

1 **Enhanced hydrothermal activity on an ultraslow-spreading**
2 **supersegment with a seismically detected melting anomaly**

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13 **Highlights:**

- 14 1. Site frequency is 3× higher than predicted by the global trend for ultraslow OSRs.
15 2. Increased hydrothermal activity is related to a melting anomaly.
16 3. Active site distribution implies magmatic heat sources beyond the known melt body.

17

18 **Abstract:** Seafloor hydrothermal venting fields occur on all ocean spreading ridges (OSRs)
19 regardless of spreading rates. However, the distribution of seafloor hydrothermal activity such
20 as frequency and spacing on ultraslow-spreading OSRs are poorly known. Chinese Dayang
21 cruises from 2015 to 2016 conducted detailed water column surveys for seafloor hydrothermal
22 activity using a towed system, with an array of turbidity sensors and a near-bottom camera,
23 along the ultraslow-spreading Southwest Indian Ridge. Here we report the discovery of multiple
24 hydrothermal plumes overlying segments 28, 29, and 30 between the Indomed and Gallieni
25 fracture zones. From these data, and earlier explorations in segments 25-27, we identify nine
26 active venting sites. The spatial density (F_s , sites/100 km) of active sites along the 394 km of
27 ridge axis in our study area is thus 2.8, nearly $3\times$ higher than predicted by the global trend of F_s
28 for ultraslow OSRs in the InterRidge database. Previous studies concluded that an enhanced
29 magma supply to the central Indomed–Gallieni supersegment 11-8 Ma is now limited to
30 segment 27. Our results indicate that although hydrothermal activity may be most concentrated
31 in segment 27, the discoveries of active venting in segments 25-30 implies the presence of
32 additional magma bodies across a broad extent of the Indomed–Gallieni supersegment.

33

34 **Keywords:** Seafloor hydrothermal activity; Tectonic and magmatic activity; Mantle fertility;
35 Ultraslow-spreading ridge; Southwest Indian Ridge

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Nearly four decades of surveying seafloor hydrothermal activity has resulted in the
38 discovery of about 507 confirmed (visually) or inferred (from water column observations)
39 hydrothermal venting fields along ocean spreading ridges (OSRs) ([http://vents-](http://vents-data.interridge.org)
40 [data.interridge.org](http://vents-data.interridge.org); Tao et al., 2012; Beaulieu et al., 2015; German et al., 2016; Baker, 2017).
41 There is a global trend between the spatial frequency of hydrothermal venting fields (F_s ,
42 sites/100 km) and the full spreading rate of OSRs, which is considered to reflect the long-term
43 magmatic budget (Baker et al., 1996; Baker and German, 2004; Baker, 2017). According to this
44 model, about 800 hydrothermal venting fields remain to be found, and nearly 450 of these will
45 be on slow- (20-55 mm/a) and ultraslow- (<20 mm/a) spreading OSRs (Beaulieu et al., 2015).

46 Magmatic activity and tectonically generated permeability are regarded as two vital
47 geological processes controlling seafloor hydrothermal activity along OSRs (e.g., Baker et al.,
48 2004; German et al., 2016; German and Parson, 1998; Son et al., 2014). High-temperature
49 hydrothermal venting driven by an axial (or near-axial) magma chamber, generally associated
50 with axial volcanic ridges, has been found on segments of fast, intermediate, slow, and ultraslow
51 OSRs (Gente et al., 1991; Allerton et al., 1995; Ondréas et al., 1997; Baker, 2009; Haase et al.,
52 2007, 2009; Marcon et al., 2013; Yue et al., 2019). In contrast to magmatically controlled
53 hydrothermal activity on fast- and intermediate-rate OSRs, the location of many vent fields
54 along slow and ultraslow OSRs are controlled by tectonic activity, typically on non-transform
55 offsets and ridge valley walls above an axial volcanic ridge (Demartin et al., 2007; Tao et al.,
56 2012; German et al., 2016). In these areas, long-lived, downward-dipping faults provide
57 pathways for hydrothermal fluid flow (McCaig et al., 2007, 2010; German et al., 2016; Zhao et
58 al., 2013). Although mantle upwelling and crustal cooling provide heat along slow-spreading
59 OSRs (Canales et al., 2007; Escartín et al., 2008), magma sources are necessary for long-lived,
60 high-temperature hydrothermal venting (Lowell, 2010).

