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Morphogenesis of a late Pleistocene delta off the south-western Hainan Island unraveled by numerical modeling

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Abstract

A paleo-river delta off the south-western (SW) Hainan Island has been identified based on seismic and core evidence. Dating results suggest its initial development in ~65 kyr BP during a global sea level lowstand (~85 m below modern level) and termination in ~56 kyr BP during a sea level highstand (~50 m below modern level). Analysis of the delta internal architecture indicated a dominant offshore transport pathway from the SW Hainan Island. In order to unravel possible driving mechanisms for morphogenesis of the delta, 3-Dimensional numerical modeling was applied to investigate oceanographic and morphodynamic scenarios corresponding to the initial delta development. Results indicate that sediment dynamics in the study area is controlled by a compound effect of monsoon-driven circulation, river plumes, tides and typhoons. Contribution of the Red River to the delta development is smaller than local rivers in SW Hainan due to a combined effect by regional circulation and tides which causes a detour of the buoyancy-driven plume around the delta, despite of its larger runoff and sediment discharge compared to those from the local rivers of Hainan. On the other hand, simulation results suggest at least ten-times higher sediment supply rate from SW Hainan during the developing phase of the river delta than the modern condition. Such enhanced sediment supply might be caused jointly by 1) increased local river runoff from SW Hainan,

34 and 2) alongshore transport from eastern Hainan which was connected to the main land during
35 the sea level lowstand.

36

37 *Keywords:* sediment transport; sea level change; coastal morphodynamics; regional
38 circulation; tides; typhoons

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 River deltas are coastal landforms created by dynamic interactions between terrestrial
42 output of water and sediment, and oceanic forcing including tides, wind waves, storm surges,
43 and mean sea-level variations. A prerequisite for delta formation is that the depositional rate
44 of river-borne sediment exceeds the erosional rate caused by oceanic forcing that carries
45 sediment away from the river mouth, so that net sediment accumulation occurs directly off the
46 river mouth and feeds a growth of the sedimentary system. Depending on different
47 combinations of river-borne sediment supply, tidal amplitudes and wind-wave strength, delta
48 morphology can be in general classified into three types, namely river-dominated, tide-
49 dominated and wave-dominated (Galloway, 1975). Later, this tripartite scheme was extended
50 by Orton and Reading (1993) to include sediment grain size as a fourth principal axis. This
51 classic classification has provided a simple conceptual basis for categorizing river deltas
52 worldwide. However, it is also worth to note that each of the four controlling factors
53 (sediment property, river runoff, tides and wind-waves) may vary considerably over space and
54 time even in the same delta system (Anthony, 2015), furthermore, complicated geological or
55 morphological boundary constraints may also substantially modify the interactions between
56 the fluvial and oceanic forcing (e.g. Wu et al., 2010). Another fact is that although river-borne
57 sediment is the primary source for most river deltas, exogenous sediment transported
58 alongshore by currents or derived from the inner shelf by wave reworking may also contribute
59 significantly to delta development (Anthony, 2015). Therefore, it is important to understand
60 the morphological development of river deltas from a dynamic point of view, and

61 acknowledge that the attributes of each river delta may deform through a wide range of
62 processes that act across multi-scales (Swenson et al., 2005; Geleynse et al., 2011; Hoitink et
63 al., 2017).

64 Over a longer time scale (centennial-to-millennial), impact of climate change on river
65 discharge and mean sea level causes river deltas to be in a state of transition, e.g. from
66 transgression to regression or vice versa. The resilience of river delta development to a
67 changing climate greatly depends on the sediment supply in relation to sea-level change and
68 the ecological function within the delta system (e.g. vegetation growth) (Besset et al., 2019).
69 A reduction or cut-off of sediment supply would lead to erosion of river delta until it is
70 completely abandoned. Examples of abandoned delta lobes can be seen at the Mississippi
71 River where at least five distinct abandoned delta lobes have been created during the past
72 6000 years due to relocation of the main river channel (Blum and Roberts, 2012), and at the
73 northern Jiangsu coast where an abandoned Yellow River delta (developed between 1128 and
74 1855 AD) is located more than 400 km away from its current river mouth (Xue, 1993).

75 Recently, an abandoned river delta, with an area exceeding 25,000 km² and being buried
76 beneath modern coastal deposits, has been discovered off the SW Hainan Island (Fig. 1) based
77 on seismic and core evidence (Chen et al., 2016a; Feng et al., 2018; Xiong et al., this issue;
78 Miluch et al., this issue). Dating results suggest that the development of the river delta
79 initiated in around 65 kyr BP when the global sea level was at a lowstand (~85 m below
80 modern level) and terminated in around 56 kyr BP when the global sea level was at around a
81 highstand (~50 below modern level) (Waelbroeck et al., 2002; Feng et al., 2018; Xiong et al.,
82 this issue). The isopach map of the delta deposit estimated from the seismic data indicates two
83 locally confined depocenters with thickness larger than 50 m in the eastern and western part
84 of the delta, respectively (Fig. 2). Although both depocenters have similar maximum
85 thickness of around 80 m, the eastern one has a larger spatial coverage. Seismic data show

86 general progradational configurations towards the SW, S and SE (Fig.1c), suggesting an
87 offshore expansion during the delta development (Chen et al., 2016a; Feng et al., 2018;
88 Miluch et al., this issue). The onshore and offshore edges of the delta are located at modern
89 water depth of ~50 and ~200 m, respectively.

90 A set of geomorphic features, including the detachment of the delta from its potential
91 sources, its burial beneath modern sediment deposits, the existence of two locally confined
92 depocenters and their asymmetry in volume and spatial coverage, imposes challenges for a
93 comprehensive understanding of the delta morphogenesis and its associated source-to-sink
94 transport pathways. Furthermore, the runoff and sediment discharge rate of major local rivers
95 in south Hainan are relatively small in modern time (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011; Yang et
96 al., 2013). The Changhua River and the Wanquan River are two dominant rivers in south
97 Hainan (Fig. 1b) and contribute to ~80% and ~85% of the regional budget of discharge in the
98 south-western and south-eastern part, respectively. The multi-year mean values of river runoff
99 and sediment discharge are $\sim 5 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $\sim 0.8 \times 10^6 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ in Changhua River, and
100 $\sim 6.6 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $\sim 0.6 \times 10^6 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ in Wanquan River, respectively (Yang et al., 2013).
101 Such values, especially the sediment discharge rates (a total of $\sim 1.8 \times 10^6 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ from all
102 major rivers in south Hainan in modern time), are too small to account for the average
103 accumulation rate ($\sim 3 \times 10^8 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ between 65 and 56 kyr BP, Miluch et al., this issue) in the
104 paleo-delta. Therefore, understanding of the morphogenesis of the delta and its sediment
105 sources, associated transport and sedimentation processes remains largely speculative with
106 various knowledge gaps to fill.

107 Based on existing data derived from an international research project "ERES: Evolution
108 of the "Hainan Delta" as response to the palaeo-environment since the Late Pleistocene at the
109 SCS northwestern shelf", this study aims to explore possible physical driving mechanisms for
110 the morphogenesis of the paleo-river delta by the use of 3-Dimensional process-based

111 numerical modeling. In particular, we seek to identify potential sediment sources for the delta
112 and associated transport patterns in order to fill at least part of the gap in sediment budget.
113 The results will help to advance our understanding of source-to-sink transport in river delta
114 systems and the role of climate change in determining the fate of river deltas.

115 **2. Material and methods**

116 **2.1 Study area**

117 The Hainan Island is located in northern South China Sea and geographically separated
118 from the mainland by a narrow strait (Fig. 1). The landscape of Hainan comprises mountains
119 in the central part with height up to 1867 m (above the mean sea level), numerous hills over
120 the entire island and relatively small low-land coastal areas characterized by a series of highly
121 indented promontory embayments. The mountains and hills are mostly composed of
122 Palaeozoic metamorphic and sedimentary rocks intruded by Palaeozoic and Mesozoic granites
123 (Wang et al., 1991). The sandy embayment coast of southern Hainan Island mainly consists of
124 (i) drowned valleys bounded by steep bedrock hills and only locally receiving sediments, (ii)
125 alluvial-deltaic deposits, and (iii) beach ridges/barriers and associated elongated lagoons
126 (Wang, et al., 2001).

127 Except for the northern part of Hainan that is affected by a humid and subtropical
128 climate, the major part of Hainan is dominated by the tropical monsoon, with north-easterly
129 winds in winter (November to March) and south-westerly winds in summer (May to
130 September) and a transition between the two monsoonal winds in April and October (Zhang et
131 al., 2013). Tropical storms and typhoons frequently (up to 10 times per year) strike the island
132 in every year between June and September, and bring large amounts of rainfall (up to 500 mm
133 per event), accounting for 70% of the annual precipitation (Committee of Encyclopedia of
134 Hainan, 1999). The seasonal monsoon and extreme events largely control the temporal
135 variability of river output to the shelf sea, with 80-85% of annual runoff and sediment

136 discharge occurring between June and October (Yang et al., 2013). Because of a short
137 excursion course (< 350 km) and large elevation difference between the river source in
138 mountains and the river mouth, most major rivers on Hainan are characterized by a relatively
139 large slope, thus facilitating sediment output to the coastal area. Concentrations of 50-200 mg
140 L⁻¹ for suspended particulate matter (SPM) are typical for Hainan rivers (Zhang e al., 2013),
141 with higher values for bedload transport. However, a net decreasing trend of sediment
142 discharge is clearly seen during the past decades, mainly due to anthropogenic activities
143 including dam constructions, sand mining and agriculture irrigation (Yang et al., 2013). It is
144 estimated that sediment discharge in major rivers has been reduced by more than 50% since
145 late 1950s (Yang et al., 2013).

146 Hydrodynamics in the coastal area of Hainan Island is subject to the impact of mixed
147 diurnal and semi-diurnal tides with average tidal ranges between 1.1 and 2 m along the north
148 and north-western coast and below 1 m along the south and south-eastern coast (Li et al.,
149 2019). The wind-waves are relatively weak, with average height less than 1 m along the entire
150 coast (Wang et al., 2001). Besides the impact of astronomical tides, coastal currents are
151 significantly controlled by the monsoon which shows distinct patterns between winter and
152 summer (Liu et al., 2008). Maximum current velocity exceeds 50 cm/s along the south coast
153 as a combined effect of tides and winds (Hu et al., 2003; Gan et al., 2006).

154 **2.2 Reconstruction of the paleo-Digital Elevation Model (DEM)**

155 The coastal morphology in the initial stage (65 kyr BP) of the delta development needs
156 to be approximated before a numerical modelling of the paleo-oceanographic conditions and
157 sedimentation processes. A detailed reconstruction of the paleo-DEM of the study area is
158 described in Xiong et al. (this issue) with similar methods and procedures demonstrated in
159 Zhang et al. (2014). A brief introduction is provided here.

160 A high-resolution DEM of the coastal area of south-west Hainan extrapolated from

161 densely distributed seismic profiles and multi-beam data was integrated into the latest General
162 Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO) dataset, which has a 30 arc-second resolution
163 (GEBCO_2014, v. 2014-11-03, <http://www.gebco.net>) to produce a complete modern DEM
164 of the study area (Fig.1b). This DEM served as a starting point for reconstruction of the paleo-
165 DEM. The reconstruction included a reversal of eustatic sea level, i.e. lowering the sea level
166 by 85 m from the modern one (Fig. 3a) according to Waelbroeck et al. (2002), and a removal
167 (“backstripping”, Xiong et al., this issue) of the sediment deposit layer after 65 kyr BP. A
168 continuous reflection surface named R2 in the seismic profiles (Fig. 1c) has been found to
169 mark the interface between the river delta and its underlying seafloor (Feng et al., 2018).
170 Sediment deposit above R2 was therefore removed in the reconstruction. After these two
171 procedures, the paleo-DEM for the research area in the initial stage of the delta development
172 in 65 kyr BP was reconstructed and shown in Fig. 3c. Tectonic movement and the impact of
173 consolidation were not considered in the reconstruction procedure due to their minor impact (-
174 0.4–0 mm yr⁻¹) (Feng et al., 2018) compared to the sea level change (4–6 mm yr⁻¹, Fig. 3a).

