

1 **Crustal velocity structure of the Cathaysia block from an active-source seismic**
2 **profile between Wanzai and Hui'an in southeast China**

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19
20 **Abstract**

21 With the purpose of exploring the widely distributed Mesozoic granitoids in southeast
22 China and the related mineralization, we carried out a new 530-km-long seismic
23 wide-angle reflection and refraction (WARR) profile along the transect Wanzai- Hui'an.
24 Based on a previous exploration performed in 2012 and the analysis of this WARR
25 profile, we have deduced a detailed P-wave velocity model of the crust and uppermost
26 mantle. The main results are: (1) The crustal thickness is about 30 to 32 km beneath the
27 Yangtze Block and West Cathaysia, and 29 to 30 km below the East Cathaysia Block,
28 which represents a significant thinning with respect to the worldwide average thickness
29 of shields and platforms. (2) The variation in seismic velocity between the upper crust
30 and middle-lower crust in the Yangtze and Cathaysia blocks indicates that the
31 Shaoxing-Jiangshan-Pingxiang Fault is the tectonic boundary between these two blocks,
32 and that the Zhenghe-Dapu Fault is the tectonic boundary between the western and

33 eastern blocks of Cathaysia. (3) The middle crust exhibits a low P-wave velocity layer of
34 6.2 km/s below the Wuyishan Metallogenic Belt. This low velocity layer can be
35 attributed to delamination during the Caledonian orogeny and the Yanshanian extension.
36 (4) The middle-lower crust shows a lateral velocity variation from west to east in
37 Cathaysia. The subduction of the Paleo-Pacific plate is believed to be the main reason
38 for the extensional tectonic environment and magmatism during the Yanshanian
39 (Jurassic-Cretaceous) period, leading to significant crustal and lithospheric thinning. The
40 relatively high velocity in the middle-lower crust and widely disseminated Cretaceous
41 volcanic rocks in East Cathaysia may be related to the slab rollback of the Paleo-Pacific
42 plate in the late Yanshanian (Cretaceous) period.

43

44 **Keywords:** Wide-angle reflection and refraction; P-wave velocity structure; Tectonic
45 boundaries; Cathaysia Block; Southeast China.

46

47 1. Introduction

48 Since the Neoproterozoic, the amalgamation of the Yangtze and the Cathaysia
49 blocks formed the south China mainland whose easternmost part (Fig. 1) is
50 characterized by the widely distributed Mesozoic granitoids and abundant mineral
51 resources (Zhou et al., 2006; Li and Li, 2007; Mao et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013; Mao
52 et al., 2014). Granitoids can be classified into belts according to their age and
53 distributions. For instance, Indosinian (251-205 Ma) granitoids scattered throughout
54 western Cathaysia, outcropping in small areas and showing structures related to a
55 collisional frame (Fig. 1). Granitoid-volcanic rocks of the Early Yanshanian (180-142
56 Ma) period distributed throughout western Cathaysia in zones parallel to the coastline,
57 associated with the origin of the rift and the partial melting of the crust.
58 Granitoid-volcanic rocks of the Late Yanshanian (142-67 Ma) period scattered
59 throughout East Cathaysia, revealing a southeastward migration towards the ocean, with
60 origin in deep mafic igneous protoliths in the middle-lower crust caused by underplating
61 of basaltic magmas (Zhou et al., 2006). Therefore, the spatial and temporal distribution

62 of Mesozoic **granitoid-volcanic** rocks in SE China **occurred** in **changing** tectonic
63 environments **in the course of different** geodynamic processes.

64 Many geodynamic models have been proposed to interpret the mechanism of the
65 Mesozoic granitoids and the **mineral resource deposits** in South China (Li and Li, 2007;
66 Lin et al., 2018). Generally, these models can be classified into two groups: flat-slab
67 subduction (Li and Li, 2007) and multi-terrane interaction (Lin et al., 2018). The crustal
68 thickness, **as well as** the distribution of P-wave velocity in the crust and uppermost
69 mantle **can provide tight constraints on the formation of granitoid rocks and evidence of**
70 **deep geodynamic processes. In fact**, several studies based on seismic tomography of SE
71 China provide images of **crustal** and lithospheric structures at different scales. Results
72 **obtained from** receiver functions and the H- κ stacking method show that the crustal
73 thickness is about 38-46 km in the west of South China and 26-34 km in the east of
74 South China (Ai et al., 2007; Li et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2013, 2014; Guo et al., 2019; Shen
75 et al., 2019).). **These same studies give and a Poisson's ratio ranging between 0.20 and**
76 **0.31**. The lithospheric thickness is also much greater in the west of South China (about
77 190 km) and much smaller in the east of South China (less than 100 km), even 60-70 km
78 in the southeast coast of South China. **Results obtained from** surface wave tomography
79 (Wang et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020)
80 reveal that the crustal and lithospheric structure present a **significant** difference in the
81 west of South China **with respect to** the east of South China. However, since the average
82 resolution of the broad-band seismographs is greater than 10 km, **despite these studies**
83 the fine structure of the crust **does not seem to be** adequately resolved.

84 In contrast, Wide Angle Reflection and Refraction (WARR) profile can provide a
85 detailed P-wave velocity image of the **crust** and uppermost mantle. Several WARR
86 profiles have been conducted in recent years (Deng et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013b; Li
87 et al., 2015; Cai et al., 2016; Kuo et al., 2016). The results prove that the crustal
88 thickness ranges from 35 km in the **eastern** Yangtze Block to 28 km in the Taiwan **S**trait
89 **and that** the average crustal velocity is about 6.2 km/s in the Cathaysia Block. These
90 WARR profiles emphasize different crustal P-wave **velocities** in the East and West

91 Cathaysia blocks, and relatively high velocity in the middle-lower crust beneath the East
92 Cathaysia Block (Li et al., 2015; Cai et al., 2016; Kuo et al., 2016). However, these
93 profiles focus mainly on the East Cathaysia block and the edge of the West Cathaysia
94 block. In addition, WARR data on the structure of the crust in the Qinhang Metallogenic
95 Belt (QMB) and the Wuyishan Metallogenic Belt (WMB) are lacking (Fig. 1), which are
96 essential for understanding the regional dynamics.

97 In order to investigate the area of Mesozoic granitoids and the mineral resources in
98 SE China, in this paper we review a previous WARR profile from Ninghua to Hui'an
99 that was later completed with a new WARR profile from Wanzai to Yongchun (Fig. 1).
100 We use the 2D ray tracing method and the RAYINVR inversion algorithm (Zelt and
101 Smith, 1992) to model the crustal and uppermost mantle P-wave velocity structure of the
102 QMB, WMB and East Cathaysia. Finally, we discuss the crustal and lithospheric
103 thinning, crustal P-wave velocity characteristics, regional mineralization, and related
104 tectonic evolution in SE China.

105

106 2. Tectonic setting

107 The Shaoxing-Jiangshan-Pingxiang fault (SJPF) divides the South China continent
108 into the Yangtze Block to the northwest and the Cathaysia Block to the southeast (Fig.,
109 1). The Yangtze Block contains an Archean-Paleoproterozoic crystalline basement while
110 the Cathaysia Block is divided into two zones, West Cathaysia and East Cathaysia (Xu et
111 al., 2007; Lin et al., 2018). The former block has a Precambrian basement and is affected
112 by a major magmatic and metamorphic event during the Early Paleozoic, while the latter
113 consists of a series of metasedimentary and metaplutonic rocks (Xu et al., 2007).

114 Southeast China experienced multi-stage intracontinental orogeny since the
115 Neoproterozoic, resulting in the 1300-km-wide South China fold belt and widely
116 distributed Mesozoic granitoids (Zhou et al., 2006; Li and Li, 2007; Wang et al., 2013).
117 Two periods of tectono-magmatism are recognized since the Mesozoic in South China,
118 the Indosinian (Triassic) magmatism and the Yanshanian (Jurassic-Cretaceous)
119 magmatism. The Early Indosinian period is syn-collisional and was formed in a

120 compressional setting, while the Late Indosinian period is late-collisional and was
121 formed in a locally extensional environment. The granitoid-volcanic rocks **belonging to**
122 **the Early Yanshanian** are characteristic of rift-type intraplate magmatism, whereas the
123 Late Yanshanian magmatism is likely active continental margin magmatism (Zhou et al.,
124 2006).

125 The Qinhang Metallogenic Belt (QMB) and the Wuyishan Metallogenic Belt (WMB)
126 are two important metallogenic belts in SE China (Fig., 1), which are rich in copper,
127 tungsten, tin, etc. These two metallogenic belts experienced complex tectonism since the
128 Neoproterozoic, but the primary mineral resources were formed during the Mesozoic
129 period (Mao et al., 2011; Mao et al., 2014).

