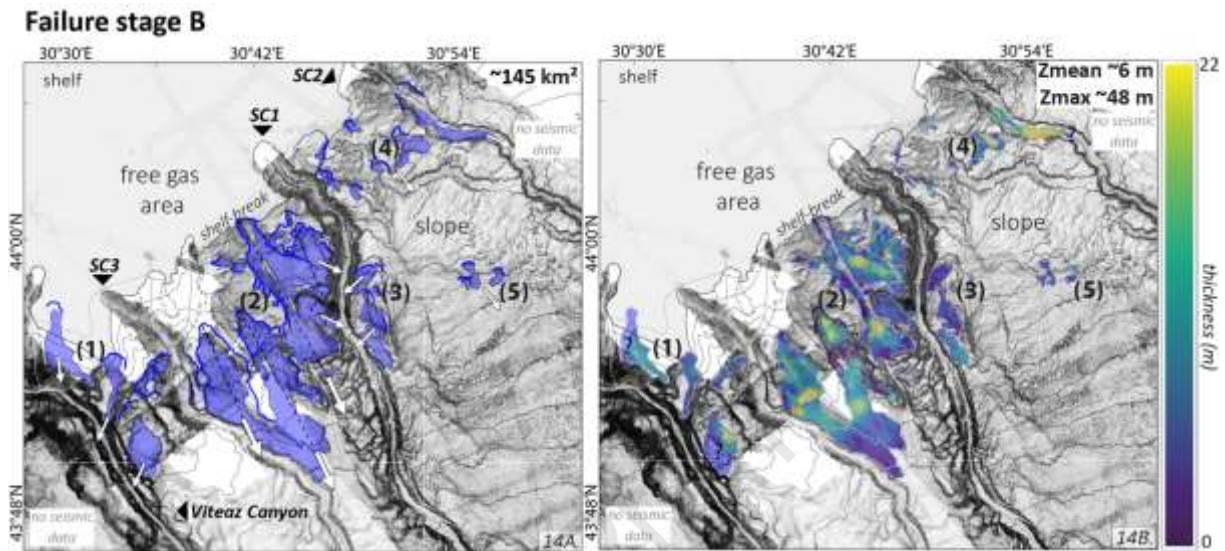
647

648 *Figure 13: Typical upslope to downslope evolution, related to the failure stage B, that occurred between 26,600*  
 649 *and 25,200 cal a BP, on a VHR sub-bottom profile (SBP) n° GH2-SDS-028B. SBP location is reported in Figure*  
 650 *3B. Upslope, near the shelf edge and downslope, near inherited highs, the base of MTC-B is erosive (underlined*  
 651 *in red, erosional truncations represented by black arrows). Laterally, the basal surface of MTC-B evolves to a*  
 652 *stratigraphic detachment layer, characterised by a conform and continuous reflector (basal surface underlined in*  
 653 *black). This MTC is characterised by transparent facies in comparison with non-affected bedded sediment*  
 654 *succession, as showed in the insert 13B. Seismic units and regional reflectors are labelled U(X) and R(X)*  
 655 *respectively, according to the typology defined in Figure 4C.*

### 656 3.1.2.2. Spatial distribution and thicknesses

657 MTC-B affect the upper slope domain between 200 m and 700 m water depth and represent a  
 658 cumulative surface of ~145 km<sup>2</sup> of reworked sediments (**location and extension in Fig. 14A**).  
 659 Most MTC-B failures initiate along the shelf edge or the very upper slope. Some of them initiate  
 660 along SC1 and Viteaz canyons. A few of them (labelled **(5)** in **Figure 14A**) initiate in the middle  
 661 slope domain. In most cases, they form a series of individual landslides, the upper part of which  
 662 is narrow and evolves into a lobed landslide mass. The associated MTDs are ~6 m thick on  
 663 average, reaching 48 m locally (**Fig. 14B**). Close to 90% of the MTC-B total surface is situated  
 664 along the Viteaz, SC1, SC3 canyon edges (**zones (1), (2) and (3) in Figure 14A**). There,  
 665 associated slope failures consist either in individual neo-formed head scarps, that highly incised

666 the seafloor between 200 m and 450 m water depth (**zones (2) in Fig. 14A**), or large inherited  
 667 head scarps located on the north Viteaz-Canyon flank (**zone (1) in Fig. 14A**) (**Figs. 12 and 13**).  
 668 In the north of SC1 canyon edge, the failure event B did not generate massive MTDs contrary  
 669 to the failure event A.



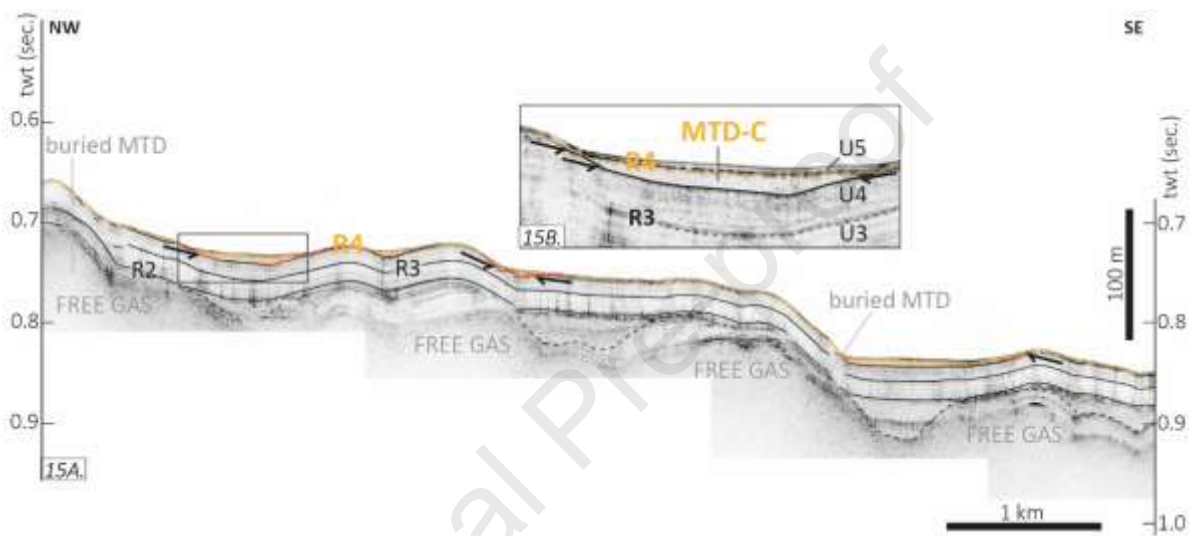
670  
 671 *Figure 14: 14A. Spatial distribution of MTDs related to the failure event C (coloured in blue). The major head-*  
 672 *scarps are digitalized in blue (bold lines). Dashed black lines and white arrows represent respectively major and*  
 673 *local directions of mass wasting. 14B. : Isochron map of MTC-B obtained by subtracting the basal surface and*  
 674 *the top of MTC-B. The thickness colour-scale is in metres. Twtt has been converted in depth considering a water*  
 675 *velocity of 1480 m/s provided from in-situ measurements. White lines in Figure 14B. represent the limits of lateral*  
 676 *extension of MTC-B defined by the Figure 14A. Information about interpolation calculation are detailed in the*  
 677 *section 4.2. Thickness and surface models of MTCs.*

### 678 3.1.3. Failure stage C

#### 679 3.1.2.1. Main characteristics on seismic and sub-bottom profiler data

680 The failure event C is the last to occur in the study area, between 15,800 cal a BP and 8,080 cal  
 681 a BP (**Fig. 6**). It resulted in several synchronous very thin MTDs that truncated surficial  
 682 sediment layers (**Figs. 4 and 15**). MTC-C, related to failure event C, are overlain by the thin  
 683 bedded unit **U5** (0-0.4 mbsf) (**Fig. 15**), which constituted the last and more recent deposits in

684 the study area (Soulet et al., 2011a; Martinez Lamas et al., 2020), equivalent to marine Unit I  
 685 described by Ross and Degens, (1974). MTC-C are sealed by reflector **R4**, (**Figs. 4 and 15**) a  
 686 strong and enhanced reflector in the sub-bottom profiler data (**Fig. 15**), which corresponds to  
 687 Sapropel deposits (Unit II from Ross and Degens, 1974) dated to  $8,080 \pm 250$  cal a BP (Soulet  
 688 et al., 2011a) (**Fig. 6**). The basal surface of MTC-C MTDs is erosional, as attested by the  
 689 presence of erosive truncation incising **U4** (**Fig. 15**).