61 In the past two decades, nearly half of the systematic survey efforts for hydrothermal
62 activity have been conducted along slow-spreading OSRs, whereas the fewest occurred on
63 ultraslow OSRs (Beaulieu et al., 2015). China Ocean Mineral Resources Research &
64 Development Association conducted China Dayang Cruises (CDC) #34 and #39 in 2016 and
65 2017, in order to investigate seafloor hydrothermal activity on segments 27, 28, 29 and 30 along
66 the Southwest Indian Ridge between the Indomed and Gallieni fracture zones. The cruises were
67 related to a contract between the China Ocean Mineral Resources Research & Development
68 Association and the International Seabed Authority for polymetallic sulphides **exploration** (Fig.
69 1). The study area has two intriguing aspects for seafloor hydrothermal activity: ultraslow
70 spreading and areas of unusually thick crust (up to ~10 km) suggestive of a local melting
71 anomaly. Here we report the discovery of multiple hydrothermal plumes and discuss the
72 implications in terms of variable magma sources to an ultraslow-spreading ridge.

73 2. Geological setting

74 The Southwest Indian Ridge, extending ~7700 km between the Rodriguez and Bouvet triple
75 junctions, is an ultraslow-spreading ridge with a full spreading rate of 12.2–14.5 mm/a (DeMets
76 et al., 2015) (Fig. 1). Our study area on the central Southwest Indian Ridge is a first-order
77 supersegment from 46°E to 52°20'E, between the Indomed and Gallieni fracture zones. The
78 position of the mid-ocean ridge axis corresponds to the center of present magmatic or tectonic
79 activity (Mendel et al., 1997; Macdonald, 1998; Cannat et al., 1999). Second-order segments on
80 the Indomed–Gallieni supersegment are numbered 25-32 from east to west (Cannat et al., 1999)
81 (Fig.2).

82 An apparent increase in magma supply occurred suddenly between 11 and 8 Ma along the
83 central portion of the supersegment (Sauter et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2017; Yu and Dick, 2020).
84 The shallowest depth of the supersegment axis is ~1650 m on segment 27, one of the two
85 shallowest ridge segments on the Southwest Indian Ridge (Zhang et al., 2013). Seismic studies
86 suggest the melting anomaly is currently centered in segment 27, with a smaller anomaly
87 possibly present in segment 28. The 9.5-km-thick crust revealed by seismic data along- and off-
88 axis at segment 27 suggests that intense magmatism lasted at least 3 Ma (Zhang et al., 2013; Li
89 et al., 2015). An asymmetric seafloor fabric and dome-like topography have been observed on
90 segment 28 (Zhao et al., 2013), where the crustal thickness is ~5 km (Niu et al., 2015; Li et al.,
91 2015). Three hydrothermal venting fields have been previously reported in our study area,
92 including the inactive field Duanqiao in segment 27, and the active fields Longqi in segment 28
93 and Yuhuang in segment 29 (Han et al., 2010; Tao et al., 2012) (Figs. 1, 2). Additionally, two
94 inferred hydrothermal venting fields were reported in segment 25 and 26 (Tao et al., 2009).

95 3. Data and methods

96 The topographic map in this study was drawn using the bathymetry data with a grid of
97 50-m intervals, acquired during cruises of the R/V Dayang Yihao and the R/V Xiangyanghong
98 10 from 2008 to 2016, using a Simrad EM120 multibeam system that operated with a source
99 frequency of 12 kHz (Fig. 2).

100 Based on bathymetric analyses of the study area, we selected survey areas covering ~6000
101 km² for exploration during the first and second legs of China Dayang cruise (CDC) 34 in 2015
102 and the first leg of China Dayang cruise 39 in 2016. Nearly half of the areas were surveyed
103 using a deep-tow hydrothermal detection system (DHDS) with a line spacing of 2–4 km on
104 segments 27-30. Yue et al. (2019) reported the results of DHDS survey on segment 27, and
105 results from segments 28-30 are presented here.

