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# Widespread hydrothermal vents and associated volcanism record prolonged

## Cenozoic magmatism in the South China Sea

Fang Zhao<sup>a,b</sup>, Christian Berndt<sup>c</sup>, Tiago M. Alves<sup>d</sup>, Shaohong Xia<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Lin Li<sup>e</sup>, Lijun Mi<sup>f</sup>, Chaoyan Fan<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Key Laboratory of Ocean and Marginal Sea Geology, South China Sea Institute of Oceanology, Innovation Academy of South China Sea Ecology and Environmental Engineering, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou 510301, China

<sup>b</sup> Southern Marine Science and Engineering Guangdong Laboratory (Guangzhou), Guangzhou 511458, China

<sup>c</sup> GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Wischhofstrasse 1-3, 24148 Kiel, Germany

<sup>d</sup> 3D Seismic Lab. School of Earth and Ocean Sciences, Cardiff University, Main Building, Park Place, Cardiff, CF10 3AT, United Kingdom

<sup>e</sup> Petrochina Hangzhou Research Institute of Geology, Hangzhou, 310023, China

<sup>f</sup> CNOOC Zhanjiang Branch of China National Offshore Oil Corporation Limited, Zhanjiang 524057, China

\*shxia@scsio.ac.cn (Shaohong Xia)

### ABSTRACT

The continental margin of the northern South China Sea is considered to be a magma-poor rifted margin. This work uses new seismic, bathymetric, gravity and magnetic data to reveal how extensively magmatic processes have reshaped the latter continental margin. Widespread hydrothermal vent complexes and magmatic edifices such as volcanoes, igneous sills, lava flows and associated domes, are confirmed in the broader area of the northern South China Sea. Newly identified hydrothermal vents have crater- and mound-shaped surface expressions, and occur chiefly above igneous sills and volcanic edifices. Detailed stratigraphic analyses of volcanoes and hydrothermal vents suggest that magmatic activity took place in discrete phases between the Early Miocene and Quaternary. Importantly, the occurrence of hydrothermal vents close to the present seafloor, when accompanied by shallow igneous sills, suggest that fluid seepage is still active, well after main phases of volcanism previously documented in the literature. After combining geophysical and geochemical data, this study postulates that the extensive post-rift magmatism in the northern South China Sea is linked to the effect of a mantle plume over a long time interval. We propose that prolonged magmatism resulted in contact metamorphism in carbon-rich sediments, producing large amounts of hydrothermal fluid along the northern South China Sea. Similar processes are expected in parts of magma-poor margins in association with CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> and heat flow release into sea water and underlying strata.

**Keywords:** South China Sea; post-rift; magmatism; hydrothermal vents; mantle plume.

## 36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 The South China Sea records a multiphase evolution during the Cenozoic, from the onset of  
38 continental rifting to its final breakup stage (Briais et al., 1993; Franke, 2013; Li et al., 2014). It has  
39 been previously classified as a magma-poor rifted margin due to the relative absence of significant  
40 magmatism during continental rifting and breakup (Xu et al., 2012; Franke, 2013). However, several  
41 studies have identified intense post-rift volcanism in parts of the South China Sea in both seismic  
42 data and dredge samples (Tu et al., 1992; Zou et al., 1993; Hoang and Flower, 1998; Yan et al., 2006;  
43 Xu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Song et al., 2017; Xia et al.,  
44 2018; Gao et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020) (Fig. 1). Volcanic activity in the South China Sea occurred  
45 chiefly during the Neogene, suggesting the prolongation of magmatism beyond the continental-  
46 breakup stages (Fig. 1). In fact, igneous rocks in the South China Sea comprise two main types: (1)  
47 extrusive and intrusive complexes of variable extent (and volumes) occurring in different margin  
48 segments (Tu et al., 1992; Hoang and Flower, 1998; Yan et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2012; Wang et al.,  
49 2012; Yan et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Song et al., 2017; Xia  
50 et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020); and (2) massive and scattered high-velocity lower  
51 crustal bodies in ‘transitional’ crust separating continental and oceanic domains, not present  
52 everywhere in the South China Sea (Nissen et al., 1995; Yan et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2006; Wei et  
53 al., 2011; Lester et al., 2014; Pichot et al., 2014; Wan et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2019)  
54 (Fig. 1). Tomographic studies have also revealed low- velocity seismic anomalies beneath parts of  
55 the northern and western South China Sea, which are linked to elevated sub-surface temperatures in  
56 these regions (Lebedev and Nolet, 2003; Zhao, 2004; Huang et al., 2014; Xia et al., 2016; Xia et al.,  
57 2018). Evidence from geochemical data shows extensive Late Cenozoic OIB-type basalts in the South  
58 China Sea that are consistent with the presence of a mantle plume (Tu et al., 1992; Wang et al., 2012;  
59 Xu et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2014; Xia et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019).

60 Igneous intrusions are known to alter the sediments they intrude into, causing the release of  
61 hydrothermal fluids and gases produced in contact metamorphic aureoles (Bell and Butcher 2002;  
62 Jamtveit et al., 2004; Svensen et al., 2004; Planke et al., 2005; Svensen et al. 2006; Svensen et al.,  
63 2009; Aarnes et al., 2010; Lizarralde et al., 2010; Grove, 2013; Berndt et al., 2016; Iyer et al., 2017).  
64 Such alteration processes can lead to the formation of hydrothermal vent complexes by releasing  
65 gases and fluids trapped in sedimentary units and to the ocean and potentially the atmosphere  
66 (Jamtveit et al. 2004; Svensen et al. 2004; Hansen, 2006; Lizarralde et al., 2010; Berndt et al., 2016;  
67 Iyer et al., 2017; Roelofse et al., 2020).

68 Sediment core data from the northern South China Sea prove that fluid seepage took place  
69 several times during the Quaternary (Liang et al., 2017; Yan et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2018). The  
70 combination of  $^{14}\text{C}$  dating and seafloor observations at the Haima seeps reveal that fluid seepage  
71 occurred in multiple episodes since 6.1 ka b.p. (Liang et al., 2017). Fresh and raw authigenic  
72 carbonates, plus brecciated and re-cemented breccias recovered from the Dongsha area, suggest  
73 recurrent methane seepage and mud volcanism up to the present day (Yan et al., 2017). Geophysical  
74 and geological data also reveal widespread pockmarks, cold seeps and mud volcanoes on the seafloor  
75 (Sun et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2017; Yan et al.,  
76 2017; Feng et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018) (Fig. 3). It has been suggested, therefore, that large  
77 volumes of fluids were released in association with intense volcanism in the northern South China  
78 Sea (Wang et al., 2018). Here, we present new geophysical data suggesting that such fluid seepage  
79 features could, in fact, be vents generated by sediment mobilization associated with hydrothermal  
80 activity, in response to magma intrusion.

81 The first aim of this work is to provide an inventory of the different styles of magmatism in the  
82 northern South China Sea margin. The second aim is to constrain the timing of the various magmatic  
83 and hydrothermal events and put them into context of the geodynamic drivers. Hence, this study  
84 provides fundamental insights into: (i) the relative timing of formation of igneous features and  
85 hydrothermal vents in the study area, (ii) the origin of hydrothermal activity and its relationship to  
86 post-rift volcanism in the South China Sea, and (iii) the significance of widespread hydrothermal  
87 venting during the Cenozoic evolution stages of the South China Sea.

## 89 **2. GEOLOGICAL SETTING**

90 The South China Sea records multiphase continental rifting from early Eocene to late Oligocene,  
91 which ultimately led to the formation of an oceanic basin from early Oligocene to the early Miocene  
92 (32–15 Ma) (Briais et al., 1993; Li et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2020) (Figs. 1-2).  
93 Previous studies suggested that seafloor spreading across the South China Sea occurred in two main  
94 tectonic pulses. Recently, the timing of seafloor spreading in the South China Sea was revised from  
95 33 Ma to 15 Ma in the Northeast Sub-basin, and from 23.6 Ma to 16 Ma in the Southwest Sub-basin  
96 (Li et al., 2014).

97 As previously described, there is widespread evidence for intraplate basaltic magmatism along  
98 the northern South China Sea margin, the Indochina Peninsula and the South China Sea ocean basin,  
99 after the end of continental rifting (Tu et al., 1992; Zou et al., 1993; Hoang and Flowers, 1998; Yan  
100 et al., 2006; Fyhn et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014;  
101 Zhao et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2016; Song et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Gao et al.,  
102 2019; Zhao et al., 2020) (Fig. 1). Onshore magmatism is particularly well represented in the Leiqiong  
103 area, South China and Indochina, where almost continuous sub-aerial volcanism occurred throughout  
104 the Neogene (Tu et al., 1992; Hoang and Flowers, 1998; Wang et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2006; Yan et  
105 al., 2014). In eastern Vietnam, two active volcanoes are reported and considered as the surface  
106 expression of long-lived magmatism (Fig. 1).

107 Offshore the South China Sea, geological and geophysical data provide evidence for intense  
108 Cenozoic magmatism, particularly along its northeast and northwest margins (Zou et al., 1993; Hoang  
109 and Flowers, 1998; Yan et al., 2006; Fyhn et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Franke, 2013; Zhang et al.,  
110 2016; Zhao et al., 2016; Song et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2019; Zhao et  
111 al., 2020) (Figs. 1-2). Multiple volcanoes and igneous intrusions are identified in the study area and  
112 adjacent regions of the South China Sea. Seismic data and volcanic rocks recovered from boreholes  
113 and dredges, together with outcrop analogues, suggest the presence of Miocene to Recent volcanism.  
114 In addition, regional uplift, fault reactivation, erosion and accelerated depositional rates after the final  
115 stages of continental breakup, are attributed to magmatic activity taking place in the region of interest  
116 to this study (Lüdmann and Wong, 1999; Carter et al., 2000; Fyhn et al., 2009; Savva et al., 2013;  
117 Zhao et al., 2015; Fan et al., 2019).