130

131 **3. Wide-angle seismic data and phase analysis**

132 **3.1 Seismic data acquisition**

133 In December 2018, the Institute of Geology and Geophysics, Chinese Academy of
134 Sciences, with the support of the China Key National R&D Program, **completed a**
135 **previous WARR profile from Ninghua to Hui'an with a long-530-km** NW-SE-trending
136 WARR profile from Wanzai to Yongchun (Fig. 1). Four shots (**red** stars in Fig. 1) were
137 fired along the profile at intervals of about 80-90 km. The explosive charge of each shot
138 varied from 2000 kg to 2520 kg. Along the profile, 435 **portable** seismographs (**blue**
139 triangles in Fig. 1) were deployed with an average interval of about 1.2 km. **Previously,**
140 to study the deep tectonic structure of **the** SE margin in mainland China, **the Fujian**
141 **Province Earthquake Administration had conducted** a 270-km-long WARR profile from
142 Ninghua to Hui'an (Cai et al., 2016), **from** June to August 2012. **On that occasion,** five
143 shots (**yellow** stars in Fig. 1) were **fired** and 160 **portable** seismographs (**green** triangles
144 in Fig. 1) were deployed along the profile, **with shot points and receivers spaced 50 to 98**
145 **km and 1.5 to 2.0 km apart, respectively.** The two WARR profiles have the same **NW-SE**
146 direction and an overlap distance of 195 km between Ninghua and Yongchun. In this
147 paper, we combine these two profiles **to obtain the** crustal and uppermost mantle P-wave
148 velocity structure **along the Wanzai-Hui'an transect that covers a distance between the**

149 two locations of approximately 620 km.

150

151 3.2 Seismic phases on the record sections

152 Travel times are picked on shot gathers using the interactive picking and plotting
153 program ZPLOT. All record sections (Figs. 2-10; Figs. S1-S9) are filtered by a 2-10 Hz
154 band-pass filter. Travel times are converted to a reduced timescale using a reduction
155 velocity of 6.0 km/s, in order to emphasize the features of the crust. The recorded crustal
156 and uppermost mantle seismic phases include the refracted phase in the upper crust (Pg),
157 reflected phases in the crystalline crust (P1, P2), reflected phases from the Moho (PmP)
158 and refractions in the uppermost mantle (Pn).

159 The Pg phase can be collected at offsets of about 0-130 km and has an apparent
160 velocity between 5.8 and 6.1 km/s. The Pg reduced time ranges from 0.1 to 0.4 s,
161 indicating a relatively thin sedimentary cover in SE China. Intracrustal reflected phases
162 (P1, P2) can be recognized at offsets of 50-190 km; two groups of P1 and P2 phases can
163 be picked beneath Yangtze and West Cathaysia, but only one group of P1 can be
164 recognized beneath East Cathaysia. The intracrustal reflected phases are unfailingly
165 weaker than the PmP wave, which implies a relatively low impedance contrast for the P
166 wave. The PmP phase is clearly recorded at offsets of 50-240 km and generally show
167 great amplitude in all record sections. PmP arrivals on the record sections of shot points
168 Sp24 and Sp25 are earlier than in other sections, revealing that the Moho depth is
169 shallower beneath East Cathaysia. The refracted Pn phase in the upper mantle appears at
170 offsets of 120-270 km, and with an apparent velocity of 8.0-8.1 km/s.

171

172 3.3. Seismic data processing

173 The early Pg arrivals in the WARR record sections have the highest signal-to-noise
174 ratio, which can be used to constrain the velocity pattern of the upper crust. In this paper,
175 we use the 2D finite-difference inversion method (Vidale, 1988, 1990; Hole, 1992) to
176 invert for the upper crust structure. This method is much faster than the two-point
177 ray-tracing method and more robust for highly heterogeneous media. A total of 869

178 travel times of Pg were used to determine the velocity of the upper crust. The gridding
179 size of the upper crust model is 0.5×0.5 km. To invert this model, we apply the
180 back-projection method with a grid-spacing of 1.0×1.0 km. The final model was
181 calculated after 30 iterations, which reduced the root-mean-square (RMS) traveltimes
182 residual from 0.12 s to 0.02 s.

183 To model the seismic velocity structure of the crust and upper mantle we use the 2D
184 ray-tracing method and the RAYINVR inversion algorithm (Zelt and Smith, 1992). First,
185 we use the 1D traveltimes fitting method, which is a trial-and-error method, and the upper
186 crust model provided by finite differences to construct an initial 2D velocity model of
187 crust and upper mantle (Lin et al., 2020). Then, we use all recognized phases (Pg, P1, P2,
188 PmP and Pn) to determine the final model by applying a layer-by-layer forward
189 modeling technique and keeping the shallow nodes constant when modeling the deep
190 layers. The velocity model is iteratively modified several times up to the RMS
191 traveltimes residuals approach the inherent uncertainty of the data, which is
192 approximately 0.05 s for the Pg phase and 0.1 s for other phases. We use the largest
193 possible number of data. Ray tracing details regarding individual seismic phases are
194 given in Table 1, including RMS residuals close to the uncertainties of the data and
195 normalized square chi (χ^2) values. Adjusting the travel times for all shots points reveals
196 a good match between the observed and calculated times (Fig. 11a) and a dense and
197 uniform ray coverage for the entire profile (Fig. 11b).

198

199 **4. Seismic velocity structure of the crust and uppermost mantle**

200 The final 2D velocity model (Fig. 12a) presents a laterally varying P-wave velocity
201 in the crust and upper mantle, and a relatively smooth variation of the Moho depth. The
202 crustal thickness is 30-32 km beneath the Yangtze Block and West Cathaysia, and
203 slightly shallower (29-30 km) beneath East Cathaysia. The Bouguer gravity anomaly
204 along the reference profile (Fig. 12b) also shows a gradual increase in East Cathaysia,
205 which adjusts to the Moho depth (Fig. 12a). The average crustal velocity is 6.14-6.18
206 km/s beneath the Yangtze Block and West Cathaysia and 6.23-6.25 km/s beneath East

207 Cathaysia.

208 The upper crust reveals as a heterogeneous structure along the profile. The thickness
209 of the sedimentary cover is relatively thin (1.0-3.0 km), taking the contour line of 5.8
210 km/s as the basement of the sedimentary layer. There is jump of 4.5 to 5.8 km/s at the
211 bottom of this lid. Nevertheless, it is thicker at distance of 300-500 km than in other
212 survey transects. The P-wave velocity of the upper crust is 4.5-6.2 km/s. The C1
213 interface occurs at a depth of about 17 km. The P-wave velocity shows an abrupt change
214 beneath the SJPF and the Zhenghe-Dapu Fault (ZDF), so it can be affected by these two
215 faults.

216 The middle-lower crust in East Cathaysia shows higher P-wave velocity (6.4-6.8
217 km/s) than in the Yangtze Block and West Cathaysia (6.2-6.7 km/s). The C2 interface
218 reaches a depth of 25 km and separates the middle crust from the lower crust, although
219 this limit remains undefined beneath East Cathaysia. The velocity at 19-23 km depth
220 below the WMB is relatively lower (6.1 km/s) than in any other zone at the same depth.
221 The velocity of the uppermost mantle is 8.0-8.1 km/s, with hardly any differences
222 throughout the entire profile (Fig. 12a).

223

224 5. Resolution tests

225 We use the single parameter test (Nielsen and Thybo, 2009; Zelt, 1999) to analyze
226 the spatial resolution of the model. A single parameter (a depth node or velocity value)
227 was tested at a time. The maximum possible changes, either in depth or in velocity, can
228 be measured as long as they do not lead to poor ray coverage or unacceptable values of
229 RMS residuals and square chi. According to our analysis, the limits of the upper crust,
230 the mid-lower crust and the Moho are well defined with a maximum uncertainty of \pm
231 0.9 km, \pm 1.3 km and \pm 1.2 km, respectively (Fig. 13a). Regarding the uncertainty in
232 seismic velocity, the variation ranges are \pm 0.02 km/s and \pm 0.10 km/s in the upper
233 crust, \pm 0.02 km/s and \pm 0.16 km/s in the middle-lower crust (Fig. 13b), which proves
234 that the results are quite accurate because of the dense ray coverage of the model.

235

236 6. Discussion

237 6.1 Comparison with other results

238 As a way of estimating the reliability of our results, below we compare them with
239 those obtained by Cai et al. (2016) when studying the easternmost branch of the WARR
240 profile, which runs from Ninghua to Hui'an (Fig. 1). The Moho depth determined by Cai
241 et al. shows the same geometry (dashed line in Fig. 12a) that the boundary found by us
242 at offsets of 320-560 km, except for a small-scale discrepancy at distances of 320-360
243 km, due to different ray coverage of the new Sp04 record section. Recently, Zhang et al.
244 (2020) have obtained a three-dimensional model of the Moho depth based on receiver
245 function analysis, and the result is a Moho (yellow circles in Fig. 12a) that matches well
246 with ours, thus supporting the robustness of our model.