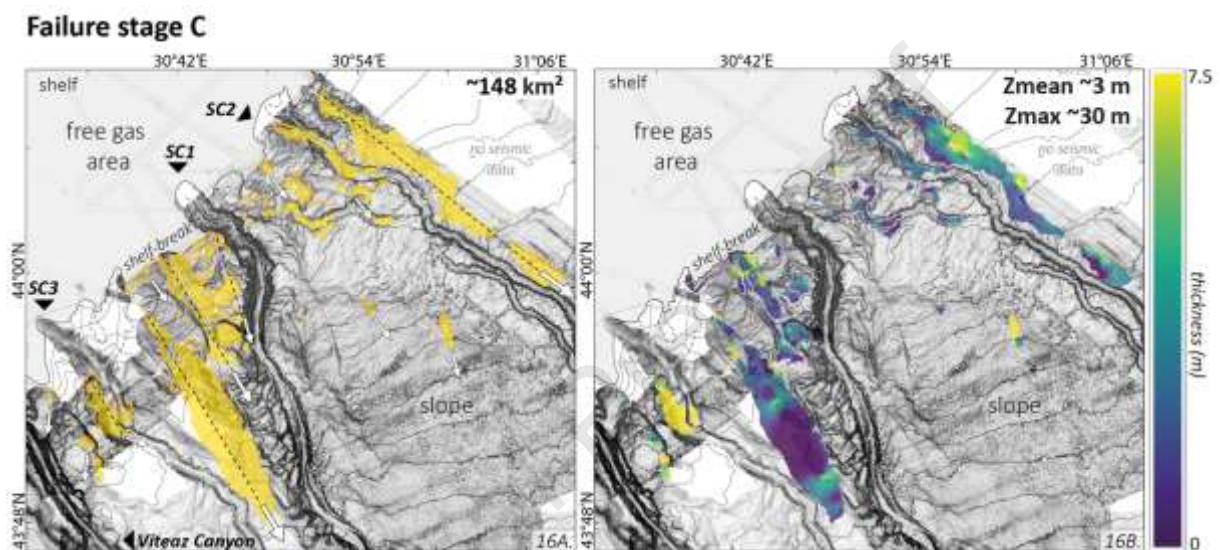


690  
 691 *Figure 15: Typical upslope to downslope evolution, related to the failure stage C that occurred between 15,800*  
 692 *and 8,080 cal a BP, on a VHR sub-bottom profile (SBP) n° GH2-SDS-047A. SBP location is reported in Figure*  
 693 *3B. 15A.: The base of MTC-C is, depending on areas either erosive (underlined in red, erosional truncations*  
 694 *represented by black arrows), either it evolves to a stratigraphic detachment layer, characterised by a conform*  
 695 *and continuous reflector (basal surface underlined in black). This MTC is characterised by transparent facies in*  
 696 *comparison with non-affected bedded sediment succession, as shown in the insert 15B. Notice that this MTC-C is*  
 697 *the thinnest that we mapped (3 m in average). It is only visible on SBP data. Seismic units and regional reflectors*  
 698 *are labelled U(X) and R(X) respectively, according to the typology defined in Figure 4C.*

### 699 3.1.2.2. Spatial distribution and thicknesses

700 The major part of scar failures associated with MTC-C occurred between the shelf break and  
 701 ~700 m water depth for the deepest head scarp (**Fig. 16A**). They are associated to elongated  
 702 MTDs, some of them following canyon paths (along SC2, SC3 and canyons imprinted in

703 bathymetry between SC1 and SC2) (**Fig. 16A**). In many cases, MTC-C slope failures  
 704 reactivated older ones.  
 705 No major MTD related to this stage has been identified directly on the flank of the Danube-  
 706 Viteaz Canyon contrary to MTC-A and MTC-B failure events (**Figs. 11 and 14**). MTC-C  
 707 represents a total surface of  $\sim 148 \text{ km}^2$  (**location and extension in Fig. 16A.**), with a thickness  
 708 of  $\sim 3 \text{ m}$  on average, reaching  $\sim 30 \text{ m}$  in the south SC1 canyon edge (**Fig. 16B**).



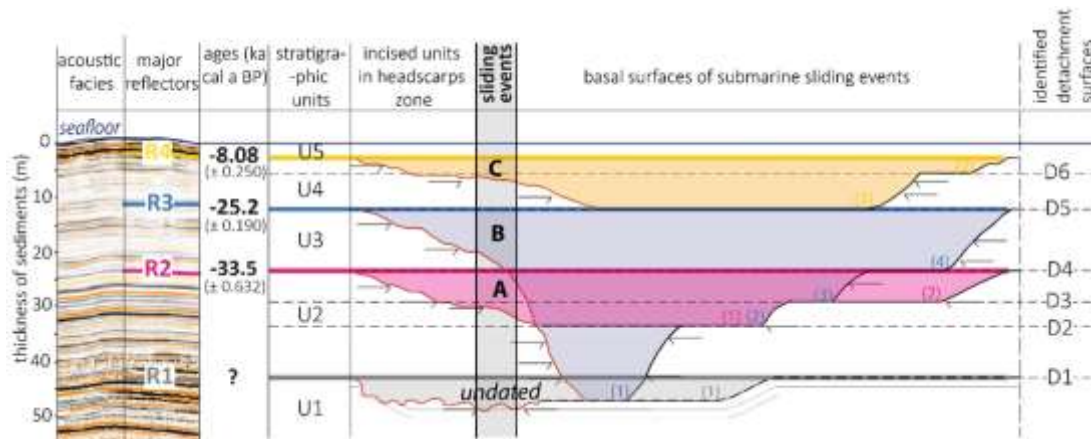
709  
 710 *Figure 16: 16A. Spatial distribution of MTDs related to the failure event C (coloured in yellow). The major head-*  
 711 *scarps are digitalized in yellow (bold lines). Dashed black lines and white arrows represent respectively major*  
 712 *and local directions of mass wasting. 16B : Isochron map of MTC-C obtained by subtracting the basal surface*  
 713 *and the top of MTC-C units. The thickness colour-scale is in metres. Twtt has been converted to depth considering*  
 714 *a water velocity of 1480 m/s provided from in-situ measurements. White lines in Figure 16B. represent the limits*  
 715 *of lateral extension of MTC-C defined by the Figure 16A. Information about interpolation calculation are detailed*  
 716 *in the section 4.2. Thickness and surface models of MTCs.*

## 717 2.4. Characterising MTD basal surfaces

718 MTD basal surfaces evolve laterally for all MTDs. Except for the failure zones, where erosional  
 719 truncations of underlying sediments are clearly discernible (**Erosive head-scarps in Figs. 9,**  
 720 **10A, 12, 13 and 15**), MTD basal surfaces always evolve to conformable surfaces along specific  
 721 stratigraphic planes. In seismic data, they correspond to continuous high-amplitude reflections