118 The northeast South China Sea comprises two uniform units separated by Horizon  $T_g$ ;  
119 widespread, thick Mesozoic strata below Horizon  $T_g$ , and sub-parallel Cenozoic strata above (Zhao  
120 et al., 2020) (Figs. 4-5). Mesozoic strata, as revealed by Well LF35-1, are Jurassic and Cretaceous in  
121 age (Shao et al., 2007), and are predominantly composed of mudstone and sandstone deposited in  
122 marine and non-marine environments. Fluvial-lacustrine sandstone, mudstone and shale dominate in  
123 Paleogene source intervals, which are overlain by the Lower Miocene carbonate units. In essence,  
124 Neogene strata in the northern South China Sea comprise carbonates, marls, sandstones and shales  
125 (Fyhn et al., 2009; Fyhn et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2017) (Fig. 2). Extensive carbonate

126 deposition occurred over structural highs of the northern South China Sea from the Early Miocene to  
127 the present day (Fyhn et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2009; Fyhn et al., 2013). In addition, a regionally  
128 consistent bottom-current system, active from the Late Miocene, has modified the seafloor on the  
129 northwest South China Sea together with turbidity currents and local eddies (Sun et al., 2011; Chen  
130 et al., 2018).  
131

### 132 3. DATA AND METHODS

133 In this study we use multi-channel (2D) seismic data acquired by the China National Offshore  
134 Oil Corporation (CNOOC) and the China National Petroleum Company (CNPC), together with high-  
135 quality multibeam bathymetric, gravity and magnetic data (Figs. 3-9). The multi-channel seismic  
136 reflection data cover a large area of the northern South China Sea continental margin (Fig. 3a). Multi-  
137 channel seismic lines on the northeast South China Sea were acquired by 576-channel streamers with  
138 a shot-point spacing of 37.5 m and a common mid-point spacing of 12.5 m (Zhao et al., 2020). Seismic  
139 profiles from the northwest South China Sea have a total penetration depth of 8 s two-way time  
140 (TWT), with a bin size of 12.5 m (Sun et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2017). Seismic interpretation was  
141 completed using Landmark® software and IHS Kingdom® 8.7. Gravity and magnetic data were  
142 acquired along the same ship tracks and processed by Liaohe Field PetroChina in 2007, offering  
143 additional information about the location and distribution of volcanic bodies.

144 In this work, igneous features and hydrothermal vents are mapped on intersecting 2D seismic  
145 lines following key concepts for the interpretation of volcanic and hydrothermal edifices (Berndt et  
146 al., 2000; Jamtveit et al., 2004; Planke et al., 2005; Svensen et al., 2004; Hansen, 2006; Lizarralde et  
147 al., 2010; Jackson et al., 2012; Magee et al., 2013; Reynolds et al., 2017). Given the similar  
148 morphologies of volcanic and hydrothermal vents, and their similar location within volcanic  
149 complexes, we use the criteria proposed by Reynolds et al. (2017) to distinguish them in seismic data.  
150 Exploration wells BY2, BY7-1, CK2 and 121-CM-1X, drilled in the study area, penetrated volcanic  
151 rocks adjacently to the study area (Shao et al., 2007; Fyhn et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhang et  
152 al., 2020). Based on a dominant seismic frequency of 35 Hz in the interval with igneous sills, and an  
153 assumed interval velocity of 5500 m/s (Jackson et al., 2012; Magee et al., 2013), we estimate that  
154 igneous sills thicker than 39 m are resolved in our seismic data. Due to the lower resolution of seismic  
155 data with depth, a large amount of igneous intrusions thinner than 39 m, or deeply buried, may not  
156 be clearly imaged (Schofield et al., 2017; Mark et al., 2018).

157 Multibeam bathymetry data were processed using CaRIS HIPS, and covered an area of  
158 approximately 87,000 km<sup>2</sup>, spanning water depths of 100 m to 5000 m (Fig. 3b). These data were  
159 merged with SRTM15+ ([https://topex.ucsd.edu/WWW\\_html/srtm15\\_plus.html](https://topex.ucsd.edu/WWW_html/srtm15_plus.html)). Seafloor features  
160 were later correlated with the underlying geology using the available seismic data (Figs. 6-8),  
161 combined with sediment core data from the northern South China Sea. Published seismic stratigraphic  
162 models from the northern South China Sea margin provide sedimentological information and age  
163 controls for the sedimentary, igneous and hydrothermal features identified in seismic data (Shao et  
164 al., 2007; Fyhn et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2016) (Figs. 2, 4-9).  
165

## 166 4. RESULTS

### 167 4.1. Regional seismic stratigraphy

168 Five seismic horizons are defined as shown in Figs. 2 and 4-8. Our seismic-stratigraphic  
169 interpretation of key horizons shows that the oldest unconformity T<sub>g</sub> coincides with the top of the

170 Mesozoic basement and marks the onset of continental rifting in the South China Sea. Two uniform  
171 units separated by Horizon  $T_g$  are interpreted in the study area; thick Mesozoic strata and slightly  
172 deformed, thin Cenozoic strata (Figs. 4-5) (e.g. LF35-1-1; Shao et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2014).  
173 Unconformity  $T_{60}$  represents the Base Miocene unconformity and is associated with the onset of  
174 continental breakup in the Southwest Sub-basin (Li et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016). Horizon  $T_{50}$   
175 represents the end of seafloor spreading in the South China Sea. Horizon  $T_{40}$  comprises the end of the  
176 Middle Miocene. Horizon  $T_{30}$  represents an upper Miocene-Pliocene regional unconformity (Figs. 2,  
177 4-8).  
178

#### 179 **4.2. Interpretation of magmatic bodies**

180 Using the newly acquired seismic and multibeam bathymetry data, widespread intrusive and  
181 extrusive bodies along the northern South China Sea have been identified and mapped (Figs. 4-9).  
182 Multiple volcanoes, volcanic mounds, igneous sills and lava flows are identified in seismic data and  
183 show a wide range of morphologies (Figs. 4-9). Seismic interpretation of igneous complexes is based  
184 on the large contrast in acoustic impedance between intruding magma and the host-rock. The  
185 interpretation is further supported by adjacent published seismic reflection and drilling data (Figs. 2,  
186 4-9).

187 The seismic data show large-scale volcanoes (i.e., extrusive volcanic edifices) on a paleo-  
188 seafloor. These volcanoes show strong, positive top reflections, chaotic internal facies (Figs. 5-7),  
189 and their recognition is supported by gravity and magnetic data, which show positive gravity and  
190 magnetic anomalies that correlate with the size and location of the volcanoes (Fig. 6). They often  
191 occur close to the continent-ocean boundary (COB) and form NE- or E-striking ridges (Fig. 3).  
192 Multibeam bathymetry data show that they are surrounded by moats (Figs. 3 and 6).

193 Strata beneath Horizon  $T_{40}$  are deformed by these volcanoes (Figs. 4-8). A solitary volcano,  
194 recognised in Fig. 7a as a conical feature with a topographic high on the modern seafloor, reaches 15  
195 km in diameter. Seismic reflections adjacent to the volcanoes below Horizon  $T_{40}$  (10.5 Ma) are often  
196 dragged upward and show onlap terminations onto Horizon  $T_{60}$  and  $T_{40}$  (Figs. 4-8). It is worth noting  
197 that strata uplift occurs over some of these extrusive edifices, indicating later intrusive events were  
198 likely emplaced (Figs. 6 and 8). Well CK2, which penetrated basement rocks, encountered Late  
199 Oligocene (~35.5 Ma) to Early Miocene (~19.6 Ma) pyroclastic basalts based on radiocarbon dates  
200 (Zhang et al., 2020). Surrounding the volcanoes, sub-parallel stacked strong amplitude anomalies are  
201 observed (Figs. 5a and 7). They have abrupt lateral terminations with their upper surfaces  
202 conformable with overlying strata; we interpret them as lava flows.

203 Irregular mounded structures are imaged as high-amplitude top reflections and form a rugged  
204 seafloor topography (Figs. 5a, 5c, 7d and 7e). The internal reflections of the mounds show moderate-  
205 to high-amplitude reflections typical of volcanoclastic material (Jackson, 2012; Magee et al., 2013;  
206 Reynolds et al., 2017). Low-amplitude, discontinuous reflections in chimney zones, and velocity pull-  
207 ups beneath the mounds, connect to underlying basement. Lava flow units are often observed around  
208 these mounds (Figs. 5a). The seismic facies of the mounds are similar to those found in the Pearl  
209 River Mouth Basin, offshore Australia, and the northeastern Atlantic, all interpreted as submarine  
210 volcanic mounds (Davies et al., 2002; Hansen, 2006; Schofield and Totterdell, 2008; Jackson, 2012;  
211 Magee et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2017). Similar volcanic  
212 mounds were sampled by exploration wells BY7-1, BY2 and 121-CM-1X (Fyhn et al., 2009; Zhao et  
213 al., 2016) confirming they consist of volcanic rocks (Figs. 2 and 3). Wells BY7-1 and BY2, penetrated  
214 buried Early Miocene volcanic complexes in the Baiyun Sag, located SW of the northeast South

215 China Sea (Figs. 2 and 3). These volcanic complexes were interpreted as formed in shallow-marine  
216 environments, with petrological evidence from borehole sidewall cores revealing basalt lavas and  
217 tuffs intercalated with thin-bedded limestone layers (Zhao et al., 2016). Dated through apatite fission  
218 track analyses, more than 500 m of basalt with Middle to Lower Miocene ages, were penetrated by  
219 well 121-CM-1X. The drilled volcano was interpreted as submarine due to the presence of quench  
220 textures in pillow lavas and intercalated limestone intervals (Fyhn et al., 2009).

221 Several discordant, high-amplitude anomalies with abrupt terminations and complex geometries  
222 cut through sedimentary intervals in seismic data (Figs. 4-7, 9). They have saucer-shaped, sheet-  
223 shaped, stacked or composite geometries. These features are similar to various igneous sills described  
224 on Atlantic continental margins and offshore Australia, all formed by the emplacement of magma  
225 (e.g. Berndt et al., 2000; Trude et al., 2003; Planke et al., 2005; Jackson et al., 2012; Magee et al.,  
226 2013; Schofield et al., 2017). Igneous sills in the study area are parallel to their host strata, in places  
227 showing discordant cross-cutting relationships. They are intruded at distinct stratigraphic levels (Figs.  
228 4-7, 9). Slight doming of the strata and chimney-like features occur above sills (Figs. 4-7, 9). Some  
229 of the sills form a large-scale interconnected transgressive sill complex at depths of approximately  
230 2.5 to 3.5 s TWTT (Fig. 4).

231

### 232 **4.3. Interpretation of hydrothermal vents**

233 Bathymetric and seismic reflection data reveal numerous mound- and crater-like features (Figs.  
234 3-9). Seismic reflections at the top of mound-like features have low to moderate amplitude. The  
235 internal seismic character of the mounds is dominated by transparent to stratified, low-moderate  
236 amplitude reflections, which are distinct from typical volcanic rocks within the volcanic mounds  
237 above (Figs. 4, 7, 8b and 9b). Moreover, no associated lava flows are observed around these mound-  
238 like features. Crater-like features are irregular V-shaped, U-shaped and W-shaped depressions  
239 covered by up to ~500 m of strata, assuming an interval velocity of 1800 m/s (Figs. 5-9). The  
240 sedimentary cover becomes slightly thinner towards the upper slope (Figs. 5, 8 and 9).

