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1 **Different origins of seafloor undulations in a submarine canyon system, northern**  
2 **South China Sea, based on their seismic character and relative location**

3 Jian Li<sup>a, b</sup>, Wei Li<sup>a, b\*</sup>, Tiago M. Alves<sup>c</sup>, Michele Rebesco<sup>d</sup>, Wenhuan Zhan<sup>a, b</sup>, Jie Sun<sup>a</sup>, Neil C.  
4 Mitchell<sup>e</sup>, Shiguo Wu<sup>f</sup>

5  
6 <sup>a</sup> CAS Key Laboratory of Ocean and Marginal Sea Geology, South China Sea Institute of  
7 Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou 510301, P.R. China

8 <sup>b</sup> University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, P.R. China

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

11 <sup>d</sup> Istituto Nazionale di Oceanografia e di Geofisica Sperimentale (OGS), Borgo Grotta Gigante  
12 42/C, Sgonico, 34010 Trieste, Italy

13 <sup>e</sup> School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, The University of Manchester, Manchester M13  
14 9PL, UK

15 <sup>f</sup> Institute of Deep-sea Science and Engineering, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Sanya 572000, P.R.  
16 China

17 \*Correspondence to: Dr. Wei Li (wli@scsio.ac.cn)

18

19 **Abstract**

20 High-resolution 2D and 3D seismic data are used to investigate the morphology,  
21 internal architecture and origin of widespread seafloor undulations in the eastern area  
22 of a submarine canyon system, northern South China Sea. The seafloor undulations  
23 reveal similar seafloor morphologies, and three different types (Types A, B and C) can  
24 be classified based on their relative locations and internal seismic characters. Types A

25 and B are observed in the canyon areas, whereas Type C occurs in the canyon heads.  
26 Seismic reflections within Types A and C are continuous and have an upslope  
27 migrating trend, while Type B seafloor undulations are separated by listric faults. Our  
28 analysis reveals the origins of these three different types of seafloor undulations. Type  
29 A seafloor undulations are sediment waves formed by turbidity currents flowing  
30 through the submarine canyons. Gravity-driven submarine creep resulted in the  
31 formation of Type B seafloor undulations. Type C undulations are sediment waves  
32 generated by internal waves interacting with the continental slope. Our results provide  
33 information about the origin of widespread seafloor undulations in other submarine  
34 canyon systems. It is also of great significance to future risk assessments, as the study  
35 area now is one of the most active regions for hydrocarbon exploration in SE Asia.

36

37 **Keywords:** South China Sea; Submarine canyons; Seafloor undulations; Bathymetry;  
38 Internal seismic character.

39

## 40 **1 Introduction**

41 Seafloor undulations are one of the most widespread bedforms on both passive  
42 and active continental margins (Symons et al., 2016), revealing a wide range of  
43 morphologies, dimensions and sediment types (Ribó et al., 2018). Seafloor  
44 undulations are generated by a combination of depositional and erosional processes,  
45 and their crests comprise positive features relative to the surrounding seafloor  
46 (Symons et al., 2016). Seafloor undulations have been documented in a wide range of

47 submarine settings, including on continental shelves (Belde et al., 2017), continental  
48 slopes (Ribó et al., 2018), continental rises (Gonthier et al., 2002), abyssal plains  
49 (Baldwin et al., 2017), the slopes of volcanic islands (Pope et al., 2018), and  
50 submarine canyons and channels (Gong et al., 2012). Seafloor undulations are  
51 commonly associated with sediment waves and sediment deformation under  
52 gravity-driven submarine creep (Wynn and Stow, 2002).

53 Sediment waves can be created by along-slope bottom currents, downslope  
54 turbidity currents or by a combination of both their processes (Wynn and Stow, 2002;  
55 Symons et al., 2016). Sediment waves formed by bottom currents are chiefly related  
56 to sediment drifts, with their wavelength and height reaching up to 10 km and 150 m,  
57 respectively (Flood et al., 1993; Wynn and Stow, 2002; Rebesco et al., 2007).  
58 Sediment waves formed by turbidity currents are common in channel levees, canyon  
59 and channel mouths, and typically reveal wavelengths and heights of up to 7 km and  
60 80 m, respectively (Wynn and Stow, 2002). Sediment waves can also be generated by  
61 internal waves (Karl et al., 1986; Reeder et al., 2011; Ribó et al., 2016), and have been  
62 found in the heads of submarine canyons. Here, they show average wave heights of 5  
63 m and wavelengths of up to 650 m (Karl et al., 1986). Sediment waves have been  
64 widely documented on the northern South China Sea margin, especially in the  
65 Qiongdongnan (Jiang et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2017) and Taixinan Basin (Damuth,  
66 1979; Gong et al., 2012; Kuang et al., 2014).

67 Apart from sediment waves formed by depositional and oceanographic processes,  
68 seafloor creep can also generate vast fields of undulations where slope gradients and

69 sedimentation rates are relatively high (Lee and Chough, 2001; Faugeres et al., 2002;  
70 Rebesco et al., 2009; Shillington et al., 2012; Li et al., 2016a). They can generate  
71 waves up to 10 km in length and 100 m in height (Wynn and Stow, 2002). Seafloor  
72 creeping can involve into large-scale submarine landslides, posing major geohazards  
73 to infrastructure such as telecommunication cables and pipelines (Lee and Chough,  
74 2001; Shillington et al., 2012). Therefore, it is of great importance to correctly  
75 identify the origin of seafloor undulations, and to understand the tectonic, sedimentary  
76 and oceanographic setting in which they occur (Shillington et al., 2012; Belde et al.,  
77 2017).

78 A large-scale submarine canyon system, consisting of eighteen regular spaced,  
79 linear, sub-parallel submarine canyons, has been previously documented on the  
80 continental slope of the Pearl River Mouth Basin (He et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2015; Li  
81 et al., 2016b) (Figs. 1 and 2). The study area in this work is situated in the eastern part  
82 of this submarine canyon system at water depths between 600 and 1600 m (Fig. 2).  
83 Here, seafloor undulations are broadly distributed in the thalwegs, flanks and heads of  
84 the studied submarine canyons, and doubts still exist on their origin and formation  
85 processes. The seafloor undulations in the heads and flanks of the canyons have been  
86 proposed to reflect seafloor creep and landslides (He et al., 2014). However, Qiao et  
87 al. (2015) considered that seafloor undulations in the heads of the canyons relate to  
88 creep folds induced by soft sediment deformation, while waves in the lower segment  
89 of canyons are associated to turbidity currents overflowing their thalwegs.  
90 Additionally, seafloor undulations in the heads and on the flanks of canyons are

91 caused by sediment deformation (Li et al., 2016b). Ma et al. (2015) also interpreted  
92 seafloor undulations in the heads and flanks of submarine canyons as failure scars.  
93 Notwithstanding these differing interpretations, it is of great importance to determine  
94 the exact origin and formation processes of these seafloor undulations, and their  
95 implications for future geohazard assessments. The study area is now one of the most  
96 active deep-water regions for hydrocarbon exploration on the northern South China  
97 Sea margin. In this study, a combination of 2D and 3D seismic data, and  
98 high-resolution bathymetry derived from 3D seismic data, are used to:

99 (a) investigate the morphology of the seafloor undulations;

100 (b) describe their detailed internal architectures on high-resolution seismic  
101 profiles;

102 (c) determine the origin of seafloor undulations in different segments of  
103 submarine canyons;

104 (d) discuss the implications of identifying seafloor undulations on continental  
105 margins.

106

## 107 **2 Geological setting**

108 The South China Sea (SCS) is located at the junction between the Pacific, the  
109 Indian-Australian, and the Eurasian tectonic plates, being the largest and deepest  
110 marginal sea in the western Pacific Ocean (Taylor and Hayes, 1980). Several major  
111 sedimentary basins occur along its northern margin, such as the Yinggehai,  
112 Qiongdongnan, Pearl River Mouth, and Taixinan Basins (Xie et al., 2006) (Fig.1). As

113 the largest deep-water basin in the northern South China Sea, the Pearl River Mouth  
114 Basin is also one of the most important petroliferous regions of China (Dong et al.,  
115 2009; Zhu et al., 2009).

116 The Baiyun Sag is an intraslope basin, with a water depth ranging from 200 to  
117 2000 m, part of the larger Pearl River Mouth Basin (Zhu et al., 2010). A submarine  
118 canyon system consisting of eighteen submarine canyons is the most prominent  
119 geomorphologic feature of the Pearl River Mouth Basin (Figs. 1 and 2). This  
120 submarine canyon system records four evolutionary phases based on its internal  
121 seismic facies and spatial distribution (Ma et al., 2015): (1) small individual channels  
122 were initially formed in the middle of the Baiyun Sag (13.8-12.5 Ma); (2) channels  
123 were enlarged in a second stage because decreasing sediment input and stable tectonic  
124 subsidence in the Baiyun Sag increased the slope angle(12.5-10.5 Ma); (3) channels  
125 were broadly distributed and covered the entire Baiyun Sag due to a further decrease  
126 in sediment input, with the Dongsha Event later enhancing the flow of gravity  
127 currents (10.5-5.5 Ma); (4) channel incision ceased in the northeastern Baiyun Sag,  
128 while channels continued to develop in the study area to form modern features (5.5-0  
129 Ma). In the study area, submarine canyons migrated unidirectionally to the NE from  
130 the middle Miocene to the present day due to the continued action of gravity and  
131 bottom currents (Zhu et al., 2010; Gong et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2017; Gong et al.,  
132 2018).