247 Comparison of our results with those of other profiles or seismic arrays deployed
248 near our profile seems to confirm this first impression. The average crustal thickness
249 obtained by Wei et al. (2016) reaches approximately 30.43 km in the Cathaysia Block
250 and 31.2 km in its central part according to Han et al. (2019). Starting from WARR data,
251 Li et al. (2015) also deduced a similar depth of 30-33 km for the Moho discontinuity
252 beneath the Cathaysia Block, and a relatively low velocity layer at the depth of 22 km in
253 the eastern part of West Cathaysia. Before, Zhang and Wang (2007) and Zhang et al.
254 (2013b), from the analysis of a WARR profile in the NW-SE direction, obtained the
255 Moho depth of 30-34 km beneath the Yangtze Block and Cathaysia Block, and a low
256 velocity layer at the depth of 15-20 km, which are data consistent with ours. As in our
257 case, the results of Li et al. (2015) and Cai et al. (2016) show a medium-lower crust with
258 relatively high velocity beneath East Cathaysia, which is approximately 0.2 km/s higher
259 than in West Cathaysia. Both WARR data and receiver functions reveal that the crustal
260 thickness in the eastern band of the Yangtze Block and Cathaysia Block varies between
261 29 and 35 km and is gradually less from inland to shore.

262

263 6.2 Lithospheric and crustal thinning

264 Lithospheric and crustal thinning may provide some information about the deep

265 geodynamic processes. Previous geophysical results demonstrate that the lithospheric
266 thickness in eastern China has evolved since the Mesozoic (Chen et al., 2008; Zhu et al.
267 2012; Deng and Levandowski, 2018). P and S receiver functions show that the
268 lithospheric thickness beneath the Cathaysia Block is less than 100 km (Zhang et al.,
269 2018), being only 60-70 km in East Cathaysia (Li et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2014). However,
270 the lithosphere is thicker (approximately 190 km) west of the Yangtze Craton (Zhang et
271 al., 2018). Likewise, the Moho depth also varies from 45-50 km in the West Yangtze
272 Craton to about 30 km in the Cathaysia Block (Li et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2014), showing
273 the same variation features with the lithosphere thickness. In addition, Rayleigh wave
274 tomography (Wang et al., 2015; Shan et al., 2017) and joint inversion of receiver
275 functions and surface wave dispersion (Li et al., 2018; Deng et al., 2019) also prove that
276 the crust and lithosphere are significantly thinned in eastern China.

277 Geochemical results indicate a thick lithosphere (110-230 km) in South China
278 corresponding to the Paleozoic period (Zheng et al., 2015), although a thinner
279 lithosphere (less than 80 km) during the Late Mesozoic (Liu et al., 2012). North China
280 came to have an ancient thick lithosphere (about 200 km) in the Archean period, which
281 is characteristic of a craton, but later underwent extensive modification during the Late
282 Mesozoic period (Zhu et al., 2011, 2012). Thus, both the eastern part of South China and
283 North China Craton experienced significant destruction and thinning of the lithosphere.
284 Meanwhile, crustal thickness in eastern China was also reduced to about 30 km (Li et al.,
285 2013; Jia et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015; Cai et al., 2016)
286 relative to the global average crustal thickness of shields and platforms, which is 41.5
287 km (Christensen and Mooney, 1995).

288

289 **6.3 Main tectonic boundaries**

290 The SJPF is considered as the boundary between the Yangtze and Cathaysia blocks
291 (Li, 1992; Zhang et al., 2005). However, our results show some heterogeneity in the
292 upper crust below this fault, but no significant changes in the middle and lower crust,
293 which can be attributed to insufficient ray coverage of the Yangtze Block.

294 The ZDF divides the Cathaysia Block into two parts: the western part and the
295 eastern part (Xu et al., 2007; Li et al., 2015; Cai et al., 2016). Unlike before, now the
296 clear variation in velocity of the middle and lower crust on both sides of this fault (Fig.
297 12a) provides evidence that the ZDF can probably extend into the deep crust. However,
298 age-based evidence of Zircon U-Pb, Hf data and structural data presented by Li et al.,
299 (2018) have led to propose that the boundary between the western and eastern Cathaysia
300 blocks is not the ZDF, but the Fujian fault that is located about 50 km northwest of the
301 former. Regardless of this proposal, considering the obvious velocity difference in the
302 middle and lower crust, we think that the deep boundary between West and East
303 Cathaysia is the ZDF.

304

305 **6.4 Tectonic evolution in SE China**

306 The velocity model shown in Fig. 12a is characterized by relatively low velocity
307 (6.1 km/s) below the WMB and high velocity (6.4-6.8 km/s) in the middle-lower crust of
308 East Cathaysia. Based on the regional tectonic activity, we believe that the low velocity
309 may be the expression of a ductile shear zone (Zhang and Wang, 2007), which is related
310 to delamination during the Late-Caledonian (Silurian) period and the extension of the
311 lithosphere during the Yanshanian (Jurassic-Cretaceous) period. As for the relatively
312 high velocity observed in the middle-lower crust of East Cathaysia, we believe that it
313 can be attributed to the slab rollback of the Paleo-Pacific plate (Zhao et al., 2013; Li et
314 al., 2014; Li et al., 2017), which injects mafic material into the middle-lower crust.
315 Furthermore, magmatic underplating in East Cathaysia during the Late Yanshanian
316 (Cretaceous) period might be the cause of the comparatively high velocity in the
317 middle-lower crust, and also of the widely distributed Cretaceous volcanic rocks in East
318 Cathaysia (Xu et al., 2007; Shu et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2018).

319 Strictly speaking, we can only relate the quoted physical results to the geodynamic
320 processes mentioned above. However, according to previous geological and geophysical
321 studies (Zhou et al., 2006; Shu, 2012; Wang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2013a; Shu et al.,
322 2015) and the crustal P-wave velocity structure shown in this paper, we can describe a

323 larger picture in relation to the tectonic evolution in SE China on a geological time scale
324 (Fig. 14). Four stages can be distinguished, namely: Early-Middle Caledonian
325 (Ordovician) period (Fig. 14a), Late Caledonian (Silurian) period (Fig. 14b), Early
326 Yanshanian (Jurassic) period (Fig. 14c) and Late Yanshanian (Cretaceous) period (Fig.
327 14d). First, the Caledonian orogeny between West Cathaysia and East Cathaysia resulted
328 in a crustal thickening (Wang et al., 2013). Second, after post-orogenic extension, the
329 lower crust and lithosphere collapsed (Wang et al., 2013). Third, the Paleo-Pacific plate
330 began its subduction underneath the Eurasian plate. Accompanying this subduction, the
331 lithospheric mantle was heated up and the asthenosphere upwelling made the
332 extensional tectonic framework continue (Zhou and Li, 2000; He and Xu, 2012; Liu et
333 al., 2015). Under an extensional tectonic regime, the crust and lithosphere thinned.
334 Finally, due to the ongoing extension, the subduction dip angle increased because of the
335 slab rollback, and the dehydration of the subducted slab produced more adakitic and
336 felsic melts, resulting in extensive underplating in the lower crust (Zhang et al., 2009;
337 Zhao et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017). We believe that the Paleo-Pacific plate
338 subduction and slab rollback provide the environmental conditions for the emergence of
339 Mesozoic granitoids and mineral resources in SE China.

340

341 7. Conclusions

342 Based on the interpretation of the 620-km-long wide-angle seismic profile between
343 Wanzai and Hui'an across the Yangtze and Cathaysia Blocks, we propose the following
344 conclusions:

345 (1) The crustal thickness throughout the eastern part of the Yangtze Block and the
346 Cathaysia Block is about 29-32 km and shows a gradual thinning pattern from inland to
347 shore.

348 (2) Our crustal velocity model shows that the ZDF is the boundary between the
349 western and eastern blocks of Cathaysia, but only suggests that the SJPF is the boundary
350 between the Yangtze Block and West Cathaysia.

351 (3) There is a low velocity zone at a depth of about 20 km below the WMB. We

352 speculate that it can be due to the existence of a ductile shear zone, as consequence of a
353 delamination process during the Caledonian (Ordovician- Silurian) orogeny and the
354 lithosphere extension during the Yanshanian (Jurassic- Cretaceous) period.

355 (4) The crust in the eastern Yangtze Block and the Cathaysia Block thins
356 significantly, and the seismic velocity in the middle-lower crust is higher in East
357 Cathaysia block, which can be attributed to underplating related to the rollback of the
358 Paleo-Pacific plate during the Late Yanshanian (Cretaceous) period.

359

360 Declaration of Competing Interest

361 We declare that this paper has not been submitted elsewhere. There are no conflicts of
362 interest.

363 Acknowledgements

364 We would like to thank the Geophysical Exploration Center of the China
365 Earthquake Administration, for providing us with the field seismic to conduct this
366 research work. We would also like to thank Prof. Laicheng Miao, Prof. Jiayong Yan and
367 Dr. Yunhao Wei for their helpful discussions. We appreciate the help of Dr. Chenglong
368 Wu in making the cartoon figure included here as the last graphic illustration. This study
369 was funded by the National Key Research and Development Project of China
370 (2016YFC0600201 and 2018YFC1503204) and the National Natural Science
371 Foundation of China (41790461 and 41774097).