241 Mound- and crater-like structures are connected to underlying igneous sills and volcanic edifices  
242 by prominent chimney-like or pipe-like structures and faults, recognised as vertical regions of  
243 disturbed seismic reflections (Figs. 4-9). Similar mound- and crater-like structures are recognised in  
244 regions such as the Vøring and Møre Basins in the Northeast Atlantic (Jamtveit et al., 2004; Svensen  
245 et al., 2004; Planke et al., 2005), the Karoo Basin in South Africa (Svensen et al., 2006), the Faroe–  
246 Shetland Basin, the Tunguska Basin in Siberia (Bell and Butcher 2002; Hansen, 2006; Svensen et al.,  
247 2009; Grove, 2013) and the Guaymas Basin (Gulf of California) (Lizarralde et al., 2010; Berndt et  
248 al., 2016). Therefore, we interpret the mound- and crater-like structures in the study area as  
249 hydrothermal vents linked to igneous sill tips and volcanic edifices by vertical fluid-migration  
250 pathways (Figs. 4-9).

251 The vent conduits reveal two main geometries: (1) chimney or pipe-like, and (2) fault-related.  
252 The chimney or pipe-like geometry is recognised as a vertical region of disturbed seismic reflections  
253 with local ‘pull-up’ or ‘push-down’ effects in seismic data (Figs. 4-9). Many of the mound-like  
254 hydrothermal vents are underlain by seismic velocity ‘pull-ups’ associated with sedimentological or  
255 diagenetic changes (Figs. 4, 7d, 8b and 9b) (Kilham et al., 2011). In contrast, the seismic reflections  
256 beneath crater-like hydrothermal vents often show ‘push-down’ effects, indicating that fluid flow may  
257 still be active (Figs. 5-8). The fault-related geometry, with small depressions along the fault plane is  
258 interpreted as conduits which channelled fluid and/or gas advection, and controlled the locations of

259 the vents (Fig. 4-5, 9d). Therefore, “chimney or pipe zones” and faults serve as fluid pathways linking  
260 underlying potential igneous intrusions (and volcanic edifices) to hydrothermal vent complexes.  
261

#### 262 *Hydrothermal vents in the northeast South China Sea*

263 The mound-like hydrothermal vents identified in the study area are either isolated or clustered,  
264 0.5-5 km wide and 50-250 m tall (Figs. 4-5, 9a). They occur above zones of disturbed seismic  
265 reflections, a character indicating sediment alteration during venting. The mound-type hydrothermal  
266 vents were interpreted as mud volcanoes in previous studies, expressed as a wide region of rugged  
267 topography on the modern seafloor (Yan et al., 2017). Crater-like hydrothermal vents, several meters  
268 to 10 km wide, are identified along the Dongsha area. Most occur above high-angle, closely-spaced  
269 faults that extend upward to the modern seafloor and downward to the deep Mesozoic strata (Figs. 4-  
270 5, 9a). Hydrothermal vent conduits on the Dongsha High can extend approximately to 4 s TWTT,  
271 affecting Mesozoic and Cenozoic strata (Figs. 4-9). It seems that most vent conduits cut through the  
272 modern seafloor (Figs. 4-5, 9a). Correlations with the published seismic stratigraphy indicate that the  
273 deeper level with hydrothermal vents is earliest Pliocene in age, whereas the shallower level  
274 developed near the modern seafloor (Figs. 4-5, 9a).

275 Scientific cruises held in 2013-2017 discovered multiple active venting sites in the Dongsha area  
276 (Yan et al., 2017). An active hydrothermal vent field is shown in Fig. 4. The newly-discovered  
277 mounded vents in Fig. 4 rise up to ~250 m above the modern seafloor. In the area where these  
278 hydrothermal vents are mapped, chaotic and low-seismic amplitude seismic facies occur downward  
279 to at least 3500 ms TWTT and connect with a large-scale interconnected transgressive sill complex.  
280 We therefore interpret these facies as the conduits for the ascending hydrothermal fluids. Seafloor  
281 images and sampling from the venting fields of the Dongsha region show widely distributed  
282 authigenic carbonates, booming chemosynthetic communities, and elevated dissolved methane  
283 concentrations in bottom water (Yan et al., 2017). Geochemical data from elevated methane  
284 concentrations in bottom waters (up to 4 times higher than the background average), and the presence  
285 of fresh authigenic carbonate nodules with living sessile tubeworms and corals at vent sites, indicate  
286 ongoing methane seep and mud volcanism. Raw authigenic carbonates, brecciated, and re-concreted  
287 breccias also reveal methane seepage and carbonate formation taking place during multiple episodes  
288 (Yan et al., 2017).

289 A typical cold seep environment was also discovered in the northeast South China Sea (Figs. 3a,  
290 5b and 5e). It occurs above a sill complex recognised in seismic data at a depth of ~2000 to 2600 ms  
291 TWTT. Seismic images reveal the occurrence of disturbed strata in association with fluid seepage,  
292 and intense faults that may serve as fluid pathways above the sill complex (Figs. 5b and 5e). Seafloor  
293 sampling from the cold seep site reveal widespread seep-related carbonates (Tong et al., 2013; Wang  
294 et al., 2014). The isotopic composition of seep-related carbonates at this site ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of -49.2‰ to -  
295 12.3‰) indicates thermogenic methane likely derived from Mesozoic strata (Tong et al., 2013; Wang  
296 et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2017).

#### 298 *Hydrothermal vents in the northwest South China Sea*

299 Numerous mound- and crater-like hydrothermal vents are also present in the northwest South  
300 China Sea (Figs. 6-9). Crater-like hydrothermal vents are up to 8 km in diameter and 220 m in depth  
301 (Fig. 4b). Their shapes range from circular, elongated, crescent to complex geometries (Figs. 3b, 6-  
302 9) (Sun et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018). Elongated and crescent vents suggestively  
303 have their long axis oriented by underlying faults, and were modified by bottom currents, turbidity



304 currents and local eddies (Sun et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2018). Mound-like hydrothermal vents are  
305 800–2000 m wide and 60–200 m high (Figs. 3, 6-9). These vents are either relatively isolated or  
306 clustered to form ‘compound’ structures. Our results show a wide range of sediment deformation  
307 beneath the upper part of these vents (Figs. 6-9). For instance, vent Cv5 developed above multiple  
308 sill complexes around a prominent volcano, and connects to the underlying basement by zones of  
309 velocity pull-up and low amplitude, discontinuous reflections (Fig. 7b). Several mounded  
310 hydrothermal vents (Mvg1) developed above the volcanic mounds, are expressed by their distinct  
311 seismic facies and architecture (Fig. 7d).

312 The hydrothermal vents identified in the study area occur at various stratigraphic levels since  
313 the Middle Miocene (or older strata) truncating the base of crater-like vents or onlapping mounded  
314 vents (Figs. 6-9). The most prominent vents are developed at a single surface close to Horizon T<sub>30</sub>  
315 (5.5 Ma). The clustered mounded hydrothermal vents (Mvg1) observed above the volcanic mounds,  
316 at the level of Horizon T<sub>30</sub>, were likely formed at a later time (Fig. 7d). A large-scale crater-shaped  
317 hydrothermal vent (Cv9) is mapped above an underlying volcanic edifice (Figs. 3b and 8a). The plan  
318 view geometry of this vent is elliptical, ~ 5 km wide and ~ 500 m tall, based on an interval seismic  
319 velocity of 1800 m/s. Vent Cv9 occurs at Horizon T<sub>30</sub>, which is characterised by an unambiguous  
320 erosional geometry with underlying reflections truncated against its base (Fig. 8a). The reflections  
321 below vent Cv9 comprise a chimney zone with downwarped, chaotic and low-seismic amplitude  
322 seismic facies linked to the volcanic edifice at depth (Fig. 8a). The volcanic edifice has ‘chaotic’  
323 seismic reflections in its interior, suggesting that magmatic intrusions are present within this feature  
324 (Figs. 8a). Strata uplift occurs over the volcanic edifice, indicating later intrusive events. We interpret  
325 the chimney facies as a conduit for the ascending hydrothermal fluids. Vent Cv8 is developed above  
326 zones of downwarped, disrupted seismic reflections and vertically connected to igneous intrusions at  
327 depth (Fig. 8a). The ‘push-down’ effects beneath the two vents indicate that gas may be still present  
328 within these ‘pushed-down’ structures.

329 Two active cold seep sites were identified in the northwest South China Sea using the remotely  
330 operated vehicle (ROV) “Haima” in 2015 and 2016, and named at the time as the *Haima cold seeps*  
331 (Figs. 3a and 8b) (Liang et al., 2017). At depth, an extrusive volcanic edifice is imaged below the  
332 *Haima cold seeps* (Fig. 8b). Chaotic seismic facies within the volcanic edifice and strata uplift above  
333 the volcanic edifice indicate that later magmatic intrusions occur in the cold seep field. Seismic  
334 amplitude dimming below the seafloor reflects active fluid and gas conduits in the *Haima cold seeps*  
335 (Fig. 8b). Seafloor images and samples revealed the presence of broadly distributed tubeworm  
336 colonies and mussels, shells of clams and large carbonate blocks in the cold seep field (Figs. 8c and  
337 8d) (Liang et al., 2017; Guan et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2018). Geochemical data from carbonate blocks  
338 and the presence of oil at the cold seeps suggest complex methanogenic and thermogenic processes  
339 in the *Haima cold seeps* (Liang et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2018; Guan et al., 2018). Magma from deep  
340 sources, below shallower bottom-simulating reflectors (BSRs) and cold seeps near the seafloor, may  
341 have supplied heat to dissociate great amounts of gas hydrate (Fig. 8b) (Wang et al., 2018). The  
342 radiocarbon dating performed on bivalve shells and seep carbonates revealed that methane seepage,  
343 and associated carbonate formation took place during multiple episodes (Liang et al., 2017; Feng et  
344 al., 2018).

345

## 346 5. DISCUSSION

347

## 348 **5.1. Significance of widespread magmatism and hydrothermal vents in the South China Sea**

349 Our study shows widespread intrusive and extrusive bodies on the continental margin of the  
350 northern South China Sea, with magmatic processes triggering the alteration of organic-rich  
351 sediments and releasing hydrothermal fluids and gases by hydrothermal vents (Figs. 3-9). Numerous  
352 extrusive volcanic edifices, igneous sills, lava flows and volcanic mounds are imaged in seismic data.  
353 Cenozoic continental rifting and post-rift tectonics resulted in the development of numerous faults,  
354 which are suggested to provide vertical fluid-migration pathways for the transfer of magma and  
355 hydrothermal fluids (Zhao et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2020).