133 Three major water masses exist at different depths on the northern South China  
134 Sea (Fig. 1).They comprise seasonal surface water masses (at < 350 m water depth),

135 intermediate water masses (between 350 m and 1350 m water depth), and deep-water  
136 masses (at > 1350 m water depth) (Chen and Wang, 1998; Chen, 2005; Zhu et al.,  
137 2010; Gong et al., 2013). The study area is mainly affected by intermediate water and  
138 deep-water masses. Intermediate water, itself sourced from the North Pacific  
139 intermediate water, is considered to have an anti-cyclonic flow that was established in  
140 the late Miocene. It is characterised by salinity values between 34.35 and 34.43, with  
141 temperature ranging from 7 to 10°C (Chen and Wang, 1998; Chen, 2005; Yang et al.,  
142 2010; Chen et al., 2014). Deep-water masses associated with the southwestward flow  
143 of the Northern Pacific Deep Water through the Luzon Strait, have a cyclonic  
144 circulation. Deep-water circulation was established in the late Miocene and gradually  
145 evolved into the modern pattern at ~1.0 Ma (Ludmann et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2014).  
146 At present, the velocity of deep-water masses generally varies between 0-2cm/s based  
147 on *in situ* observations (Zhao et al., 2015).

148 Internal waves in the northern South China Sea are the largest waves  
149 documented in the world's oceans (Zhao et al., 2004; Li et al., 2011; Alford et al.,  
150 2015). Active internal wave fields in the northern South China Sea occur in the  
151 vicinity of the Dongsha Island and Shenhu Ansha shoal (Fig. 1). Remote sensing  
152 studies suggest that internal waves originate either from the local continental shelf  
153 break, or from the Luzon Strait on the eastern margin of the South China Sea, as a  
154 result of interactions between strong tides and local bathymetric features (Zhao et al.,  
155 2004; Li et al., 2008). These internal waves propagate into shallow waters and  
156 ultimately dissipate on the continental shelf (Li et al., 2011; Reeder et al., 2011; Ma et



157 al., 2016).

158

### 159 **3 Data and methods**

160 The dataset used in this study consist of high-resolution bathymetric data derived  
161 from 3D seismic and 2D/3D seismic profiles (Figs. 2 and 3). The seismic data were  
162 acquired by China National Offshore Oil Corporation using a 3000-m long streamer  
163 with 240 channels. The 3D seismic volumes were collected with a sampling interval  
164 of 4 ms and processed with a bin spacing of 12.5 m × 25 m in their cross-line and  
165 inline directions, respectively. The frequency bandwidth of the seismic data is 30–45  
166 Hz, providing an average vertical resolution of 8–10 m for the depth of occurrence of  
167 seafloor undulations. The vertical scale for all the seismic profiles used in this study is  
168 two-way travel time (TWT). Schlumberger's Geoframe® 4.5 software was used to  
169 visualise and interpret the seismic data.

170 The interpreted high-resolution bathymetric data covers the submarine canyon  
171 system of the Pearl River Mouth Basin in almost its entirety. Horizontal and vertical  
172 resolutions for the bathymetric data are ~100 m and 3–6 m, respectively. This  
173 resolution is sufficient to gather information on the dimensions, water depths and  
174 orientations of large-scale bedforms on the continental slope (Figs. 2 and 3).

175

## 176 **4 Results**

### 177 **4.1 Seafloor morphology**

#### 178 **4.1.1 General geomorphology**

179 High-resolution bathymetric data shows that the continental slope has an  
180 inclination of  $\sim 2^\circ$  between 300 m and 1600 m water depth (Figs. 2 and 3). The  
181 submarine canyons on the continental slope are connected to the wide continental  
182 shelf and deep-water basin, and are named in this work, from southwest to northeast,  
183 as C1 to C18 (Fig.2). All submarine canyons are roughly perpendicular to the  
184 continental slope, and show a NW-SE orientation. Submarine canyons have lengths of  
185 15-40 km, widths ranging from 2 to 5 km, and incision depths of 100-350 m (Fig.2).  
186 Flanking strata between the submarine canyons become gradually narrower in the  
187 downslope direction(Fig.2).

188 The high-resolution bathymetric map shows that the seafloor in the heads and  
189 flanks of the westernmost submarine canyons C1 to C8 is relatively smooth compared  
190 to the easternmost submarine canyons (C9-C18). The heads of canyons C9 to C18 are  
191 rough and characterised by widespread seafloor undulations. In addition, multiple  
192 slide scarps are observed in the downslope region of the submarine canyons (Fig. 2).  
193 The dimensions of these slide scarps range from hundreds of meters to several  
194 kilometres in length, and can be dozens of meters in height (Fig. 2).

195

#### 196 **4.1.2 Morphological description of the seafloor undulations**

197

198 Seafloor undulations are chiefly located in the canyon thalwegs, flanks and heads  
199 of Canyons C9 to C18 (Figs. 2 and 3).

##### 200 **(a) Seafloor undulations on the canyon flanks and lower slope**

201 Compared to seafloor undulations at the canyon heads, undulations on the flanks  
202 and lower slope are smaller and more complex in plan view (Figs. 2 and 3). It is  
203 difficult to trace the crests of the seafloor undulations on the bathymetric map.  
204 However, the bathymetric profiles reveal that the wavelength (measured from trough  
205 to trough) of seafloor undulations varies from 1 km to 2 km on the canyon flanks and  
206 lower slope (Fig. 4). Wave height ranges from 50 m to 100 m. In addition, a series of  
207 slide scars are observed on the canyon flanks (Fig. 2).

208

#### 209 **(b) Seafloor undulations in the canyon heads**

210 Multiple seafloor undulations were identified in the heads of the canyons at a  
211 water depth between 600 m and 900 m. Their strikes are roughly perpendicular to the  
212 canyon axis (Figs. 3 and 5a). The crests of the seafloor undulations (see red lines in  
213 Fig 3b), are generally parallel or sub-parallel to the bathymetric contours. In addition,  
214 the crests of the seafloor undulations show no clear bifurcation in plan view.  
215 Topographic profiles crossing the head of the canyons reveal a variety of dimensions  
216 with wavelength ranging from 0.8 km to 1.5 km (Fig. 5). Wave height ranges from 20  
217 m to 50 m.

218

#### 219 **4.2 Seismic characteristics of the seafloor undulations**

220 Several high-resolution seismic profiles crossing the thalwegs, flanks and heads  
221 of the submarine canyon system image the internal architecture of the seafloor  
222 undulations (Fig. 2). The seafloor undulations can therefore be divided into three main

223 types, A, B and C, based on their internal architecture and relative locations in the  
224 submarine canyon system.

225

#### 226 **4.2.1 Type A seafloor undulations**

227 Type A undulations are observed in the lower segments of the canyon thalwegs  
228 (Figs. 3, 6 and 7). The sedimentary succession affected by the undulations has a  
229 thickness of ~200 ms TWT (Fig.7). Seismic profiles show that most seismic  
230 reflections are continuous, and can be traced from one wave to the next (Figs. 6 and 7).  
231 However, multiple mass-transport deposits (MTDs), characterised by discontinuous  
232 and chaotic internal seismic reflections, are also observed, proving that important  
233 sediment instability has occurred in the lower segment of the canyon thalwegs (Fig.7).

234 Discrete undulations reveal an asymmetric morphology with gentle upslope  
235 flanks and steep downslope flanks (Fig. 7). They are commonly thicker on their  
236 upslope flanks. Undulations show a marked trend for upslope migration (Fig.7b).  
237 Deeply buried undulations show relatively shorter upslope flanks and longer  
238 downslope flanks (Fig. 7). In contrast, the upslope flanks of shallow-buried  
239 undulations are longer than their downslope counterparts (Fig. 7). Downslope flanks  
240 also reveal erosional truncations in shallow-buried undulations (Fig. 7).

241

#### 242 **4.2.2 Type B seafloor undulations**

243 Type B undulations occur on the canyon flanks, further upslope when compared  
244 to Type A. High-resolution seismic lines crossing the canyon flank between C11 and

245 C12 reveal the internal architecture of Type B undulations (Figs. 2, 6, 8 and 9). The  
246 sedimentary succession affected by these undulations has a thickness of ~200 ms  
247 TWT. A series of high-amplitude (enhanced) seismic reflections can be identified  
248 along the base of the undulations (Figs. 6, 8 and 9a). They are usually distributed  
249 around, or above, focused fluid-flow structures such as gas chimneys (Figs. 8 and 9a).

250 Seismic reflections in Type B undulations are not continuous and cannot be  
251 traced across the troughs separating distinct sediment waves. Most of these  
252 undulations are separated by listric faults (Figs. 6, 8 and 9). The troughs of the  
253 undulations are related to displacements of ~100ms TWT along the fault planes (Fig.  
254 9).

255 Type B undulations are characterised by their asymmetric morphology (Fig. 9).  
256 Upslope flanks reveal sub-parallel seismic reflections, whereas their downslope flanks  
257 are thin and show erosional truncation within shallow undulations (Fig. 9). The crests  
258 of Type B undulations also show an apparent upslope migration trend.

259

### 260 **4.2.3 Type C seafloor undulations**

261 Type C undulations are observed close to the heads of the canyons. The thickness  
262 of the strata affected by Type C undulations decreases from ~200 ms TWT to ~100 ms  
263 TWT in a downslope direction (Figs. 6, 10 and 11). Type C undulations are  
264 characterised by their wavy, asymmetric morphology and laterally continuous seismic  
265 reflections, although chaotic seismic reflections can also be identified due to the  
266 presence of MTDs (Fig. 11b). The upslope flanks of the undulations are characterised

267 by aggradation, whereas their downslope flanks are dominated by erosion and  
268 non-deposition. Thus, the crests of Type C undulations reveal an upslope migration  
269 trend with time. Note that some of shallow buried undulations reveal erosional  
270 truncation on their downslope flanks (Fig. 10a).