175 **2.3 Numerical modelling**

176 A 3-D morphodynamic numerical model which has been successfully applied to the
177 South China Sea and other coastal shelf seas (Chen et al., 2016b; Zhang et al., 2016; Chen et
178 al., 2019; Yin et al., 2019) was applied in this study. The model contains four major
179 functional modules: (a) A 3-D circulation module based on the Princeton Ocean Model
180 (Blumberg and Mellor, 1987; Mellor, 2003) adopting a fourth-order vertical pressure gradient
181 scheme from McCalpin (1994) to better resolve hydrodynamics over complex topography
182 characterised by a sharp bathymetric gradient such as seamounts and continental slope; (b) A
183 bottom boundary layer (BBL) module based on the Styles-Glenn model (Styles and Glenn,
184 2000) taking into account the impact of stratification induced by suspended particulate matter
185 (SPM) on the vertical structure of current velocity in the constant stress layer; (c) A

186 subaqueous sediment transport module (Zhang et al., 2011) modified from ECOMSED
187 (HydroQual, Inc., 2002) for a process-based formulation of erosion, suspended load/bed load
188 transport, and deposition of cohesive (one grain-size class) and non-cohesive (one grain-size
189 class) sediment; and (d) A bathymetry update module based on the technique of
190 morphological update acceleration and approaches for maintaining the computational stability
191 (Zhang et al., 2012). The reason for applying morphological update acceleration is to up-scale
192 the morphological evolution in long-term modelling. Specifically, the flow, sediment
193 transport and bed level change are all computed using the same time step and then the
194 calculated bed level change at each time step is multiplied by a factor $f (\geq 1)$, so that after a
195 simulation of one tidal cycle the model has, in fact, produced the morphological change for f
196 tidal cycles. However, spurious oscillations may occur if the value of f is too large, especially
197 for high-energy conditions such as typhoons. To avoid unrealistic spurious oscillation near
198 shocks and discontinuities in the computation, no morphological update acceleration (i.e. $f =$
199 1) was implemented in the simulation of typhoons, while $f = 3$ was used in simulation of
200 normal conditions using the seasonal mean wind fields and astronomical tides as driving
201 forces. After simulation of one year, the calculated bed level change was multiplied by $f =$
202 10 , so that the morphological change of 10 years was produced. Based on the updated
203 morphology the model simulated hydrodynamics and sediment transport for the next annual
204 cycle (i.e. normal seasonal mean conditions and a representative typhoon). This procedure
205 continued until the long-term simulation was finalized. The method has proven to perform
206 well in modelling long-term development of barrier islands (Zhang et al., 2010, 2014) and
207 mud depocenters (Hanebuth et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2019).

208 A nested computational grid system was utilized to provide a high-resolution simulation
209 of the study area. In this nested system, an orthogonal rectilinear regional grid covering the
210 entire South China Sea and West Pacific Ocean with a uniform horizontal resolution of 15×15

211 km was used to provide open boundary conditions for a local grid covering the study area (Fig.
212 3c) with a high horizontal resolution of 800×800 m. The driving forces for the regional model
213 include the water level (η) and flow velocity (u, v) at three open boundaries using the
214 climatology of HYCOM+NCODA Global 1/12° Analysis from 2009 to 2016 (GLBa0.08,
215 <https://hycom.org/dataserver/gofs-3pt0/analysis>). Four major tidal constituents (M2, S2, K1,
216 O1) derived from TPXO 7.2 (Egbert and Erofeeva, 2002) were imposed to η at the open
217 boundaries. These constituents account for more than 95% of the tidal energy in the study
218 area (Hu et al., 2003). In addition, four constant wind fields, each averaged over three months
219 representing a different season based on the climatology (2000–2011) of sea surface winds
220 ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$) released from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA;
221 <http://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/>), were specified as seasonal surface driving
222 force. Because typhoons play a very important role in sediment resuspension and
223 redistribution in this area, simulation of typhoon impact on development of the paleo-delta
224 was included. In this study we adopted the wind field of a realistic typhoon (Typhoon Ketsana)
225 occurred between 25-30 September 2009 (JTWC;
226 www.metoc.navy.mil/jtwc/jtwc.html?western-pacific) to simulate the typhoon impact on
227 hydrodynamics and sediment transport. The reason for choosing this typhoon as annual
228 representative extremes in our modelling is that 1) its track followed almost a straight line at
229 the latitude of $\sim 15.5^\circ$, which is the lower boundary of our local model domain, and thus had
230 strongest impact in terms of winds and waves in our study area, and 2) it is a Category 2
231 typhoon with peak wind speed of $\sim 42 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, neither too strong nor too weak, thus could
232 represent annual typhoon conditions in the study area.

233 A detailed model setup and validation against observational data have been described in
234 Chen et al. (2019). In the modeling of paleo-oceanographic and morphodynamic scenarios
235 corresponding to the initial stage of the delta development, we replaced the modern DEM

236 with the reconstructed paleo-DEM in 65 kyr BP and adopted the same driving forcing as
237 modern time.

238 Because we are interested in identifying the potential sediment sources, especially the
239 river sources for the delta and associated transport pathways, and for the sake of modelling
240 simplification, only four major rivers in the area, namely the Red River, the Nanliu River, the
241 Changhua River and the Wanquan River (Fig. 3c), are considered in the simulation. Location
242 of each of the river mouths at 65 kyr BP (Fig. 3c) was set based on the paleo-valley axes
243 identified from seismic data (Xiong et al., this issue). Values of river runoff and sediment
244 discharge observed in modern time suggest the Red River as the dominant river supply of the
245 Beibu Gulf, being 10 times of the Nanliu River, 17 times of the Wanquan River and 22 times
246 of the Changhua River in terms of annual mean runoff, and with even higher ratios in total
247 sediment discharge (Table 1). The river boundary outputs in the model are distinguished into
248 two seasonal conditions. Multi-year mean values are used to parameterize the boundary
249 condition in the dry season from December to May, whereas in the wet season (June -
250 November) river runoff is doubled in all rivers, and sediment concentration is increased
251 correspondingly with a higher ratio in the Hainan rivers due to their large bed slope effect
252 (Zhang et al., 2013).

253 The seafloor is assumed to be free of mobile sediments except for those from the rivers.
254 Two sediment types, namely SPM in the form of suspended load and medium sand in the
255 form of bedload, are specified in the river boundary. A constant value of 0.1 Pa is assumed as
256 the critical shear stress for re-suspension of unconsolidated sediment. A lower value (0.03 Pa)
257 is used as the critical shear stress for sediment deposition. Setting of these two values is based
258 on recommended values for sand-mud mixture bed conditions by van Rijn (2007). Sensitivity
259 tests by varying these two critical thresholds by $\pm 30\%$ indicate minor differences in the
260 resultant erosion/deposition pattern in our study area.

261 **3. Results**

262 **3.1 Hydrodynamics**

263 **3.1.1 Hydrodynamics in normal conditions**

264 Simulation results reveal that the regional circulation, especially along the shelf edge, is
265 largely driven by the monsoon system, whereas the coastal shelf circulation is predominantly
266 controlled by astronomical tides with significant modulation by the monsoon and buoyancy-
267 driven river plumes from the major rivers (Figs. 4, 5). The compound effect of tides, river
268 runoff and winds results in distinct transport patterns between winter and summer seasons, as
269 well as asymmetry in current strength between the eastern (i.e. Hainan) and western coast (i.e.
270 Vietnam).

271 In winter, currents outside the embayment as well as along the south-eastern coast of
272 Hainan are mainly driven by the north-easterly winds. The flood tides further enhance the
273 current strength along the south-eastern Hainan coast, resulting in peak velocities up to 1 m s^{-1}
274 in surface layer and $\sim 0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ near the bottom around the southern tip of Hainan (Fig. 4a, b).
275 In contrast to energetic hydrodynamic regime along the Hainan coast, the western coast of the
276 embayment is calm during the flood tides, with current velocity below 0.2 m s^{-1} along its
277 major part except for a local enhancement ($0.4\text{-}0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) at the paleo-Red River mouth (Fig.
278 4a). This local enhancement of current velocity is seen in the surface water only, indicating
279 that it is associated with the buoyancy-driven river plume. During the ebb phase, strong
280 currents are seen along the coast on both sides of the embayment (Fig. 5a, b). Due to the
281 impact of monsoon, currents along the south-eastern Hainan coast are directed south-
282 westwards even during the ebb tides. As consequence, the ebb tidal outflow is pushed toward
283 the western coast (Vietnam) and in the meanwhile spatially enhanced, with surface current
284 velocity up to 0.6 m s^{-1} in various parts along the western coast (Fig. 5a, b).

285 In summer, the south-westerly winds drive the surface currents north-eastwards along
286 both the shelf edge and the south-eastern coast of Hainan. During the flood tides, such

287 currents counteract the tidal current along the south-eastern coast of Hainan, resulting in a
288 relatively weak hydrodynamic regime in this local area (Fig. 4c, d), whereas in a major part of
289 the embayment a superposition of the wind-driven circulation and the tidal current results in
290 high flow velocities ($>0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ in surface water) there. During the ebb phase, the tidal
291 outflow converges with the wind-driven outer-shelf currents at the southern tip of Hainan,
292 resulting in peak velocities up to 0.9 m s^{-1} in surface water (Fig. 5c, d). In contrast to the high
293 current velocity along the Hainan coast, the western coast of the embayment is relatively calm
294 during the ebb tides, with current velocity below 0.2 m s^{-1} along its major part except for a
295 local enhancement ($0.4\text{-}0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) at the paleo-Red River mouth. This situation is similar to
296 that during the flood tides in winter season, but with a difference in the transport pathway of
297 the Red River plume (Fig. 4a, Fig. 5c).

298 Dispersal of the buoyancy-driven river plumes is reflected from the salinity distribution
299 in the study area (Fig. 6). In dry season, the Red River plume is confined along the western
300 coast of the embayment and transported southwards along the coastline (Fig. 6a, b). The
301 north-easterly winds pushes the surface water towards the western coast and results in
302 prominent downwelling there. As a consequence, part of the fresh water from the Red River
303 plume is transported downwards. A density front is formed between the downwelling light
304 ($1015\text{-}1021 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) water from the Red River and the dense (1025 kg m^{-3}) ambient marine
305 water, which further confines the offshore extension of the riverine water and in the
306 meanwhile enhances the alongshore transport speed of the river plume. In contrast to the
307 prominent Red River plume, the plumes from the other three rivers are limited to local areas
308 around the river mouths due to small runoff values. In wet season characterized by greatly
309 enhanced river runoff and reversed wind direction, the Red River plume no longer follows the
310 western coastline of the embayment. Instead, it is transported towards the eastern coast and
311 converges with the Nanliu River plume (Fig. 6c, d). The converged plume is further

312 transported south-eastwards along the Hainan coast and joins the Changhua River plume. The
313 reinforced plume separates into two branches after bypassing the southern tip of Hainan, with
314 one of them following still the coastline and transported north-eastwards and the other
315 heading for the open ocean towards the shelf break. It is worth to note that downwelling and
316 strong mixing occur in the northern part of the embayment near the Nanliu River mouth,
317 causing a wide spread of less saline water all though the water column in this area (Fig. 6d),
318 whilst downwelling is weakened in the mid-way between the Nanliu River and the Changhua
319 River and at some local places replaced by weak upwelling. As a result the less saline water in
320 the bottom layer (originated from the rivers) is confined in a narrow zone along the coastline
321 along the transport path of the surface river plume.

322 The dynamic interaction between the large-scale monsoon-driven circulation, the
323 buoyancy-driven river plumes and the tidal currents has a dominant control of the net
324 transport (averaged over 120 tidal cycles, Fig. 7).