722 **(Figs. 9, 10B, 12, 13, and 15)**. Six major MTD basal surfaces have been identified, and their  
723 extension has been tracked in the study area; they are labelled **D1, D2, D3, D4, D5** to **D6** as  
724 represented in **Figure 17** along a schematic profile view. The deepest, **D1** served as a  
725 detachment layer during the failure event B (**Fig. 17**). **D2** and **D3** acted as detachment layers  
726 for failure events MTC-A and MTC-B. **D4** (i.e. **R2**) and **D5** (i.e. **R3**) were activated respectively  
727 by the failure events of MTC-B and MTC-C. Finally, **D6** was used as a detachment layer for  
728 the surficial failure event C (**Fig. 17**). Regarding coring information (**Fig. 6**), **D1, D2** and **D3**  
729 were not reached by GAS-CS01 core. **D4** corresponds to **R2**, located at 0.045 s Twtt on the  
730 seismic section (**Fig. 5**); it seems to correspond to the top of a pluri-centimetre scale sandy  
731 layer, at the interface with a grey-clay sequence, that is to say a high permeability layer below  
732 a lower permeability layer. **D5** corresponds to **R3** collected at 0.014 s Twtt (i.e. 10.5 mbsf)  
733 which seems to be associated with millimetre-scale laminated greenish-grey clay facies with  
734 scattered organic matter and shell fragments. Finally, **D6** is located in the Red Layer interval  
735 (**Fig. 6**) between 0.33 s Twtt and 0.328 s Twtt (i.e. between 3.5 to 5.2 mbsf) which corresponds  
736 to a series of four individualised intervals of reddish-brown clays and are thought to represent  
737 the sedimentary imprints of the meltwater inputs that occurred during Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1)  
738 (Soulet et al., 2013).

739 Regarding the relation between these slope failures and the fluid system in the western Black  
740 Sea margin, we remarked that nearly all landslides initiated above the present-day GHSZ (**Figs.**  
741 **11, 14, 16**). We also observed that the basal shear surfaces are particularly surficial and  
742 activated along stratigraphic intervals located above the top of the free-gas domain, well  
743 identified in seismic data by an extended acoustic blanking zone (*free gas* in **Figs. 9, 10A, 12,**  
744 **13 and 15**).



745

746 *Figure 17: Diagram representing the chronology of the different failure events in the study area and details of*  
 747 *units and basal stratigraphic detachment surfaces identified on seismic data. Note that it's a schematic view of the*  
 748 *entire study area. Reflectors R(X) correspond to the first deposits non-affected by successive landslides and give*  
 749 *the maximum age of the failure event (i.e. Figs. 4 and 6). Basal surfaces are represented by erosive surfaces in the*  
 750 *failure areas which erode the seismic units U(X). Identified reflectors D(X) act as detachment surfaces along*  
 751 *stratigraphic planes, and may have activated several times for different failure events ; In this case, orders (small*  
 752 *numbers) are assigned for each detachment plan with corresponding slide colour. For example, D2 can be used*  
 753 *as detachment plane firstly during the failure event A (1) and later somewhere else by the failure event B (2). Six*  
 754 *major stratigraphic detachment planes have been identified in the study area. Note that some of them, such as D4*  
 755 *and D5, correspond to equivalent R(2) and R(3). The ages correspond to the dating of R2, R3, R4 extracted from*  
 756 *core GAS-CS01 (Fig. 6).*

## 757 6. DISCUSSION

### 758 2.1. Uncertainties in the slope failure model age

759 The slope failure model age presented in this study considers well-constrained dating  
 760 established on core GAS-CS01 by Martinez-Lamas et al., (2020). We have taken account of the  
 761 uncertainties that may persist due to the vertical correlation between geophysical data  
 762 (plurimetric for MCS to sub-metric resolution for deep-towed and sub-bottom profiler data) and  
 763 sediment coring data (millimetre resolution) and we cannot exclude small shifts in our  
 764 correlation (max. 50 cm, which is the vertical resolution of sub-bottom profiler data). However,  
 765 we are confident in the correlation we propose since the enhanced acoustic response of



766 reflectors **R2**, **R3**, and **R4**, which sealed and dated the successive MTCs (**Fig. 4**), seems to be  
767 correlated with sediment lithological changes provided by the lithofacies log which is well-  
768 identified on core GAS-CS01 (**Fig. 6**). We considered a maximum error of 50 cm and thus ~150  
769 yr for the age of MTC-A, <500 yr for the age of MTC-B (see age model and core length on  
770 Figure 6). The age of MTC-C is constrained by the absolute age of Sapropel.  
771 Overall, these minimum and extended time frames provide sufficient information to consider  
772 the possible links between GH dissociation and slope-failure stages (next section). Indeed,  
773 MTC-A and MTC-B clearly occurred during the low sea-level stage associated with the E-LGP  
774 (**Fig. 18**) and MTC-C occurred during the complex phase of reconnexion between the Black  
775 Sea and Mediterranean Sea (**Fig. 18**).

## 776 **2.2. Preconditioning factors**

### 777 3.1.1. Role of thin permeable layers in gas storage

778 The distribution of gas flares observed in the water column of the study area is generally in  
779 agreement with the extent of free-gas areas, outside the GHSZ, (Popescu et al., 2007 and  
780 Riboulot et al., 2017), between the shelf domain and the upper slope down to 660 m water depth  
781 (**Free gas domain in Fig. 2**). Here, free-gas seepages occur along a complex fault system that  
782 extends across the shelf domain, and along discontinuities and deformation areas, especially  
783 canyons and older heads-scarp incisions (Riboulot et al., 2017, Hillman et al., 2018b) (**Fig. 2**).  
784 On the presented seismic data (**Figs. 9, 10, 12, 13, and 15**), the gas appears as acoustic blanking  
785 domains as already described by Hillman et al. (2018b), Riboulot et al. (2017) and Ker et al.  
786 (2019) (**Figs. 9, 10A, 12, 13, and 15**), or vertical gas-migration structures (Hillman et al.,  
787 2018b).

788 The formation of transient gas reservoirs in mud-confined and coarse-grained units has been  
789 described as a factor favouring submarine instabilities or sediment softening in pockmark fields,

790 as investigated in the Norwegian margin (Plaza-Faverola et al., 2010), in the South China Sea  
791 (Sun et al., 2012), and the Nigerian margin (Riboulot et al., 2013).

792 Based on seismic data and sediment core information, we were able to define several possible  
793 transient gas-storage zones in the study area, characterised in seismic data by very reflective  
794 surfaces and positioned along stratigraphic planes (**Figs. 9, 10, 12, 13 and 15**). Given the  
795 position of the identified MTC detachment planes **D4** (i.e. R2) **D5** (i.e. R3), and **D6** (**Figs. 6**  
796 **and 17**), the potential gas-storage zone in core succession corresponds either: to sandy layers  
797 at the base of the core (interval between 29 to 32 mbsf), along beds with shell fragments  
798 (interval between 5 to 22 mbsf), or, to organic matter-rich layers (that may form a source of  
799 biogenic gas) trapped within the reddish-brown clays (interval between 3.5 to 5.2 mbsf) (Soulet  
800 et al., 2013) (**Fig. 6**). These layers are generally localised between clay-rich less permeable  
801 layers, that possibly played the role of impermeable caprock and trapped quantities of free gas,  
802 as already proposed elsewhere by Dugan (2012), Chatterjee et al. (2014), Plaza-Faverola et al.  
803 (2010), Sun et al. (2012), and Riboulot et al. (2013).