106 The DHDS includes a deep-tow body with video, still cameras, and an Oxidation-
107 Reduction Potential (ORP) sensor on some tows, as well as 3 to 4 Miniature Autonomous
108 Plume Recorders along the cable within 300 m of the deep-tow body. During a DHDS survey,
109 we aimed to keep the deep-tow body 3–5 m above the seafloor in order to collect seabed
110 images, although micro-topographical variability occasionally caused contact with the seafloor
111 and resuspension of sediment.

112 The voltage output of Miniature Autonomous Plume Recorders is equivalent to
113 nephelometric turbidity units (NTU). We cleaned the data by removing points laying outside
114 +/- 3 standard deviations in 50-point data blocks. We then smoothed the remaining data using
115 a 5-point (25 s) moving average. Lastly, we calculated a Δ NTU value by subtracting a
116 background value for each Miniature Autonomous Plume Recorder based on the NTU value of
117 water above plume depth during each tow.

118 ORP sensors detect dissolved chemical species (e.g., Fe⁺², HS⁻, H₂ (Walker et al., 2007;
119 Resing et al., 2009)) from all vent types, including low-temperature vents with little or no
120 Δ NTU signature. ORP sensors respond immediately, with decreasing potential values (mV),
121 and the signal dissipates within ~ 1 km from the source. This results in a more precise location
122 of a source than is possible with optical sensors (Baker et al., 2016, 2017).

123

124 **4. Results**

125 **4.1 Segment 28**

126 Segment 28 is 42 km long, with an axial volcanic ridge having a width of 5 km and an across-
127 axis relief of 500 m (Fig. 3). The shallowest axial water depth, 2740 m, is located at 49°46'E. The
128 water depth deepens eastward to 3390 m and westward to 3840 m. Segment 28 presents a highly
129 asymmetric topography. The southern ridge flank is relatively shallow (<2000 m) and locally bears
130 corrugations typical of oceanic core complex. The northern ridge flank has a deeper topography
131 (>2000 m). DHDS survey lines were carried out in a 900 km² area, covering nearly all the southern
132 and part of the northern ridge flanks (Fig. 3). Longqi, regarded as the first confirmed active
133 hydrothermal field on an ultraslow spreading ridge (Tao et al., 2012), is located on the southeast
134 wall of the segment 28 axial valley (Zhao et al., 2013; Tao et al. 2014).

135 Increased Δ NTU values define a broad and thick hydrothermal plume between ~2500 and
136 2700 m on the westward dipping axial valley wall of segment 28, ~12 km southwest of Longqi
137 (Fig. 4a). The plume extends about 4 km along the survey line and is >200 m thick. A Δ NTU
138 maximum of 0.06 was detected at 2600 m (Fig. 4b). An ORP sensor was mounted on the tow body
139 during this tow, and recorded two prominent anomalies at 37°52.4' and 37°52.8'S, identified by
140 sharp drops in ORP (mV) followed by a characteristic slow recovery (tow direction was
141 southward). We thus infer that one or more active discharge sites occur in a hydrothermal field we
142 refer to as Longqi-2. The most likely location is near 49°32'E/37°52.8'S at a depth of ~2700 m,
143 where the largest ORP anomaly and a near-bottom Δ NTU anomaly occur. Maximum Δ NTU values
144 occur downstream from the maximum ORP anomaly because of the time lag in precipitation of
145 particulate Fe from hydrothermal dissolved Fe (e.g., Field and Sherrell, 2000). The presence of
146 ORP anomalies confirms that the observed optical plume is not sourced at Longqi, even though its
147 depth is similar to that presumed for Longqi-2.

148 **4.2 Segment 29**

149 Segment 29 is 44 km long, featuring a well-defined axial volcanic ridge 4.2 km wide and
150 having an across-axis relief of 300 m (Fig. 5). The shallowest water depth (2760 m) occurs at
151 49°20'E, deepening eastward to 3840 m and westward to 4040 m. DHDS survey lines were
152 conducted on the southern and northern walls of the axial valley, within an area of ~900 km². The
153 Yuhuang field is located on top of a linear swell south of the axial volcanic ridge at a depth of 1300
154 to 1400 m (Han et al., 2010). Bulk geochemistry, plus sulfur and zinc isotopic compositions of
155 sulfide samples, were analysed by Liao et al. (2018, 2019). A short survey line over the Yuhuang
156 field (Fig. 6a, b) found plume horizons at multiple depths between 1400 and 1800 m, demonstrating
157 that the field was active.