325 In dry season (December - May), a strong south-westward transport exists along the
326 south-eastern coast of Hainan (Fig.7a). The residual current velocity reaches up to 0.5 m s^{-1}
327 along this part of coast. This energetic transport terminates after bypassing the southern tip of
328 Hainan and entering the embayment. In contrast to the south-eastern coast, the western coast
329 of Hainan is characterized by a weak residual transport ($<0.05 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), with only local
330 enhancement ($0.05\text{-}0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) associated with the river run-off from the Nanliu and Changhua
331 Rivers. A net southward transport of the Changhua River runoff is seen, and it converges
332 further offshore with the strong south-westward transport along the south-eastern Hainan
333 coast. A relatively strong southward transport (with residual current velocity of $0.1\text{-}0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$)
334 originating from the Red River mouth also occurs along the western coast of the embayment.
335 It is a result of the Red River plume transport confined by the density front (Fig. 6a,b).

336 In wet season (June - November), the strong residual transport along the south-eastern
337 Hainan coast is reversed (Fig. 7b). The southward transport along the western coast of the
338 embayment in dry season ceases in wet season. A net transport, characterized by residual
339 current velocity of $0.1-0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, occurs from the Red River mouth towards the Changhua
340 River mouth and is associated with dispersal of the buoyancy-driven river plume (Fig. 6c, d).

341 Besides the above-mentioned residual transport patterns along the coast, cyclonic and
342 anti-cyclonic gyres occur in various parts of the embayment (Fig. 7). The areas off the Red
343 River mouth and the Changhua River mouth appear to be hotspots of gyres that persist over
344 different seasons with certain spatial oscillations.

345 **3.1.2 Hydrodynamics during typhoons**

346 Hydrodynamics in the study area become quite energetic during typhoons (Fig. 8).
347 Surface water is pushed by strong south-easterly winds towards the embayment head where
348 the Red River and the Nauliu River are located. Maximum current velocity reaches up to 1 m
349 s^{-1} along both edges of the embayment. The piling up of water at the embayment head results
350 in a south-eastward compensation flow in the middle part of the embayment. This
351 compensation flow is characterized by relatively weak surface currents ($<0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) but quite
352 strong bottom currents ($0.3-0.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 8b). The modelled maximum significant wave
353 height is $\sim 10 \text{ m}$ at the shelf break (200 m water depth), and gradually decreased to $\sim 3.5 \text{ m}$ at
354 the Red River mouth. A combination of strong waves and currents results in large bottom
355 shear stress (between 1 and 10 Pa) over a major part of the embayment that well exceeds the
356 threshold for resuspension of unconsolidated surface sediments (0.1 Pa).

357 **3.2 Sediment dynamics and morphological change**

358 **3.2.1 Normal conditions**

359 The transport of suspended sediment (i.e. SPM) from the major rivers, as illustrated in
360 Fig.9, shares similarity as well as difference with that of the buoyancy-driven river plume

361 shown in Fig.6. In general, the major transport pathway of SPM follows that of the river
362 plume (Fig. 9a, b), on the other hand, deposition and resuspension cause also significant
363 deviation in the transport of sediment from the river plume.

364 In dry season, SPM from the Nanliu and Changhua Rivers is transported mainly offshore
365 towards the western coast of the embayment (Fig. 9a). Deposition and resuspension occur
366 along its transport path due to alternating hydrodynamic regimes controlled by tides and
367 winds. As a result, river-borne fine-grained sediment is spread over a major part of the
368 embayment in the bottom layer (Fig. 9b). In contrast to the offshore transport pattern from the
369 Nanliu and Changhua Rivers, transport of SPM originated from the Red River and the
370 Wanquan River is mainly confined along the coastline. The most prominent transport is from
371 the Red River which is the main supplier of both fresh water and sediment. Massive
372 deposition and resuspension occur along the western coast of the embayment following the
373 pathway of the Red River plume. However, spread of the resuspended sediment originated
374 from the Red River is also spatially confined near the western coast. It is worth to note that
375 although the sediment discharge from the Wanquan River takes up only a very small portion
376 of the total river-borne sediment input rate in the study area, a net transport along the south-
377 eastern Hainan coast towards the embayment is seen in the bottom layer (Fig. 9b). This
378 pattern indicates that fine-grained sediment from the Wanquan River goes through numerous
379 cycles of deposition, resuspension and near-bottom transport before reaching the paleo-river
380 delta area. The simulated depositional thickness after a dry season indicates that the major
381 deposition occurs in water depth between 20 and 50 m along the western coast of the
382 embayment, with a maximum thickness of ~0.3 cm (Fig. 10a). A thin layer of deposit (~0.1
383 cm) occurs along the western Hainan coast and its sediment source is mainly from the Nanliu
384 and Changhua Rivers. In the paleo-delta area, only the western part receives deposited
385 sediment with a major portion coming from the Red River, whereas the eastern part is free of

386 deposition due to insufficient sediment supply from the eastern Hainan coast. A thin belt of
387 deposit (~0.1 cm) is formed by sediment discharge from the Wanquan River, and extends
388 towards the delta area.

389 In wet season, fine-grained sediment from the Nanliu and Red Rivers is mainly
390 accumulated in the northern part of the embayment (Fig.9c, d). In energetic hydrodynamic
391 conditions, freshly-deposited river-borne sediment in this area is re-suspended again and
392 partly transported south-eastwards along the western Hainan coast. Unlike the river plume
393 which separates into two branches after bypassing the southern tip of Hainan, SPM is mainly
394 confined in the branch along the coast and transported towards northeast. Massive
395 resuspension induced by periodic strong tidal currents facilitates an offshore spread of the
396 river-borne sediments in the bottom layer (Fig.9d). The simulated depositional thickness after
397 a wet season indicates a quite different pattern with that after a dry season (Fig. 10).
398 Remarkable deposition (maximum thickness of ~0.8 cm) occurs in the northern part of the
399 embayment, especially off the Red and Nanliu River mouths, due to accumulation of
400 sediment from these two rivers. The deposition extends south-eastwards with much reduced
401 thickness (~0.1 cm) and connects to a depocenter off the Changhua river mouth. A maximum
402 depositional thickness of ~0.4 cm is simulated in the depocenter. Its direct connection to the
403 Changhua River mouth with increased depositional thickness indicates that the major
404 sediment source is from this river. An alongshore extension of the deposit suggests that the
405 other three rivers may also contribute to its formation to some extent.

406 **3.2.2 Typhoon impact**

407 The typhoon-induced strong bottom currents, which follow the geometry of the
408 Yinggehai Basin (Fig. 8), provide a highly effective means for sediment delivery from the
409 Red River mouth towards the deeper Yinggehai Basin and the shelf break (Fig. 11). Massive
410 resuspension of the freshly deposited sediment after the wet season (Fig. 10b) occurs due to

411 greatly enhanced bottom shear stress caused by a combined action of strong currents and
412 waves, with most remarkable effect off the Red River mouth (Fig. 11a). The resuspended
413 sediment is mostly entrained by the bottom currents and transported towards the deeper
414 Yinggehai Basin and the outer shelf, forming a belt-line deposit in the Yinggehai Basin after
415 the typhoon (Fig. 11b). On the other hand, the typhoon causes significant erosion along the
416 coastline with most severe impact on the depocenter off the Red River mouth. A comparison
417 between the deposited volume in normal conditions (Fig. 10) and erosion by the typhoon (Fig.
418 11b) indicates that about 50% of the freshly deposited sediment (e.g. on the depocenter off the
419 Red River mouth) is remobilized and transported to the Yinggehai Basin within a year.

420 **3.2.3 Long-term results**

421 The iteration of the two distinct seasonal transport patterns including their transition and
422 typhoons re-organizes the distribution of sediment deposition on a longer time scale.
423 Simulated depositional thickness after 50 yrs since the onset of modeling indicates that two
424 large-scale deposits are created by the river discharge (Fig. 12a). One is centered in the
425 northern part of the embayment and results mainly from the Red River discharge. The other is
426 located off the Changhua River mouth and exhibits a fan shape, with maximum deposition
427 near the river mouth. These two large-scale deposits are connected through three belts, with
428 two thin ones at each side of the embayment respectively and characterized by deposition
429 thickness less than 10 cm and a relatively broad one in the middle (Yinggehai Basin) with
430 thickness between 5 and 15 cm . The existence of these belts suggests three major transport
431 pathways of river-borne sediment from the Red River to the paleo-river delta, with the
432 western one associated with the transport in dry season, the eastern one in wet season and the
433 middle one in typhoons, respectively. A calculation of the total deposited sediment budget in
434 the paleo-river delta area and deposition from each individual river (with sediment discharge

435 from other rivers shut down in simulation) indicates a dominant supply (~55.7%) from the
436 local river, i.e. the Changhua River, with a significant contribution (37.4%) by the Red River,
437 and subordinate contribution by the other two rivers (Fig. 12b).

438 **4. Discussion**

439 **4.1 Implication of simulation results**

440 This study aims to explore possible physical driving mechanisms for the morphogenesis
441 of an abandoned paleo-river delta found off SW Hainan Island and to identify potential
442 sediment sources for the delta and associated transport patterns. We are convinced that our
443 simulation results provide useful information to address a major part of these issues.

444 Our results indicate that in ~65 kyr BP when the global sea level was at a lowstand (~85
445 m below modern level), the Hainan Island seen today was not an island but part of the
446 mainland, and the Beibu Gulf was an embayment (Fig. 3c). The modern-like monsoon, which
447 has been established since the early Miocene (~ 22 million yr BP; e.g. Clift et al., 2014),
448 produces two distinct large-scale seasonal circulation patterns in the South China Sea.
449 Because of a lowstand of sea level in ~65 kyr BP, a significant part of the continental shelf
450 was emerged. As a result the regional circulation, especially that along the shelf edge and
451 coastal area, was quite energetic at that time (Xiong et al., this issue). The interaction between
452 the monsoon-driven circulation, the astronomical tides and the buoyancy-driven river plumes
453 results in two distinct seasonal transport patterns of river-borne sediment in the embayment
454 and its adjacent area. In addition, frequently-occurred typhoons play an important role in
455 redistribution of freshly deposited sediment in the wet season.

456 In dry season (December - May), sediment from the Red River, which is a major supplier
457 of both runoff and sediment to the embayment, is mainly transported along the western coast
458 of the embayment and detoured around the paleo-river delta, whereas fine-grained suspended

459 sediment from the Nanliu and Changhua Rivers is transported offshore (Fig. 9b). Such
460 offshore transport direction indicates that sediment from other rivers along the western
461 Hainan coast (Fig. 1b), although not included in our modelling, would be transported
462 similarly, facilitating formation of the paleo-river delta. Satellite images for this region taken
463 in late November 2001, when north-easterly winds dominated, provide support for the
464 offshore transport pattern (Fig. 13). Besides the western Hainan coast, sediment from the
465 south-eastern Hainan coast such as the Wanquan River or even from further remote rivers is
466 also transported towards the paleo-delta in dry season and serves as potentially important
467 source (Fig.9b). The strong coastal currents along the eastern Hainan and the connected
468 mainland coast may effectively transport sediment towards the southern tip of Hainan, where
469 a drastic decrease of current strength occurs, leading to decrease of sediment transport
470 capacity and subsequent deposition there. Various gyres developed as a result of residual
471 transport (Fig. 7a) may further facilitate deposition in the delta area, as evidenced in other
472 regions where some large-scale deposits are associated with persistent gyres (e.g.
473 Sündermann and Pohlmann, 2011; Miramontes, 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). The contribution to
474 sediment budget from the eastern Hainan coast and the connected mainland coast (e.g. from
475 the Pearl River) is heavily underestimated in our model results, in which only the impact of
476 the Wanquan River is taken into account (Fig. 12b).