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542 Table 1. Ray tracing details for individual seismic phases.

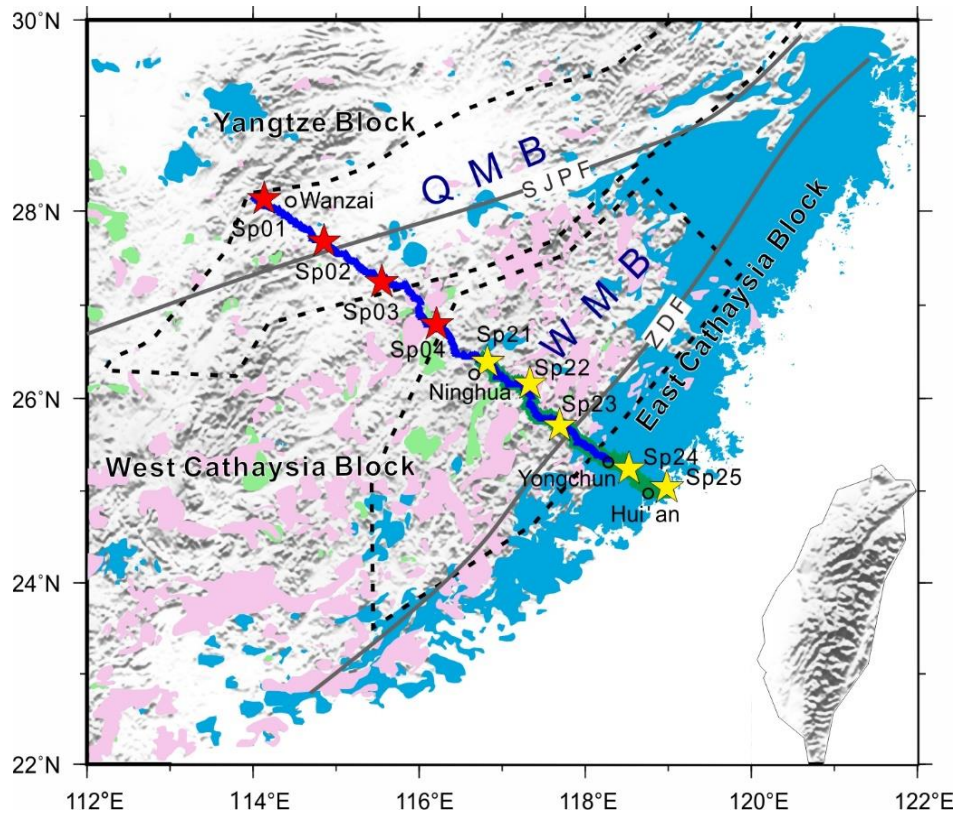
Seismic phase	Total number of picks	Number of modelled picks	Percentage of picks	RMS (s)	χ^2
Pg	869	854	98.3%	0.066	1.756
P1	229	229	100.0%	0.084	0.713
P2	200	200	100.0%	0.092	0.856
PmP	767	755	98.4%	0.132	1.757
Pn	240	225	93.7%	0.132	1.749

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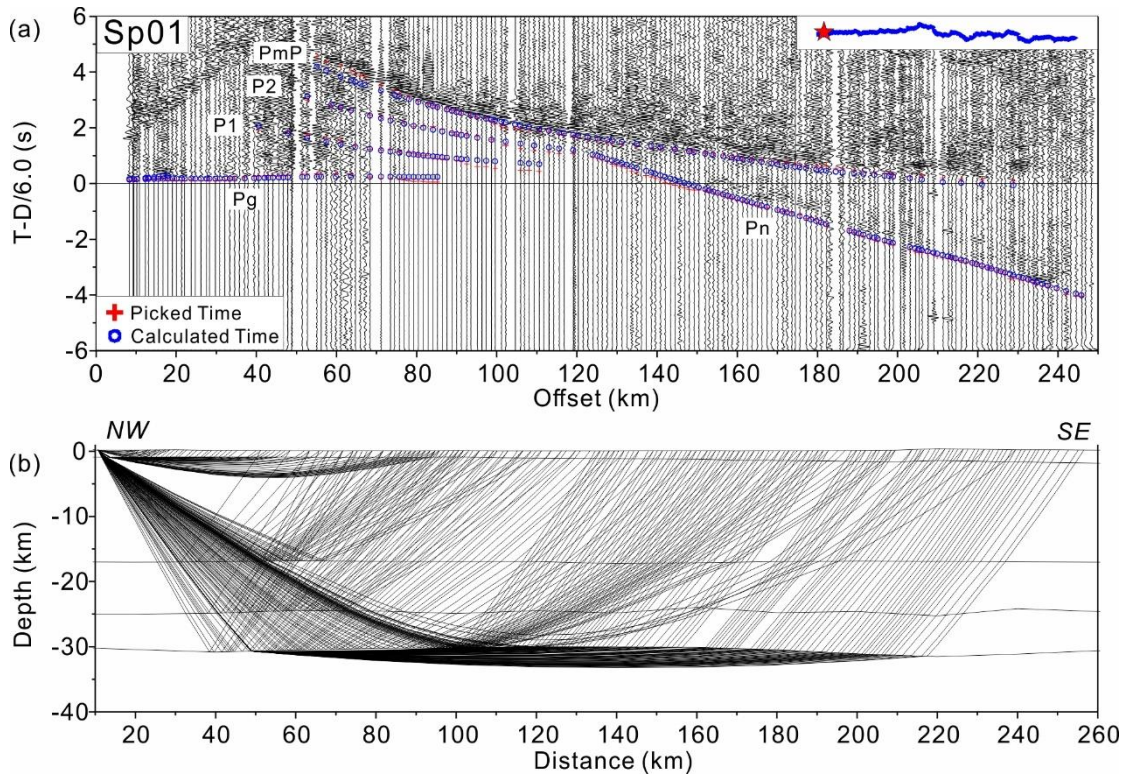
545 **Figures and legends**

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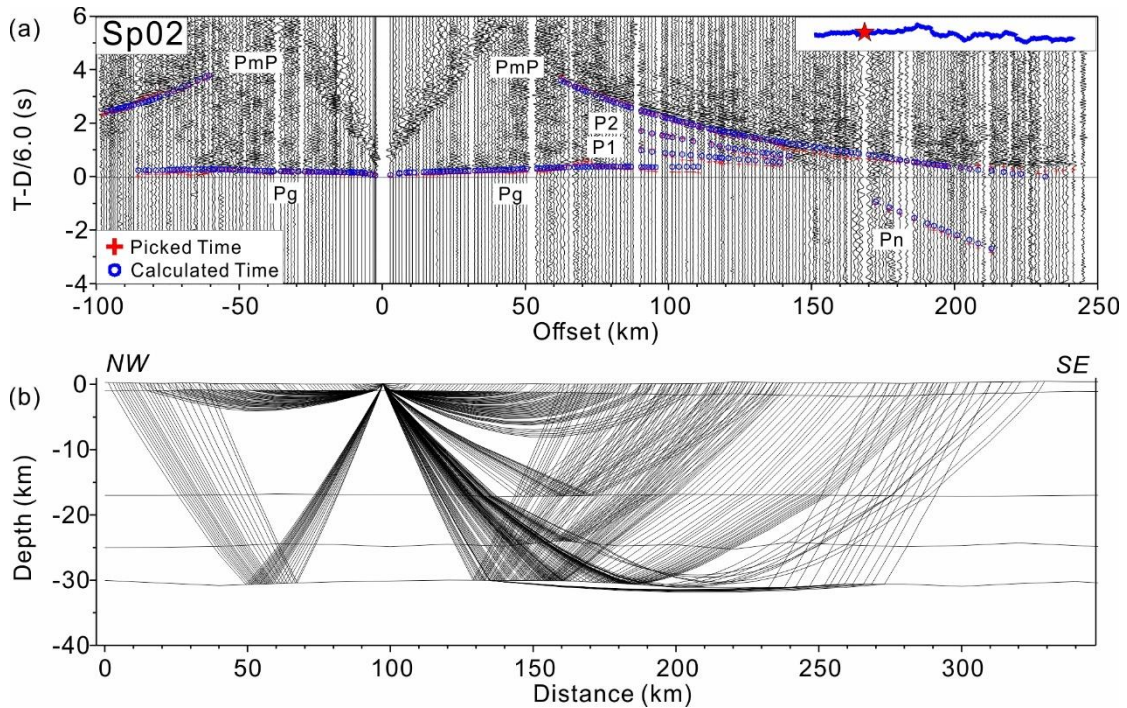
548 Figure 1. Map showing the location of the deep seismic sounding profile and geological
549 structure. Red and yellow stars represent shot points, while blue and green triangles
550 indicate short period seismic stations. Igneous rocks (after Zhou et al., 2006): light green
551 areas represent Indosinian granites; pink areas show Early Yanshanian
552 granitoid-volcanic rocks; light blue areas are Late Yanshanian granitoid-volcanic rocks.
553 Faults: SJPF, Shaoxing-Jiangshan-Pingxiang fault; ZDF, Zhenghe-Dapu fault.
554 Metallogenic Belts: QMB, Qinhang Metallogenic Belt; WMB, the Wuyishan
555 Metallogenic Belt.