158 A broad and deeper hydrothermal plume extending ~10 km was detected by a DHDS survey
159 downslope from Yuhuang hydrothermal field (Fig. 7a, b). The ~500-m-thick plume is centered near
160 2500 m, with a maximum Δ NTU of ~0.03. Hydrothermal venting from the Yuhuang field is too
161 shallow to produce a plume at this depth. We infer that a new hydrothermal vent field, Yuhuang-2,
162 is near the location of the highest plume Δ NTU, 49°13'E/37°56'S, ~3.5 km west from the Yuhuang
163 hydrothermal field.

164 **4.3 Segment 30**

165 Segment 30 is 90 km long and the shallowest water depth is 2760 m, deepening eastward to
166 4040 m and westward to 3850 m (Fig. 8). DHDS survey lines were in a ~1400 km² area. A
167 hydrothermal plume extending ~4-5 km was located at the foot of the southern axial valley wall
168 (Fig. 9a). The maximum Δ NTU anomaly of ~0.04 was centered at ~3000 m (Fig. 9b). Because a
169 Δ NTU anomaly was only detected by the uppermost sensor, the true thickness of the plume and the
170 location of its source are uncertain. We provisionally locate the S30 hydrothermal field at
171 48°55'E/38°3'S, below the observed plume.

172 **5. Discussion**

173 **5.1 Hydrothermal vent spatial frequency (F_s) on ultraslow spreading segments**

174 Our results identified five confirmed or inferred active hydrothermal vent fields on segments
175 28, 29, and 30. Yue et al. (2019) reported one confirmed, three inferred, and five suspected (because
176 of inconclusive plume data) hydrothermal fields on segment 27; conservatively, we consider here
177 only the four confirmed and inferred fields. In addition, Tao et al. (2009) reported two fields on
178 segments 25 and 26. The total length of actively spreading ridge along segments 25-30 is 394 km
179 (Beaulieu et al., 2015), yielding a F_s value of 2.8. This value is roughly $2\times$ that in the InterRidge
180 database for the 49° - 52° E section of the Southwest Indian Ridge (Beaulieu et al., 2015). Perhaps
181 more significantly, our F_s is $\sim 3\times$ that for other studied ultraslow ridges of similar spreading rate,
182 and outside the 95% confidence level predicted for ultraslow ridges based on a global trend of F_s
183 versus the spreading rate for 29 OSRs in the InterRidge database (Fig. 10) (Beaulieu et al., 2015;
184 Baker, 2017). (Note that this trend is based on ridge sections using exploration techniques similar
185 to those in this paper, and does not include the few studies where recent detailed optical and
186 chemical plume surveys have found significantly higher F_s values (see below)).

187 Importantly, two primary reasons demand that our calculated F_s value must be a minimum
188 estimate of the true value. First, detailed surveys along the entire axial lengths of segments 25-30
189 have not yet been conducted. Existing DHDS lines were run within ~ 6000 km² of the axial valley
190 and inner flank walls on segments 27-30, only about half of the total area. The axial volcanic ridges
191 of segments 28 and 29 remain unsurveyed, and coverage in segments 25 and 26 is especially sparse.
192 Second, optimal survey techniques were not available. Turbidity sensors on the tow lines covered
193 a water interval of ~ 300 m, only minimally adequate at depths $> \sim 3000$ m, and lacked ORP
194 capability (an ORP sensor was on the deep tow body on some tows). Continuous spatial surveys
195 using both Δ NTU and ORP sensors (as used by Yue et al. (2019) on segment 27) find that the
196 number of active vent sites on fast and intermediate-rate OSRs may be at least a factor of 3–6 higher
197 than now presumed by the global trend (Fig. 10) (Baker et al. 2016), and there is no reason to expect
198 a different outcome on slow-rate OSRs. Therefore, the true F_s value in our study area is likely to be
199 substantially higher than our minimum value.