477 In wet season (June-November), sediment from the Red River is mainly accumulated
478 near the river mouth due to the existence of several long-lasting gyres there which promotes
479 deposition in their centre (Fig. 7b). Only a small portion (< 5%) of the fine-grained sediment
480 from the Red River is further transported along the western Hainan coast and contributes to
481 development of the delta. Our simulation results indicate that the suspended sediment plumes
482 from the Red and Nanliu Rivers converge with the plume from the local river in SW Hainan,
483 i.e. the Changhua River, before their further dispersal towards the delta front (Fig. 9c, d).

484 Typhoons frequently occur in the region and may play an important role in re-organizing
485 the deposit patterns, despite of a short period of their direct impact (within a few days). Our
486 results suggest that typhoons are capable of massive resuspension of surface sediments that
487 are freshly deposited in the embayment, and subsequently transport them into the Yinggehai
488 Basin (Fig. 11). These results provide further support that most sediment delivered by the Red
489 River is initially deposited near its river mouth, and then resuspended during high-energy
490 conditions (e.g. during typhoons) and transported into the Yinggehai Basin. Such deposition
491 pattern is supported by existing literature. For example, a seismic profile extending across the
492 Yinggehai Basin including the paleo-Red River mouth provided by Clift and Sun (2006) in
493 their figure 3 shows that the filling of the basin is characterized by a south-westward trend. In
494 addition, the sediment isopach map for the entire Yinggehai Basin from Clift and Sun (2006)
495 does show existence of a depocenter at the paleo-Red River mouth. It is particularly worth to
496 note that although transport of the Red River-borne sediment into the Yinggehai Basin would
497 also promote deposition in the paleo-delta off west Hainan, it is not the formation mechanism
498 of the delta. This is clearly indicated by both model results (Fig. 11) and seismic profiles
499 across the paleo-delta (e.g. Fig. 1c) showing that the internal architecture of the river delta is
500 featured by deltaic deposits mainly fed by sediment from the western Hainan (Chen et al.,
501 2016a; Feng et al., 2018).

502 The potential of river delta development along the SW Hainan in modern condition has
503 been proposed by Li et al. (2019), who classified the entire Hainan coast into three
504 geomorphological zones, e.g. the northern mixed estuaries zone, the western river deltas zone,
505 and the eastern coastal lagoons zone. This classification is based on analysis of the river-
506 borne sediment supply rates, the estuarine accommodation space and the hydrodynamic
507 forcing. In modern period, various small-scale river deltas are found along the western Hainan
508 coast due to the impact of wind-waves, whereas no delta is formed in the northern or eastern

509 Hainan coast due to a compound effect of insufficient accommodation space, larger tidal
510 amplitudes and typhoon-induced erosion (Li et al., 2019). If similar setting of monsoon, tides
511 and typhoon is shared in 65 k BP as today, the outcome of Li et al. (2019) implies that under
512 favourable condition in terms of increased sediment supply, large-scale river delta may form
513 in the SW Hainan coast.

514 **4.2 Limitation of simulation results**

515 Although we are able to provide a plausible explanation for morphogenesis of the paleo-
516 river delta off the SW Hainan. Several gaps in understanding still exist. One is that the two
517 locally-confined depocenters in the delta (Fig. 2), especially the one on the eastern side, were
518 not fully reproduced in our model results. We hypothesize that part of the failure is attributed
519 to simplification of sediment sources in the model by considering only four river outputs and
520 neglecting other potentially important sources, especially the connected mainland coast where
521 the Pearl River, the second largest river in terms of mean discharge in China with a multi-year
522 mean value of $\sim 1 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, is located. Because our model results indicate a south-
523 westward extension of the deposit from the Wanquan River mouth toward the eastern
524 depocenter (Figs. 10 and 12), we hypothesize that this depocenter is formed mainly by the
525 transport pattern in dry season and its main source is from the eastern Hainan coast and the
526 connected mainland coast, e.g. the Pearl River. A dominant south-westward transport of Pearl
527 River sediment during lowstand of sea level has been confirmed by Liu et al. (2017). The
528 existence of an elongated mud belt along the western Guangdong coast adjacent to Hainan
529 with identified sediment source from the Pearl River (Liu et al., 2010) provides support for
530 our hypothesis. The western depocenter is likely related to the transport pathways in wet
531 season and during typhoons with its main source from the Red River and the local SW Hainan
532 according to our simulation results. Nevertheless, more evidence in field data is needed to

533 justify our hypothesis on the distinct source-to-sink transport pathways for formation of these
534 two depocenters in the paleo-delta system.

535 Another gap in understanding is about the sediment budget. The estimated annual-mean
536 sedimentation rate on the paleo-river delta is $\sim 3 \times 10^8$ t yr⁻¹ (Miluch et al., this issue), whilst
537 the modelled sedimentation rate in the delta area is $\sim 1.7 \times 10^7$ t yr⁻¹, being one order of
538 magnitude smaller. This inconsistency indicates that the sediment supply rate during the
539 developing phase of the river delta should be at least one order of magnitude higher than
540 modern condition. Based on our simulation results, we hypothesize that such enhanced
541 sediment supply might be caused jointly by 1) increased local river discharge from SW
542 Hainan, and 2) alongshore transport from eastern Hainan which was connected to the main
543 land during the sea level lowstand. The latter has been discussed previously, while the former
544 might probably be caused by enhanced precipitation due to monsoon variation (An, 2000; Li
545 et al., 2019). It is worth to note that the multi-year mean runoff and SPM concentration of
546 four major rivers in modern time were used in this study as reference to parameterize the river
547 discharge and sediment supply for 65-56 kyr BP. These values may fluctuate significantly due
548 to human and climate impacts and therefore would cause errors in our budget analysis. For
549 example, Clift and Sun (2006) found that the average sediment delivery rate from the Red
550 River for the Pleistocene is $4 - 6 \times 10^7$ t yr⁻¹, which is less than half of the Holocene
551 condition ($\sim 1.3 \times 10^8$ t yr⁻¹). However, although fluctuations exist in the river discharge,
552 there is no doubt that the Red River is the major supply of this region. Therefore, further
553 tuning of the river boundary conditions will not violate the validity of our interpretation on
554 the formation mechanism of the paleo-river delta and source-to-sink sediment transport
555 pathways from the major rivers.

556 Based on biomarker proxy-data analyses of sediment core samples from the paleo-delta
557 Tomczak et al. (2019, this issue) have reconstructed the SST (Sea Surface Temperature) for
558 the time span 65 kyr BP to 56 kyr BP, i.e. the development period of the Hainan Delta.
559 According to their results the SST dropped at 65 kyr BP before it returned at 61 kyr to warmer
560 conditions. The fall of the temperature at 65 kyr BP coincides with a positive anomaly in the
561 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record supporting the hypothesis of strengthened winter monsoon at this time. A
562 reanalysis of meteorological data covering 1871-2012 did discover that precipitation at
563 Hainan Island correlates negatively with precipitation over much of the rest of Monsoon-
564 affected Asia, so that strengthened winter monsoon conditions in Asia likely lead to enhanced
565 rainfall rates at Hainan Island (Xiong et al., this issue). As indicated by our simulation results,
566 offshore spread of river-borne sediment from the SW Hainan coast in winter monsoon
567 condition would facilitate the growth of the paleo-delta.

568 Another issue remaining to be addressed is the cause for termination of the paleo-delta
569 development in ~56 kyr BP. The global sea level was at a highstand (~50 m below modern
570 level) and starting to drop during this period (Waelbroeck et al., 2002, Fig.3a), and Hainan
571 remained connected to the mainland (Xiong et al., this issue). It is known that reduction or
572 cut-off of sediment supply would lead to erosion of river delta (Xue, 1993; Blum and Roberts,
573 2012). Increase of subaqueous accommodation space induced by sea-level rise that exceeds
574 the sedimentation rate would also lead to delta deterioration. The rising sea level might
575 contribute to delta destruction in our study area, but it should not be the major cause because
576 the development of the delta had been through a more drastic sea-level rise in its initial phase
577 (Fig. 3a). Sediment supply rate was able to outpace the sea-level rise in that period to feed a
578 continuous development of the delta, causing a so-called “normal regression” effect.
579 Therefore, a more plausible explanation is a reduction of sediment supply. Li et al. (2019)
580 reported that discharge of fluvial fine-grained sediment, mainly fine and very fine silts (2-10

581 μm), along the northern South China Sea coast is mainly controlled by the East Asian summer
582 monsoon precipitation. Cooling climate events led to decrease of the fluvial fine-grained
583 sediment in the coastal shelf deposits, vice versa. Sediment cores derived from the paleo-delta
584 suggest a dominance of fine silts and clay (2-16 μm) taking up more than 90% in the lower
585 delta deposit layer with a general upward coarsening trend (Miluch et al., this issue). Because
586 the following period after 56 kyr BP was characterized by a quick drop of sea level (by ~20 m
587 till 52 kyr BP), which corresponded to a cooling climate and subsequent reduction of summer
588 monsoon precipitation. This implies a drastic reduction of river-borne sediment supply.
589 Furthermore, winter monsoon might also strengthen in cooling climate and lead to stronger
590 coastal currents and wind-waves that erode the river delta. The combined effect of reduction
591 in sediment supply and enhanced erosion in the cooling period between 56 and 52 kyr BP is
592 hypothesized to be the main cause for termination of the delta development.

593 **5. Conclusions**

594 Based on a paleo-DEM of SW Hainan and its adjacent coastal area reconstructed from
595 seismic reflection profiles, sediment cores with dating results and global sea level curve, this
596 study uses 3D process-based numerical modeling to examine how large-scale monsoon-
597 driven circulation, astronomical tides and buoyancy-driven river plumes interact to influence
598 the formation of a paleo-river delta off SW Hainan.

599 Three major conclusions are drawn from the study. First, the sea level lowstand in ~65
600 kyr BP imposes a first-order control on the coastline configuration and distribution of
601 available sediment sources for morphogenesis of the delta. Hainan was part of the mainland
602 and the Beibu Gulf was an embayment. The area where the paleo-delta was located acts as a
603 gate connecting the embayment and the open ocean where large horizontal gradient of SPM
604 transport occurs. This particular geomorphic setting results in a convergence of sediment

605 transport toward the front of the river delta especially in wet season as a compound effect of
606 summer monsoon, tides and enhanced river discharge.

607 Second, two distinct seasonal transport patterns, characterized by westward and offshore
608 transport from the local rivers along SW Hainan, the eastern Hainan and the connected
609 mainland coast in dry season, and by southward transport of the converged sediment plumes
610 from the Red River and local rivers in SW Hainan in wet season, represent the dominant
611 source-to-sink transport pathways for morphogenesis of the paleo-river delta. Typhoons play
612 an important role in sediment redistribution in the study area and filling of the Yinggehai
613 Basin, but is not the formation mechanism of the paleo-river delta.

614 Last but not least, the local rivers of Hainan are indicated as the main sediment supplier
615 of the paleo-delta, despite that their discharge rate is much less than that of the Red River. In
616 dry season, sediment from the Red River is mainly transported along the western coast of the
617 embayment and detoured around the paleo-river delta, whilst in wet season most of the Red
618 River-borne sediment is initially accumulated near the river mouth, with only a small portion
619 transported towards the SW Hainan coast and converged with the local river sediment plume.
620 This converged plume effectively feeds the development of the paleo-delta. However, further
621 research is needed to address several knowledge gaps left still, especially an inconsistency in
622 the sediment budget.

623 **6. Data availability**

624 Field data derived from the ERES project are available upon request from [jan.harff@io-](mailto:jan.harff@io-warnemuende.de)
625 warnemuende.de. Numerical modeling data for this study are available upon request from
626 wenyan.zhang@hzg.de.