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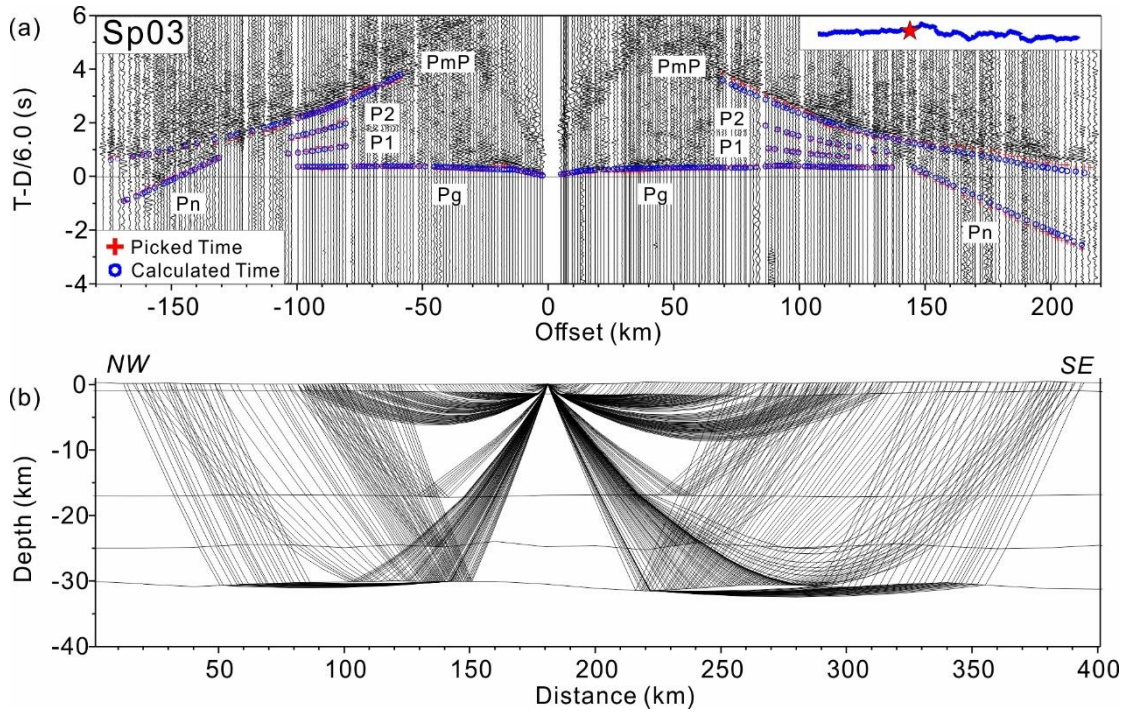
557 Figure 2. (a) P-wave record section (on a reduced time scale with a reduction velocity of
 558 6.0 km/s) corresponding to the shot point Sp01 and identified seismic phases. Red
 559 crosses and blue circles indicate picked times and calculated times, respectively. (b) Ray
 560 tracing diagram.

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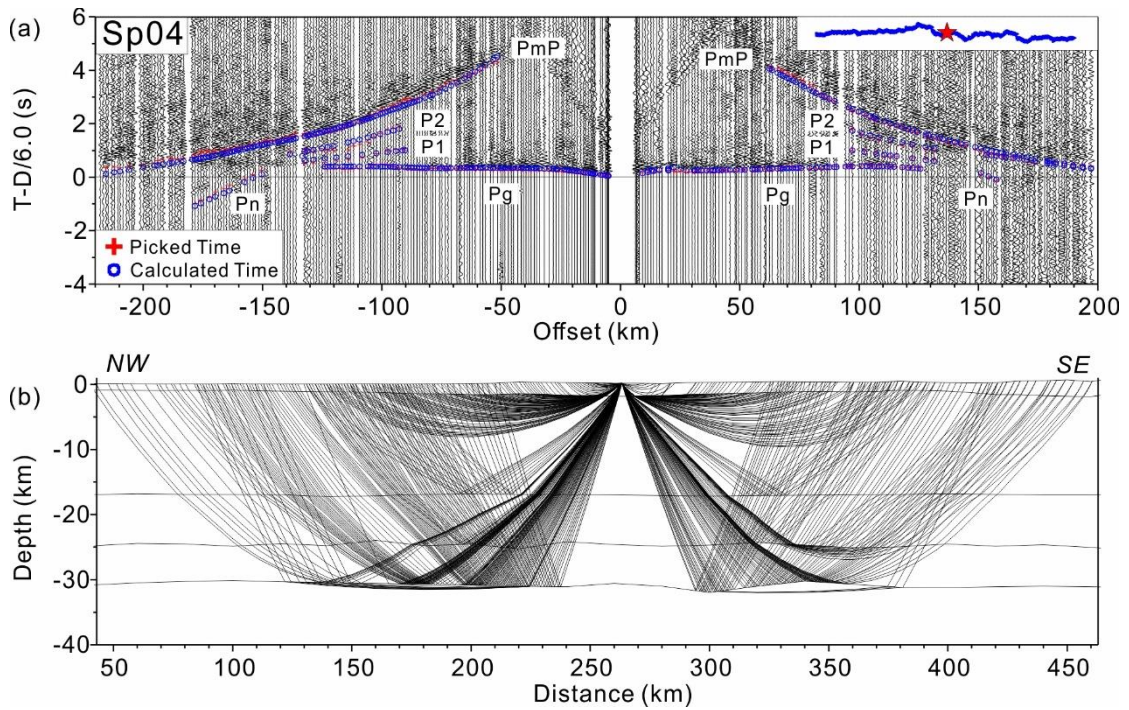
563 Figure 3. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp02.



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565 Figure 4. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp03.

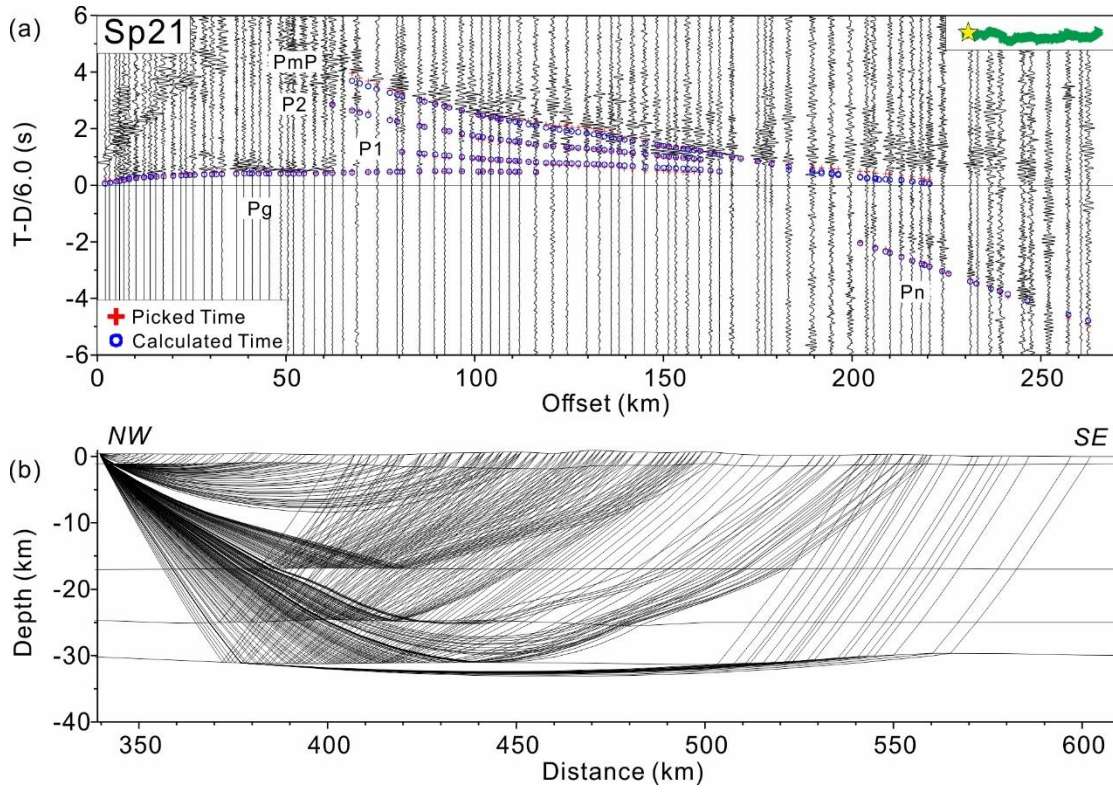
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568 Figure 5. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp04.