271

## 272 **5 Discussion**

273

### 274 **5.1 Genesis of widespread seafloor undulations in a submarine canyon system**

275

276 Seafloor undulations have been observed in submarine canyon systems all  
277 around the world (Gonthier et al., 2002; Gong et al., 2012; Ribó et al., 2018). Four  
278 main hypotheses have been proposed for their genesis based on the environment  
279 settings in which seafloor undulations occur, their morphological characteristics, and  
280 internal architectures. These four hypotheses include: (1) bottom currents (Masson et  
281 al., 2002; Baldwin et al., 2017; Belde et al., 2017); (2) turbidity currents (Lewis and  
282 Pantin, 2002; Normark et al., 2002; McCave, 2017); (3) internal waves (Karl et al.,  
283 1986; Droghei et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2016; Ribó et al., 2016); and (4) gravity-driven  
284 downslope submarine creeps (Lee and Chough, 2001; Shillington et al., 2012; Li, et  
285 al., 2016a). In the following sections, the formation mechanisms of seafloor  
286 undulations are discussed for the study area based on the criteria proposed by Wynn  
287 and Stow (2002) and Symons et al. (2016).

288

289       **5.1.1 Origin and formation process of Type A seafloor undulations(canyon**  
290 **thalwegs)**

291

292       Turbidity currents are major downslope sediment transport processes, and are  
293 commonly identified in submarine canyons, channels and gullies (Shepard, 1981;  
294 Parker, 1982; Canals et al., 2006; Talling et al., 2015; Paull et al., 2018). Sediment  
295 waves generated by turbidity currents have been documented in regions such as the  
296 Monterey Fan channel (Normark et al., 1980), on the South Iberian Margin (Alves et  
297 al., 2003; Perez-Hernandez et al., 2014) and in the northern South China Sea (Gong et  
298 al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2013).

299       In the study area, Type A undulations are closely linked to the lower segments of  
300 the canyon thalwegs (Figs. 26 and 7). Internal seismic reflections within the  
301 undulations are continuous and can be traced from one wave to the next (Figs. 6 and  
302 7). Each undulation reveals an asymmetric morphology, with gentle upslope flanks  
303 and steep downslope flanks (Fig. 7). All these undulations show a significant trend of  
304 upslope migration as their upslope flanks accumulate sediment more rapidly than their  
305 downslope flanks (Fig. 7). Based on criteria proposed by Wynn and Stow (2002),  
306 Type A undulations are similar to sediment waves generated by turbidity currents, e.g.  
307 the Selvagens sediment-wave field, NE Atlantic (Wynn et al., 2000), and the  
308 Hikurangi Trough east of New Zealand (Lewis and Pantin, 2002).

309       Our study area is located on the continental slope of the northern South China  
310 Sea. In this region, multiple submarine instability features, i.e. creeps, slumps and

311 landslide complexes, are developed in an area incised by multiple submarine canyons  
312 (He et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2016). Previous studies suggest that turbidity currents are  
313 produced by the downslope transport of slumps and mass flows (Parker, 1982; Ercilla  
314 et al., 2002). Li et al. (2015) also suggest that slumps and mass flows occurred  
315 frequently in the past to generate turbidity currents in submarine canyon systems of  
316 the northern South China Sea margin. As discussed above, we infer that Type A  
317 undulations comprise sediment waves produced by turbidity currents associated with  
318 frequent slumping and mass wasting in the submarine canyons.

319

#### 320 **5.1.2 Origin and formation processes of Type B seafloor undulations (canyon** 321 **flanks)**

322

323 The internal seismic reflections within Type B undulations are not continuous,  
324 and cannot be traced across successive troughs separating the observed undulations  
325 (Figs. 6, 8 and 9). These troughs are commonly associated with listric faults (Figs. 6,  
326 8 and 9). Undulations are generally thicker on their upslope flanks, and thinner (or  
327 even eroded) in their downslope flanks (Fig. 9). Seafloor undulations associated with  
328 listric faults have been documented by Faugères et al. (2002) and Gonthier et al.  
329 (2002). They were interpreted as reflecting gravity-driven downslope submarine creep.  
330 The basic conditions for the formation of submarine creeps have been summarised by  
331 Hill et al. (1982), including the presence of faulting and glide planes. When  
332 deforming the sediments, a basal décollement zone is formed at the lower boundary of



333 the strata. Listric faults act as glide planes for the displacement of the layered  
334 sediment. The regional slope gradient of submarine canyon systems varies from 1.5°  
335 to 2.5°, being ~1.6° on average (He et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016b).

336 In the study area, Type B undulations are mainly located on the canyon flanks,  
337 where slope gradients are steep (up to 8 degrees). Sediment drilled on the flanks of the  
338 submarine canyons' lower segments consists of massive silty mud and a few sandy to  
339 silty intervals with weak layers (Qiao et al., 2015). Here, soft sediment deformation  
340 (submarine creep) is likely controlled by the slope gradient and strength of the  
341 sediment (Wynn and Stow, 2002). Due to progressing gravity-driven downslope  
342 deformation, the local accumulating of strain resulted in the development of local  
343 faults within sediment waves (Liet al., 2016a). Listric faults are developed within  
344 troughs, leading to significant displacement of adjacent undulations (Fig 9). Thus, we  
345 interpret Type B undulations as the result of soft sediment deformation produced by  
346 gravity-driven downslope submarine creep.

347 Additionally, gas chimneys, pipes, large-scale normal faults and shallow gas are  
348 widespread on the lower slope of the interpreted submarine canyon system (Sun et al.,  
349 2012; Chen et al., 2016). Abundant acoustic anomalies, revealed as high-amplitude  
350 (enhanced) seismic reflections, can be observed close to the lower boundary of Type  
351 B undulations (Figs. 6, 8 and 9a). Elsewhere, similar enhanced seismic reflections  
352 have been associated with free gas and fluid accumulated in shallow strata (e.g. Sun et  
353 al., 2012; 2017). Gas chimneys, pipes and faults can act as pathways for the vertical  
354 migration of free gas and fluids (Sun et al., 2017). The presence of free gas and fluid

355 increases overpressure in shallow strata, and reduces its shear strength until the  
356 creeping movements occur (e.g. Sultan et al., 2004; Urlaub et al., 2018).

357

### 358 **5.1.3 Origin and formation process of the Type C seafloor undulations (canyon** 359 **heads)**

360 Type C undulations are identified in the canyon head areas (Figs. 3, 6, 10 and 11).  
361 The origin of these undulations has been interpreted in He et al. (2014), Qiao et al.  
362 (2015), Ma et al. (2015), and Li et al. (2016b). Some of these authors have suggested  
363 that seafloor undulations were generated by submarine soft-sediment deformation due  
364 to slow gravity-driven downslope creeping (He et al., 2014; Qiao et al., 2015). Others  
365 have stressed their association with failure scars and fissures (Ma et al., 2015; Li et al.,  
366 2016b). Obviously, debate still exists about the origin and formation processes of  
367 Type C undulations.

368 The internal seismic reflections of Type C undulations can be traced across the  
369 crests and troughs of each wave in the canyon heads (Figs. 6, 10 and 11). Such an  
370 internal seismic architecture suggests a depositional origin for Type C undulations,  
371 rather than creeping and faulting. These undulations are similar to sediment waves  
372 formed by turbidity currents on continental margins (Wynn and Stow, 2002). However,  
373 the study area is located on the upper continental slope and is connected to a wide  
374 continental shelf (Fig. 1). Type C undulations are widespread in the canyon heads, but  
375 there is no major sediment source nearby, capable of producing unconfined turbidity  
376 flows. For this reason, we consider unlikely Type C seafloor undulations to be

377 generated by turbidity currents.

378 Previous studies have considered bottom currents as an important process  
379 forming sediment waves, such as in parts of the northeast Rockall Trough (Masson et  
380 al., 2002), the Caroline Basin in the West Pacific Ocean (Baldwin et al., 2017), and  
381 even in lakes (Ceramicola et al., 2001). Bottom currents, which are associated with  
382 the North Pacific intermediate water, affect the northern South China Sea at a water  
383 depth of 350-1350 m (Chen and Wang, 1998; Chen, 2005; Zhu et al., 2010; Chen et  
384 al., 2014). Bottom currents flow to the northeast along the continental slope and affect  
385 sedimentation in the studied submarine canyon system (Zhu et al., 2010; Gong et al.,  
386 2013; Jiang et al., 2017). Sediment waves formed by bottom currents are normally  
387 oblique to the continental slope, and their crests are aligned perpendicularly or  
388 obliquely to bottom current flows (Wynn and Stow, 2002). The crests of these  
389 sediment waves are also straight or slightly sinuous, such as this of sediment waves at  
390 the toe of the South China Sea continental slope, southwest Taiwan (Gong et al.,  
391 2012). In contrast with the latter geometries, the crests of Type C undulations are  
392 characterised by their curved shape in plan view, and are generally parallel or  
393 sub-parallel to the bathymetric contours (Figs. 2 and 3). We thus consider unlikely  
394 that bottom currents are responsible for the Type C undulations.

395 In recent years, an increasingly larger number of studies have considered internal  
396 waves as a formation mechanism for the generation of seafloor sediment waves (Karl  
397 et al., 1986; Reeder et al., 2011; Ribó et al., 2016). In fact, the South China Sea hosts  
398 the largest internal waves observed in the world's oceans (Li et al., 2011; Alford et al.,

399 2015) (Fig. 1). They are the result of the interaction between strong tidal currents and  
400 the abrupt local bathymetry (Zhao et al., 2004; Li et al., 2008). Several fields of  
401 sediment wave have been reported on the continental shelf and slope off the Dongsha  
402 Islands, and they were interpreted as generated by internal waves interacting with the  
403 continental margin (Reeder et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2016). Our study area is just located  
404 on the western continental slope of the Dongsha Islands (Fig. 1), where internal waves  
405 have been documented by Ma et al. (2016). This indicates that the seafloor undulations  
406 in the canyon head areas might be produced by internal waves.