### 804 3.1.2. Climate forcing and high sedimentation rate

805 Correlating the initiation time of the three failure stages with the regional sea-level curve  
806 (Soulet et al., 2011a; Constantinescu et al., 2015) (**Fig. 18A**) has allowed us to reconstitute the  
807 chronology of the failure events in relation to the evolution of Black Sea environmental  
808 conditions.

809 The failure events A and B, dated to [33,500 ±632 cal a BP] and [26,600 ±189 cal a BP to  
810 25,200 ±190 cal a BP] respectively, occurred during the E-LGP (Constantinescu et al., 2015),  
811 when the Black Sea was a giant freshwater lake, and low-stand conditions dominated with a  
812 lake level ~100 m to 150 m below the present one, significantly reducing the Danube River  
813 mouth distance to the shelf edge (Deuser 1972; Soulet et al., 2010; Lericolais et al., 2011;  
814 Wegwerth et al., 2016), (**Fig. 18A**). Identification of rhythmic layering throughout the core

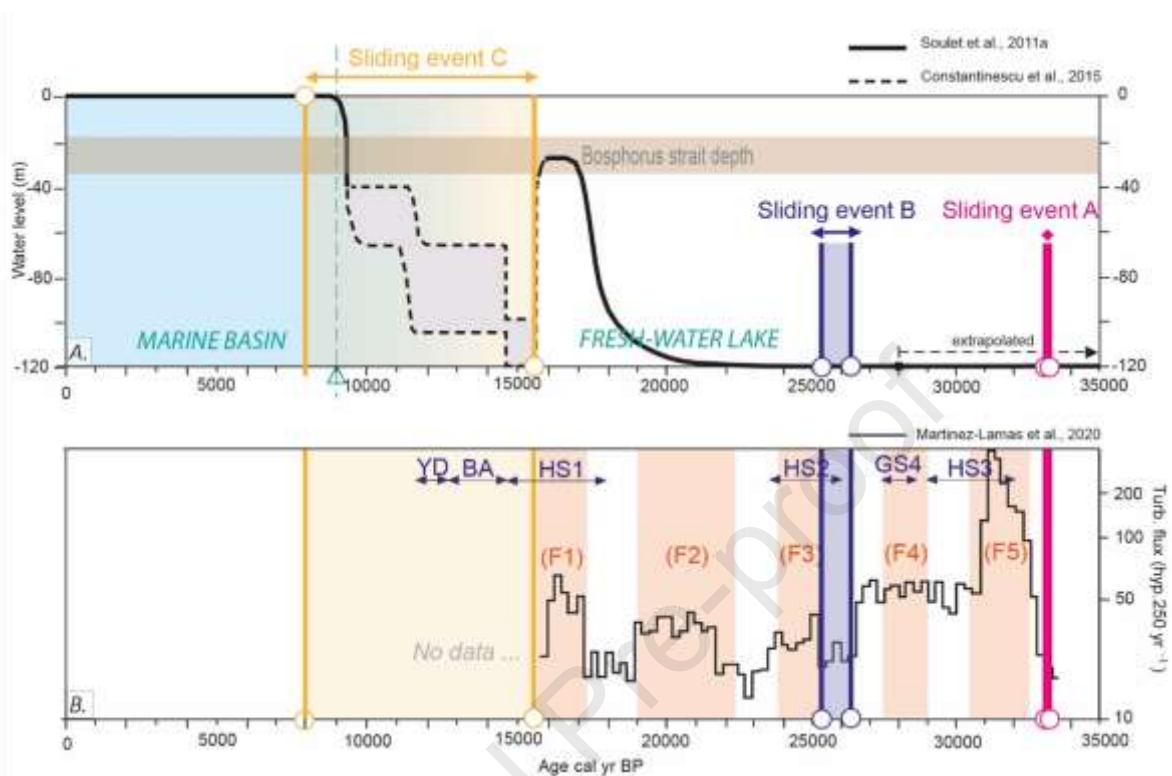
815 GAS-CS01 (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020) has provided insights into the river flood record in  
816 the western Black Sea over the ca. 33.5-15 ka interval. The authors define the main periods of  
817 increases in the frequency of hyperpycnal turbidite deposits ( $\text{hyp.250 yr}^{-1}$ ), each of 1.5-3 ka  
818 duration (Martinez-Lamas et al, 2020), and indicate enhanced surface melting of the Alpine  
819 Ice-Sheet during Heinrich Stadial 3 (ca. 32-29 ka), Greenland Stadial 4, and HS2 (ca. 26-23.5  
820 ka) (Martinez-Lamas, et al., 2020).

821 The failure events B and C seem to occur during or right after successive acceleration of river  
822 flood frequency at the Danube River mouth (“*F1, F2, F3, F4, F5*” in **Fig. 18B**). These flooding  
823 episodes suggest increasing Danube sediment discharge and could be considered as a climate  
824 forcing event to explain rapid sedimentation on the shelf edge during a stage of progradation,  
825 resulting in excess pore pressure constituting a preconditioning factor to failure.

826 An increase in sediment supply on the upper-slope domain is supported by a significantly high  
827 sedimentation rate, estimated at  $\sim 340 \text{ cm/ka}$  at the base of Core GAS-CS01 between 33,500  
828 and 29,000 cal a BP, with a maximum at 31,000 cal a BP, reaching  $900 \text{ cm/ka}$  (**Fig. S1 in**  
829 **Supplementary Material**). The failure event B occurred 900 yrs after the end of the flooding  
830 event (**F4**) (ca. 29-27.5 ka) which recorded  $>50 \text{ hyp.250 yr}^{-1}$  by the Danube River (Martinez-  
831 Lamas et al., 2020) and, attested by the location of the scar failures, initiated particularly close  
832 to the shelf break at -190 m water depth, from the north Viteaz Canyon flanks.

833 After failure event B, the sediment succession recorded in core GAS-CS01 indicates relatively  
834 low sediment rates on the upper slope at this period (between  $1.40 \text{ m/ka}$  and  $<1\text{m/ka}$ ) (**Fig. S1**  
835 **in Supplementary Material**) (**Fig. 14**). After 15.7 ka, the disconnection of the Danube River  
836 mouth and the Viteaz Canyon, in response to the sea-level rise, led the sediment depocenter to  
837 move landward on the shelf, and to a decrease in sediment supply on the upper slope  
838 (Constantinescu et al., 2015). The sediment accumulation rate recorded after 15,800 cal a BP  
839 at site GAS-CS01 ( $< 30 \text{ cm /ka}$ ) is very low. This could explain the relatively smaller thickness

840 of the individual MTDs (**Fig. 16A**) in comparison with massive MTDs that occurred during  
 841 failure stages A and B.