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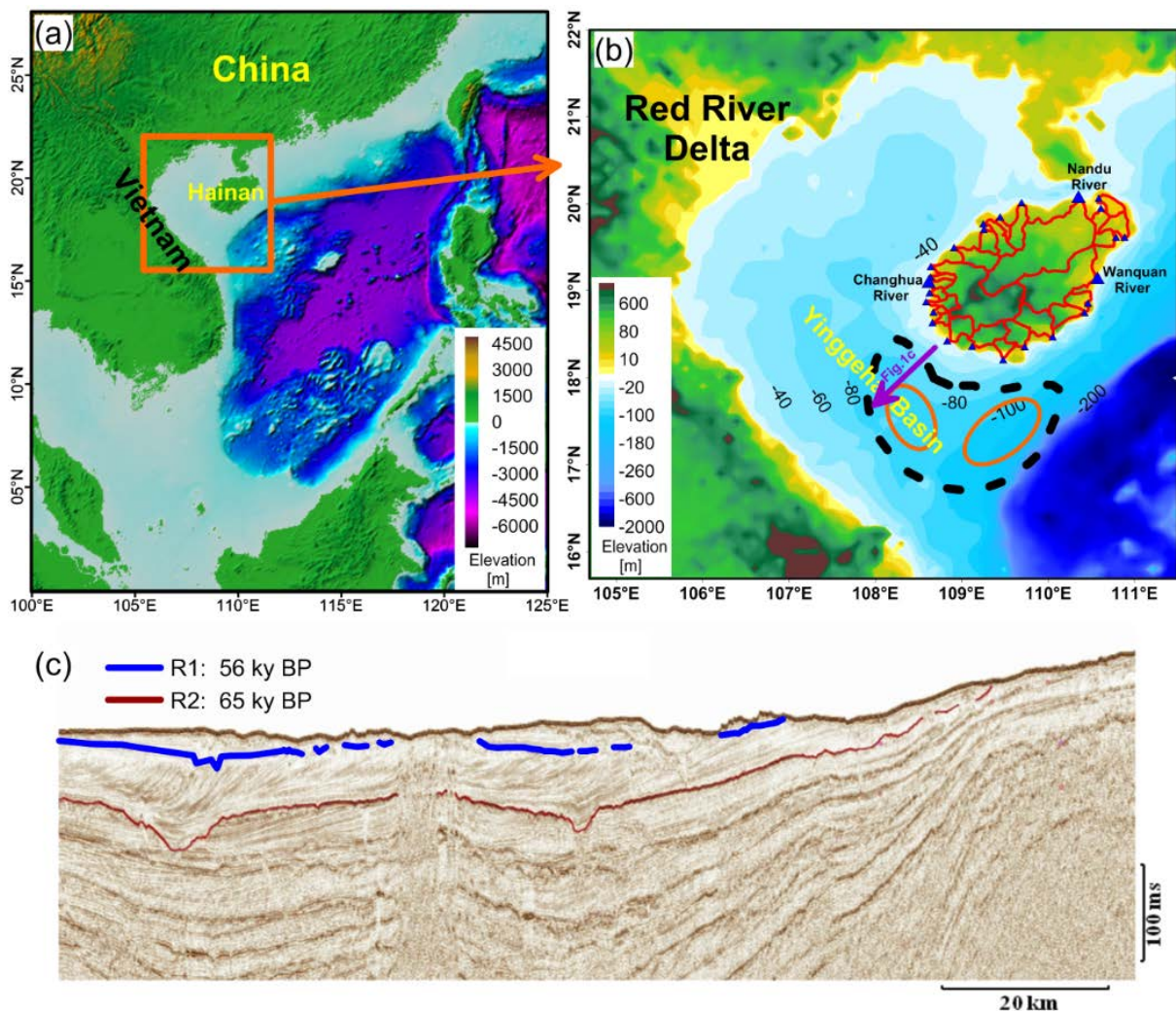
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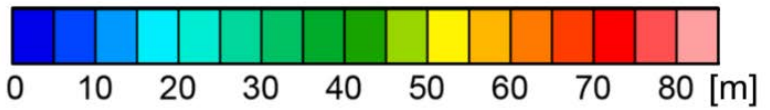
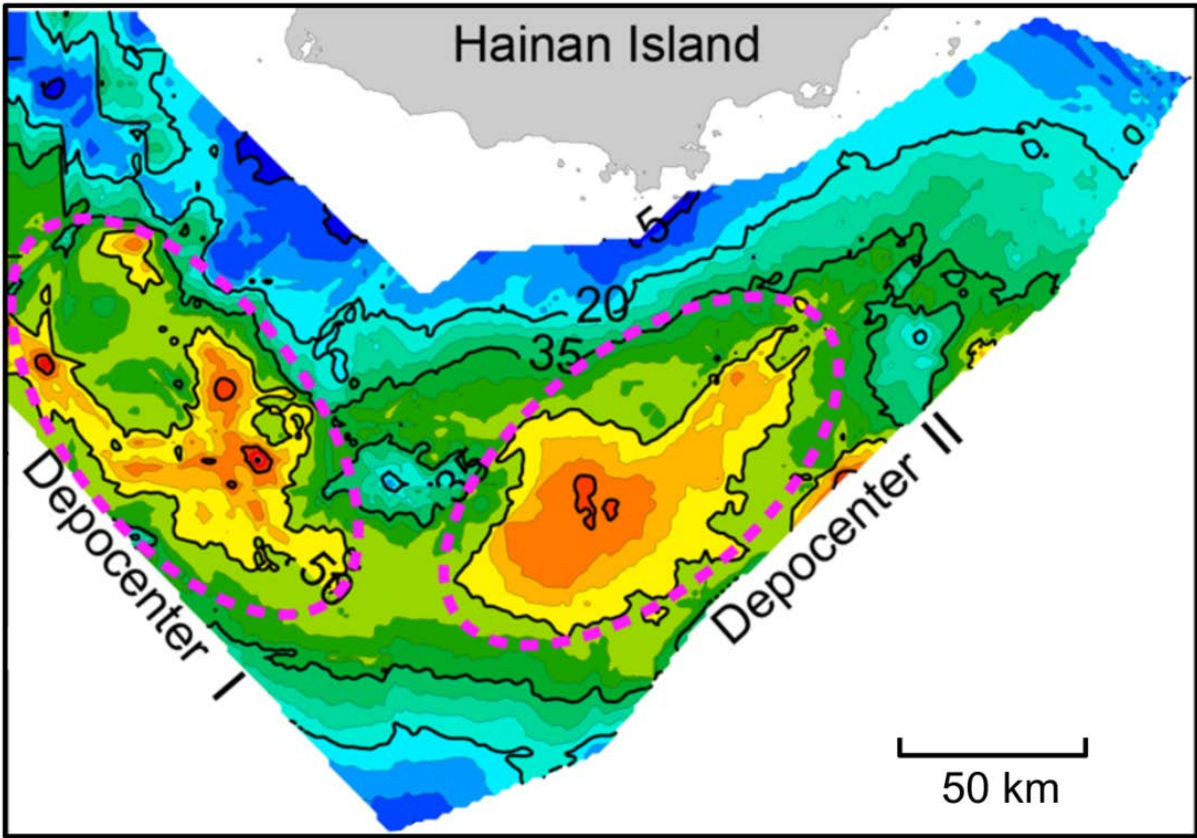
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800 **Figures:**



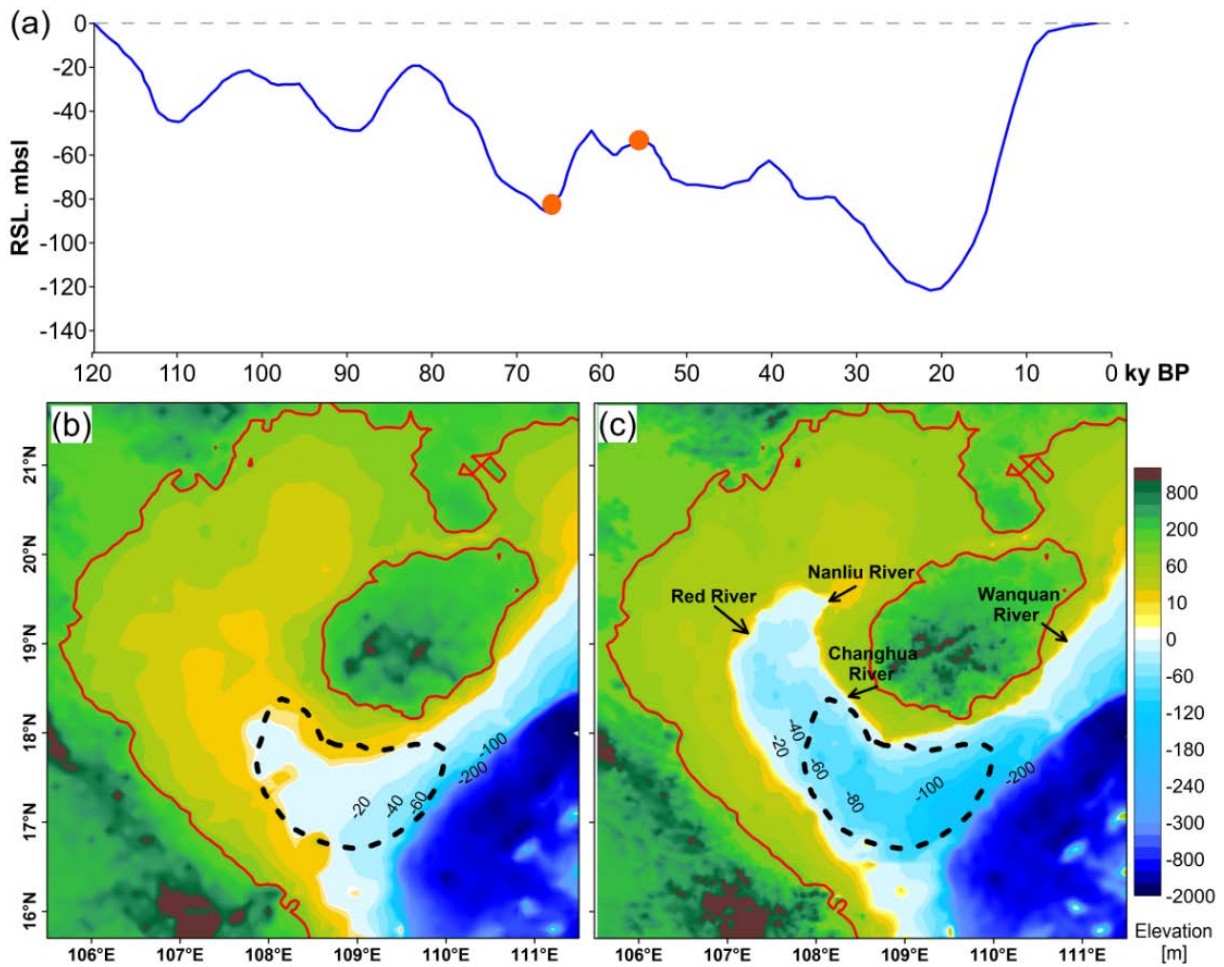
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802 **Figure 1.** (a) Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of the South China Sea based on the GEBCO
803 database (GEBCO_2014, v. 2014-11-03, <http://www.gebco.net>) and location of our local
804 study area. (b) Modern DEM of the local study area. Location of the paleo-delta is indicated
805 by the dashed frame. Two locally confined depocenters (thickness larger than 50 m) of the
806 delta are indicated by the ellipses, with details of sediment isopach shown in Figure 2. The
807 depth contours on the coastal shelf are marked by numbers. Red solid lines on the Hainan
808 Island indicate catchment basins and triangles indicate existing major river mouths over the
809 island, with the top three rivers (Nandu, Changhua and Wanquan) marked in larger size. (c)
810 Seismic profile across the paleo-delta, with its location marked by the arrow in (b). R2 and R1
811 in (c) mark the surfaces of initialization and termination of the delta, respectively (Feng et al.,
812 2018).