407 The breaking of internal waves on slope surfaces can create intense turbulence  
408 near the seafloor, generating local bottom currents with sufficient strength to  
409 resuspend and transport sediment (Bogucki and Redekopp, 1999; Ribbe and Holloway,  
410 2001; Reeder et al., 2011). Moreover, internal waves' energy may be amplified at the  
411 canyon heads, as documented in the Hudson Canyon on the US Atlantic margin  
412 (Hotchkiss and Wunsch, 1982), and the Navarinsky Canyon in the Bering Sea (Karl et  
413 al., 1986). Consequently, when internal waves interact with the heads of the  
414 submarine canyons, they can become unstable, break and transfer wave energy to  
415 generate intense turbulence near the seafloor (Reeder et al., 2011; Pomar et al., 2012;  
416 Ribóet al., 2016). These seafloor-fluid mixtures, under the action of gravity, move  
417 downslope (Hotchkiss and Wunsch, 1982; Karl et al., 1986; Pomar et al., 2012).

418 A recent study by Ma et al. (2016) indicates that two types of sand waves can be  
419 discerned near the shelf break of the northern South China Sea. The crests of sand  
420 waves generated by internal tides are parallel to the isobaths, and are similar to the

421 crests in the canyon heads of our study area (Fig. 3b). A primary question about the  
422 observed internal waves is how were they generated. Two sources of internal waves  
423 have been observed in the northern South China Sea. Based on remote sensing images,  
424 internal waves have been related to tidal action and Kuroshio current flow over the  
425 Luzon Strait on the eastern margin of the South China Sea (Zhao et al., 2004; Li et al.,  
426 2008). The other source of internal waves in the South China Sea is associated to the  
427 shelf break, which records incident trans-basin waves and internal tides (Guo et al.,  
428 2012; Reeder et al., 2011).

429 We infer that the Type C undulations identified in this work are most likely  
430 generated by internal waves. The source of these internal waves cannot be confirmed  
431 due to the lack of field measurements. In addition, when internal tides propagate, their  
432 energy dissipates because of inherent mixing processes in the ocean, accompanied by  
433 the generation of internal solitary waves (Guo et al., 2012). Therefore, more work is  
434 needed (e.g. *in situ* measurements and numerical simulations) to determine the source  
435 of the internal waves affecting the canyon head areas.

436

## 437 **5.2. Significance of widespread seafloor undulations to geohazard assessments in** 438 **the Pearl River Mouth Basin**

439

440 The formation of seafloor undulations has been attributed to a variety of  
441 sedimentary, tectonic, and gravitational processes (Cartigny et al., 2011; Shillington et  
442 al., 2012). It is of great significance to correctly pinpoint the origin of seafloor

443 undulations as they are essential for understanding the oceanographic, sedimentary,  
444 and tectonic evolution of basins and margins and, particularly, for assessing  
445 geohazards related to slope instability (Shillington et al., 2012). The Pearl River  
446 Mouth Basin is one of the most important hydrocarbon-rich basins in the northern  
447 South China Sea and has been the focus of hydrocarbon expeditions and academic  
448 drilling (ODP Site 1148, IODP Expedition 349) for the past two decades (Li et al.,  
449 2005; Li et al., 2014). The submarine canyon area is also a target area for gas-hydrate  
450 exploration, e.g. the Shenhu area between Canyons C9 and C11 (Guan and Liang,  
451 2018).

452 In this study, three different types of seafloor undulations (Types A, B and C)  
453 (Fig. 12) have been identified in the submarine canyons. These seafloor undulations  
454 show very similar morphologies on the bathymetric maps in Figs. 2 and 3. However,  
455 the internal architectures of these undulations are markedly different. Internal seismic  
456 reflections within Types A and C undulations are continuous and all show an apparent  
457 upslope migrating pattern (Figs. 7,10 and 11). Types A and C sediment waves are  
458 purely generated by sedimentary processes (turbidity currents and internal waves).  
459 They are interpreted as the result of turbidity currents flowing within submarine  
460 canyons and internal waves interacting with the continental slope, respectively.  
461 However, their downslope flanks are quite steep (reaching 8 degrees) and show  
462 lengths of up to 700m. As such, the downslope flanks can be preferential areas for  
463 slope instability. Type B undulations are the seafloor manifestations of gravity-driven  
464 submarine creeping, and resemble the creep folds documented by Shillington et al.

465 (2012) and Li et al. (2016a). They are commonly associated with listric faults, which  
466 act as potential glide planes for future slope instability (e.g. Li et al., 2016a).  
467 Resulting submarine landslides can pose catastrophic risks to oil and gas exploration  
468 and development (e.g. Piper et al., 1999). Therefore, more studies are required to  
469 determine the exact distribution of Type B seafloor undulations in the multiple  
470 submarine canyon systems of the northern South China Sea.

471

## 472 **6 Conclusions**

473 High-resolution 2D and 3D seismic data allowed us to investigate the morphology,  
474 internal architecture and origin of widespread seafloor undulations in the eastern area  
475 of a submarine canyon system, northern South China Sea. The main conclusions of  
476 this work are as follows:

477

478 (1) Seafloor undulations are distributed through canyon flanks, thalwegs and  
479 canyon-head areas. These seafloor undulations on the canyon flanks and thalwegs  
480 have wavelengths up to 2 km and heights up to 100 m. The wavelengths and wave  
481 heights on the canyon head areas are up to 1.5 km and 50m, respectively.

482 (2) All identified undulations have similar morphologies on bathymetric maps,  
483 but the three different types of seafloor undulations (Types A, B and C) can be  
484 determined based on their relative locations and internal characters. Type A  
485 undulations occur mainly in the canyon thalwegs, and their internal seismic  
486 reflections are continuous, showing an apparent upslope migrating trend. Seismic

487 reflections within Type B undulations are not continuous, but separated by listric  
488 faults. Type C undulations are observed in the canyon heads and their crests are  
489 roughly parallel to the local bathymetry.

490 (3) Types A and C undulations are sediment waves purely generated by  
491 sedimentary processes. Type A sediment waves are formed by turbidity currents  
492 flowing through the submarine canyons. Type C sediment waves most likely result  
493 from internal waves, which are amplified in the canyon heads, interacting with the  
494 continental slope. Type B undulations result from the gravity-driven (downslope)  
495 submarine creeping.

496 (4) To correctly identify the origin, formation processes and distribution of  
497 sediment waves in the submarine canyon systems off South China will be of great  
498 significance for future geohazard assessments in what is a hydrocarbon-rich basin of  
499 the South China Sea.

500

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510

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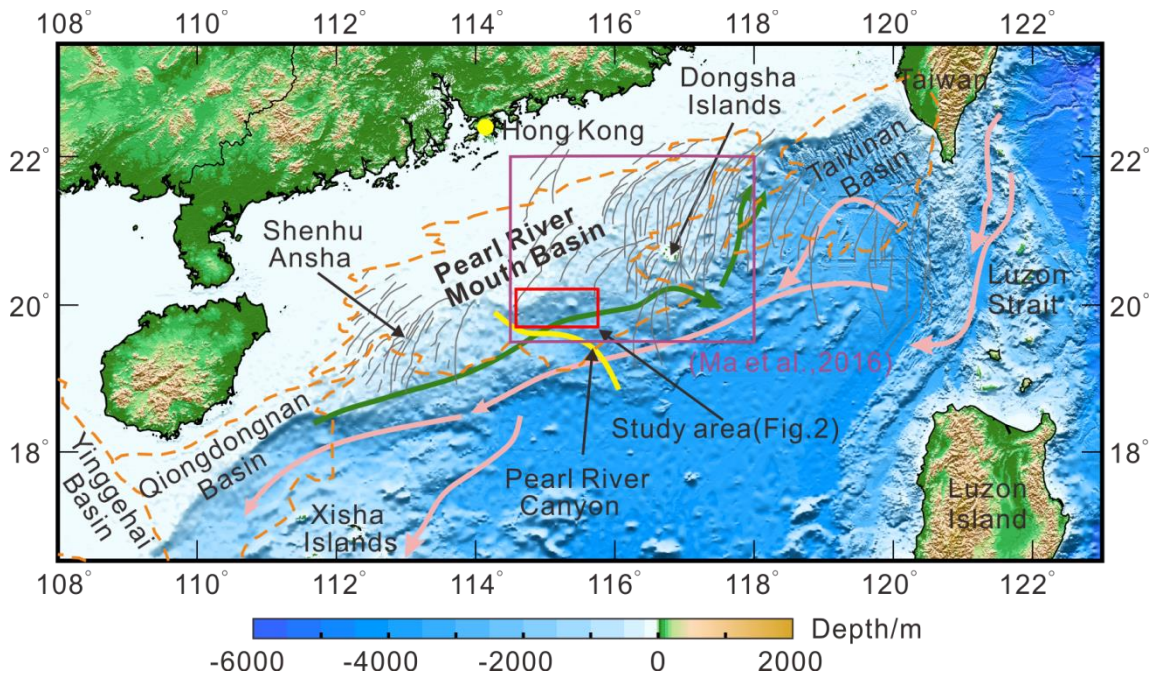
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777 **Figures and Figure Captions**

