

## 1 **Supplementary materials**

### 2 **Abstract:**

3 IODP drilling indicates that the northern central South China Sea (SCS) continental margin  
4 challenged typical magma-poor and magma-rich models by showing features of both models. No  
5 flood basalt or tuff was recovered in the rifting-spreading sequences but widespread high  
6 velocity lower crust magmatic underplating and rapid transition from rifting to seafloor spreading.  
7 In order to reveal its special formation dynamics, the magmatic structure and activities were  
8 analyzed along the multi-channel seismic transect SCS-1 constrained with drilling and OBS data.  
9 We found that magmatism was very active during syn-rift stage from distal margin to the  
10 Continent Ocean Transition zone (COT). Sills and increased diking were observed across a long  
11 distance of about 200 km. Syn-tectonic sedimentation deformation suggested that diking  
12 happened from T80 (~40 Ma) to T60 (~24-28 Ma) and became younger oceanward. Increased  
13 diking finally led to seafloor spreading. Compared with magma-poor margins in  
14 Iberia-Newfoundland, South China Sea has more magma in its late-rifting to early breakup stage.  
15 Accelerated subsidence in the northern continental margin after early Miocene is inconsistent  
16 with the existence of an active mantle plume or hotspot. Therefore we propose that as a  
17 Pacific-type basin, the rifting and magmatic process of SCS might be controlled not only by  
18 stretching, but also by past subduction. Mesozoic subduction zones provided abundant fluid to  
19 the asthenosphere as well as the pre-existing structures to the upper crust, which may contribute  
20 to the wide zones of detachment faults, both inherited and newly formed. Passive upwelling of  
21 fertile asthenosphere caused by slab sinking may provide substantial magma and especially the  
22 deep sourced high magnesium magma, which in turn resulted in the underplating of HVLC and  
23 the associated diking below the highly extended crust.

### 24 25 **1. MORE ABOUT MAGMA-POOR AND MAGMA-RICH MARGIN**

26 Becker et al. (2014) analyzed 8 profiles along the magma-rich (volcanic) South Atlantic  
27 margin and found that high velocity lower crust (HVLC) locates not always below the seaward  
28 dipping reflectors (SDRs), and there is even one profile (No. 3) with HVLC being not accompanied  
29 with SDR. They suggested that HVLC can include two parts, one is horizontally distributed high  
30 velocity mafic magma and its cumulates, the other part is gabbroic intrusion toward extended  
31 continental crust. SDRs were caused by eruption of upwelling magmatism. Thus the SDRs may  
32 off-lap with HVLC due to many reasons, such as magma volume, pre-existing structures,  
33 asymmetric extension and so on. Only when magma increased to a certain degree, it can reach  
34 seafloor to cause flooding basalt eruption.

35 Geoffroy et al. (2015) proposed through mathematical modeling that magma-rich margin  
36 usually develops continentward-dipping normal faults (CDNF) due to active flow of ductile  
37 lithosphere, while magma-poor margin is mainly controlled by oceanward-dipping detachment  
38 faults (ODDF) due to dynamic necking. After comparing nine pairs of passive continental margins,  
39 Clerc et al. (2015, 2018) narrowed down the boundary between magma-poor and magma-rich  
40 margin unintentionally by including Angola-Gabon margins into magma-poor margins, where the  
41 faults dip mainly toward continent. They proposed that CDNFs are generated by faster  
42 flow/extension of the ductile lithosphere (lower crust and/or mantle) than the brittle upper crust,  
43 this process can happen when the lithosphere is warm or weak enough.

44 Based on above-mentioned research progress, the boundary between magma-poor and  
45 magma-rich margin became more and more obscure. The fault dipping direction cannot be  
46 regarded as one of the standards, and definition should mainly concerns about the magmatism.  
47 So magma-rich margin (Huisman et al., 2014; Geoffroy et al., 2015; Clerc et al., 2018) should  
48 include: (1) the high velocity lower crust (HVLC) caused by syn-rift mafic magma underplating; (2)  
49 continental crust strongly intruded by sills and dikes; (3) large volumes of Sea-ward Dipping  
50 Reflectors (SDRs) caused by flood basalt eruption or tuffs. And all the other types fall into the end  
51 of magma-poor margin.

52 Magmatic underplating may occur during rifting or spreading stages, but not necessarily  
53 with high velocity. For example, thick magmatic underplating without high velocity was detected

54 in Gulf of California (Lizarralde et al., 2007; Han et al., 2016). Thus high velocity lower crust  
55 (HVLC) is usually assumed to be related with mantle plume/hot spot magmatic underplating due  
56 to high magnesium composition sourced from deep asthenosphere (White and McKenzie, 1989;  
57 Clerc et al., 2018).