842  
 843 *Figure 18: 18A. The timing of failure event activation in comparison with the Black Sea-level curve since the E-*  
 844 *LGP; the sea-level curve is provided by Constantinescu et al. (2015), modified by Soulet et al. (2011a). They define*  
 845 *the lowstand period between -28 ka and -20 ka, with a sea-level of ~120 m below the present-day level. Sea-level*  
 846 *rise episode related to the Fennoscandian glaciers melting discharge between -17.2 ka and -15.7 ka (Soulet et al.,*  
 847 *2013; Constantinescu et al., 2015; Toucanne et al., 2009), followed by an important evaporation stage with a*  
 848 *possible last sea-level fall between -100 m and -120 m (Matsoukas et al., 2007, Soulet et al., 2011, Constantinescu*  
 849 *et al., 2015). Finally, the last sea-level rise in response to the last global interglacial warming occurred in the*  
 850 *upper Pleistocene and Holocene, induced by the reconnection of the Black Sea with the Mediterranean Sea. The*  
 851 *failure event A and failure event B occurred during the lowstand period. The failure event C, the youngest, is*  
 852 *synchronous with the lake-to-marine transition due to the last sea-level rise, when the Black Sea freshwater lake*  
 853 *evolved to an open marine basin environment through flooding of the Bosphorus strait. 18B. : The flood frequency*  
 854 *(Black indented curve), measured in previous study along the Core GAS-CS01 (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020) is*  
 855 *based on both the flood frequency and the Sediment Accumulation Rate (SAR) of the Danube River (Figure S1 in*  
 856 *Supplementary Material) interpreted as periods of enhanced flux of sediment-laden meltwater on the northwest*  
 857 *Black Sea margin. The vertical light orange bars highlight the timing for the F5 (32,500 to 30,500 cal a BP), F4*

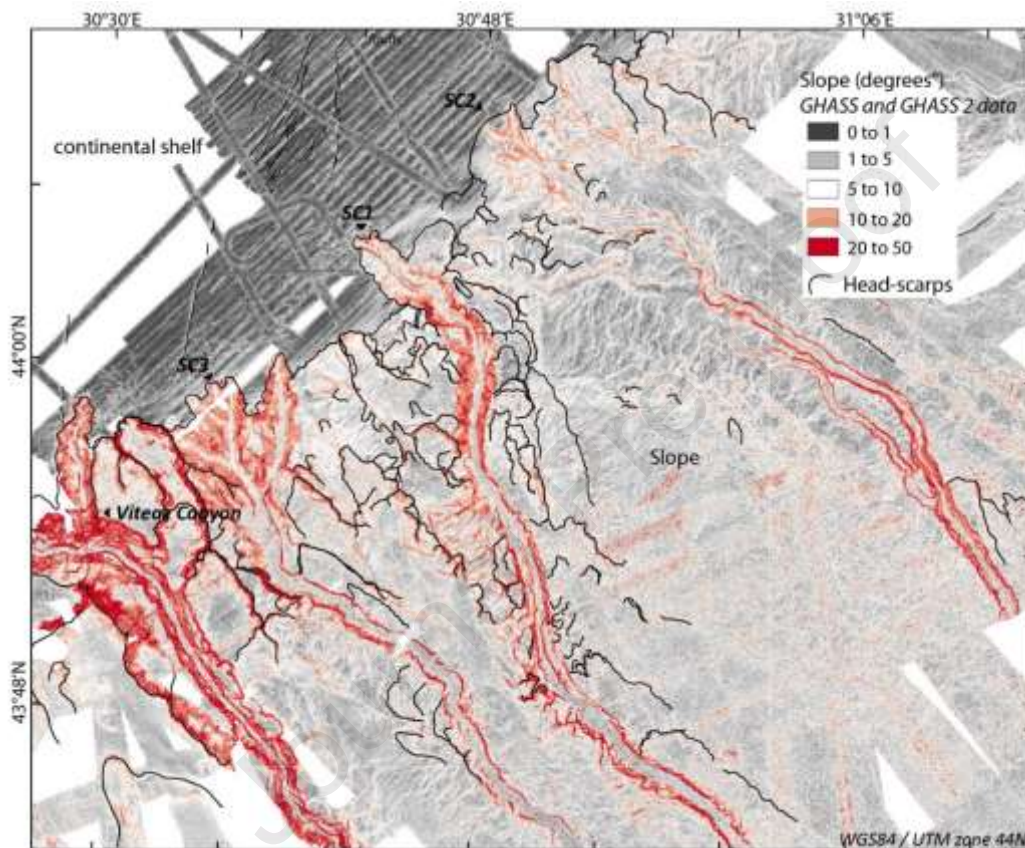
858 (29,000 to 27,500 cal a BP), F3 (25,300 to 23,800 cal a BP), F2 (22,300 to 19,000 cal a BP) and F1 (17,200 to  
859 15,700 cal a BP) river flood events, already investigated by Martinez-Lamas et al., (2020). HS refers to Heinrich  
860 Stadials; YD refers to the Younger Dryas cold event; BA refers to the Bølling-Allerød Interstadial; GS refers to  
861 the Greenland Stadials.

### 862 3.1.3. The effect of erosion through canyon incisions

863 Areas with steep slopes, such as those caused by submarine channels present in the Danube  
864 deep-sea fan, are more susceptible to slope failure than the surrounding areas (Kvalstad, 2007).  
865 Four canyons, including the Viteaz Canyon, SC1, SC2 and SC3 have deeply incised the seafloor  
866 along a north-west/south-east direction. With new chronological constraints, we firstly show  
867 that the deeper head scarps, which have incised present-day seafloor morphology mostly along  
868 the SC1, SC2, SC3 canyon edges (**Fig. 7**), are older than 33,500 cal BP. Supported by the fact  
869 that numerous head scarps are located close to the canyon headwalls and the shelf break, the  
870 effect of erosive processes and slope over-steepening should be significant on the initiation of  
871 landslides along the upper slope (**Fig. 19**). The slope value of the canyon flanks locally reaches  
872 25° between 200 m and 900 m water depths, where the axial incision is the most developed (Fig  
873 19 and Riboulot et al., 2017). Local high-inclination values, combined with the erosive flows  
874 generated at river mouths when sedimentation rates increase with intensification of river  
875 sediment supply (Mulder and Cochonat 1996), could favour the collapse of levees along  
876 submarine channels and canyon edges. Deep MTDs mapped in this study (**Fig. 7**) have already  
877 been assigned to failure processes (Hillman et al., 2018b), due to the erosive action of turbidity  
878 currents during the SC1, SC2 or SC3 canyon activity periods (Marsset et al., 2022). Popescu et  
879 al. (2004) suggest retrogressive slides along the western Black Sea submarine canyon edges,  
880 induced by successive slope destabilisation on the flanks.

881 Moreover, Miramontes et al. (2018) demonstrate that in the eastern margin of the Corsica  
882 Trough, affected by submarine instabilities, incision at the foot of the slope (canyon incision in

883 our case) highly favours the reduction of shear strength in sedimentary layers along canyon  
 884 flanks. The authors also indicate that increasing erosion at the foot of the slope induces lateral  
 885 propagation and lengthening of the shear zone along a specific layer; in our case, SC1, SC2,  
 886 and SC3 probably acted as active sediment pathways and were associated with increased bottom  
 887 hyperpycnal current intensities (Martinez-Lamas et al., 2020) during the E-LGP.



888  
 889 *Figure 19: Slope map of the north-western Black Sea margin, highlighting high slope angle along the different*  
 890 *canyons incisions. We can note the local high value left by the failure head-scarps. The location of the head-scarps*  
 891 *are represented with black lines.*