778



779

780 Fig.1 Bathymetric map of the northern South China Sea margin. The orange dashed

781 lines highlight the distribution of four major deep-water sedimentary basins. The

782 yellow curve represents the location of the Pearl River Canyon. The grey curves

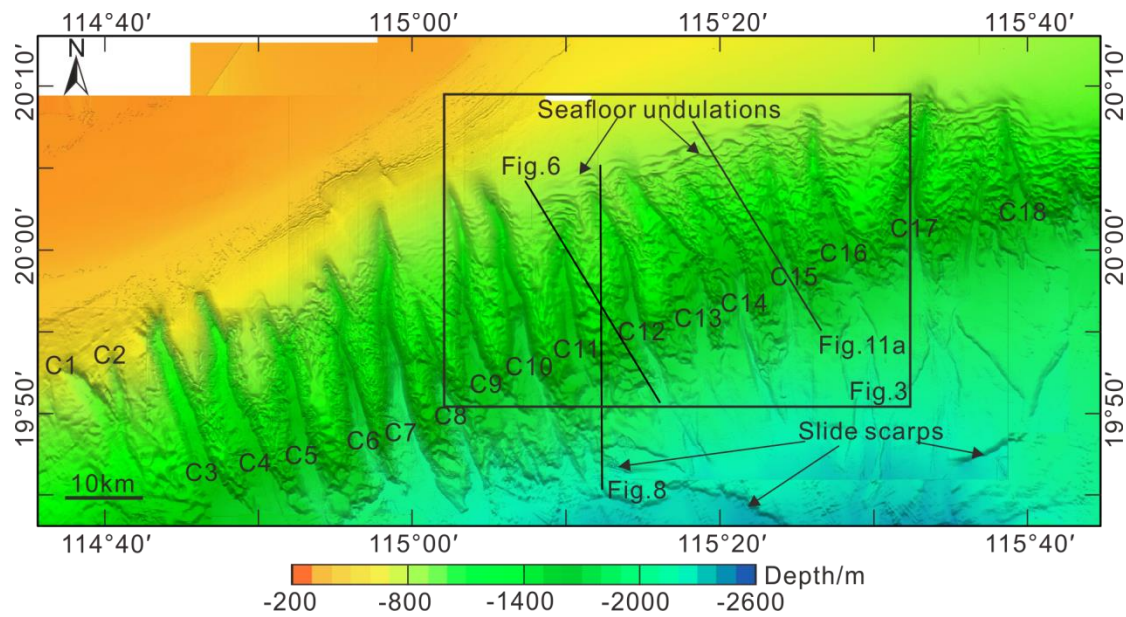
783 represent internal waves observed in satellite imagery (extracted from Zhao et al.,

784 2004; Li et al., 2011). The red box outlines the area enlarged in Figure 2. The purple

785 box represents extent of internal waves and the region of *in situ* current measurements

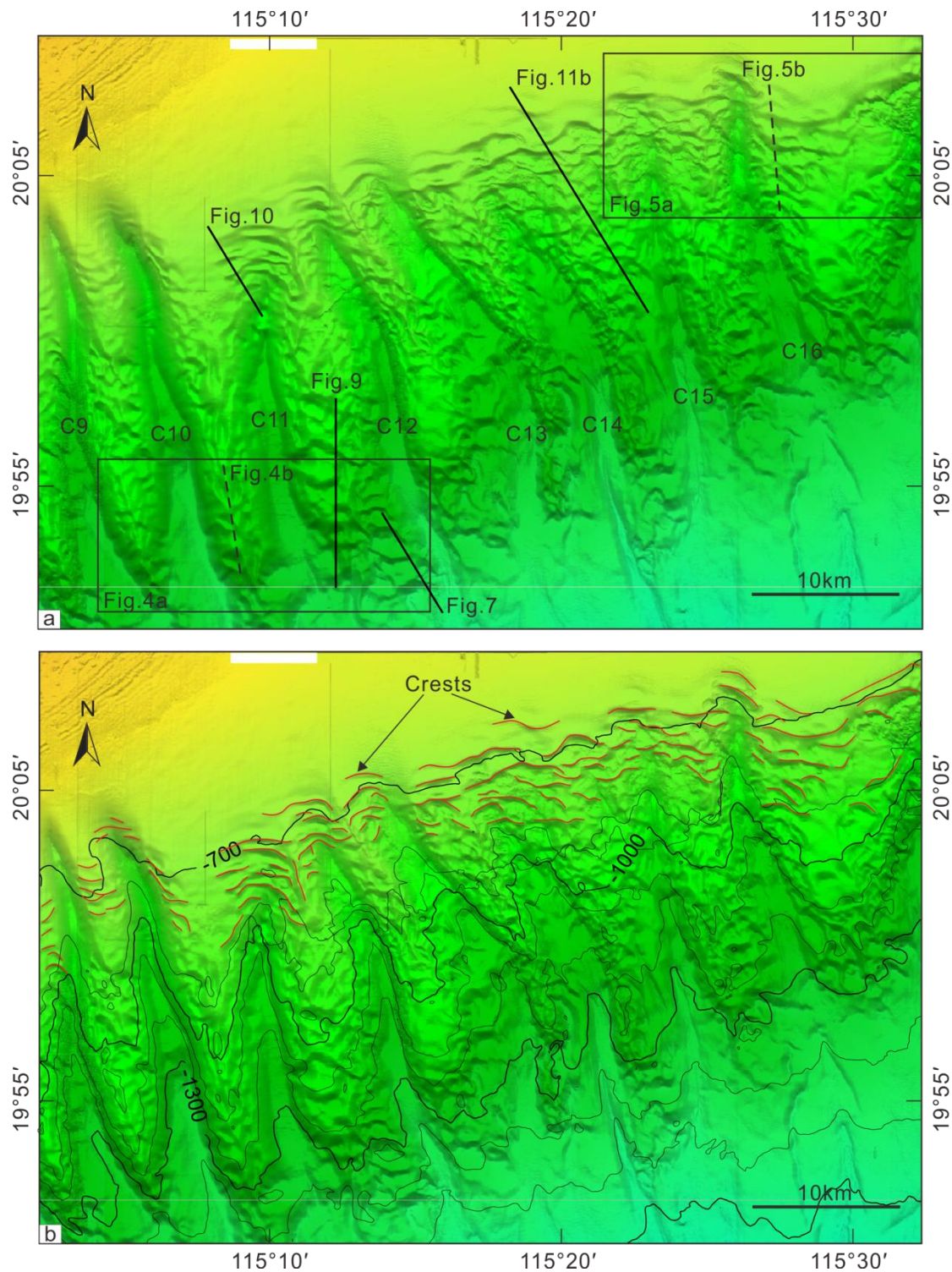
786 (Ma et al., 2016). The green and pink arrows indicate the circulation pathways of

787 intermediate and deep-water masses, respectively (modified after Chen et al., 2014).



788

789 Fig. 2 High-resolution bathymetric map of the study area showing eighteen submarine  
 790 canyons (C1 to C18) with a NW-SE orientation. Note that the heads of C9 to C18  
 791 show widespread seafloor undulations. Several slide scarps are clearly identified  
 792 downslope from the submarine canyons. The black box represents the location of  
 793 Figure 3. The black lines show the location of the high-resolution seismic profiles in  
 794 Figures 6, 8 and 11.

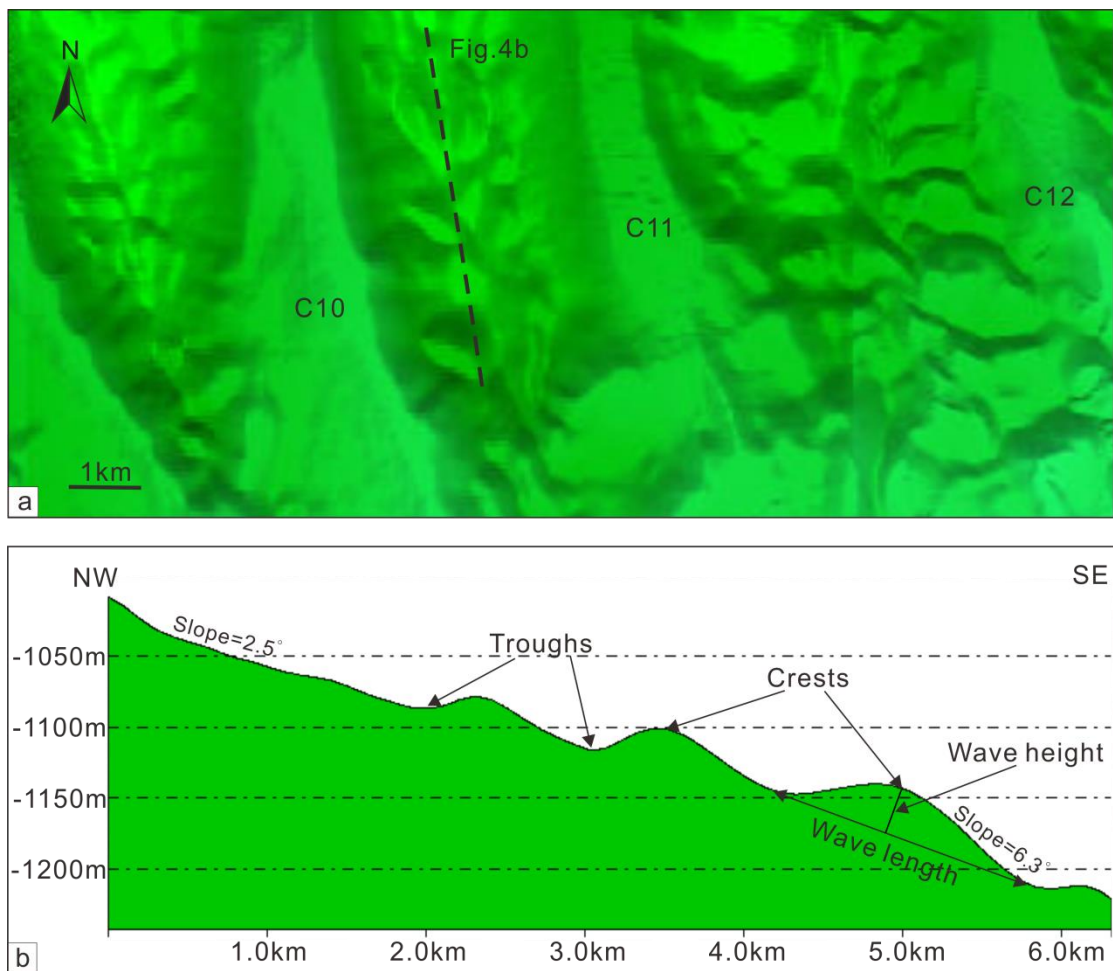


795

796 Fig. 3 (a) Bathymetric map illustrating the detailed morphology of the studied  
 797 seafloor undulations. Seafloor undulations are mainly located at the heads and flanks  
 798 of the submarine canyons. The black solid lines represent the locations of the 2D  
 799 seismic profiles used in this study. The black dotted lines indicate the locations of