## 58 59 **2. GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND**

60 South China Sea (SCS) was a marginal sea surrounded by subduction zones on three sides  
61 (Figure 1). Onshore outcrop and offshore drilling suggested that SCS started rifting in late  
62 Cretaceous on the background of Mesozoic subduction zone (Li et al., 2018).

63 Rifting started in the Eocene (Pang et al., 2007) and led to seafloor spreading in late  
64 Oligocene (Briais et al., 1993). According to magnetic lineation interpretation, the oceanic crust  
65 formed early in the east around 30 Ma (Taylor and Hayes, 1983; Briais et al., 1993; Li et al., 2014)  
66 and propagated toward west. During extension, the northern continental margin was divided into  
67 several segments by NW-trending transfer faults. The highly extended continent-Ocean transition  
68 zone (COT) is wider in the east than in the west (Li et al., 2019). Inside the highly extended zone,  
69 NE-trending ridges with higher magnetic anomaly were observed (Yeh et al., 2012). OBS velocity  
70 and joint gravity-magnetic forward modeling suggest a magmatic origin and three ridges were  
71 believed to be formed during early Miocene syn-rift or syn-spreading magmatism due to highly  
72 extension (Yeh et al., 2012; Sibuet et al., 2016). Drilling and dredging on the seamounts of the  
73 northern continental margin suggested a peak age of 22-24 Ma (Fan et al., 2017).

74 Our research area locates in the northern central margin, bordered through NW-trending  
75 Yitongansha Fault with the western margin. Joint seismic and gravity data analysis indicated that  
76 the extension generated two depocenters in the slope area, Baiyun and Liwan sags (Pang et al.,  
77 2007).

## 78 **3 DATA AND METHODS**

### 79 **3.1 SEISMIC DATA**

80 The multi-channel seismic data were acquired and processed by CNOOC in various surveys  
81 between 2004 and 2015. Relatively long streamers (6-7.5 km, 480-600 channels) and  
82 moderately-sized, tuned, airgun arrays (3680 to 4100 cu. in.) were used. Sample intervals are 1 or  
83 2 ms, and broad recording bandwidth (open low-cut and up to 400 Hz high-cut filters) is utilized.  
84 The primary processing flow emphasized multiple attenuation and pre-stack time migration. The  
85 consistency in tilting angle between the sample measurement and the internal reflection of  
86 seismic profiles, either in sedimentary sequences or in basement, suggests that the oriented  
87 internal structure of the reflection seismic is reliable in identifying the geological deformation.

### 88 **3.2 FREE AIR GRAVITY ANOMALY DATA**

89 The free-air anomaly (FAA) of gravity data were taken from the global gravity model (V23) of  
90 Sandwell et al. (2014), which has a resolution of 30 arc-seconds, and an improvement by a factor  
91 of 2 to 4 relative to the old altimetry data (Geosat and ERS-1). Many structures can be  
92 discriminated from this new model, such as the Baiyun and Liwan depocenter and the  
93 Shenhu-Yitongansha Fracture zone (SHFZ).

### 94 **3.3 MAGNETIC ANOMALY DATA**

95 The total field magnetic intensity (TMI) anomaly data were taken using the one arc-minute  
96 dataset of East and Southeast Asia, which was compiled from available shipboard and some  
97 onland magnetic data by the Geological Survey of Japan and the Coordinating Committee for  
98 Coastal and Offshore Geoscience Programs in East and Southeast Asia (CCOP) (Ishihara and  
99 Kisimoto, 1996).

### 100 101 **3.4 JOINT FORWARD MODELING**

102 The joint forward modeling of the profiles has been constrained from nearby IODP sites as  
103 well as the oil and gas exploration drilling sites, reflection seismic profiles and velocity structures.  
104 Drilling results (Sun et al., 2018) suggest that the basement of the slope area are made of either  
105 Mesozoic sandstone or greenschist mylonite, which all show extremely weak magnetic  
106 susceptibility. According to drilling in the LF35-1-1 in neighbor areas and sites in the northern

107 shelf area, the crystalized basement may also include Mesozoic granites (Chen et al., 2003), it  
 108 also has weak magnetic anomaly. As gravity modeling, we give a reference to the trend of the  
 109 physical properties of the crust based on the velocity conversion density. The parameters used in  
 110 the forward modeling are listed in Table 1.