356 Igneous sills are as young as Pliocene in age and reflect extensive magmatism within organic-  
357 rich mudstones, shales and limestones of the Cenozoic and Mesozoic strata (Figs. 4-9). Chimneys  
358 and pipes beneath the hydrothermal vents extend downward and coincide with the tips of the  
359 underlying igneous intrusions, suggesting these were the most likely origin of the fluids that  
360 mobilized the sediments (Figs. 4-9). The emplacement of magmatic intrusions has been previously  
361 suggested to result in the contact metamorphism of organic-rich sediments, producing hydrothermal  
362 fluids and gases released via hydrothermal vents (Svensen et al., 2004). Fluids and gases generated  
363 by thermogenic processes were likely released to the sea water and, ultimately, the atmosphere  
364 through chimneys, pipes or fractures, or trapped in the sedimentary rocks (e.g. Svensen et al., 2004;  
365 Planke et al., 2005; Svensen et al., 2009; Lizarralde et al., 2010; Berndt et al., 2016; Iyer et al., 2017)  
366 (Figs. 4-9).

367 The close spatial association among fluid seepage occurring on the seafloor, sub-surface fluid  
368 flow, and igneous bodies at depth, indicates that hydrothermal activity is one of main drivers of fluid  
369 circulation along the northern South China Sea (Figs. 3-9). We argue that part of the mapped  
370 hydrothermal vents are still active based on: a) the fluid seepage and active chemosynthetic  
371 communities observed during seafloor imaging and sampling surveys (Figs. 4, 5b and 8b); b) the gas-  
372 charged sediments and conduits observed in seismic data through the vent structures (Figs. 4-9); c)  
373 the occurrence of hydrothermal vents at the seafloor (Figs. 4-9). Our results stress the importance of  
374 magmatic systems as features forcing fluid migration towards the seafloor. Hydrothermal vents sitting  
375 above faults propagating onto the seafloor were also recognized as important indicators to active  
376 faulting (Cuffaro et al., 2019).

377 Earlier studies have revealed that hydrothermal vent complexes play an important role in  
378 controlling subsurface fluid flow pathways during basin subsidence, which host permeable, open  
379 fractures and act as a long-lived zone of fluid focusing migration since the main phases of magmatic  
380 expulsion (Svensen et al., 2003; Planke et al., 2005; Rateau et al. 2013; Schofield et al. 2017; Roelofse  
381 et al., 2020). It is therefore possible that other overpressured fluids such as hydrocarbons, water, and  
382 biogenic gas through hydrothermal vent complexes cannot be expelled in the northern South China  
383 Sea.

384

## 385 **5.2. Timing of magmatic-hydrothermal activity**

386 Due to the lack of borehole data crossing igneous bodies in this study area, the timing of magma  
387 emplacement and related hydrothermal venting could only be constrained by seismic-based  
388 techniques, which are based on identifying the relationship between igneous-hydrothermal features  
389 and stratigraphic units of known age (Trude et al., 2003; Hansen, 2006). Our results confirm that the  
390 continental margin of the northern South China Sea was affected by multiple magmatic events during  
391 its post-rift stage (Figs. 4-9). Using onlap relationships onto volcanic features, four extrusive episodes  
392 can be dated as Early Miocene, Middle Miocene, Late Miocene and Late Miocene-Pliocene in age

393 (Figs. 5-8). The occurrence of igneous sills within Pliocene strata also suggests a more recent phase  
394 of volcanism (Figs. 5-7). Our interpretation that significant volcanism occurred during the Neogene  
395 is also supported by radiometric dating of onshore and offshore volcanic rocks along the northern  
396 South China Sea (Tu et al., 1992; Zou et al., 1993; Hoang and Flower, 1998; Yan et al., 2006; Wang  
397 et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2020). Offshore, early  
398 Neogene volcanism is equally supported by Pliocene to early Miocene basalts drilled in the Taixinan  
399 Basin, Pearl River Mouth Basin, Zhongjiannan Basin, Xisha High and offshore Vietnam (Fig. 1) (Tu  
400 et al., 1992; Zou et al., 1993; Yan et al., 2006; Fyhn et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2016;  
401 Zhang et al., 2020). Rock samples from the Gaojianshi Island (Pyramid Rock) of the Xisha Islands  
402 revealed a seamount age of 2.7 Ma, constraining the age of the basaltic magmatism to the late Pliocene  
403 (Zou et al., 1993; Gao et al., 2019). Furthermore, volcanic and intrusive rocks have been dated as ~3–  
404 23.8 Ma in the South China Sea ocean basin (Fig. 1) (Tu et al., 1992; Yan et al., 2014; Zhao et al.,  
405 2016; Xia et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016). Onshore, field geological and borehole data in the Leiqiong  
406 area, South China and Indochina reveal multiple volcanic eruptions during the Miocene and the  
407 Holocene, with a peak in magmatism recorded from late Pliocene to middle Pleistocene (Tu et al.,  
408 1992; Zou et al., 1993; Hoang and Flowers, 1998). The close link between onshore and offshore  
409 intraplate volcanism in South China also indicates a potential geodynamic link.

410 Strata onlap onto mounded vents and truncated strata on the base of crater-type vents represent  
411 the paleo-surfaces at the time of igneous intrusion (Hansen, 2006). They reveal that the hydrothermal  
412 vent complexes linked to underlying volcanism started to develop since the Middle Miocene (Fig. 4-  
413 9). Importantly, some large-scale vents truncate against or onlap onto Horizon T<sub>30</sub> (5.5 Ma),  
414 indicating that intense hydrothermal venting is broadly documented since the Pliocene (Figs. 4-9).  
415 The close association between discrete hydrothermal venting and magmatic activity suggests that  
416 prolonged volcanism during the Miocene-Pliocene affected sedimentation in the northern South  
417 China Sea.

418 Our age estimates for the observed volcanism and hydrothermal venting in the northern South  
419 China Sea lead us to propose that the magmatic bodies in the study area are related to a long-lived  
420 period on volcanism during the Neogene. Therefore, prolonged post-rift magmatic activity is  
421 suggested as a fundamental control on seafloor and shallow sub-surface geology after continental  
422 breakup was initiated in the South China Sea.

423

### 424 **5.3. Sources of post-rift magma and hydrothermal fluids**

425 Main causes of intraplate upwelling of magma on continental margins include decompression  
426 melting of the lithosphere and plume-related activity. Melting induced by mantle decompression is  
427 often associated with continental rifting, and is most likely to occur where the crust is highly stretched.  
428 Although the crust beneath the northern South China Sea was thinned following continental rifting,  
429 the timing and distribution of igneous bodies in the study area suggest that magmatism is not related  
430 to mantle decompression melting since ductile extension ceased in the Early Miocene (Li et al., 2014;  
431 Savva et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2020).

432 With the elimination of decompressive melting due to lithospheric extension, it is more likely  
433 that the igneous activity in the northern South China Sea was due to long-lived and deep-seated  
434 plume-related activity. Geochemical analysis of Miocene to Recent basalt volcanism in the northern  
435 South China Sea, the Indochina Peninsula and the South China Sea ocean basin, reveal typical oceanic  
436 island basalt (OIB-type) compositions, suggesting the presence of long-lived, deep-seated mantle  
437 plumes in the region (Hoang and Flowers, 1998; Xu et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016;

438 Xia et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2018). Geochemical data from the International Ocean Discovery Program  
439 (IODP) Expedition 349 in the South China Sea ocean basin also suggest a strong imprint of a mantle  
440 plume in ridge magmatism, proving that this mantle plume promoted the opening of the South China  
441 Sea (Zhang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). Moreover, scattered lower crustal high-velocity bodies  
442 were identified by refraction seismic studies in our study area, probably representing magmatic  
443 intrusions in the lower crust (White and McKenzie, 1989; Geoffroy, 2005; Lester et al., 2014; Pichot  
444 et al., 2014; Xia et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2019). Low-velocity anomalies extending down to the lower  
445 mantle are imaged and suggest the presence of a layered plume beneath the northern and western  
446 South China Sea (Fig. 1d) (Lebedev and Nolet, 2003; Zhao, 2004; Huang et al., 2014; Xia et al., 2016;  
447 Xia et al., 2018). Importantly, the thermal structure of profile OBS2011 proves that the main  
448 component of surface heat flow is mantle-derived (Dong et al., 2018). Heat flow data collected from  
449 the northwest South China Sea show high values of 80–100 mW/m<sup>2</sup>, reaching more than 100 mW/m<sup>2</sup>  
450 in places (Dong et al., 2018).

451 Given the evidence above, the occurrence of widespread post-rift magmatism in the study area  
452 was most likely generated by a deep-seated mantle plume beneath a thinned crust, following  
453 continental breakup in the South China Sea (Xia et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019).  
454 The inferred ages for the main magmatic events in this work are not fully coeval with regional tectonic  
455 events in the northern South China Sea, but rather with intense magmatism resulting from enhanced  
456 melting induced by mantle convection and the presence of a deeper plume (Huisman and Beaumont,  
457 2011). The effective duration of plume activity should correspond to a relatively long interval of time,  
458 and can explain the distribution and timing of magmatism and hydrothermal seepage in the South  
459 China Sea. Thermal weakening of the lithosphere by the hot mantle also promoted regional uplift,  
460 fault reactivation, erosion and accelerated depositional rates around the northern South China Sea  
461 (Lüdmann and Wong, 1999; Carter et al., 2000; Fyhn et al., 2009; Savva et al., 2013; Zhao et al.,  
462 2015; Zhao et al., 2016; Fan et al., 2019).

463

## 464 6. CONCLUSIONS

465 From an analysis of bathymetric and multi-channel seismic data, the main conclusions of this  
466 work are as follows:

467

468 a) Prolonged magmatic-hydrothermal activity, imaged as extensive magmatic bodies and  
469 hydrothermal vents, is typical of the post-rift evolution of the northern South China Sea. Numerous  
470 volcanoes, igneous sills and lava flows are identified in seismic data. Hydrothermal vents show as  
471 crater- and mound- type structures at the paleo-seafloor, and are formed above igneous sills and  
472 volcanic edifices.

473 b) The magmatic bodies and hydrothermal vents occur at various stratigraphic levels, suggesting  
474 multiple magmatic-hydrothermal pulses during the Miocene and Pliocene. Hydrothermal vents linked  
475 to normal faults and underlying chimney or pipe structures, which formed vertical fluid-migration  
476 pathways facilitating the transfer of hydrothermal fluids towards the surface.

477 c) We suggest that a long-lived deep-seated mantle plume resulted in voluminous magmatic  
478 activities and hydrothermal seepage on the northern South China Sea margin. This will be an  
479 important case-study for the better understanding of the prolonged plume-derived magmatic-  
480 hydrothermal activity in a magma-poor rifted margin.

481 By exploring the regional and temporal extent of magmatic and hydrothermal activity in the  
482 northern South China Sea, this work provides new sights on deep mantle evolution, carbon fluxes and  
483 basin-scale processes on magma-poor continental margins.