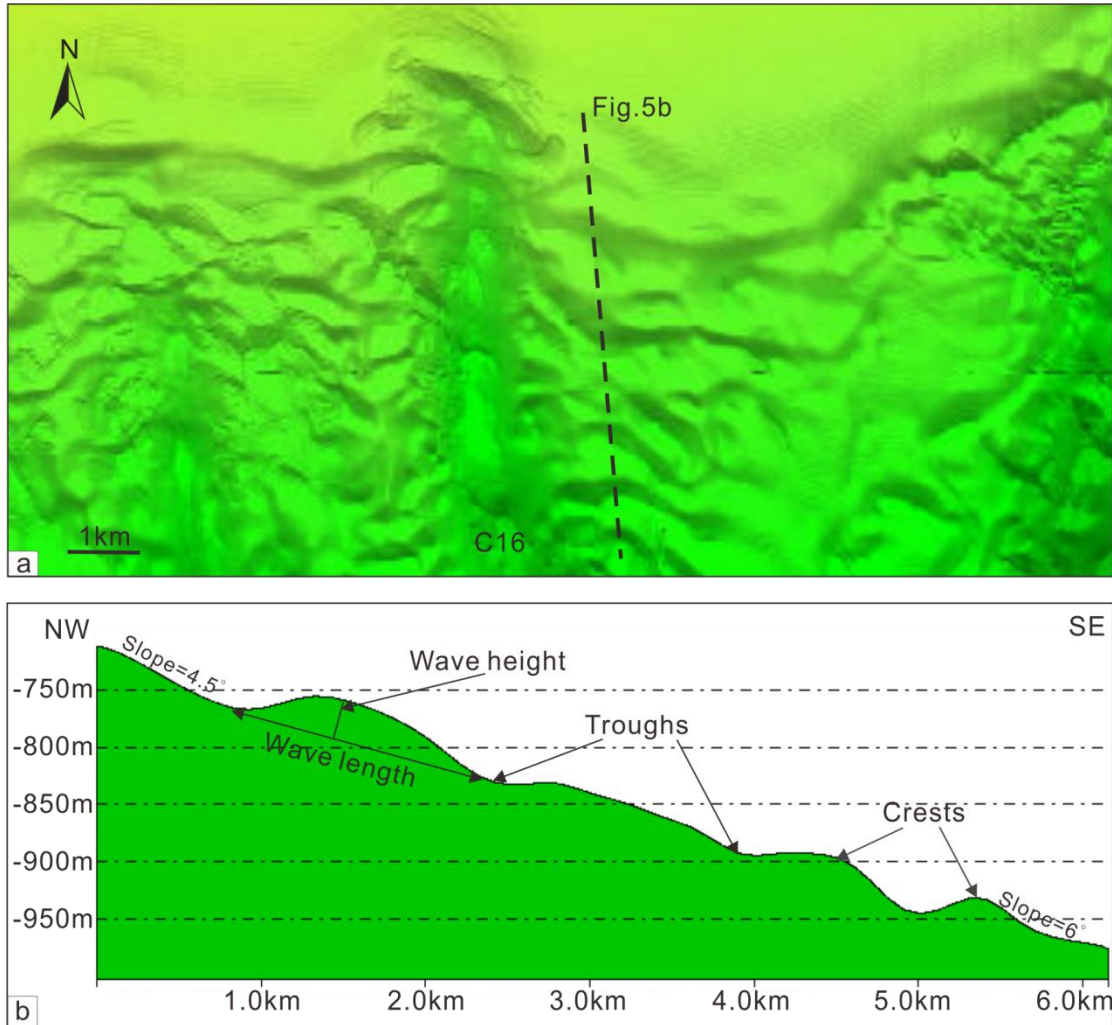


800 bathymetric profiles show in Figs. 4b and 5b. (b) Distribution of the crests of seafloor  
 801 undulations on the bathymetric map. The crests of the seafloor undulations are show  
 802 in red and are parallel or sub-parallel to the bathymetric contours. The contour  
 803 interval is 100 m.  
 804



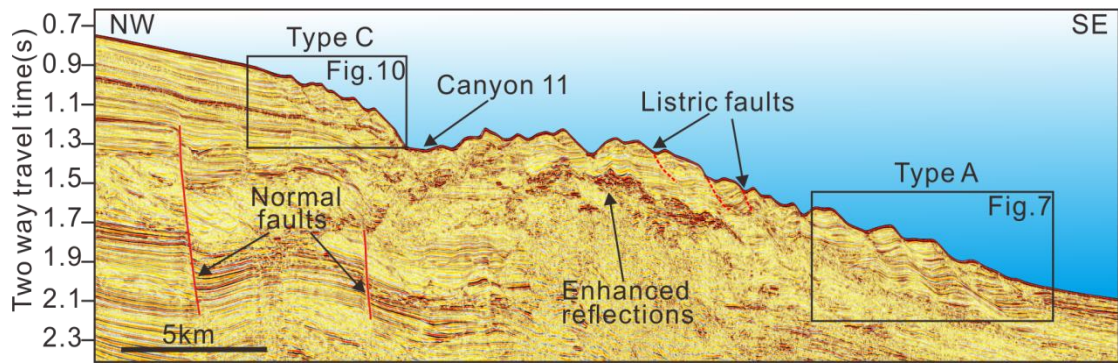
805  
 806 Fig. 4 (a) Bathymetric map revealing the detailed seafloor morphology of the lower  
 807 flanks of submarine canyons, stressing the presence of widely distributed seafloor  
 808 undulations. See Fig. 3 for the location of the bathymetric survey. (b) Bathymetric  
 809 profile crossing the flank area between Canyon 10 and 11 and revealing multiple  
 810 seafloor undulations. The wavelength and height of these seafloor undulations can

811 reach up to 2 km and 100 m, respectively.



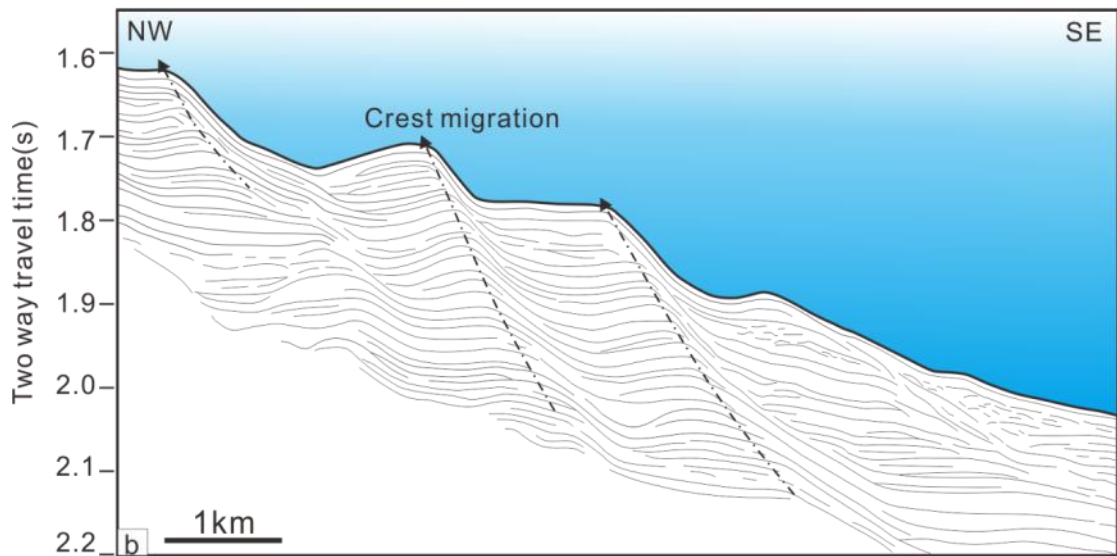
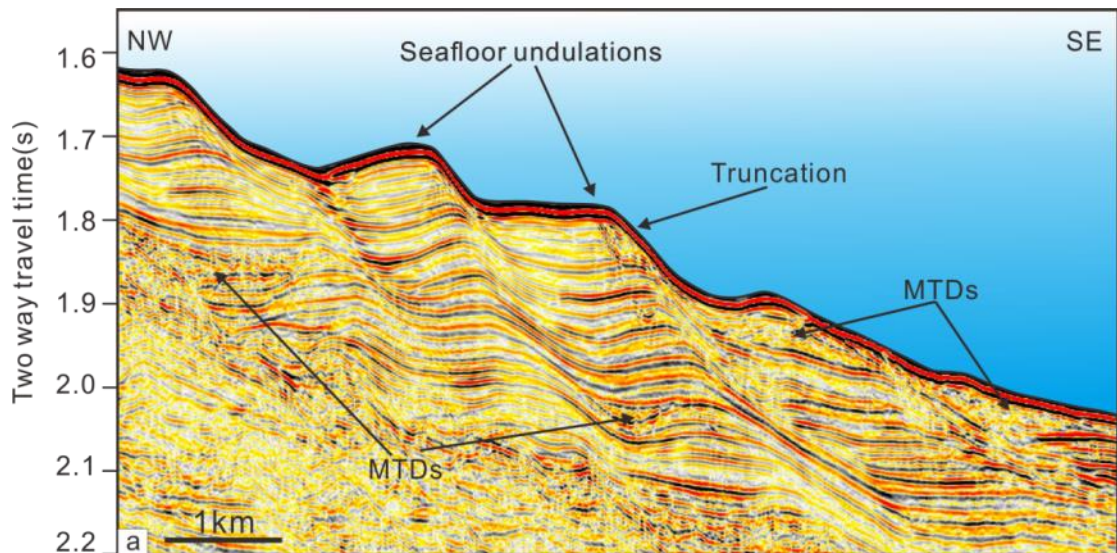
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813 Fig. 5 (a) Bathymetric map highlighting the detailed seafloor morphology of the upper  
814 continental slope. Widespread seafloor undulations can be observed. See Fig. 3 for the  
815 location of the bathymetric survey. (b) Bathymetric profile crossing the upper ridge  
816 area between canyon 16 and 17, revealing the presence of multiple seafloor  
817 undulations. They can be up to 1.5 km in wavelength (trough to trough) and 50 m in  
818 height (maximum relief).