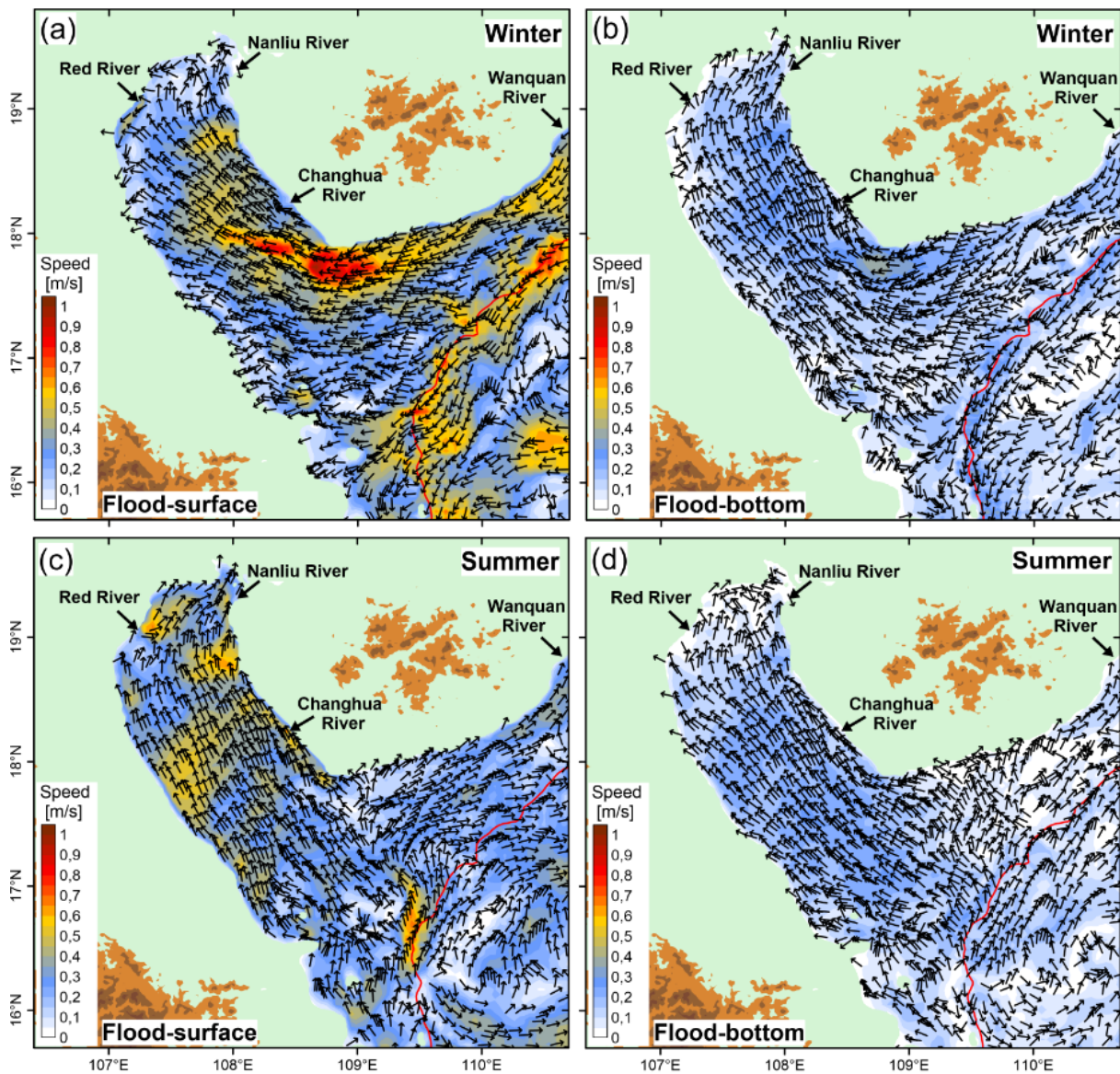
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Figure 2. Sediment isopach map of the paleo-river delta deposit modified from Feng et al.(2018).

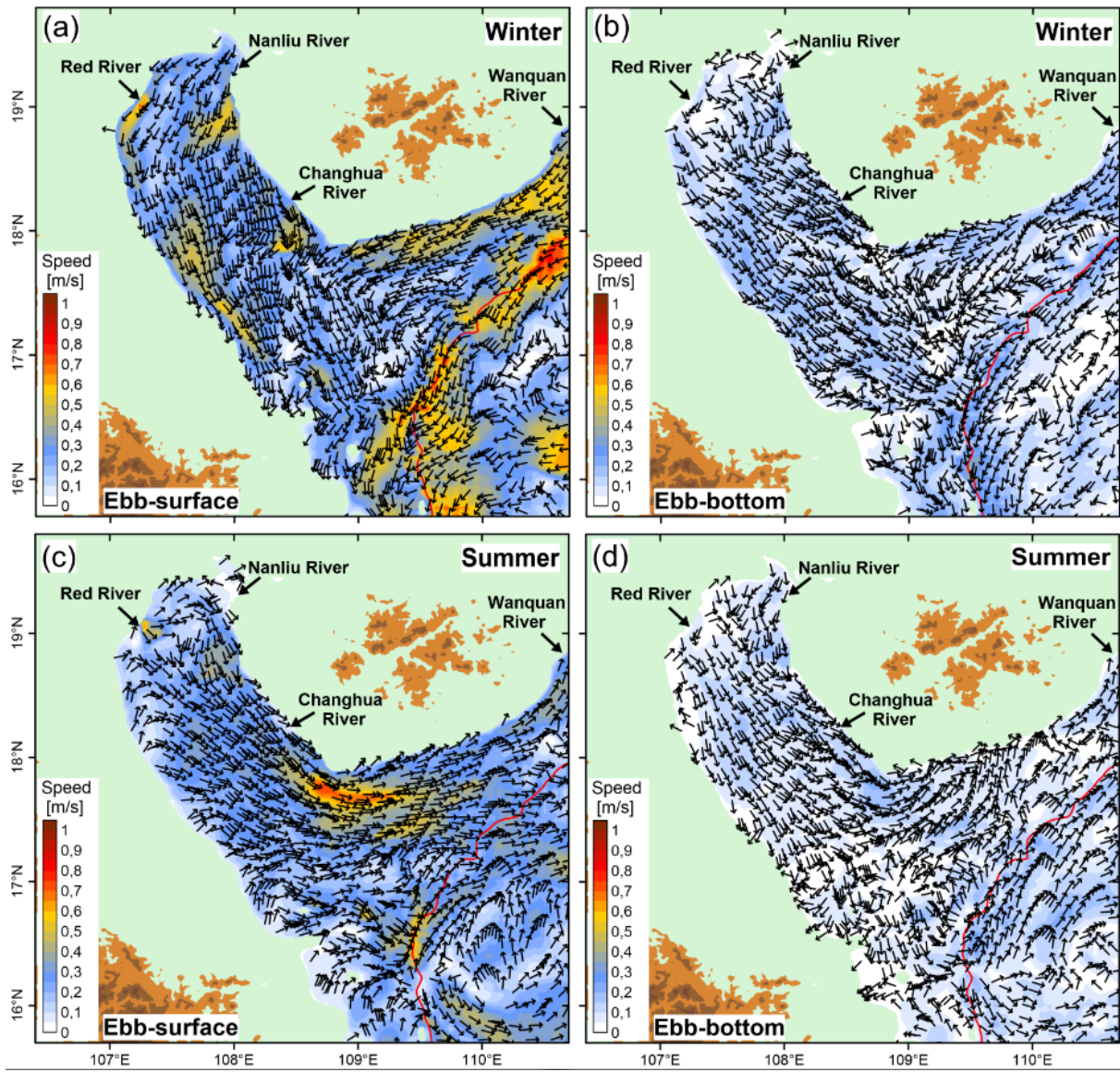


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817 **Figure 3.** Global mean sea level curve (a) after Waelbroeck et al. (2002) with initialization
 818 and termination of the paleo-delta development marked by circles, respectively, and two-step
 819 reconstruction (b & c) of the Paleo-DEM of the study area in 65 kyr BP. (b) Step 1–Reversal
 820 of the eustatic sea level by 85 m from the modern sea level; (c) Step 2–Removal of the
 821 sediment deposit layer after 65 kyr BP (backstripping). The modern coastline is marked by
 822 the red solid line. The paleo-river mouth of four major rivers considered in modeling are
 823 indicated by arrows. Location of the paleo-delta is indicated by the dashed frame. The depth
 824 contours on the coastal shelf are marked by numbers.

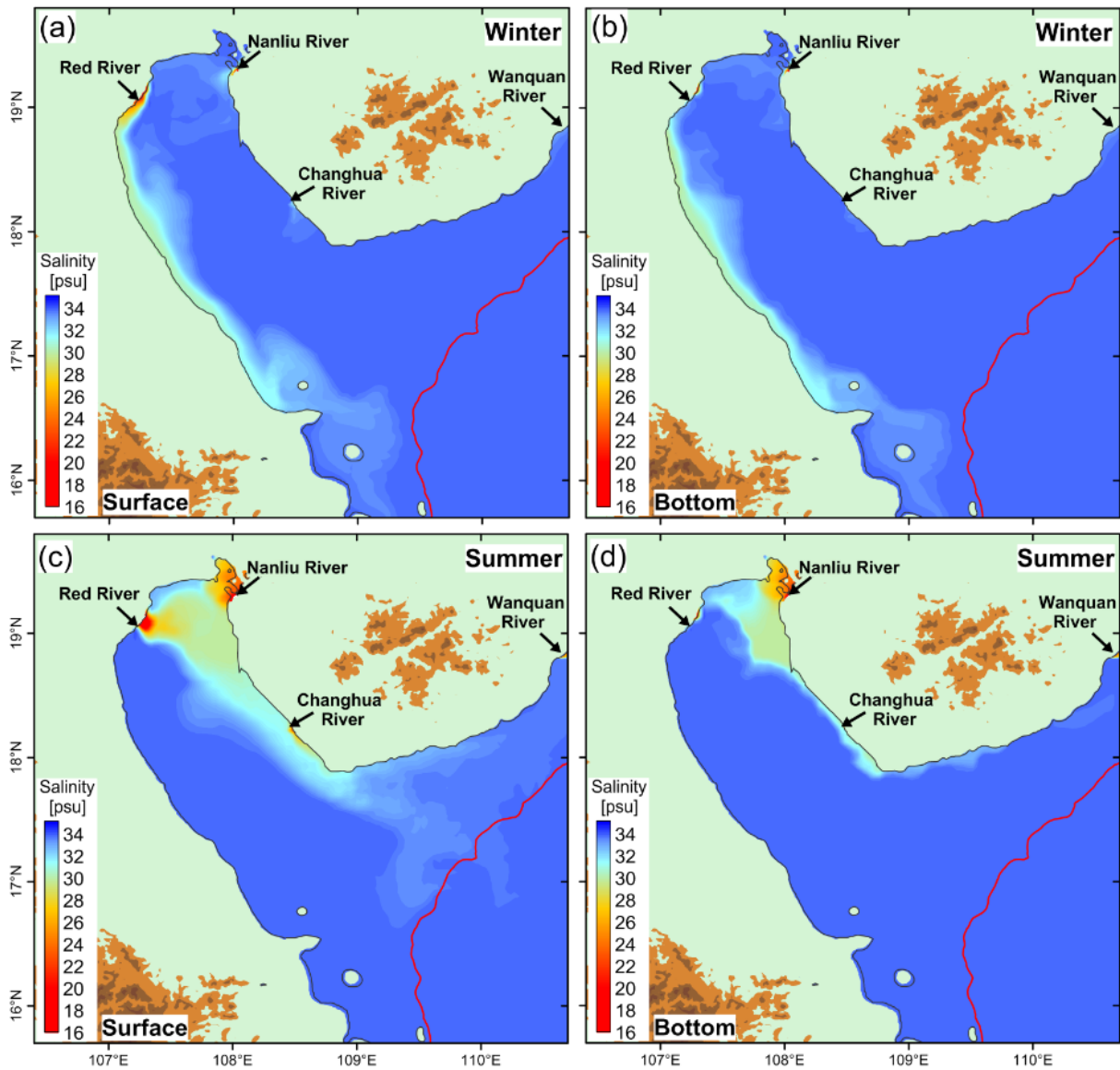


825
 826 **Figure 4.** Flood tidal currents in the study area in two distinct seasons affected by the
 827 monsoon. The arrows indicate flow directions, with flow strength plotted in colour. Vectors
 828 are plotted over fifteen grid cells in both x and y directions. The 200 m water depth contour
 829 marking the shelf break is shown by the red solid line.