200 **5.2 Magmatic and tectonic control of hydrothermal activity distribution**

201 Excess magmatism in the Indomed–Gallieni supersegment has been recognized for decades
202 (see the discussion in Yu and Dick (2020)) and must contribute to the higher than expected F_s . The
203 source of this magma has been variously attributed to the 1000-km-distant Crozet hotspot (Sauter
204 et al., 2009; Breton et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2017) or to more local magmatic conditions (Meyzen
205 et al., 2005; Dalton et al., 2014). A new petrographic analysis of the Indomed–Gallieni
206 supersegment (Yu and Dick, 2020) finds it an example of regional mantle fertility driven by plate
207 reorganization, not hotspot activity. Whatever the origin of the melting anomaly, it clearly
208 propagated eastward from the Indomed fracture zone from 11 to 8 Ma, dying out at ~ 1 Ma and
209 apparently leaving segment 27 as a localized remnant (Sauter et al., 2009; Yu and Dick, 2020).
210 This remnant is presently expressed by an axial magma chamber in the lower crust identified by a
211 large low-velocity anomaly ~ 4 – 9 km below the seafloor (Zhang et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015). Li et
212 al. (2015) suggest that segment 28 also contains a magmatic center, although the seismic data is
213 insufficient to demonstrate a melt lens as detected in segment 27.

214 Although segment 27 is presently the most magma-rich location known on the supersegment,
215 the presence of multiple active vent fields in segments to the west is strong evidence that some
216 magmatic heat sources remain undiscovered along the inferred path of the melting anomaly (Sauter
217 et al., 2009; Yu and Dick, 2020). This conclusion is not surprising given the known association of
218 high-temperature venting with the presence of a magma chamber. A compilation of data from six
219 intermediate- to fast-spreading ridge sections (totalling 2100 km length), all of which had been
220 seismically surveyed for the presence of an axial magma chamber, found that high-temperature
221 vent fields were almost universally associated with the presence or inference of magma along those
222 sections (Baker, 2009). This association was given a theoretical basis by Lowell (2010), who used
223 heat flux modelling to show that heat transfer from an actively replenishing subaxial magma
224 chamber is required to maintain high-temperature vent systems on decadal time scales.

225 Although high-temperature venting in our study area has been visually confirmed only at
226 Longqi, the plume characteristics at the other inferred sites suggest they are also high-temperature
227 and thus powered by magmatic heat. Such sites commonly show plume $\Delta NTU \gg 0.1$, plume rise
228 $\gg 100$ m, and a heat flux $\gg 1$ MW (e.g., Germanovich et al., 2015). All the sites discovered here

229 satisfy the first two characteristics, and we can estimate heat fluxes from their plume rise. As
230 described by Germanovich et al. (2015), heat flux $H = (c_p \rho / \alpha g) (z/3.8)^4 N^3$, where c_p is heat capacity
231 for neutrally buoyant plume water at ~300 bar (4200 J/(kg°C)), ρ is the local plume fluid density
232 (1028 kg/m³), α is the thermal expansion coefficient ($\sim 1.3 \times 10^{-4}/^\circ\text{C}$), g is gravitational acceleration
233 (9.8 m/s²), z is plume rise (m), and N is the local Brunt-Väisälä frequency ($[(-g/\Delta\rho)(\rho\Delta z)]^{1/2}$, 5.95
234 $\times 10^{-4}$ Hz). To estimate z we use the inferred depth at site locations shown in Figs. 3, 5, and 8 and
235 measure z from the seafloor to the plume ΔNTU maximum (Figs. 4, 7, and 9). For Longqi-2 and
236 Yuhuang-2, $z = 200$ m and $H = 4.6$ MW; and for S30, $z = 350$ m and $H = 43$ MW. These are rough
237 estimates of H , especially given the uncertainty of the true vent depths, but they are unlikely to
238 overestimate H by an order of magnitude.

239 Vent fields in segments 27-30 are found from the near-axis region to the upper flank of the
240 studied axial valleys (Fig. 11). Hydrothermal activity is most concentrated on the axial volcanic
241 ridge of segment 27, consistent with the location of a broad and thick melt body (Yue et al., 2019).
242 These hydrothermal sites are similar to magmatic-hosted hydrothermal sites on the slow-spreading
243 Mid-Atlantic Ridge (Gente et al., 1991; Allerton et al., 1995; Ondréas et al., 1997; Haase et al.,
244 2007, 2009; Marcon et al., 2013). On segments 28, 29, and 30, with deeper axial valleys,
245 asymmetric ridge flanks, and short axial volcanic ridges, known fields occur on the axial valley
246 walls. This distribution is consistent with the importance of normal and detachment faults in
247 channelling hydrothermal fluids to off-axis vent fields (McCaig et al., 2007). These faults may have
248 been activated by the migration of the melting anomaly through our study area, opening additional
249 fluid pathways to the magmatic heat sources. Owing to the paucity of DHDS lines on the ridge axis
250 of the survey segments, however, we cannot preclude the existence of hydrothermal activity on the
251 axial volcanic ridges of those segments.