111

112 Table 1 Crustal seismic velocities and the corresponding density and magnetic susceptibility  
 113 values obtained from the physical properties of near IODP site drilling and the NafeeDrake  
 114 relationship for present study region (compiled from reference IODP and OBS).

Layer	Continental crust			Transitional crust			Oceanic crust		
Physical properties	Velocity range (km/s)	Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Magnetic Susceptibility (10 <sup>-3</sup> SI)	Velocity range (km/s)	Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Magnetic Susceptibility (10 <sup>-3</sup> SI)	Velocity range (km/s)	Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Magnetic Susceptibility (10 <sup>-3</sup> SI)
Postrift Sediments	1.5~2.0	2.2	0.01~0.1	1.5~2.0	2.2	0.01~0.1	1.5~2.0	2.2	0.01~0.1
Synrift Sediments	2.0~4.0	2.4	0.01~0.1	2.0~4.0	2.4	0.01~0.1	~	~	~
Upper crust	5.5~6.2	2.6		5.5~6.2	2.8		6.0~8.0	2.9	1~10
Lower crust	6.8~6.9	2.8		6.8~6.9	~		~	~	~
Dike	6.8~6.9	2.8	10-70	6.8~6.9	2.8	10-70	~	~	~
Magmatic Underplating	7.2~8.0	2.9	10-20	7.2~8.0	2.9	10~20	~	~	~
Upper mantle	8.1~8.2	3.2		8.1~8.2	3.2		8.1~8.2	3.2	

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## 4. RESULTS

117

### 4.1 SILLS AND DIKING

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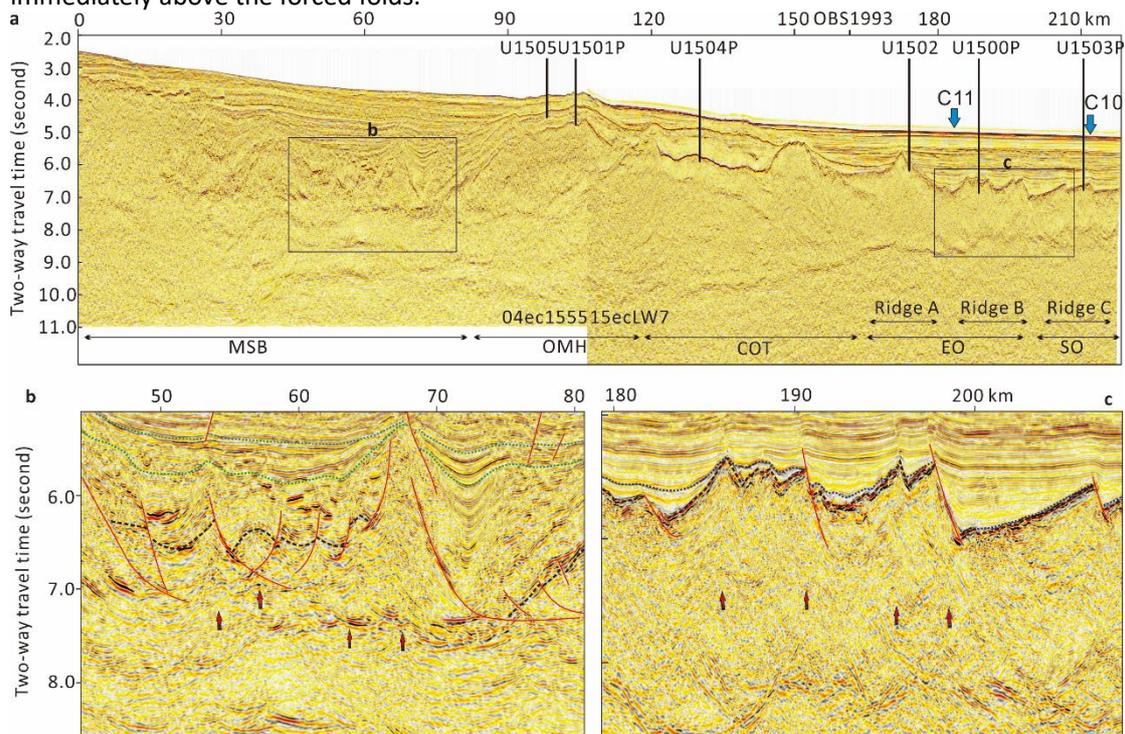
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123

Diking can be discerned on MCS seismic profiles for its through-going  $\lambda$  shape reflections in the crust and sediments (Figure S1, a-c). Strong sill reflections are often seen above or neighbor of the diking reflections. Sills are usually intrusive magma and distribute parallel to the sequences (Figure S1, b). Above the diking reflection, forced folds caused by magmatic upwelling can be observed. They can help dating the time of intrusions by dating the sediment or fossils immediately above the forced folds.