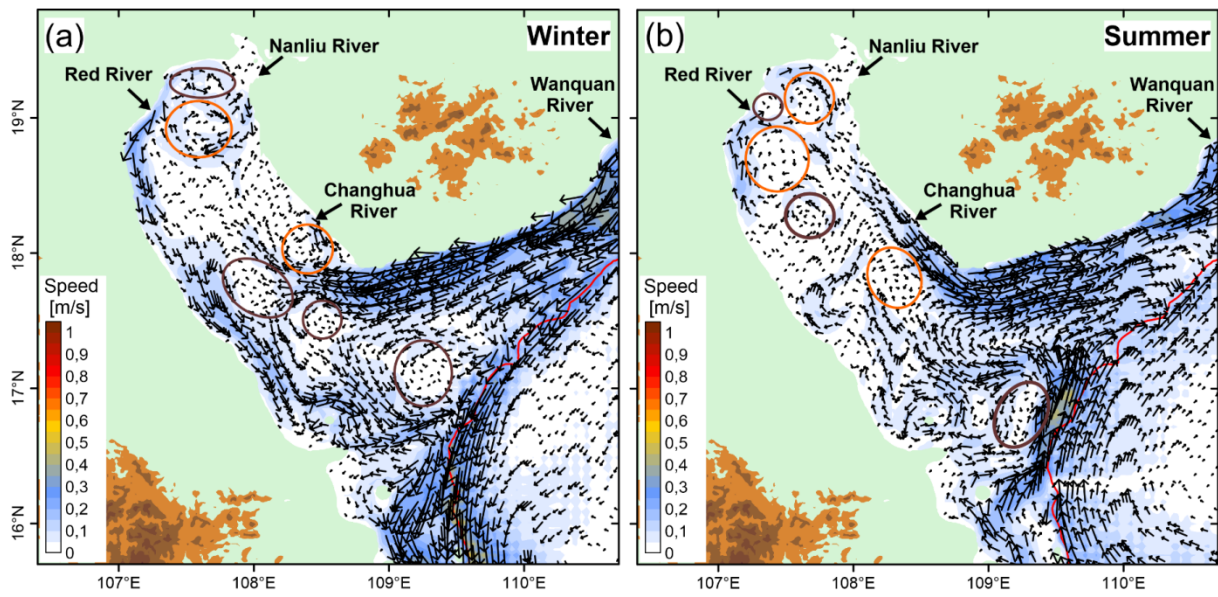
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831 **Figure 5.** Similar to Figure 4 but for the ebb tidal currents.



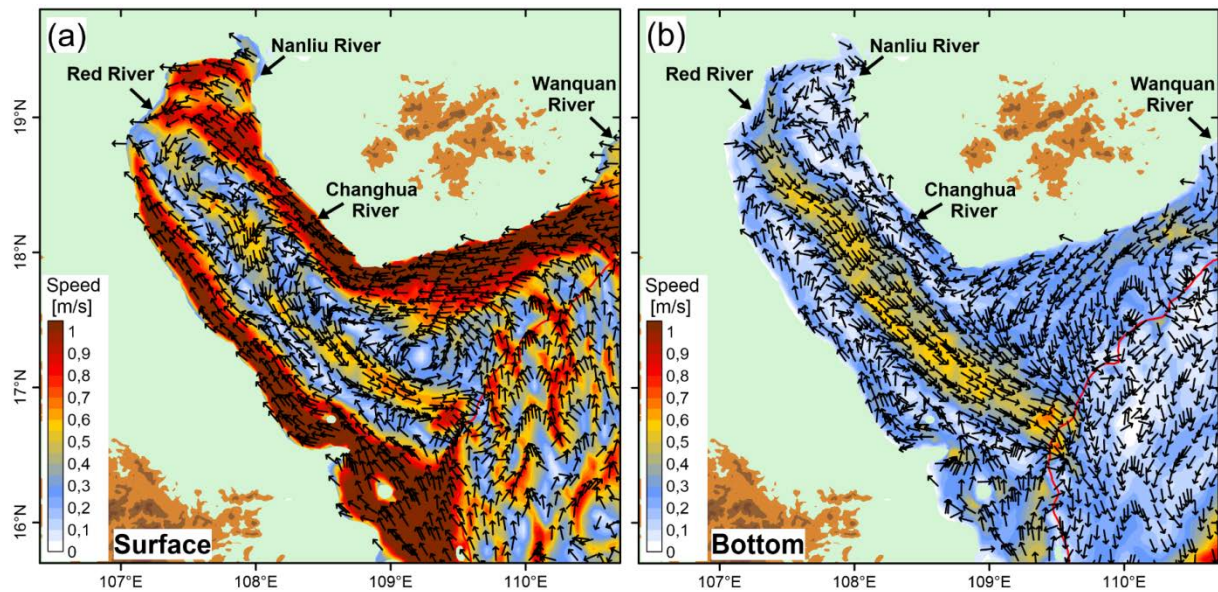
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833 **Figure 6.** Distribution of surface and bottom water salinity in the study area in two distinct
 834 seasons driven by the monsoon. The 200 m water depth contour marking the shelf break is
 835 shown by the red solid line.



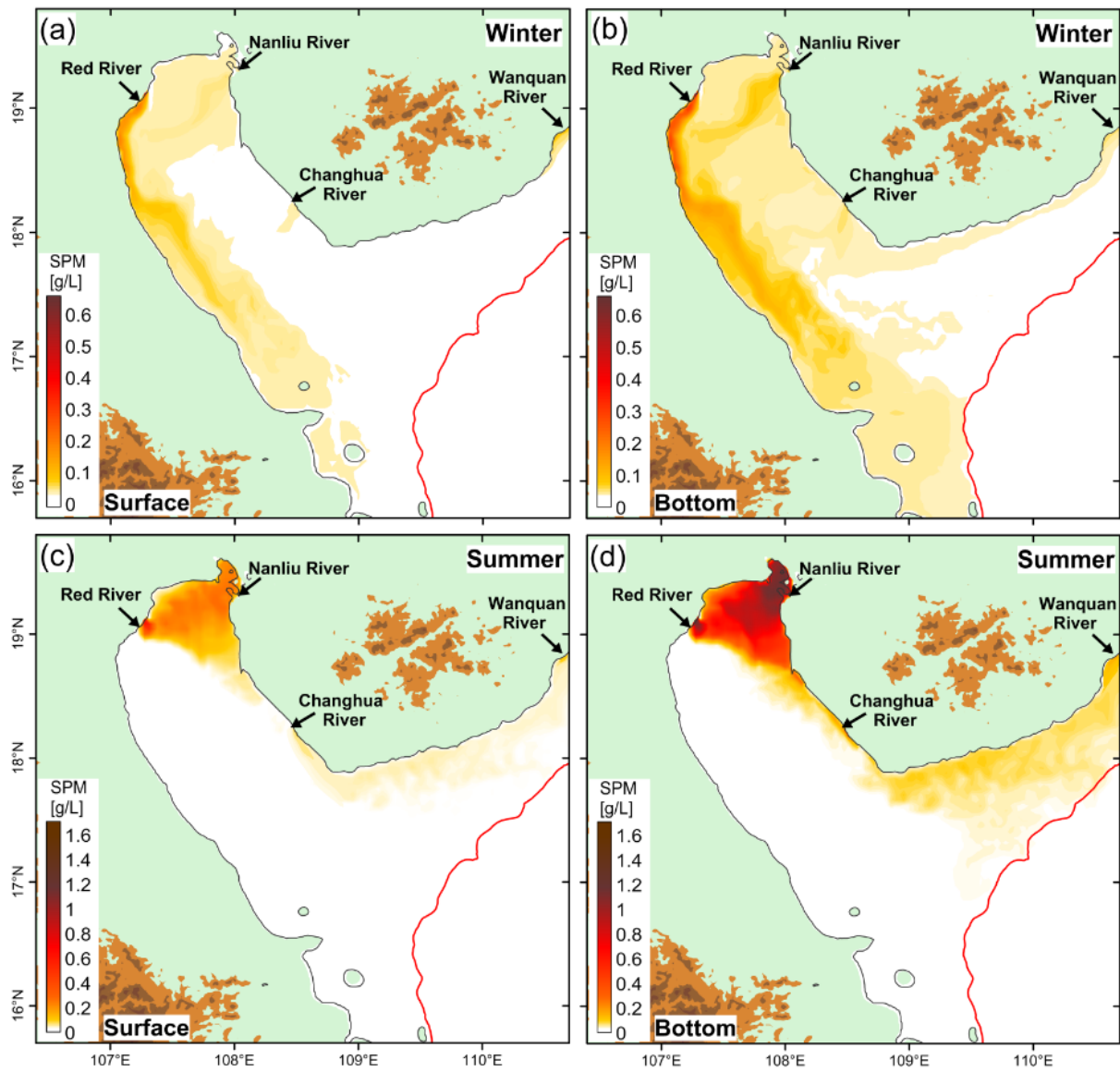
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837 **Figure 7.** Residual currents in the study area in two distinct seasons driven by the monsoon
 838 and tides. The arrows indicate flow vectors, with vertically-averaged current strength plotted
 839 in colour. The ellipses in orange and brown colour indicate anti-cyclonic and cyclonic gyres,
 840 respectively. Vectors are plotted over four grid cells in both x and y directions. The 200 m
 841 water depth contour marking the shelf break is shown by the red solid line.



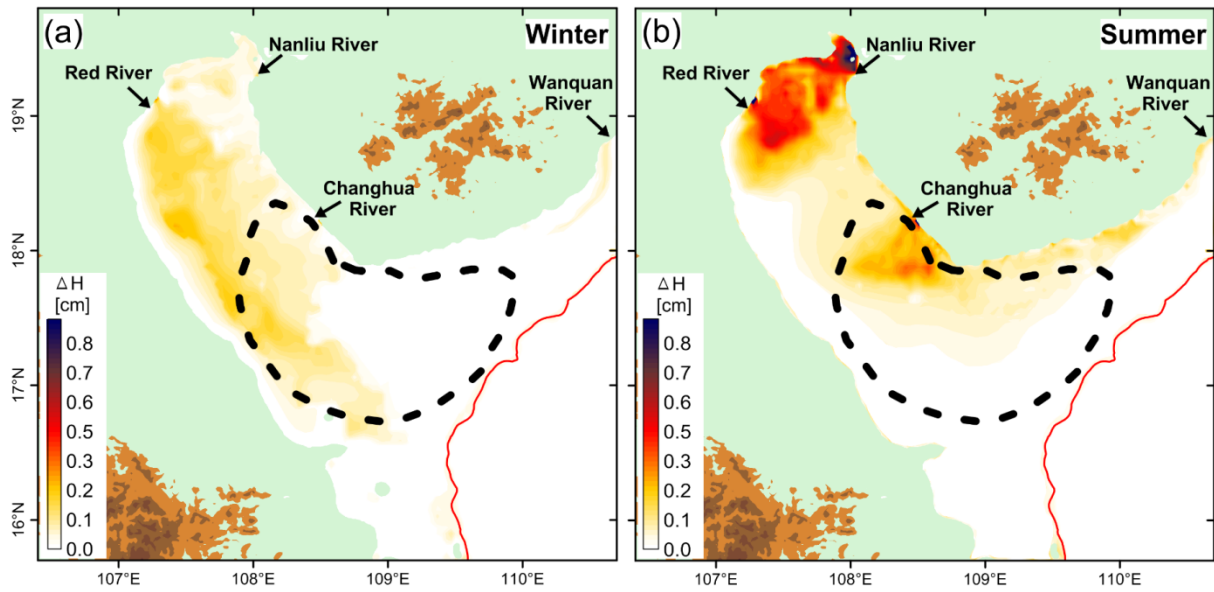
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843 **Figure 8.** Similar to Figure 4 but for currents during typhoon.