484

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492

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## FIGURES

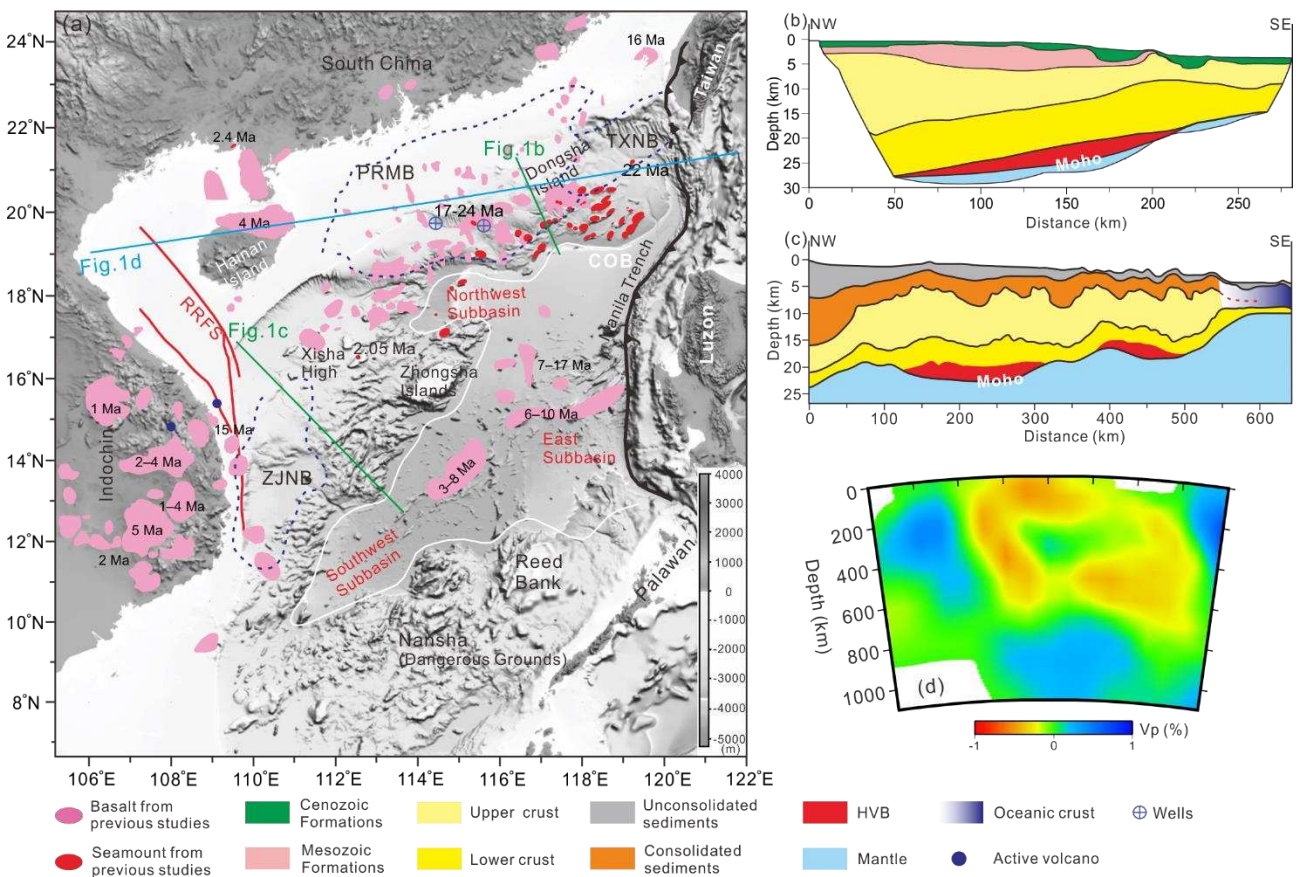


Fig. 1. (a) Regional map of the South China Sea revealing the distribution of the Late Cenozoic volcanism documented in previous work (Tu et al., 1992; Hoang and Flower, 1998; Wang et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2018). Main geomorphological features are labelled. Green lines mark the locations of Figs. 1b and 1c. The blue line marks the location of Fig. 1d. (b) and (c) Velocity profiles crossing the northern South China Sea (see location in Fig.1a) showing the crustal structure of the northern South China Sea as derived from wide-angle seismic data, and the presence of high-velocity bodies (HVBs) in the lower crust (after Pichot et al., 2014 and Fan et al., 2019). (d) Cross-section showing the P-wave velocity structure beneath the northern South China Sea. Large-scale low-velocity anomalies occur towards the Hainan Island and the northeast South China Sea (after Xia et al., 2016). See location of the cross-section in Fig. 1a. TXNB, Taixinan Basin; PRMB, Pearl River Mouth Basin; ZJNB, Zhongjiannan Basin; COB, continent–ocean boundary; RRFS - Red River Fault System; HVB - high-velocity body.

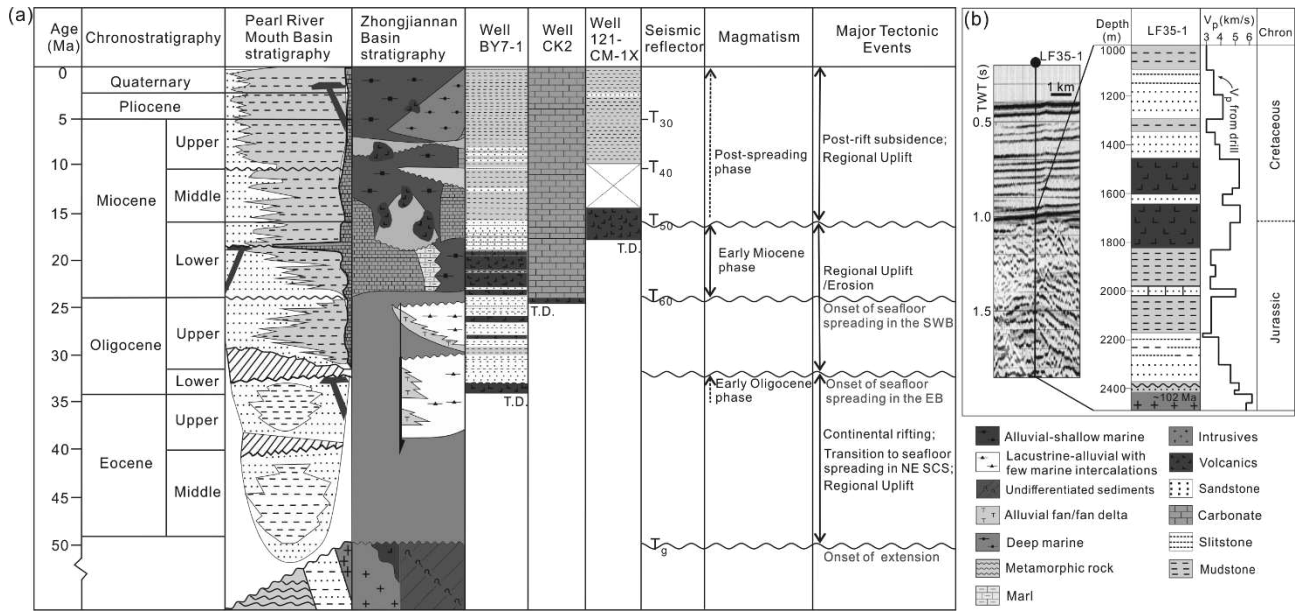
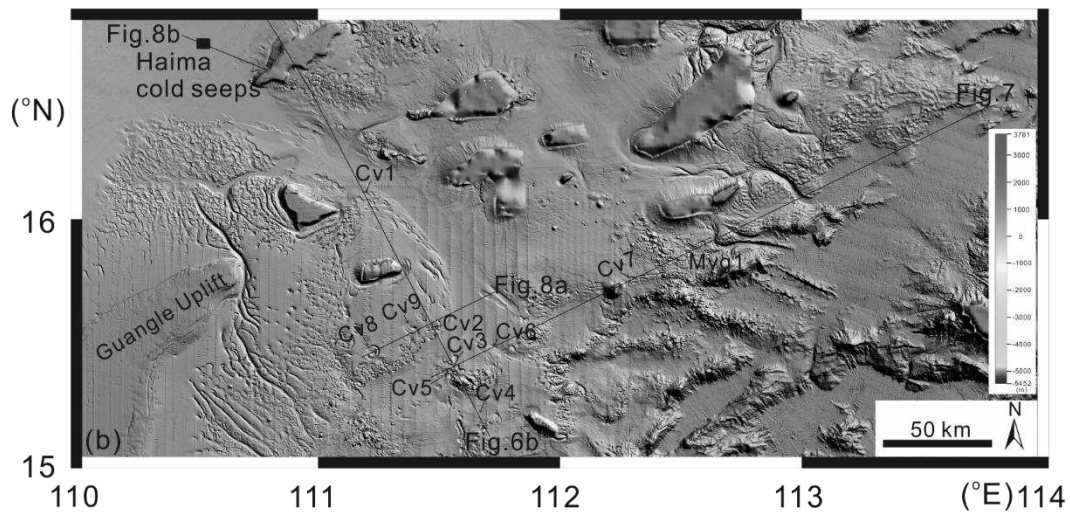
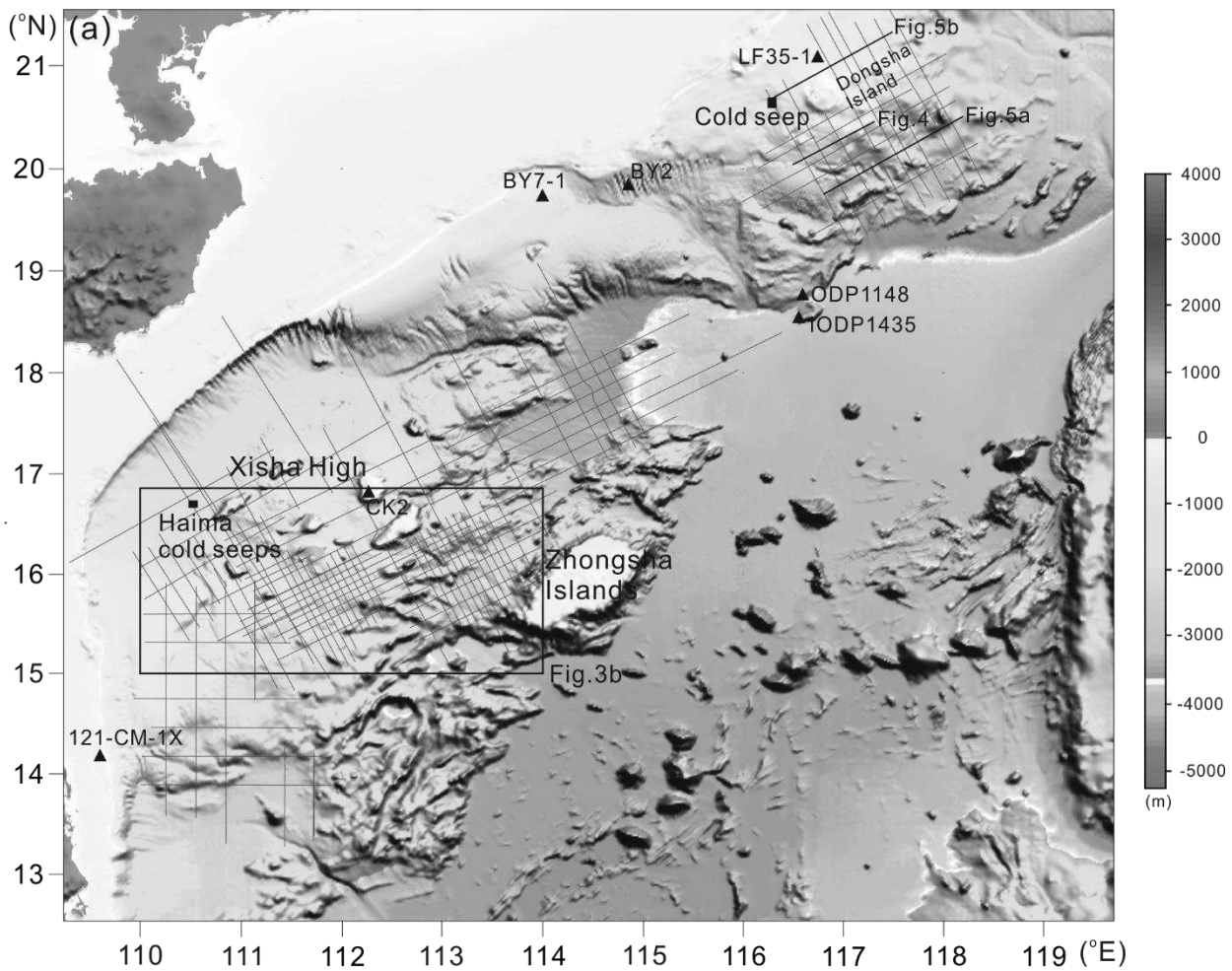