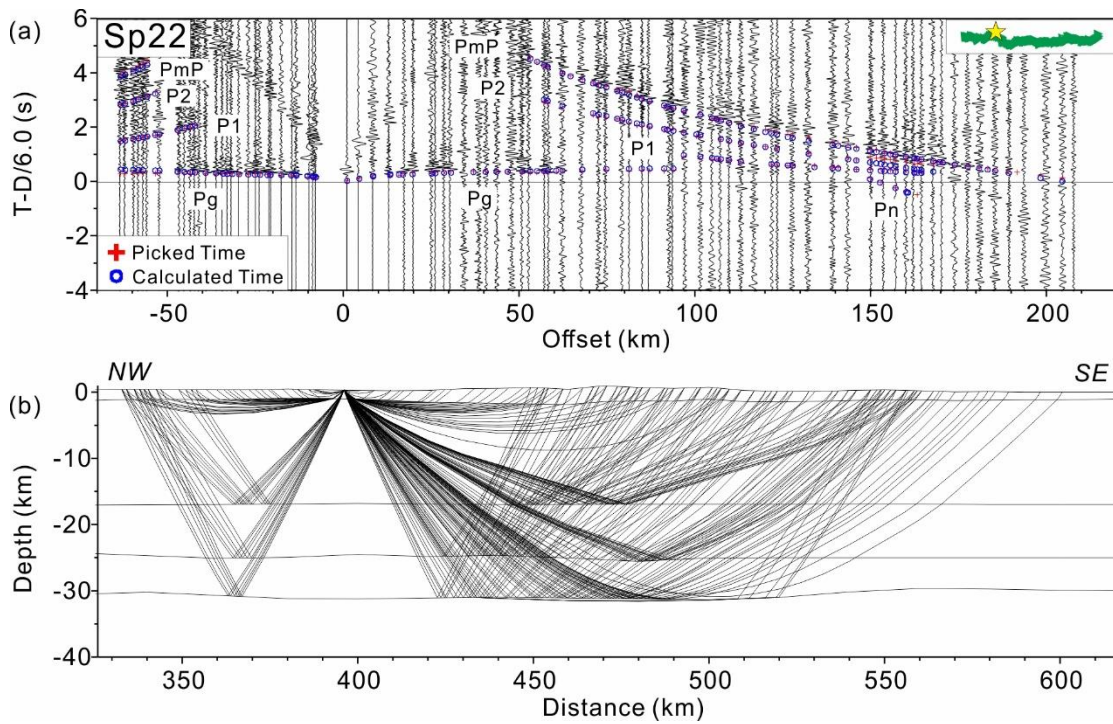
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571 Figure 6. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp21.

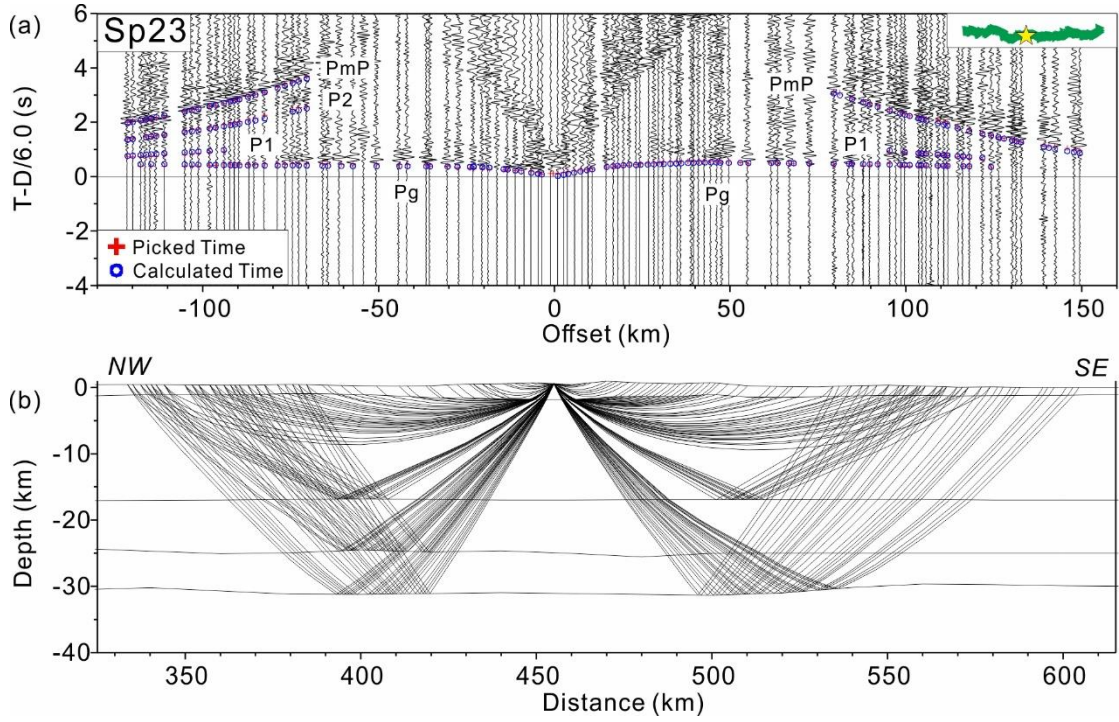
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574 Figure 7. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp22.

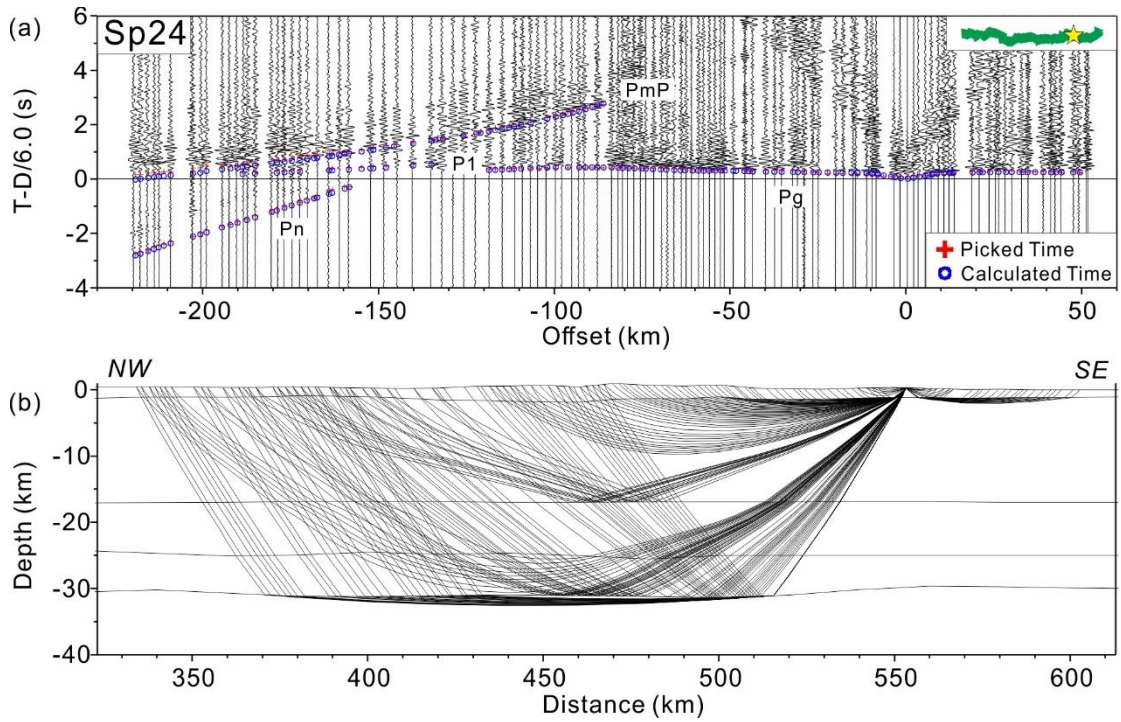
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577 Figure 8. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp23.