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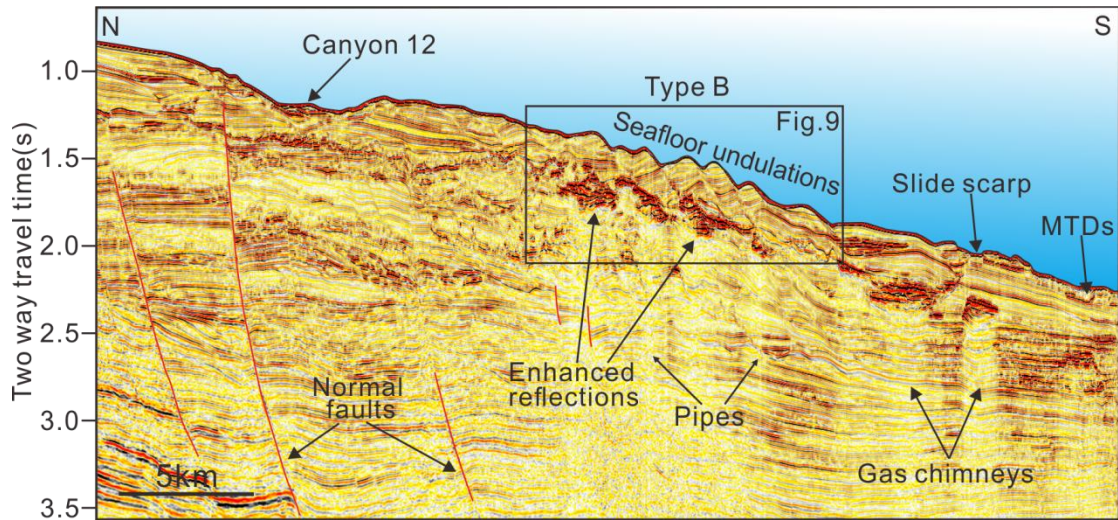
821 Fig. 6 Two-dimensional (2D) seismic line crossing the head of Canyon 11 and the  
 822 flank area between C11 and C12 (for location of the profile see Fig. 2). Several  
 823 large-scale normal faults and listric faults can be distinguished, which are marked by  
 824 red solid and dotted lines, respectively. Note the presence of high-amplitude enhanced  
 825 seismic reflections beneath some of the seafloor undulations.



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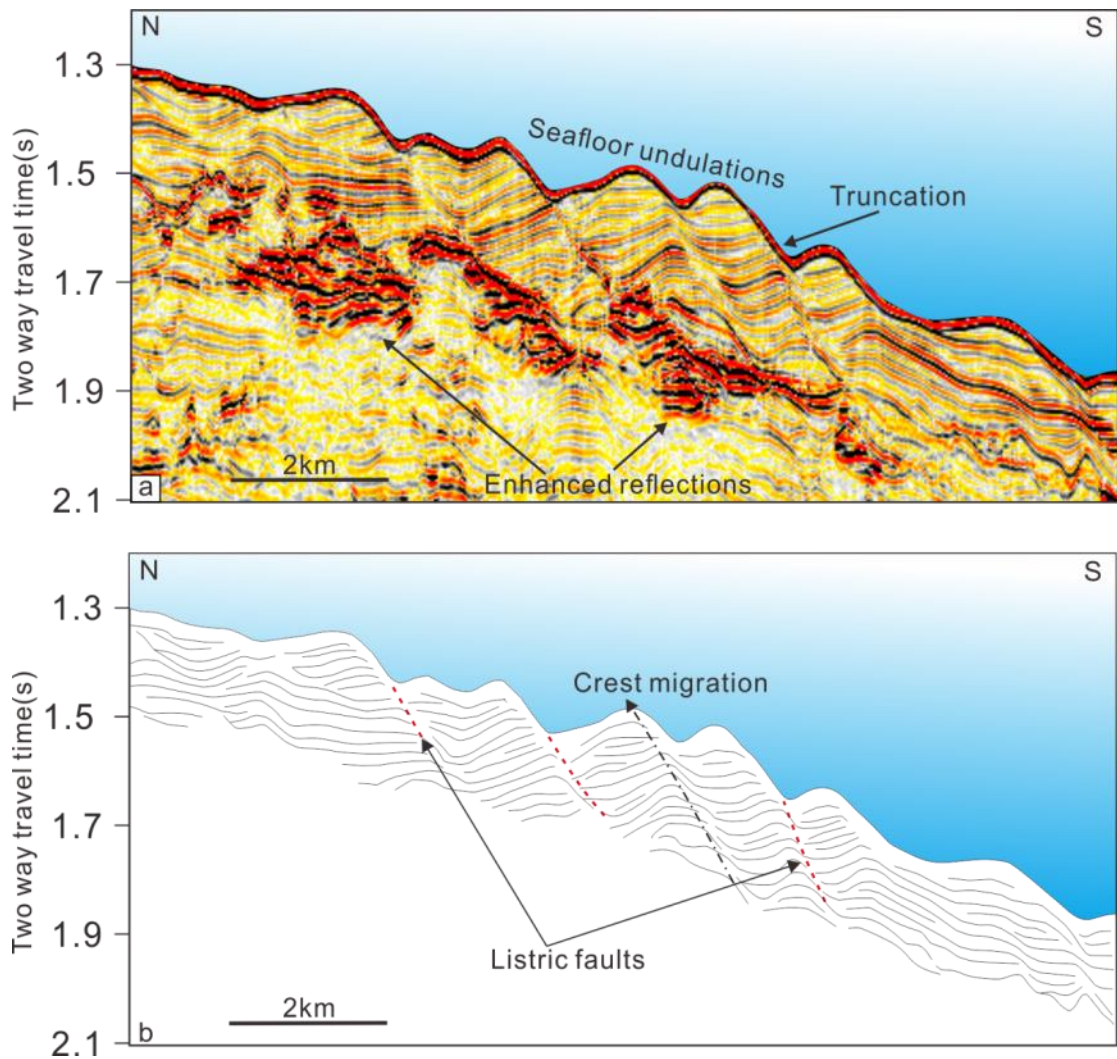
827 Fig. 7 (a) Zoomed section of the seismic profile in Fig. 6 revealing the detailed  
 828 internal character of the seafloor undulations in the lower reach of the canyon flanks,  
 829 between C11 and C12. Seafloor undulations are clearly observed on the seafloor and  
 830 their crests show an upslope migration trend. Note that the downslope flanks of most  
 831 of the undulated structures are steeper than their upslope counterparts. Several MTDs  
 832 can be distinguished within the seafloor undulations. (b) Line-drawn interpretation of  
 833 Fig. 7a revealing the internal seismic reflectors within the undulations, which are  
 834 continuous across the troughs separating distinct undulations.