Fig. 2. (a) Summary chart of the northern South China Sea stratigraphy shown together with main tectonic and magmatic events affecting the region (modified after Fyhn et al., 2009, Zhao et al., 2016 and Zhang et al., 2020). (b) Lithologies penetrated by well LF35-1 revealing the depositional setting of Mesozoic strata in the northeast South China Sea (modified after Shao et al., 2007).



 2D seismic survey   
  ODP/IODP/Exploration Wells   
  Cold seep site

Fig.

3. (a) Structural map showing the locations of multichannel seismic reflection profiles used in this work. The locations of exploration wells, IODP/ODP sites and cold seep sites are shown. The black box marks the location of Fig. 3b. (b) Bathymetric map showing widespread hydrothermal vents in the northwest South China Sea. Black solid lines mark the locations of seismic lines discussed in this work. Fig. 8b is a published seismic profile modified from Wang et al. (2018). The locations of figures, the *Haima cold seeps* and hydrothermal vents identified from multi-channel seismic profiles are labelled in the figure.

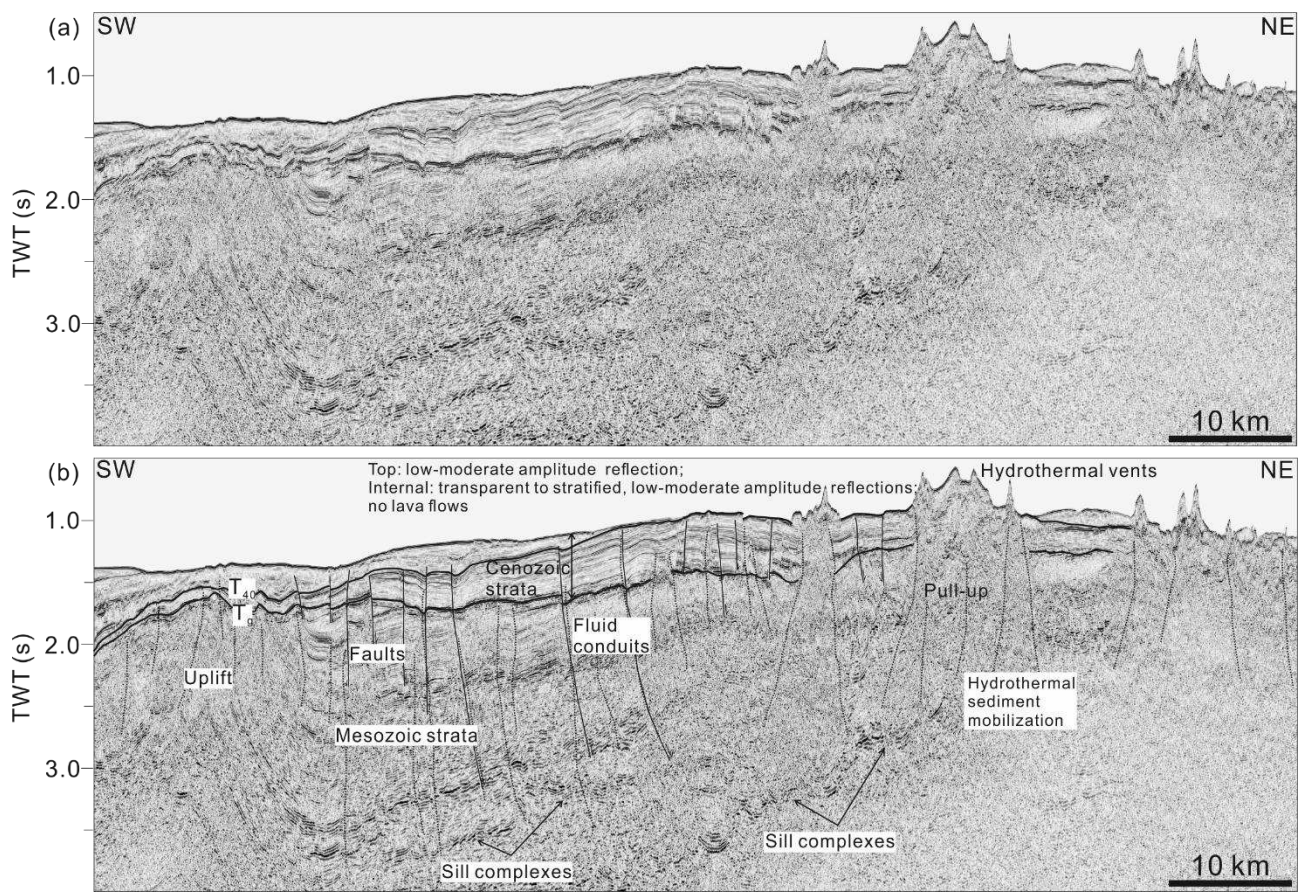


Fig. 4. (a) and (b) Uninterpreted and interpreted multichannel seismic profile (see location in Fig. 3a) across the northeast South China Sea showing key seismic horizons and mound-shaped hydrothermal vents. Horizons  $T_{40}$  and  $T_g$  correspond to the base of upper Miocene strata and the top of basement, respectively. Numerous sills and sill complexes are identified in Mesozoic strata. Note that mounded vents occur above deep igneous sill complexes and are linked to these latter by prominent chimney-like structures.

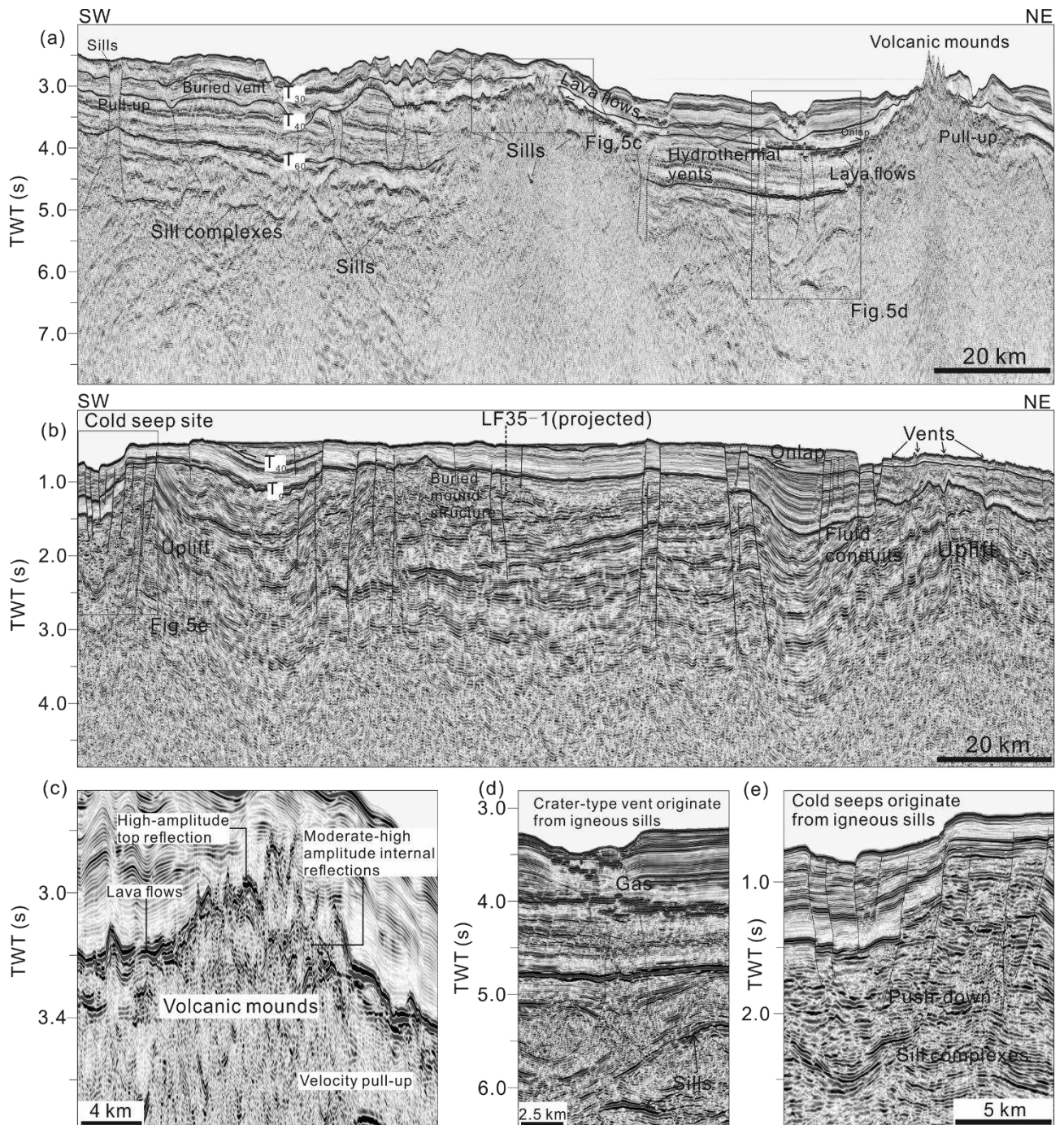


Fig. 5. (a) Interpreted multichannel seismic section highlighting the occurrence of volcanic mounds, lava flows, igneous sills and crater-type hydrothermal vents on the modern seafloor. See location in Fig. 3a. Note the onlap reflections onto volcanic mounds and lava flows providing a seismic stratigraphic indicator of magma emplacement. The vents originate above igneous sills and are linked to these latter via chimneys and pipes. (b) Interpreted multichannel seismic section (see Fig. 3a for location) highlighting structural uplift, hydrothermal venting and cold seep site at the seafloor. Note the occurrence of faulting and sediment deformation beneath the vents and cold seeps. (c), (d) and (e) Enlarged sections of (a) and (b) showing the geometry of volcanic mounds, hydrothermal vents and cold seeps linked to underlying sills.