## 892 **2.3. Triggering factors**

### 893 3.1.1. The role of gas-hydrate dissociation on slope instability

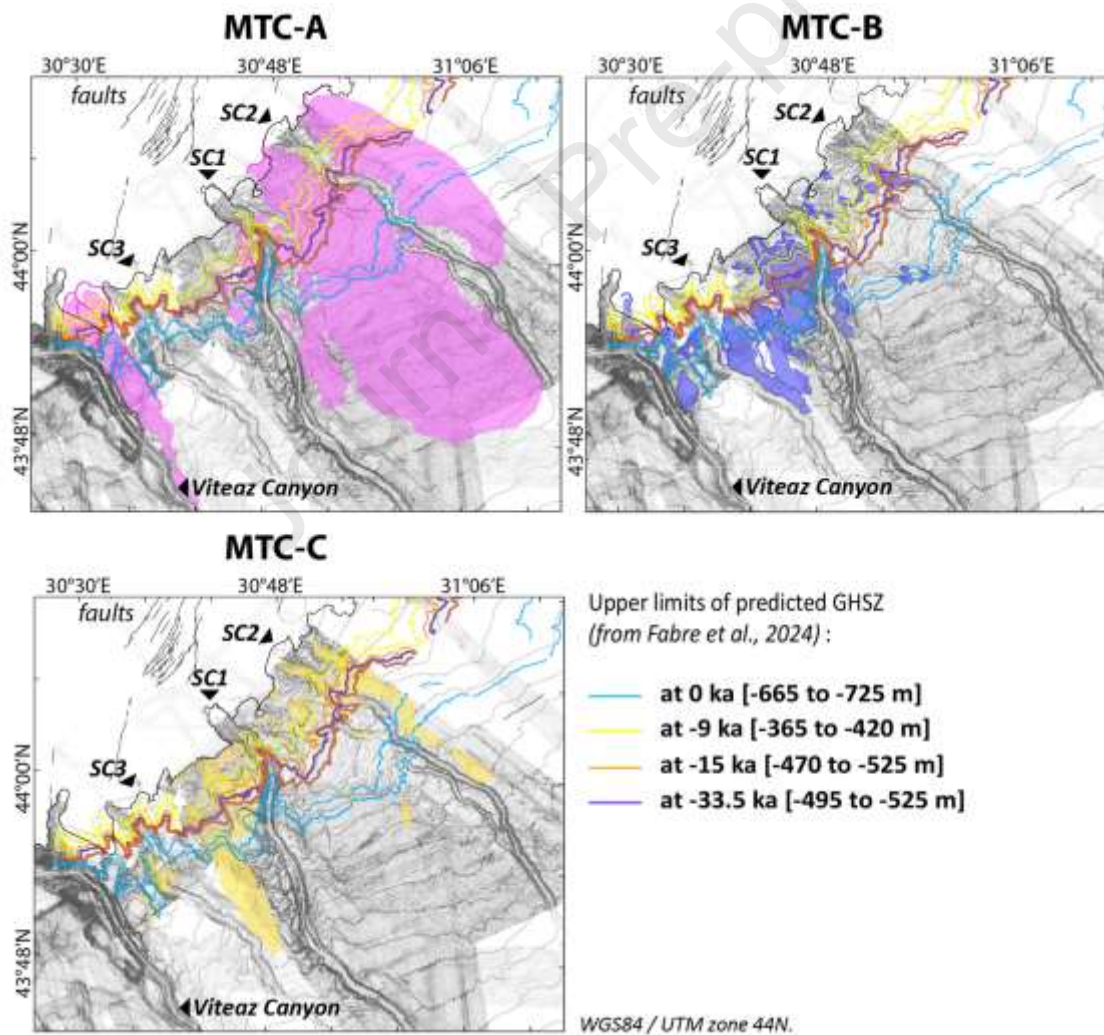
894 GH systems are highly sensitive to environmental changes (Kayen and Lee 1991; Dickens  
 895 2003; Clennell et al., 1999; Liu and Flemings, 2009; Phrampus and Hornbach, 2012; Ferré et

896 al., 2012; Davies et al., 2021). Recent evolution of Black-Sea pressure-temperature-salinity  
897 conditions has been demonstrated to trigger GH decomposition by reducing the GHSZ since  
898 the E-LGP (Fabre et al., 2024), and more particularly in response to sea-level variations,  
899 temperature warming (Popescu et al., 2006; Pape et al., 2011; Zander et al., 2017; Hillman et  
900 al., 2018a; Ker et al., 2019; Colin et al., 2020a), and salinity shifts (Riboulot et al., 2018).  
901 Additionally, Riboulot et al. (2018) show that recent salinisation of the Black Sea since the last  
902 reconnection with the Mediterranean Sea at -9 ka (Soulet et al., 2011a) has contributed to a  
903 major GH dissociation phase, that is still in progress. It is important to notice that salinity values  
904 dramatically changed between the fresh-water lake stage and the marine stage basin at -9 ka  
905 from 2 psu to 22 psu (Soulet et al., 2011a; Riboulot et al., 2018).

906 GH dissociation induces the build-up of excess pore pressure that affects in-situ mechanical  
907 properties of sediments and therefore promotes slope instability (Kayen and Lee 1991; Dugan  
908 and Flemings, 2000; Mienert et al., 2005, Talling et al., 2014; Elger et al., 2018; Liu et al.,  
909 2020). Geotechnical experiments, to characterise sediment behaviour in the context of GH  
910 decomposition (Sultan et al., 2004 and 2007), show that such a decomposition likely increases  
911 permeability in the initial stages. Then, an increase in compressibility induces a build-up in pore  
912 pressure at the base of low-permeability layers , thereby accompanying a decrease in-situ shear  
913 strength (Wheeler, 1988; Vanoudheusden et al., 2004; Sultan et al., 2004; 2007).

914 Since the E-LGP, GH dissociation has resulted in the seaward migration of the upper-  
915 termination of the GHSZ from its E-LGP position (defined between -33,5 ka and -20 ka),  
916 between - 495 m and - 525 m water-depth, to its current position, between -660 m and -725 m  
917 water depth (Fabre et al., 2024 and **Fig. 2**). To better understand the possible effects of GH  
918 dissociation on slope failure in the area, **Figure 18** shows the estimated age of our failure event  
919 in comparison with the evolution of the sea level of the Black Sea since the E-LGP  
920 (Constantinescu et al., 2015).

921 We have thus attempted to compare the zones where successive slides occurred with the  
 922 predicted paleo and current positions of the GHSZ. During the E-LGP, when low-stand  
 923 conditions prevailed, the major head scarps initiated on or above the pinch-out of the predicted  
 924 GHSZ, (**Fig. 20**), except for the three smallest MTDs (~0.5 to 3 km<sup>2</sup> each) which are associated  
 925 with failure stage B at -750 m water depth along a regional scarp (**Fig. 14A**). This implies that  
 926 failure events A and B initiated outside the GHSZ at the E-LGP, on the upper slope where free  
 927 gas prevailed in bearing sediments (**Fig. 20**). During the sea-level rise period (-15 and -9 ka),  
 928 failure event C occurred above or between the GHSZ upper limit during the E-LGP and the  
 929 current one (-660 m) (**Fig. 20**).