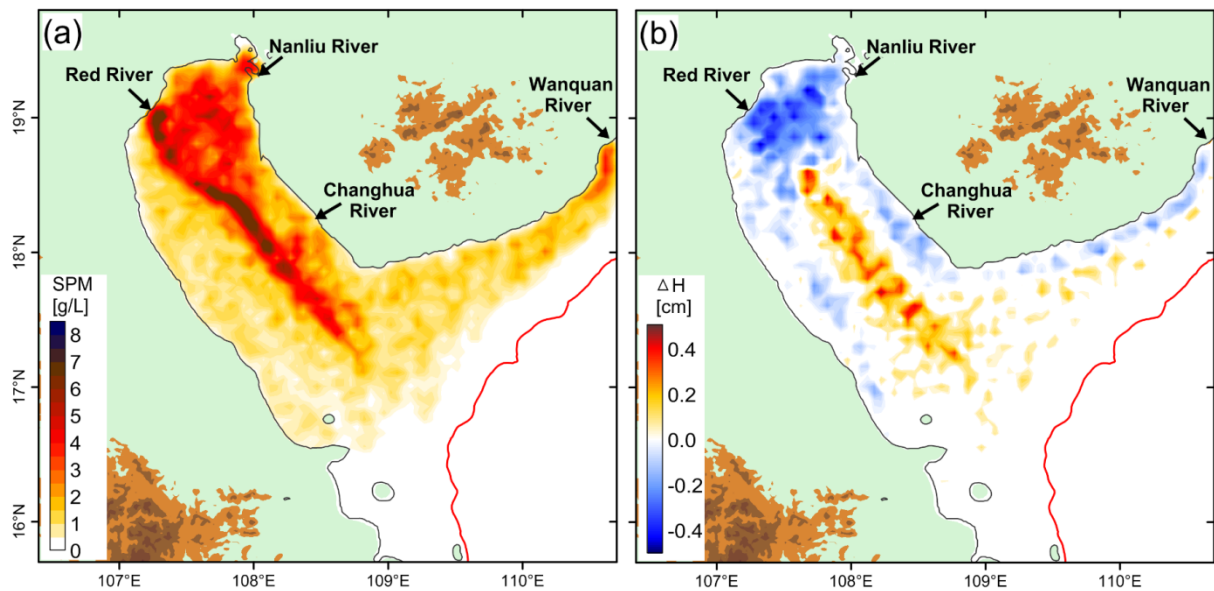
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845 **Figure 9.** Similar to Figure 5 but for the suspended sediment concentration. Note that the
 846 colour bar is different between winter and summer.



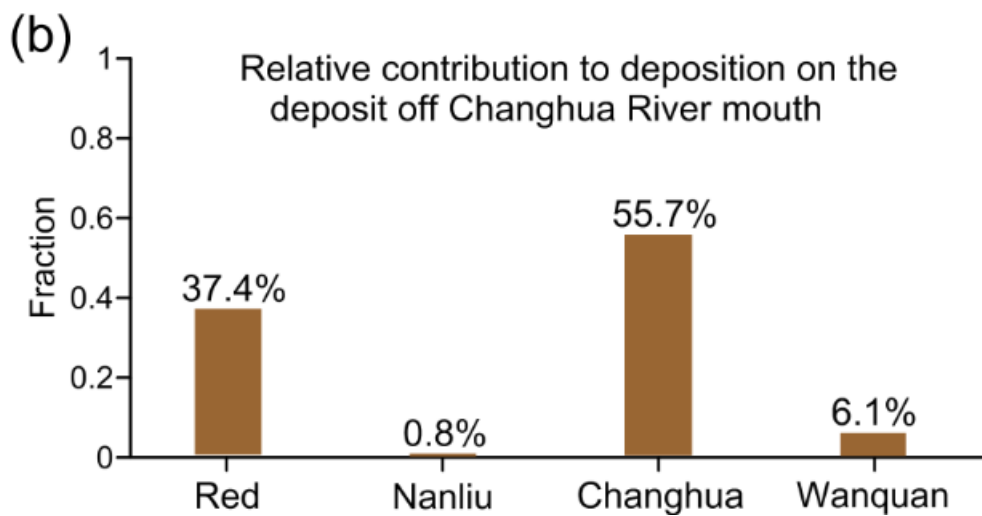
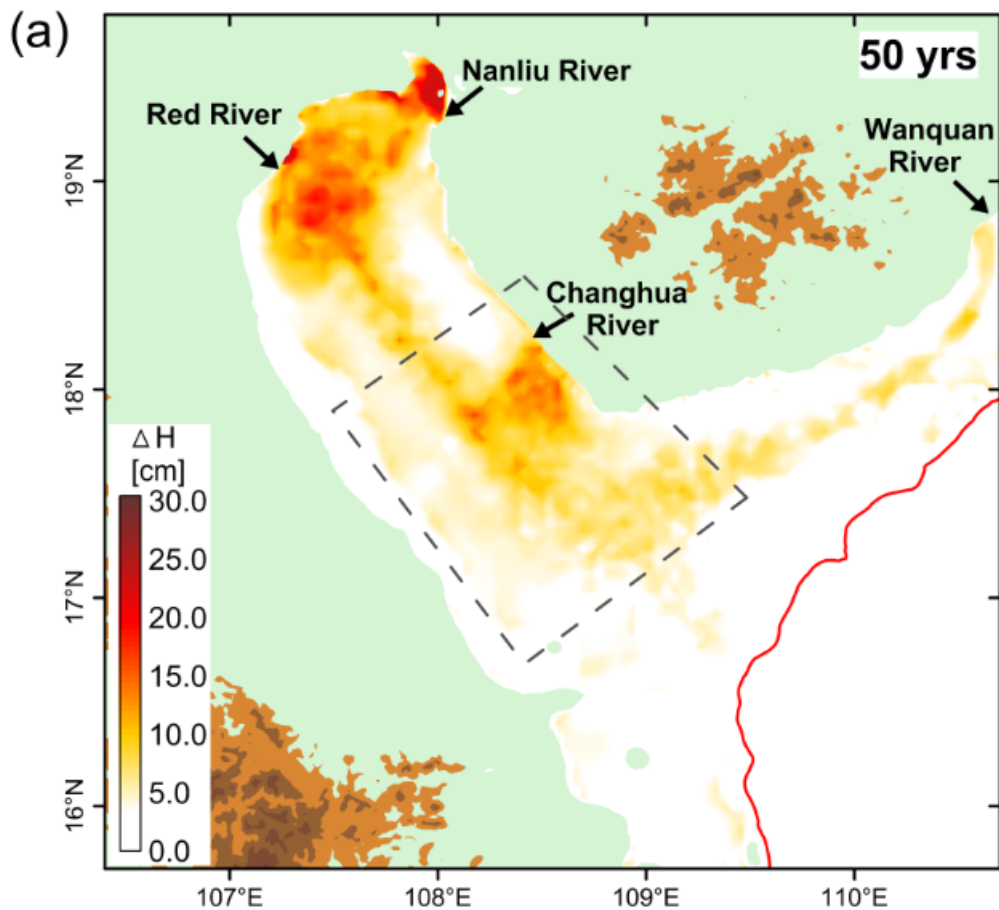
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848 **Figure 10.** Simulated river-borne sediment deposition in the study area in two distinct seasons
 849 driven by the monsoon and tides.



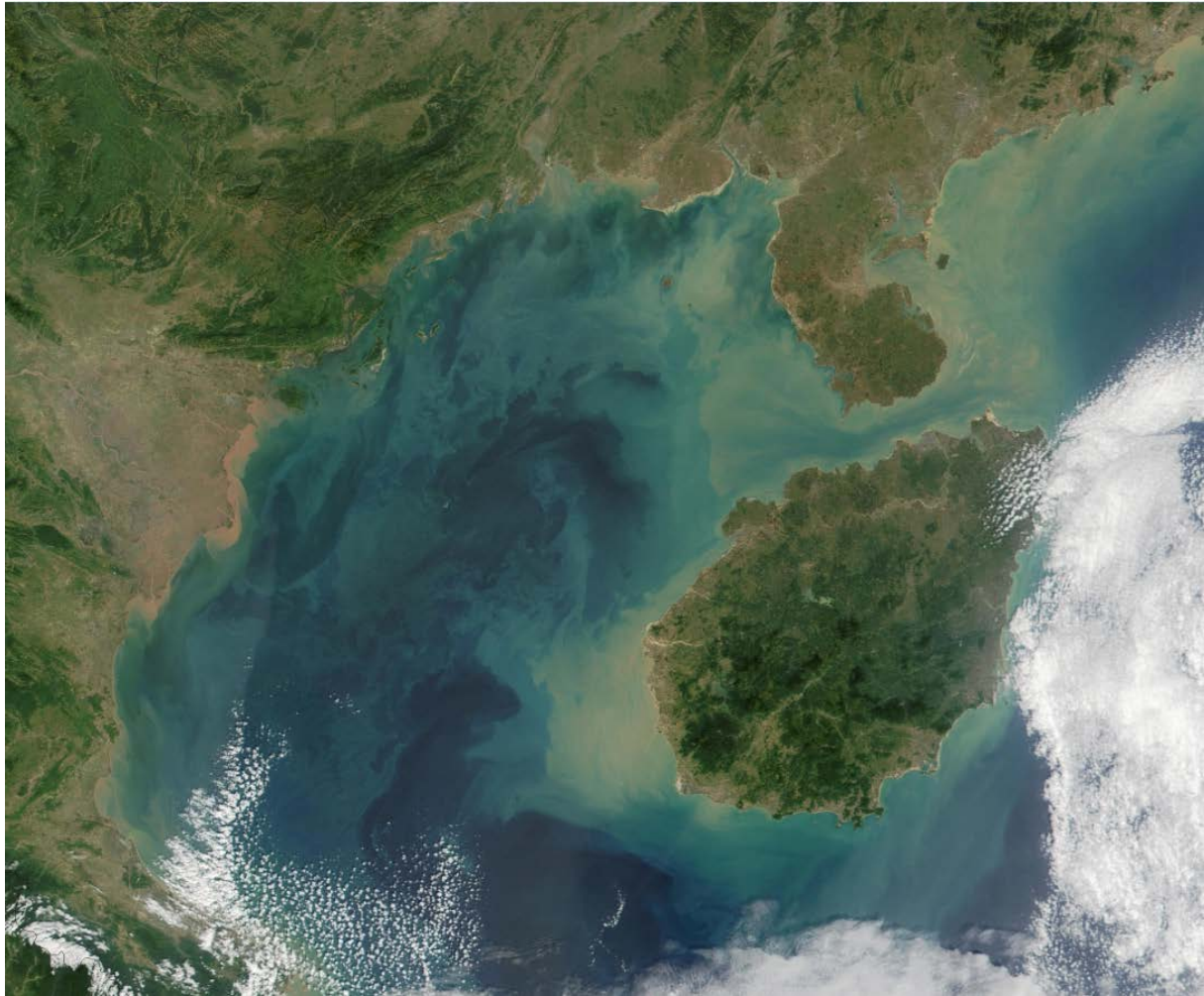
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851 **Figure 11.** (a) Simulated suspended sediment concentration near the bottom during the
 852 typhoon, and (b) bed level change after the typhoon.



853

854 **Figure 12.** (a) Simulated river-borne sediment deposition after 50 yrs; (b) Contribution of
 855 each river to the sediment budget of the deposit off Changhua River mouth. The area of
 856 calculation is indicated by the dashed frame in (a).



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858 **Figure 13.** True-color satellite image captured by MODIS in November 2001 showing
859 remarkable turbid water along the SW Hainan coast. Image source: NASA.

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