835



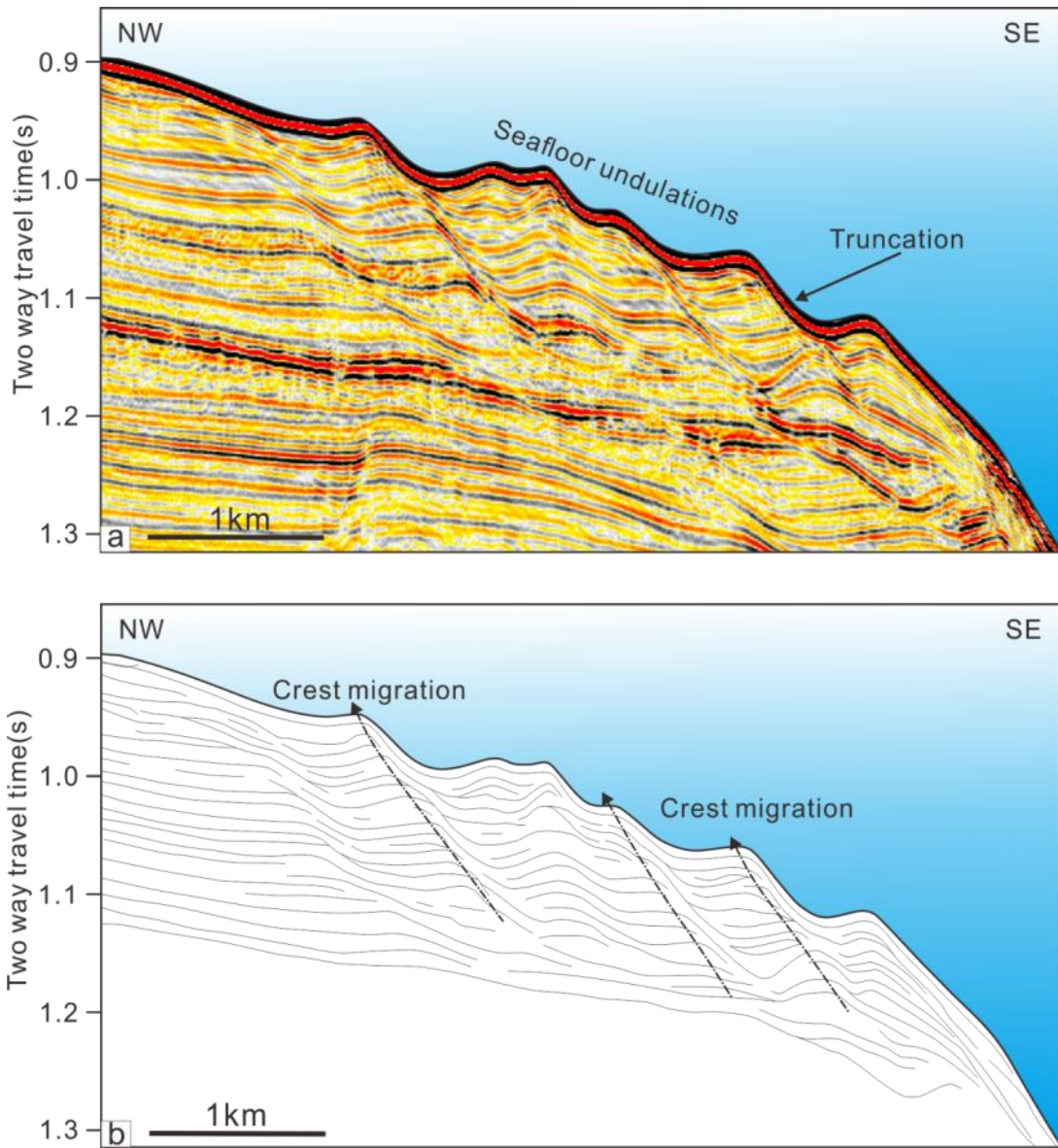
836

837 Fig. 8 High-resolution seismic profile crossing C12 and the canyon flank between  
838 C11 and C12 (for location of the profile see Fig. 2). A slide scarp and multiple  
839 seafloor undulations can be identified on the modern seafloor. Note the presence of  
840 gas chimneys, pipes and high-amplitude (enhanced) seismic reflections beneath the  
841 undulations.



842

843 Fig. 9 (a) Zoomed section of the seismic profile in Fig. 8 showing the internal  
 844 architecture of seafloor undulations on the canyon flank between C11 and C12.  
 845 Seismic reflections within seafloor undulations are not continuous and cannot be  
 846 traced across the troughs from one wave to the next. Most of the seafloor undulations  
 847 are separated by small-scale listric faults. (b) Line-drawn interpretation of Fig. 9a  
 848 illustrating the internal seismic reflections within the seafloor undulations, which are  
 849 not continuous.



850

851 Fig.10 (a) Zoomed section of the seismic profile in Fig. 6 showing the detailed

852 internal architecture of sediment waves at the head of C11. Internal seismic reflections

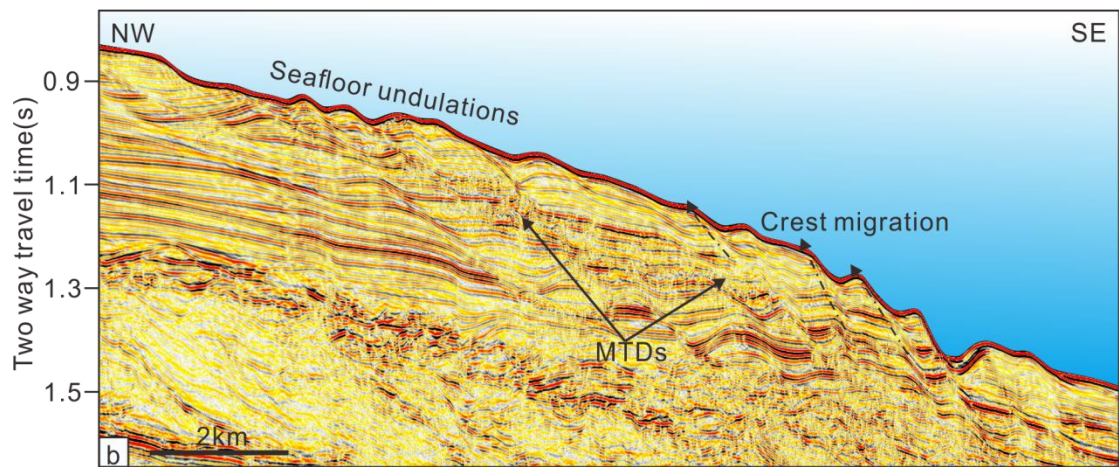
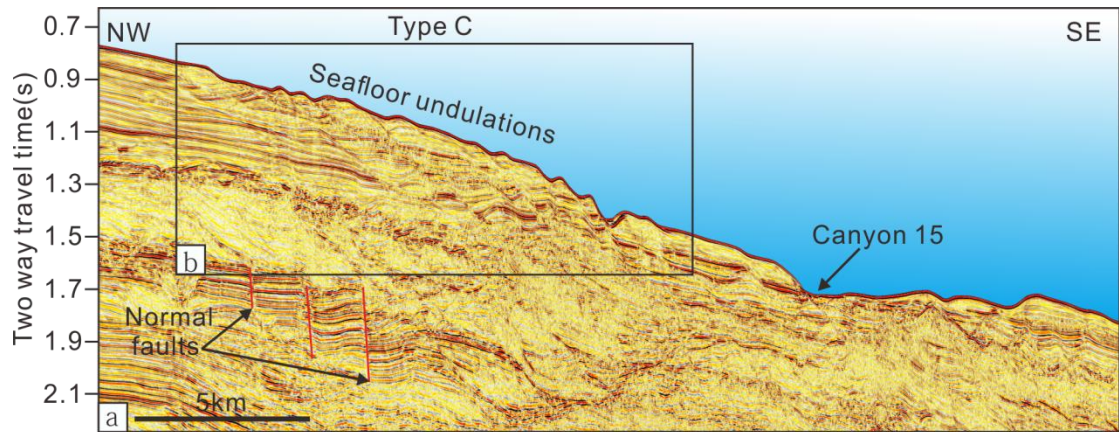
853 within the seafloor undulations are continuous and can be traced from one wave to the

854 next. Note that the crests of the undulated structures reveal an upslope migration

855 pattern. (b) Line-drawn interpretation of Fig. 10a highlighting that most of the internal

856 reflectors crossing the different seafloor undulations are continuous.

857



858

859 Fig. 11 (a) Two-dimensional (2D) seismic profile crossing C15 and the canyon flank

860 between C14 and C15 (see Fig. 2 for location of the profile). Multiple sediment waves

861 are observed in the canyon head. (b) Zoomed section in Fig. 11b showing the internal

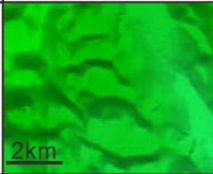
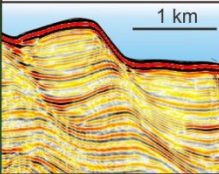
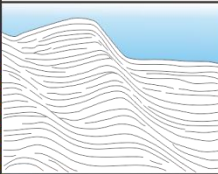
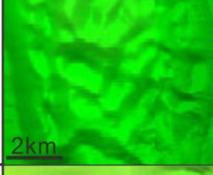
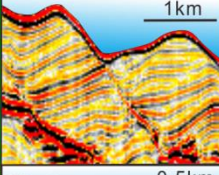
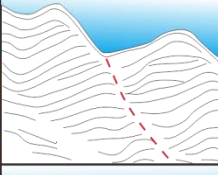
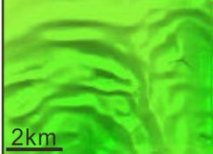
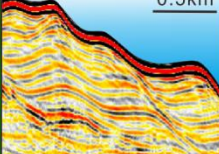

862 architecture of sediment waves in the canyon head. Note that most of the sediment

863 waves show an upslope migration trend. Several MTDs can be identified within the

864 imaged sediment waves.

865



Types	Locations	Seafloor morphology	Seismic characteristics	Line drawing	Wave-forming process
Type A	Lower of canyon thalwegs				Turbidity currents
Type B	Canyon flanks				Submarine creeps
Type C	Canyon heads				Internal waves

866

867 Fig. 12 Classification of three different types of seafloor undulations based on their  
868 location and origin. Representative seismic profiles and related line drawings  
869 illustrate the formation mechanisms of the seafloor undulations. Types A and B  
870 undulations are distributed in the canyon areas. The former are generated by turbidity  
871 currents, while the latter are generated by gravitational deformation processes  
872 (gravity-driven submarine creep). Type C undulations are mainly located at the heads  
873 of the submarine canyons and were generated by internal waves.