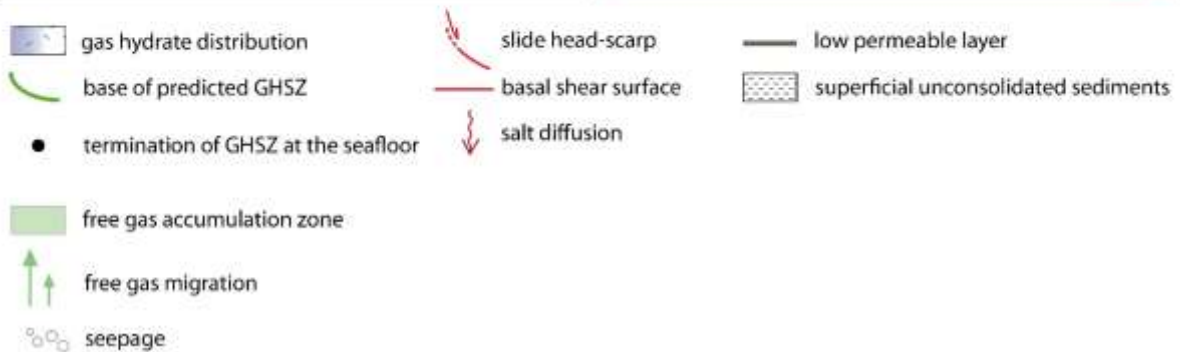
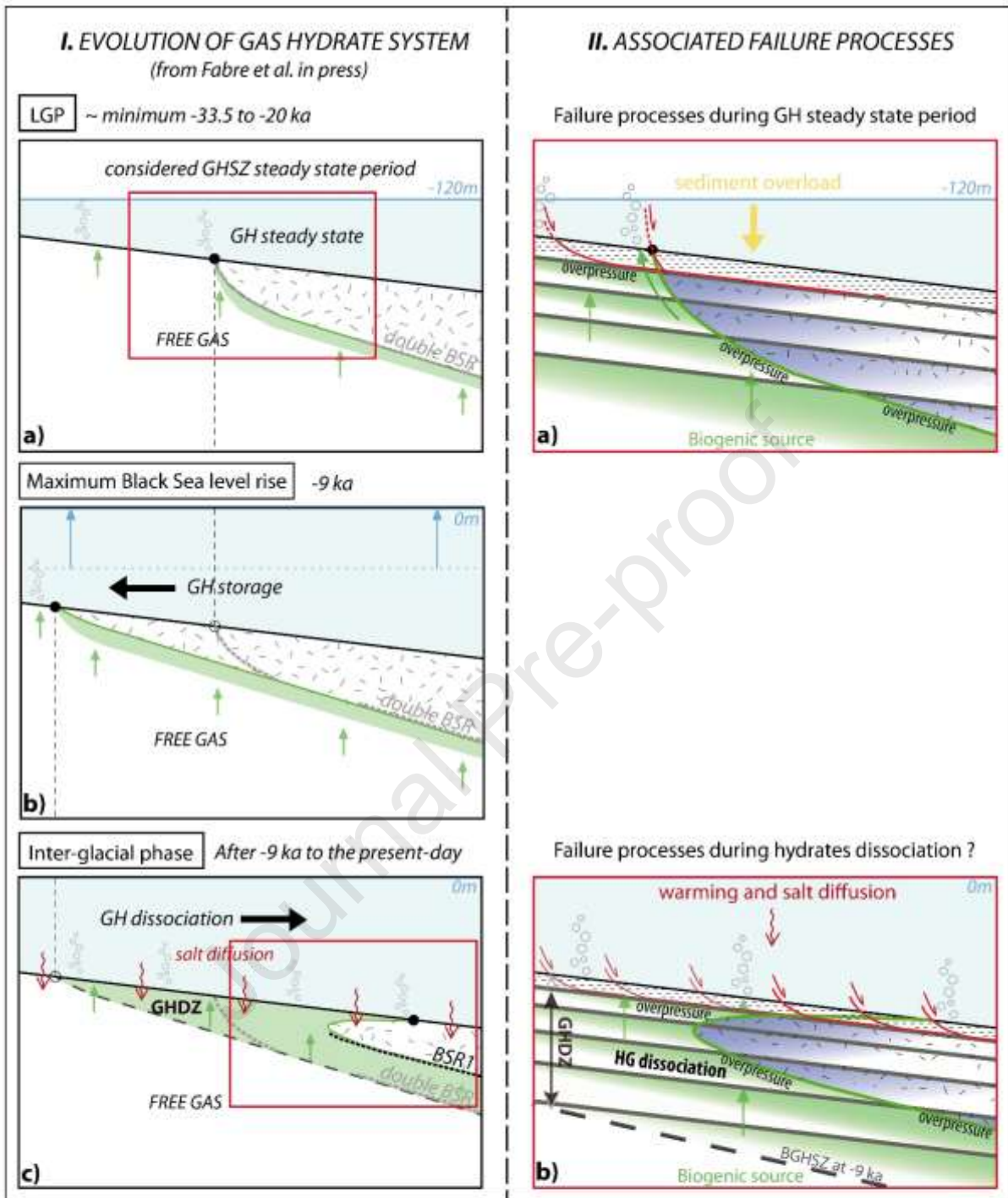
930

931 *Figure 20: Synthetic representation of the extent of landslides related to failure events A (pink), B (blue), and C*  
 932 *(yellow). The upper limits of predicted GHSZ, provided from Fabre et al. (2024) modelling, have been projected*



933 *on the bathymetry. The map indicates that excluding isolated landslides located along a regional scarp at ~700*  
934 *and 800 mbsl, all failure events activated at least above the upper limits of the predicted GHSZ, and inside the*  
935 *GHDZ defined between the E-LGP and the present-day.*

936 Finally, more recently, Fabre et al. (2024) modelled more comprehensively the evolution of the  
937 GHSZ from -33.5 ka to present-day in the study area using a dynamic 2D multi-parametric GH  
938 stability model developed by Sultan et al. (2010). These results combined with our landslide  
939 mapping (**Fig. 21**) show that (1) GH were stable during the E-LGP from -33.5 to -20 ka, i.e.  
940 during the initiation of stages A and B, (2) MTC-A and MTC-B mostly initiated in the free-gas  
941 domain and when occurring within the GHSZ, are extremely surficial in comparison with the  
942 depth of the BGHSZ (**Fig. 21**). Linking these MTCs to gas-hydrate dissociation is therefore not  
943 a convincing possibility. This modelling also shows that MTC-C initiates during a complex  
944 period of balancing of the GHSZ associated with the sea-level variations that occurred after -  
945 20 ka and the final reconnection of the Black Sea with the Mediterranean at - 9 ka (**Fig. 21**).  
946 Consequently, this stage C could be related to GH dissociation phases particularly the most  
947 dramatic one related to re-salinisation of the Black Sea. The major uncertainty in the exact  
948 timing of this last event prevents any definitive conclusion in terms of cause and effect. MTC-  
949 C is the thinnest MTC that we observed, rooted well above the successive modelled BGHSZ  
950 (**Fig. 21**).



952 *Figure 21: Conceptual model representing the evolution of the GHSZ since the last glacial period given by the*  
953 *position of a double BSR (from Fabre et al., 2024), and proposition of failure mechanisms to explain the failure*  
954 *stages A, B (II.a) and C (II.b).*

### 955 3.1.2. The effect of free gas

956 An increase in fluid overpressure in gas-hosting sediments can be a triggering factor of sediment  
957 deformations leading to failure initiation (Flemings et al., 2008; Lafuerza et al., 2009, 2012;  
958 Plaza-Faverola et al., 2011; Talukder, 2012; Berndt et al., 2012; Riboulot et al., 2013). Excess  
959 pore-pressure generation can originate from different external factors, related to: 1) rapid  
960 sedimentation especially during low-stand periods when sediment overload can compact gas-  
961 hosting sediments; 2) relative sea-level changes, during which the modification of hydrostatic  
962 pressure significantly affects the timing and periodicity of gas emissions (Sultan et al., 2020),  
963 particularly through the exsolution process which favours gas expulsion from sediments during  
964 the stages of sea-level fall. An increase in the gas volumes of fluid reservoirs and the formation  
965 of gas bubbles may have induced a local fluid pore-pressure increase and in turn the decrease  
966 in effective stress with possible consequences on surficial sediment softening (Lafuerza et al.,  
967 2009, 2012; Riboulot et al., 2013, 2019).

968 As gas exsolution following a drastic sea-level drop may have occurred between -17.2 ka and -  
969 15.7 ka (Soulet et al., 2013) (**Fig. 18A**), it is expected to have played a role in the latest failure  
970 stage C. Excess pore-pressure generation must also be considered as a triggering factor for  
971 landslides A and B which occurred during an acceleration of sediment accumulation rate (**Fig.**  
972 **18B and Fig. S1 in Supplementary Material**) particularly on the shelf edge and along canyon  
973 flanks during the supposed connection of the Viteaz Canyon with the Danube River.

974 Lastly, instabilities on canyon flanks may be facilitated by the high content of shallow gas as  
975 suggested by Riedel et al. (2021). In the study area, gas emissions are ubiquitous within a sector  
976 extending between 200 m and 1000 m water depths and reach a maximum density along the

977 canyon paths (**Fig. 2**).