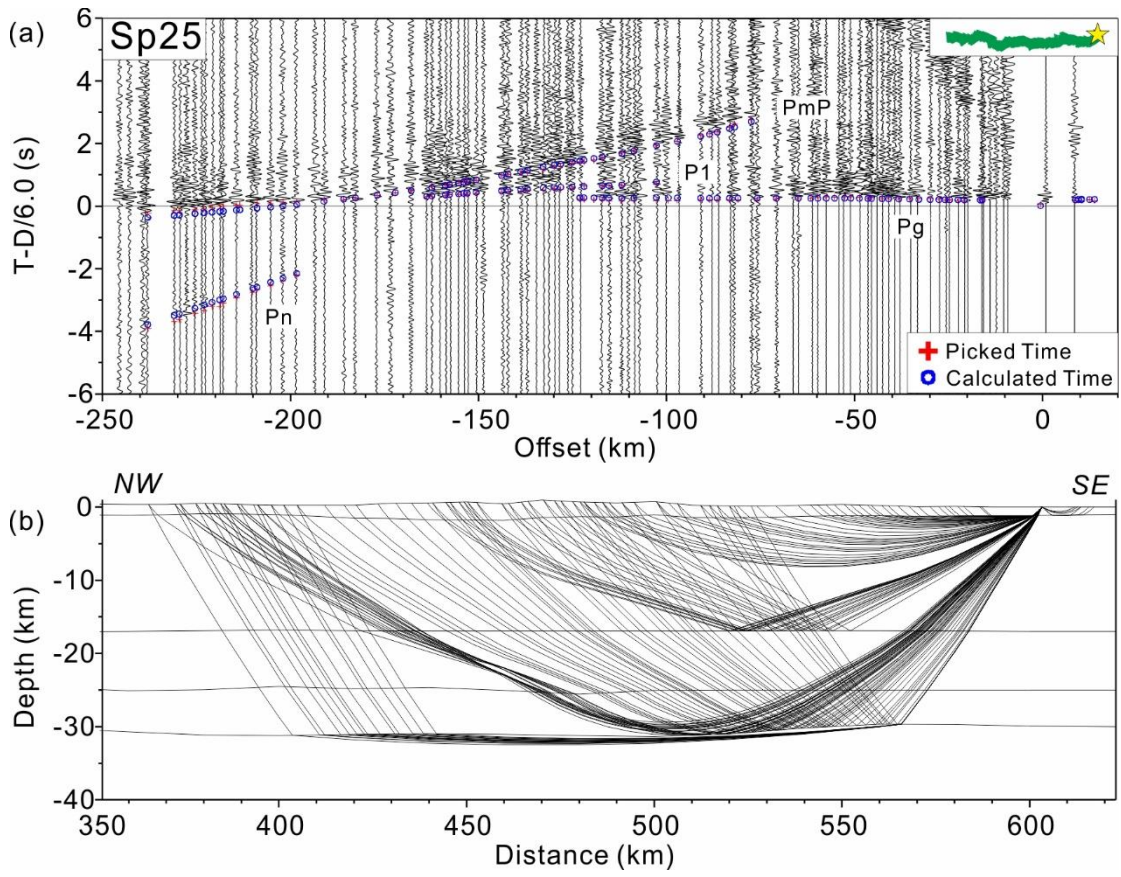
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580 Figure 9. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp24.

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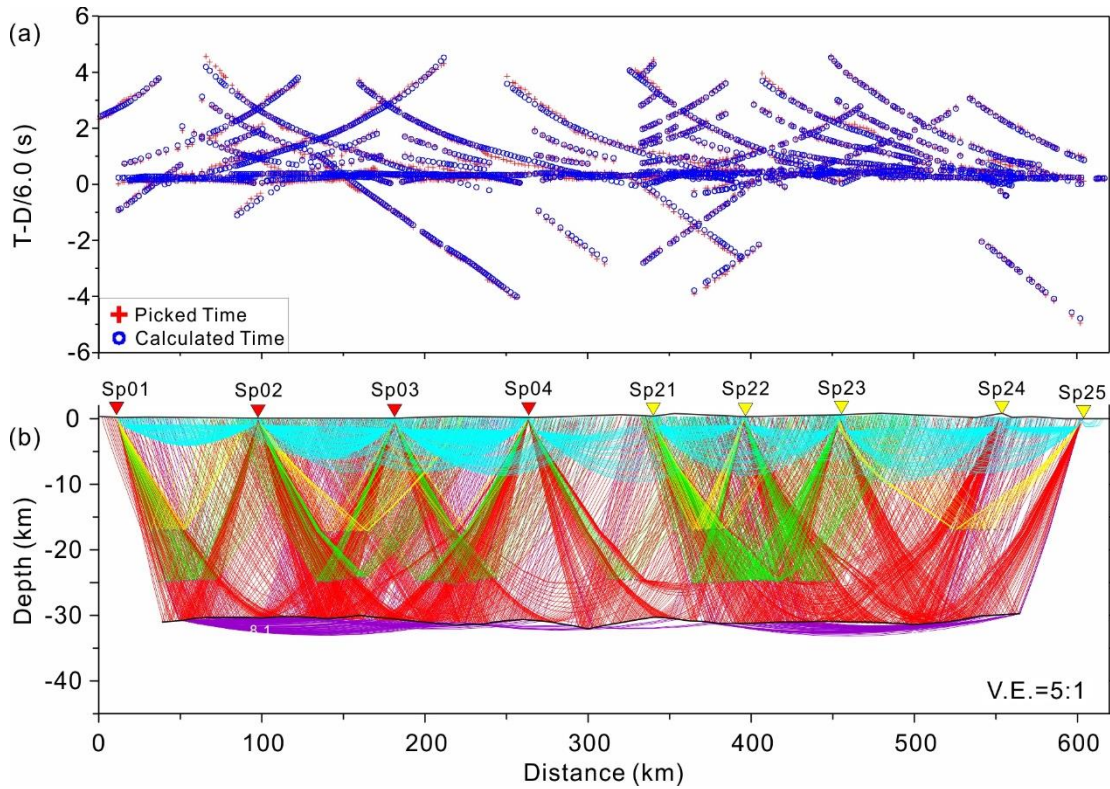
583 Figure 10. Same as in Fig. 2 for shot point Sp25.

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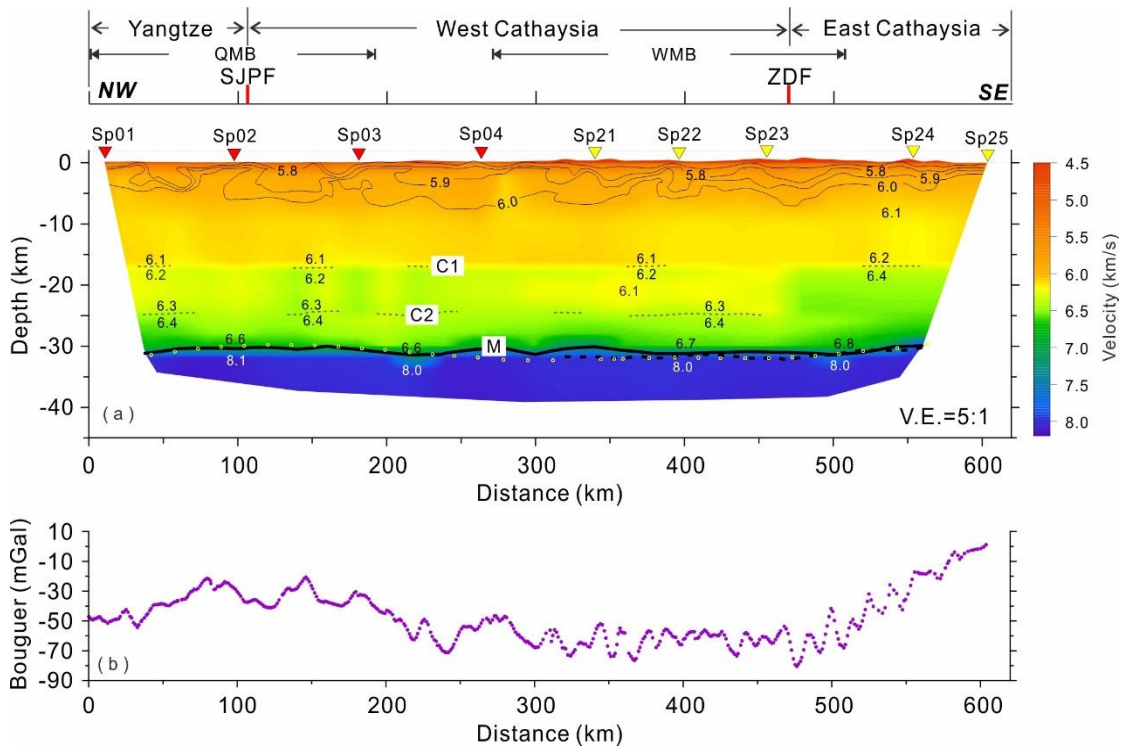
589 Figure 11. Travel time fitting and ray coverage for all shots. (a) Red crosses and blue
590 circles indicate picked times and calculated times, respectively. (b) Cyan, yellow, green,
591 red and purple rays represent Pg, P1, P2, PmP and Pn, respectively.