252 **6. Conclusions**

253 We used detailed water column surveys to detect evidence of seafloor hydrothermal venting
254 on multiple segments of the ultraslow-spreading Southwest Indian Ridge between the Indomed and
255 Gallieni fracture zones. Eleven active fields (three confirmed and eight inferred) occur on the

256 explored segments 25-30, which extend ~394 km along the ridge axis. The spatial density of vent
257 fields (F_s) is thus 2.8 sites/100 km, about 3× higher than expected for an ultraslow ridge based on
258 the InterRidge global dataset of spreading ridges, and 2× greater than found for the same area in
259 that database. We emphasize that our F_s is a minimum value given the present incomplete state of
260 exploration in this area. The distribution of hydrothermal activity is consistent with the confirmed
261 presence of magma bodies beneath segment 27 and inferred for segment 28. The presence of active
262 venting on segments 25-30 implies the presence of additional magma bodies across a broad extent
263 of the Indomed–Gallieni supersegment.

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418 **Figure captions**

419 Figure 1. Location and bathymetry of the Southwest Indian Ridge. Red circles indicate confirmed
420 hydrothermal venting fields and yellow circles represent inferred hydrothermal venting fields from
421 the InterRidge database (<http://vents-data.interridge.org>). Black circles mark the location of mantle
422 hotspots. The shaded area marks the study area between the Indomed and Gallieni fracture zones.
423 The inset figure shows the global distribution of hydrothermal venting fields from GeoMapApp.
424 (Created by Generic Mapping Tools (GMT version 5), from <http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu/>. The
425 topography data is from <https://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/mgg/global/>.)

426

427 Figure 2. Bathymetry, segmentation, and known or inferred vent fields of the study area. (Created
428 by Generic Mapping Tools (GMT version 5), from <http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu/>. The topography is
429 from multibeam sonar data by Chinese Dayang cruises. The resolution of the bathymetry grid is
430 50m)

431

432 Figure 3. (a) Areal bathymetry and hydrothermal vent field distribution for segment 28. The red
433 dotted line is the location of line showing on Figure 4. (b) Cross-sections through the vent field
434 locations. (Created by Generic Mapping Tools (GMT version 5), from <http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu/>.
435 The topography is from multibeam sonar data by Chinese Dayang cruises, with bathymetry grid
436 50m.)

437

438 Figure 4. Horizontal and vertical distribution of Δ NTU along the DHDS line through Longqi-2,
439 including ORP data from the tow body. Note prominent ORP anomalies near 37°52.4' and
440 37°52.8'S. (a) Created by Ocean Data View (ODV) (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View, odv.awi.de,
441 2018).

442

443 Figure 5. (a) Areal bathymetry and hydrothermal vent field distribution for segment 29. The red
444 dotted line is the location of line showing on Figure 6. (b) Cross-sections through the vent field
445 locations. (Created by Generic Mapping Tools (GMT version 5), from <http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu/>.
446 The topography is from multibeam sonar data by Chinese Dayang cruises, with bathymetry grid
447 50m.)

448

449 Figure 6. Horizontal and vertical distribution of Δ NTU along the DHDS line through Yuhuang
450 hydrothermal field. (a) Created by Ocean Data View (ODV) (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View,
451 odv.awi.de, 2018).

452

453 Figure 7. Horizontal and vertical distribution of Δ NTU along the DHDS line through Yuhuang
454 hydrothermal field -2. (a) Created by Ocean Data View (ODV) (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View,
455 odv.awi.de, 2018).

456

457

458 Figure 8. (a) Areal bathymetry and hydrothermal vent field distribution for segment 30. The red
459 dotted line is the location of line showing on Figure 8. (b) Cross-sections through the vent field
460 locations. (Created by Generic Mapping Tools (GMT version 5), from <http://gmt.soest.hawaii.edu/>.
461 The topography is from multibeam sonar data by Chinese Dayang cruises, with bathymetry grid
462 50m.)