### 978 3.1.3. Possible tectonic controls

979 Active tectonics and the release of seismic energy during earthquakes can cause slope instability  
980 (e.g. Pope et al., 2017). Based on an earthquake catalogue compilation by USGS (*United States*  
981 *Geological Survey* <https://earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/search/>), and SHARE  
982 (<http://www.share-eu.org>), we note that some earthquakes occurred in vicinity of the study area  
983 during the 1000-2022 period. Lower magnitude earthquakes ( $M=2.8$  to 4) were recorded closer  
984 to the shelf break on the Romanian outer shelf at a minimum distance of 20 km from the  
985 initiation zones. One event ( $M=4.4$ ) was recorded in the study area, on the slope domain, at  
986 1400 m water depth, 20 km from the initiation zone. Moderate earthquakes ( $M=3.7$ , 4.4 and  
987 4.6) occurred offshore the study area, in the lower slope at a minimum distance of 60 km from  
988 the initiation area. Additional higher magnitude events ( $M=4$  to 5.5) were recorded in the  
989 western Black Sea, particularly offshore Bulgaria and Ukraine, localised more than 100 km  
990 from the study area. Therefore, paleo-seismic activity can be considered as a possible triggering  
991 factor for the landslides observed and this could explain the synchronicity of failure during the  
992 same event.

993 Secondly, gravity tectonics have affected the study area. Pre-Oligocene gravity-driven faults  
994 described by Dinu et al. (2002, 2005), Tambrea et al. (2000), Konerding et al. (2010), Munteanu  
995 et al. (2011), Matenco et al. (2016) and evidenced by new geophysical data acquired during the  
996 GHASS-2 cruise (2021), intersect the seafloor. The extension of these faults on the western  
997 Black Sea outer shelf is very close to the identified MTD initiation zones (a few kilometres)  
998 (**Fig. 2**). They correspond to a very well-expressed set of SW-NE normal faults clearly visible  
999 on bathymetry and affecting recent sediments with vertical offsets in the order of a few metres  
1000 to tens of metres. Gravity tectonics and associated block re-adjustments and over-steepening  
1001 have been proposed to control the location of MTDs in many areas (Loncke et al., 2009; Reis

1002 et al., 2010; Brothers et al., 2013). In our case, the MTD initiation areas are not strictly located  
1003 along those faults, some of the landslides are close to faults, but others are much further away.  
1004 With these considerations alone, it is very difficult to draw conclusions on the role of paleo-  
1005 seismicity combined with tectonic activity on slope instabilities.

## 1006 **7. CONCLUSION**

1007 Analysis of multiresolution geophysical data correlated with a published core-derived model  
1008 age establish the first high-resolution mapping and dating of Pleistocene-Holocene MTDs that  
1009 occurred on the upper slope of Romanian Black Sea margin since the E-LGP. This study clearly  
1010 highlights that, despite robust environmental and slope failure model age since the E-LGP,  
1011 identifying landslide-controlling factors remains difficult; in many cases, different initiation  
1012 factors may interact.

1013 Many slope failures occur near the Danube-related canyons, in a domain where gas escapes and  
1014 GH dissociation are very active, arguing the link between both processes and eventual  
1015 associated risks. However, our study demonstrates that the response of sediments to gas hydrate  
1016 decomposition is far from being straightforward.

1017 - We show that the two major failure events occurred during a fresh-water lake low-stand  
1018 period close to the gas-hydrate occurrence zone but during steady-state GH stability  
1019 conditions. External factors, such as climate forcing and sea-level fluctuations in the  
1020 investigated period ranging between the end of the last low-stand period and the  
1021 beginning of the interglacial period, have led to significant hydrologic implications.  
1022 During the glacial period, sediment load delivered by the Danube River watershed could  
1023 have led to slope instability near the shelf edge and particularly for the two most massive  
1024 failure events (A and B). Canyon incision and slope over steepening along reactivated  
1025 canyons may also be a local preconditioning factor in generating large MTDs along the  
1026 north canyons. The effect of free gas could relate to fluid overpressure in transient

1027 stratigraphic reservoirs allowing the development of the observed stratigraphic  
1028 detachment planes.

1029 - The last instability stage age ranges between 15,800 and 8,080 cal BP, a period that  
1030 underwent severe environmental changes, with a short and abrupt drainage cycle of the  
1031 Fennoscandian Ice Sheet into the Black Sea watershed (17,200 - 15,700  $\pm$  300 cal a BP),  
1032 immediately followed by a sea-level drop and a more definitive reconnection and  
1033 salinisation at -9 ka (Soulet et al., 2011b). Several active combined factors could  
1034 therefore explain this latest failure event. The most likely being a re-adjustment of the  
1035 margin, during sea-level variations, implying re-activation of gravity-driven faults or  
1036 gas exsolution following the rapid sea-level fall, leading to free gas contained in  
1037 sediments to be expelled to the seafloor which could have generated softening and  
1038 destabilisation of very surficial layers. The area affected by hydrate dissociation since  
1039 the E-LGP is far from the landslide initiation zones.

1040 For all the scenarios cited above, the heterogeneity of the sediment succession is probably also  
1041 a key preconditioning factor that controls the formation of gas-transient reservoirs in buried  
1042 sediments. We propose that gas is stored preferentially inside coarse-grained layers with  
1043 relatively high permeability, explaining the systematic activation of failure events along very  
1044 surficial and specific layers.

1045 In contrast to many models predicting failure and sliding along the BGHSZ, the correlation of  
1046 our chrono-stratigraphic study with a recent spatio-temporal dynamic modelling of the  
1047 evolution of the GHSZ since the E-LGP, shows that the basal shear surfaces of the landslides  
1048 are very surficial inside and especially outside the GHSZ. The free-gas/hydrate interface did  
1049 not act as a failure surface. This study allows us to definitively set aside a sudden scenario in  
1050 the case of gas hydrate dissociation that we might have envisaged for this period of major  
1051 environmental change and leads us to minimise the *Clathrate gun* hypothesis (Kennett et al.,

1052 2003), which argues for a massive gas emission directly into the ocean, and a predisposition of  
1053 slope sediment instabilities.

## 1054 **8. DATA AVAILABILITY**

1055 Data sets used in the current study were acquired during the GHASS (2015) and GHASS-2  
1056 expeditions (2021) and data sets are available in the GHASS cruise report  
1057 ([//archimer.ifremer.fr/doc/00300/41141/](http://archimer.ifremer.fr/doc/00300/41141/)) (Ker and Riboulot, 2015). They include  
1058 echosounding and multibeam bathymetry raw data, multi-resolution seismic full raw data  
1059 (MCS, SBP and SYSIF). Information relative to core GAS-CS01 is also available in open  
1060 access ([//doi.org/10.58006/bfbgx-127384](https://doi.org/10.58006/bfbgx-127384)). Three SYSIF profiles are freely available (Colin,  
1061 Ker and Marsset (2021): [//doi.org/10.17882/75247](https://doi.org/10.17882/75247)). Seismic data and sub-bottom profiler are  
1062 available in the following websites repository of GHASS cruise  
1063 (<https://doi.org/10.17600/15000500>) and GHASS-2 cruise  
1064 (<https://doi.org/10.17600/18001358>) respectively.

1065

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1080 **10. REFERENCES**

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## **HIGHLIGHTS**

- Three surficial failure stages since the end of the last glacial period
- Landslides all initiated in the free-gas domain outside the hydrate zone
- The role of hydrate dissociation on recent failure stages is not suspected
- Fluid overpressure, sediment overload, canyon incision and tectonics are probable factors involved in slope instabilities

Journal Pre-proof

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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