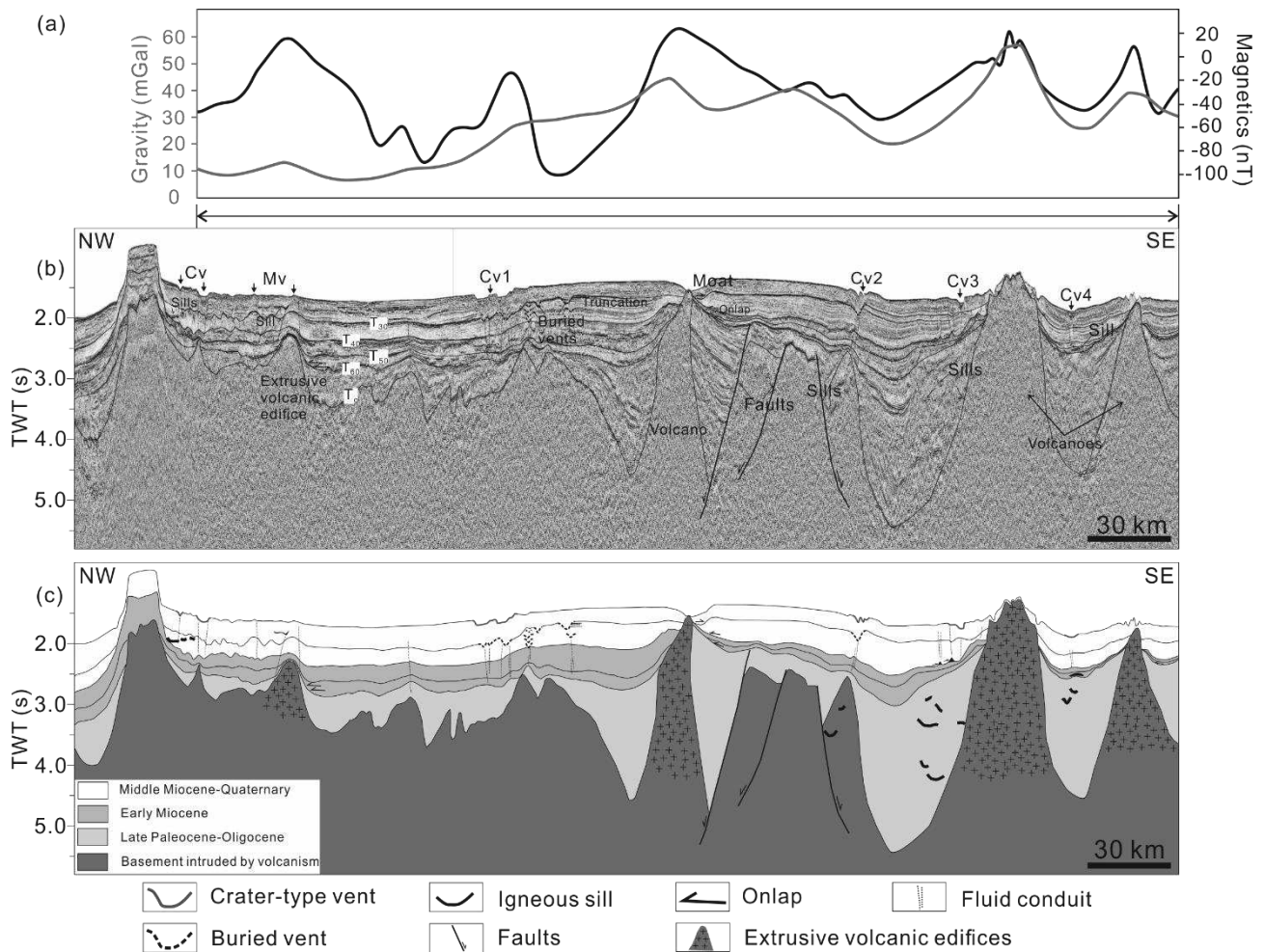


Fig. 6. (a) Gravity and magnetic anomalies acquired along the seismic profile in Fig. 6b. (b) and (c) Seismic profile and interpretation (see location in Fig. 3b) across the northwest South China Sea highlighting key seismic horizons, volcanic bodies and hydrothermal vents. Horizons  $T_{30}$ ,  $T_{40}$ ,  $T_{50}$ ,  $T_{60}$  and  $T_g$  correspond to the base of Pliocene, Upper Miocene, Middle Miocene and Lower Miocene strata, and the top of basement, respectively. Stratigraphic correlations show extrusive edifices at three distinct stratigraphic levels. Most crater-type vents occur above Horizon  $T_{30}$  (base Pliocene) and onlap onto the post-intrusion seafloor shown in the figure.

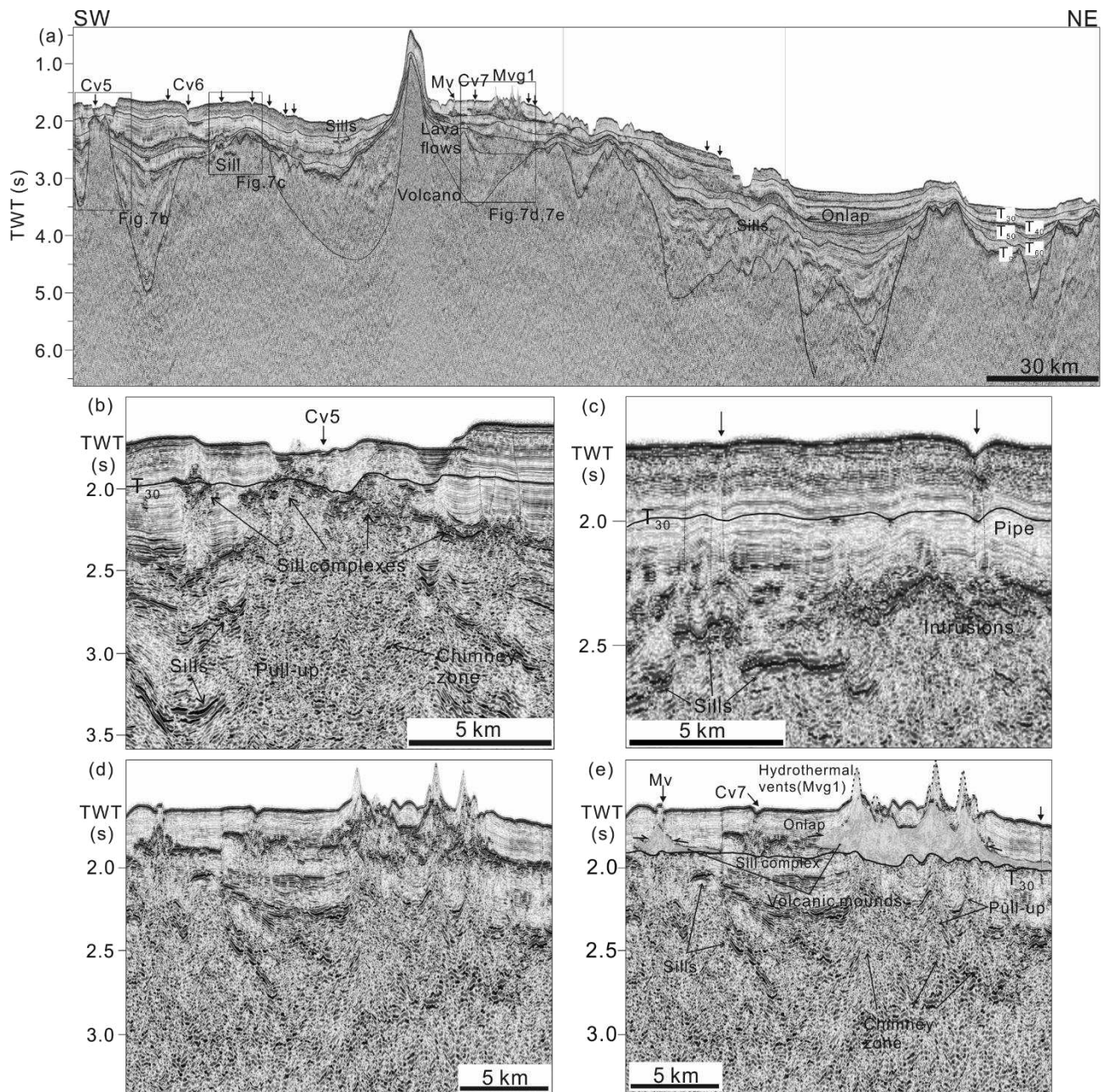


Fig. 7. (a) Regional SW–NE trending seismic cross-section (See location in Fig. 3b) revealing igneous features and hydrothermal vent complexes. Note the erosional truncation ( $T_{30}$ ) of craters and onlapping reflections ( $T_{30}$ ) onto the mound-type vents. (b) and (c) Enlarged section showing the geometry of mound- and crater-like vents linked to underlying sills by chimney or pipe structures. (d) and (e) Uninterpreted and interpreted seismic sections of volcanic mounds and hydrothermal vents. See Fig. 7a for location.