124

125 Figure S1 Two zoom-in seismic profiles (b, c) along the main transect (a) showing the densely  
126 distributed dike zone. b: The segment in the Liwan sag center; c. the segment in the early ocean  
127 area. The position of segment b and c was shown in a.

## 128 129 **4.2 FORWARD MODELING**

130 In order to test whether there is magma underplating and whether dikeing has caused  
131 anomaly on gravity and magnetic, we try to set up three different models in the comprehensive  
132 simulation, Model 1 has no magma underplating, Model 2 has magma underplating but no dikeing,  
133 and Model 3 has both underplating and dikeing with magnetic susceptibility (Figure S3).

134 The joint line SCS-1 (Figure S1) has the best reflection quality, involves clear segment  
135 boundaries, and has better control from refraction data (OBS 1993 of Yan et al., 2001 and a  
136 recent OBS1555, unpublished), as well as the IODP drill hole data (Sun et al., 2018). Comparison  
137 of three models (Figure 3) suggests that underplating is needed to simulate the gravity and  
138 magnetic anomaly. It contributes to the long wavelength magnetic anomaly of the continental  
139 crust, also slightly to the gravity anomaly. While dikeing contributes very little to either gravity or  
140 magnetic anomaly when it's narrow, but will generate magnetic anomaly when it's wide.

141 The low amplitude magnetic anomaly in the continental margin is contributed by two sources if  
142 not considering the magnetic reversals. The underplating of magma (composed of gabbro and  
143 cumulate according to Furlong and Fountain, 1986; White and McKenzie, 1989; Christensen and  
144 Mooney, 1995) is responsible for the long wavelength anomaly, while basement topography  
145 accounts for the superimposed smaller-scale anomalies. Intruding dikes didn't show obvious  
146 magnetic anomaly unless they are wide enough. The magnetic anomaly increased to over 80 nT  
147 in Ridge B and then dropped to -60 nT in Ridge C without large basement topography variation,  
148 so the variation was considered to be caused by geomagnetic reversal. The gravity anomaly  
149 shows a slow but large increase (over 20 mGals) in the early ocean segment, which might suggest  
150 a gradual replacement of the continental crust by mafic components.

151 In summary, forward modeling of gravity and magnetic anomaly verifies that underplating  
152 occurred in the distal margin of the SCS and contributes to long wavelength magnetic anomaly  
153 for the continental margin. Compared with magma-poor margins in Atlantic, South China Sea has  
154 more magma in its late-rifting to early breakup stage and shows a combined feature of both  
155 magma-poor and magma-rich (magmatic underplating).

## 156 157 **4.3 TOMOGRAPHIC EVIDENCES**

158 According to Seton et al. (2015) and Zhang and Li (2018)'s mathematical modeling, the  
159 South China Sea is located above an area surrounded by sinking subducting slabs, which will  
160 stimulate deep asthenosphere upwelling and generate mantle plumes as Hainan. While  
161 Maruyama et al. (2007) believes that surrounded by subduction, this area should have the  
162 coldest mantle, but hydrous plumes at 410 km depth might be easily formed due to the  
163 breakdown reaction of hydrous wadsleyite enriched in incompatible elements. In order to trace  
164 the deep sources for magmatic upwelling, we cut a tomographic transect across the SCS from  
165 global P-wave tomography model MITP08 (Li et al., 2008). The transect coincides with SCS-1 in  
166 the north from COT to early ocean area. On either side of the sinking slab, there is a cluster of  
167 low velocity material, which was supposed to be upwelling asthenosphere corresponding to the  
168 sinking of the slab. During rifting, the upwelling material may be dragged toward the thinning  
169 lithosphere and cause magmatic underplating, intrusions and eruptions.