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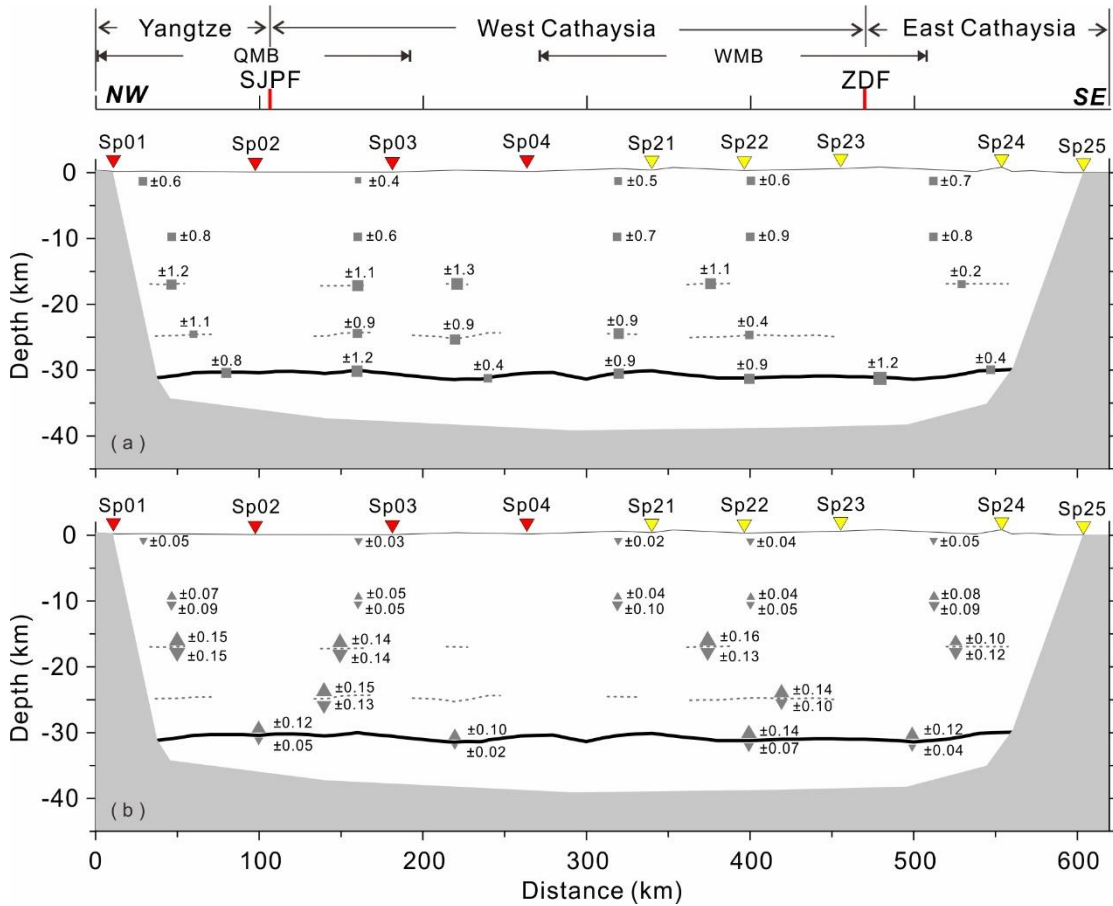
597 Figure 12. (a) Two-dimensional crustal P-wave velocity model along the Wanzai-Hui'an
598 profile. The top panel shows the tectonic units and faults which are crossed by the
599 profile: SJPF, Shaoxing-Jiangshan-Pingxiang fault; ZDF, Zhenghe-Dapu fault; QMB,
600 Qinhang Metallogenic Belt; WMB, Wuyishan Metallogenic Belt. C1, C2 indicate
601 intracrustal interfaces and C is the Moho discontinuity. The contour lines representing
602 velocities less than 6.1 km/s in the upper crust are drawn from the finite
603 differences-based 2D model obtained by Lin et al. (2020). (b) Bouguer gravity anomaly
604 along the Wanzai-Hui'an profile.

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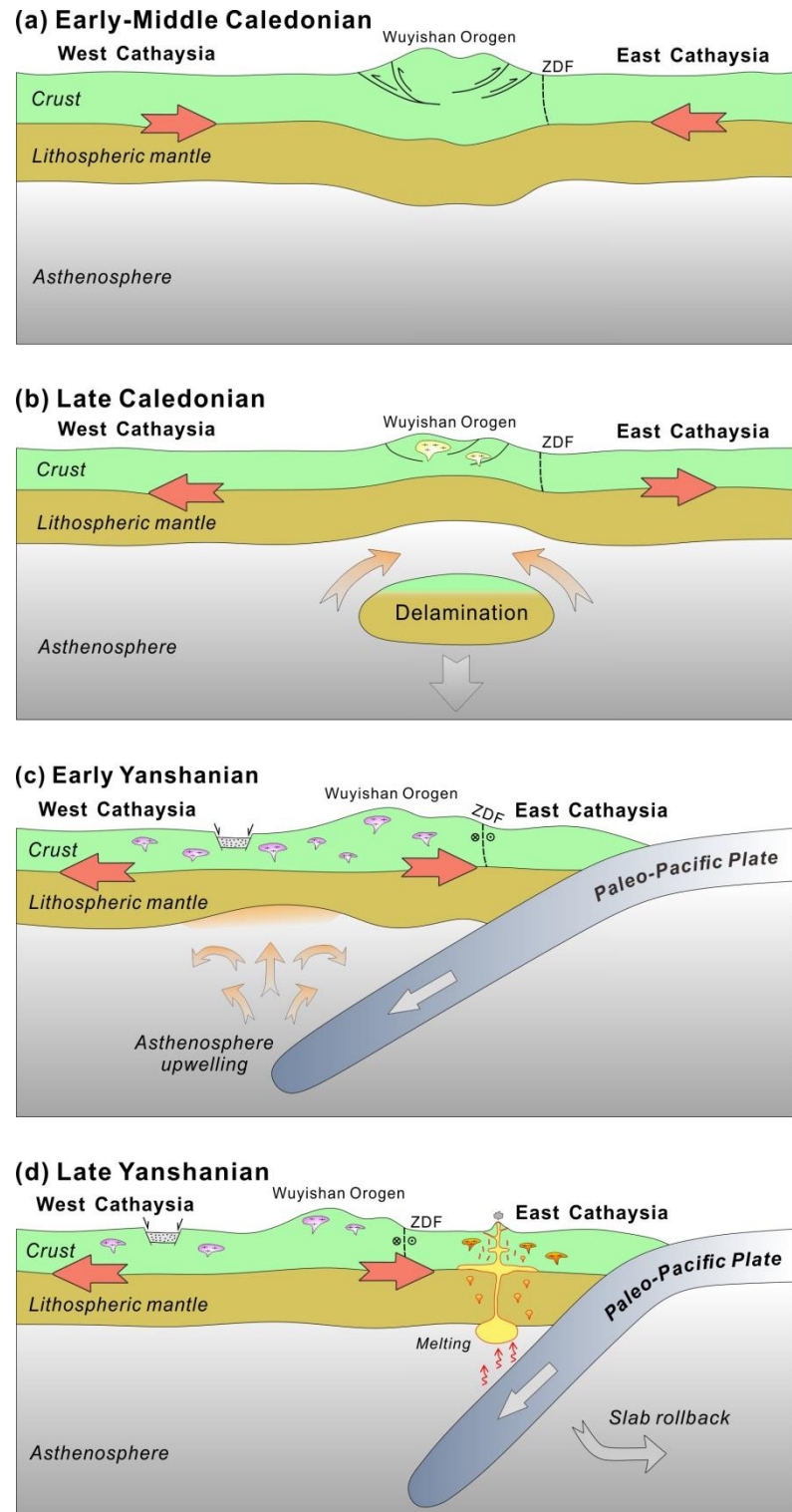
610 Figure 13. Resolution in velocity and depth of the 2D velocity model. (a) Uncertainties
 611 in layer limits (in km). (b) Uncertainties in seismic velocities (in km/s). The size of the
 612 symbols is relative to the absolute values. The dashed lines indicate the reflections
 613 within the crust, while the thick black line represents the Moho.

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619 Figure 14. Schematic cartoon illustrating the tectonic evolution of the Cathaysia in SE
620 China. (a) During the Early-Middle Caledonian (Ordovician), the crust and lithospheric
621 mantle thickened due to the intracontinental orogeny of the South China block. (b) In
622 response to the post-collisional extension during the Late Caledonian (Silurian), the

623 lower crust and lithospheric mantle collapsed. (c) During the Early Yanshanian
624 (Jurassic), the Paleo-Pacific plate started **its subduction** and the asthenosphere upwelling,
625 and then the back-arc extension resulted in the crustal material melting, which provided
626 the source to the widely distributed early Yanshanian (Jurassic) granite in West
627 Cathaysia. (d) During the Late Yanshanian (Cretaceous), continuous extension resulted
628 in the slab rollback of the Paleo-Pacific plate, and the dip of the slab increased, and
629 extensive melting and magma underplating caused the granite and volcanic rocks in East
630 Cathaysia.

631