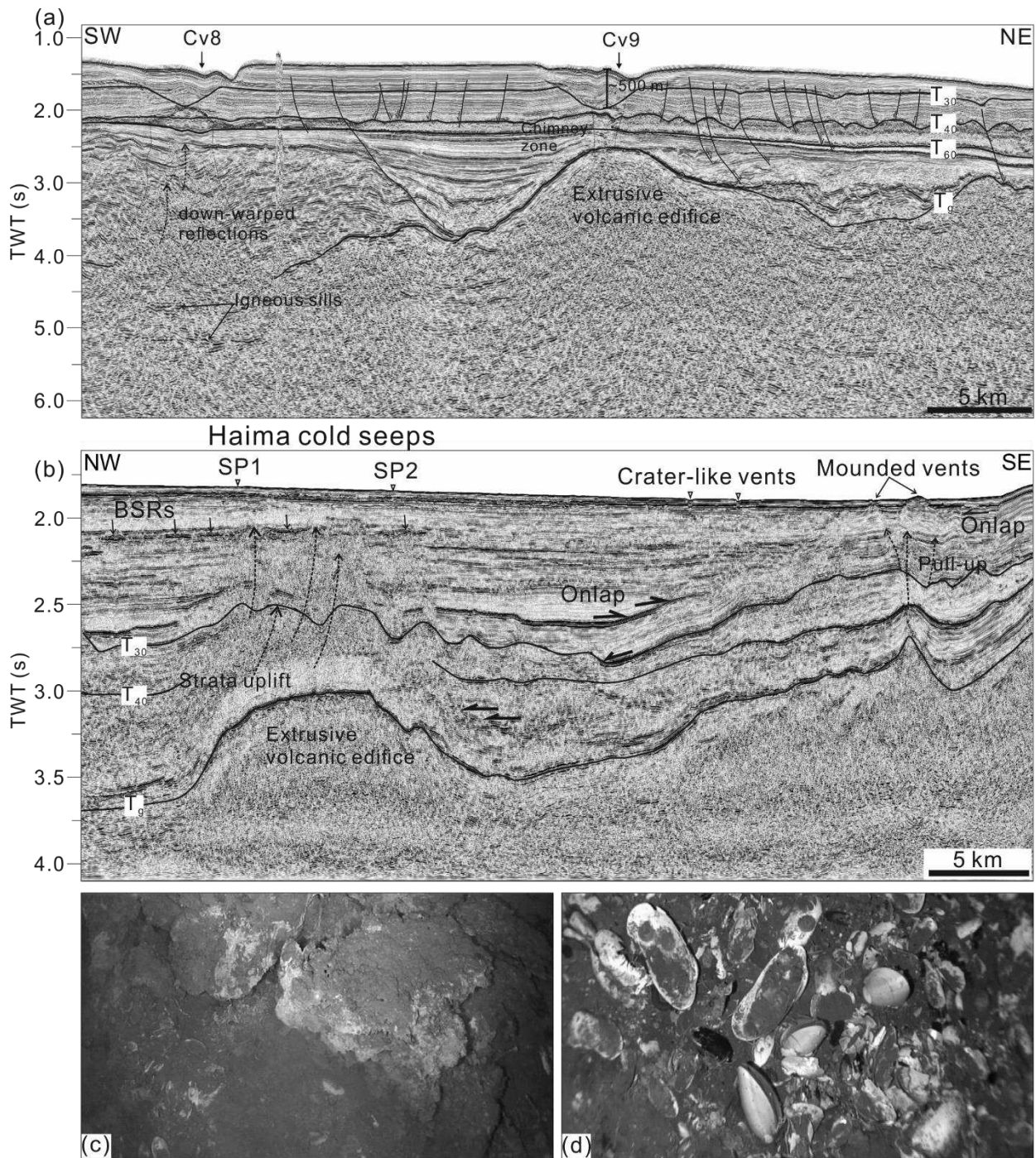


Fig.

8. (a) Interpreted seismic profile across the Zhongjiannan Basin (location shown in Fig. 3b) highlighting the presence of giant craters truncating Horizon T<sub>30</sub> (5.5 Ma). Strata uplift and sediment deformation occur above the volcanic edifice, suggesting later magmatic events. (b) Regional seismic profile of the Haima seep area (Wang et al., 2018) showing local doming, BSRs and cold seeps at the seafloor. See location in Fig. 3. Sediment deformation and seismic dimming along vertical zones is clear in the seismic data. Note the different phases of onlap above Horizon T<sub>g</sub>. (c) and (d) Photographs from the *Haima cold seeps* showing authigenic carbonate pavements (c), together with living and dead clams and related carbonate crusts (d). BSRs: bottom-simulating reflectors.



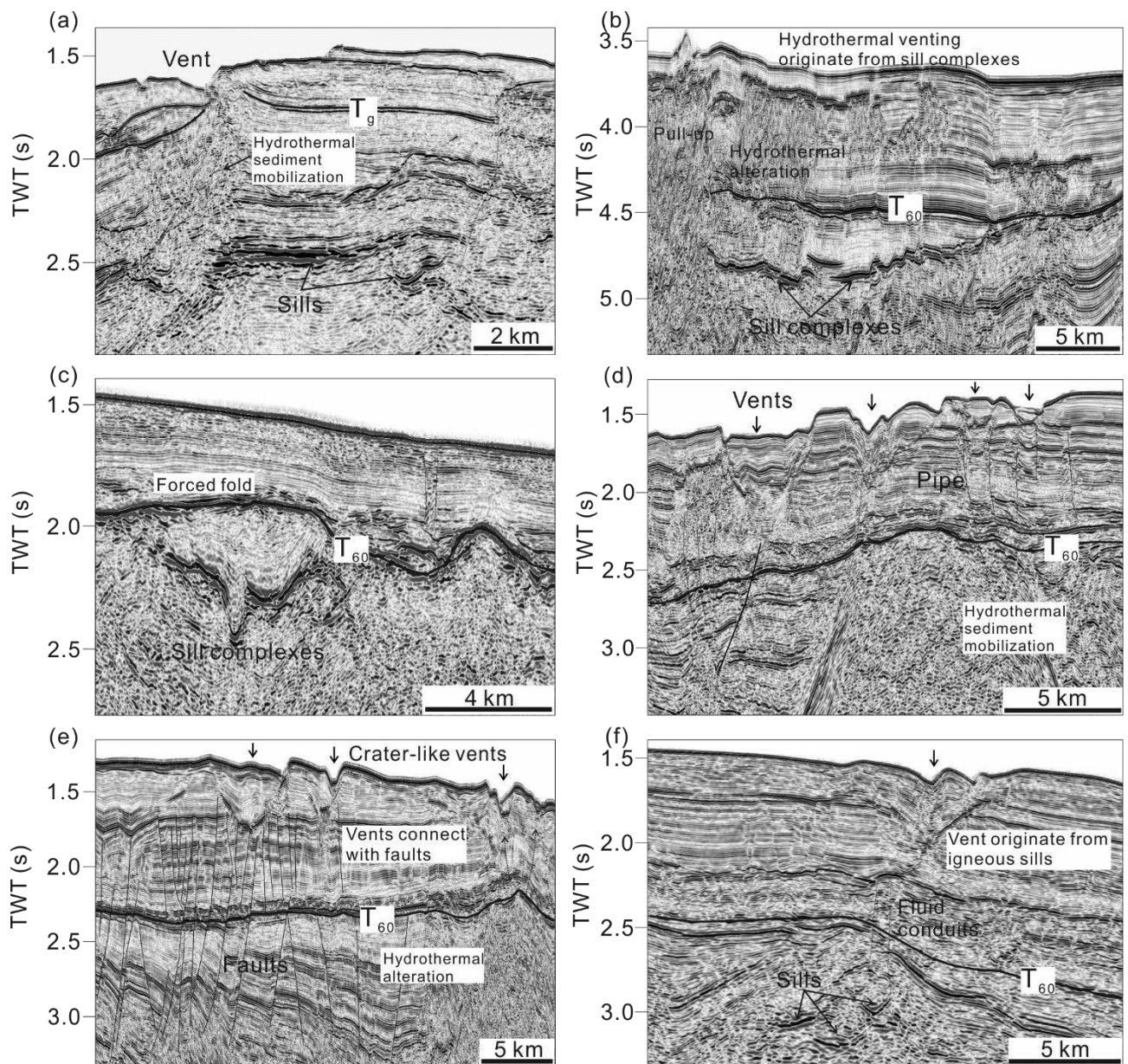
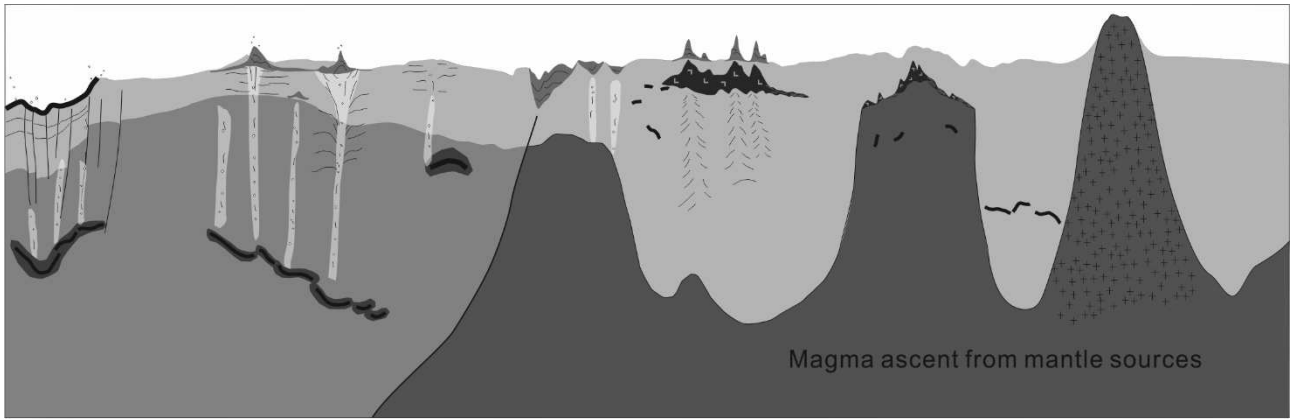


Fig. 9. Seismic examples of hydrothermal venting in the northern South China Sea. (a) Crater-type vent on the modern seafloor above buried igneous sills. (b) Hydrothermal venting connecting with an interconnected transgressive sill complex. (c) Forced-fold structure observed above a saucer-shaped sill. (d) Hydrothermal vents emanating from an underlying volcanic edifice. (e) Crater-type hydrothermal vents above faults. (f) Crater-type vent sourced from igneous sills within syn-rift strata.



- |                    |              |                                        |                  |
|--------------------|--------------|----------------------------------------|------------------|
| Water              | Igneous sill | Hydrothermal Metamorphism              | Mound-type vent  |
| Cenozoic sediments | Faults       | Hydrothermal fluids                    | Crater-type vent |
| Mesozoic sediments | Volcano      | Magmatically modified, rifted basement | Cold seep        |
| Volcanic mounds    | Lava flows   |                                        |                  |

Fig. 10. Schematic diagram illustrating the main magmatic and hydrothermal processes identified in the study area.