## 170 171 **5. RIFTING AND BREAKUP MODEL OF SOUTH CHINA SEA**

172 Without SDRs being recognized, the SCS has been classified into magma-poor margin (Song

173 et al., 1998; Franke et al., 2014; Clerc et al., 2018). So most scientists suggested that the HVLC in  
174 the east northern continental margin were underplated either in Mesozoic pre-rifting (Nissen et  
175 al., 1995) or during post-rifting stages (Zhao et al., 2010; Fan et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2018). Yao  
176 (1998) suggested that the HVLC should be underplated mainly during syn-rift stage by upper  
177 mantle melting. After comparing vertical velocity structure with other margins, Wan et al. (2017)  
178 suggested that the HVLC in Dongsha rise has the feature of volcanic arc and might be formed by  
179 Mesozoic subduction, while in highly extended COT area, the HVLC shows strong affinity to  
180 passive continental margin extension. They suggested it as syn-spreading underplating. The  
181 widely distributed HVLC below highly extended rift center and COT area discords with pre-rift  
182 model. Considering the syn-rift magmatic diking and force fold deformation (Figure 2) happened  
183 mainly from T80 to T60, we propose that the associated underplating should happen at similar  
184 age. This is consistent with the age group of magmatism at 40-22 Ma which were widely drilled in  
185 Pearl River Mouth basin (Chen et al., 2003) and discovered in the outcrop of Taiwan island  
186 (Huang et al., 2013; 2018).

187 Scientists discovered the melting of a fertile asthenosphere in the middle Miocene MORB  
188 samples (Zhang et al., 2018) as well as ocean island basalt-type samples from early to late  
189 Miocene, but not in the 25 Ma MORB found in Southern Taiwan (Yu et al., 2018). So Yu et al.  
190 (2018) conjectured that this fertile asthenosphere upwelling might arrive at surface after 23.8 Ma,  
191 which is consistent with the increasing magmatism during early Miocene in the NE continental  
192 margin, as well as the widespread uplift and erosion around T60. Some scientists conjectured this  
193 fertile upwelling was caused by plume during post-spreading stage (Fan et al., 2017; Xia et al.,  
194 2018). However, subsidence history of Pearl River Mouth basin doesn't support a plume or  
195 hotspot related strong uplift after early Miocene, but accelerated subsidence (Xie et al., 2006;  
196 Zhao et al., 2011; Xie et al., 2014). So we propose that the main magmatic upwelling and  
197 underplating may happen during late syn-rift to early spreading stage. Similar to many far-field  
198 magma-rich margins, the mantle upwelling, magmatic underplating and erupting were controlled  
199 by extensional structures and might misfit each other (Becker et al., 2014). Fertile composition of  
200 the upwelling asthenosphere might come from the subduction of surrounding plates (Maruyama  
201 et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2017), especially the Mesozoic subduction beneath South China (Li et al.,  
202 2012; Li et al., 2018), like the Hainan plume (Zhang and Li, 2018).

## 203 6. CONCLUSION

204 Based on seismic interpretation and forward modeling of gravity and magnetics, we suggest  
205 that the northern central margin of SCS might have experienced two stages of magmatic process.  
206 It started with less magmatic extension and highly extended margin with mainly sea-ward dipping  
207 detachment faults formed. Diking induced by decompressive melting increased till breakup  
208 occurred around 30-34 Ma. Fertile upwelling arrived at the seafloor after ~25 Ma and led to  
209 magmatic underplating as well as seamount eruption. Given the co-existence of the MORB and  
210 OIB, the two stages are not completely separated in time. The magmatic overlapping may play an  
211 important role in late rifting and especially spreading process. Therefore, we propose that as a  
212 peri-plate basin, the rifting and magmatic process of SCS might represent a typical 'Pacific-type'  
213 extensional basin typical of marginal seas. The structure and breakup process of such extensional  
214 basins were controlled not only by stretching strain as the Atlantic type basins, but also by the  
215 fertile upwelling and pre-existing structures associated with subduction zones (Figure 5).  
216 Mesozoic subduction zone provided lots of fluid to the SCS continental margin, which make the

217 crust and/or mantle very ductile during syn-rift stage and rapid magma emplacement (Figure  
218 5a), and in turn may contribute to the wide zones of detachment faults (Pang et al., 2018), both  
219 inherited and newly formed. Fertile asthenosphere upwelling induced by subduction and plate  
220 sinking may provide lots of magma and especially the deep sourced high magnesium magma to  
221 the continental margin (Figure 5 b, c), which in turn led to the intrusion and underplating of mafic  
222 magma and the formation of HVLC as well as the strong diking below the highly extended crust  
223 during late rifting (T80, ~ 40 Ma) to early spreading stage (T60, ~24-28- Ma). Eruption may post  
224 date the intrusion and underplating process, and may last in post-rift stage and caused lots of  
225 post-rift or even post-spreading magmatism (Fan et al., 2017; Xia et al., 2018).

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