463

464 Figure 9. Horizontal and vertical distribution of Δ NTU along the DHDS line through S30
465 hydrothermal field..

466 (a) Created by Ocean Data View (ODV) (Schlitzer, R., Ocean Data View, odv.awi.de, 2018).

467

468 Figure 10. Global trend of vent field spatial density (F_s) vs. spreading rate along OSRs. Red
469 line is linear regression trend ($y=0.027x + 0.72$) using only the blue circles (ridge sections using
470 data from the InterRidge Database), grey lines are $\pm 95\%$ confidence band. Red star denotes
471 results from this paper. Yellow squares refer to segments with detailed surveys using NTU and
472 Oxidation-Reduction Potential sensors: eastern Galápagos Spreading Center (eGSC), central
473 Galápagos Spreading Center (cGSC), Eastern Lau Spreading Center (ELSC), and Northern
474 East Pacific Rise (NEPR) (Baker, 2017), and segment 27 (S27) (Yue et al., 2019). The figure
475 is modified from Beaulieu et al. (2015) and Baker (2017).

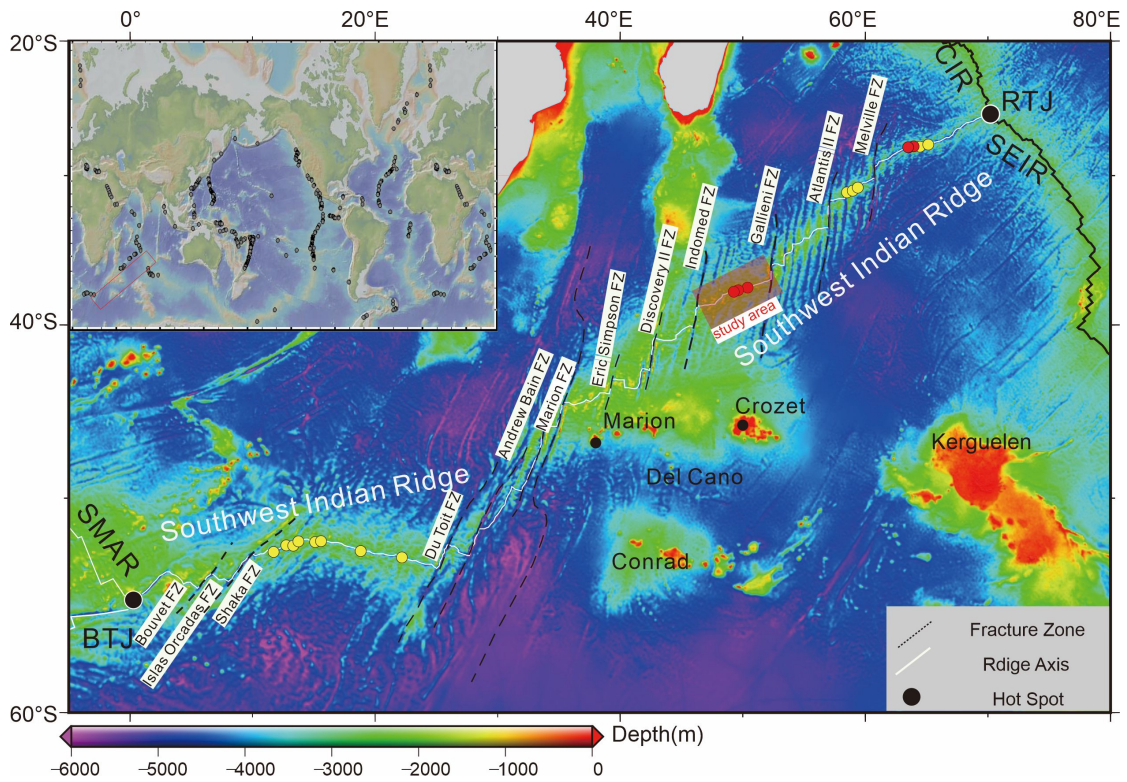
476

477 Figure 11. Schematic distribution of known or inferred active vent fields on (a) a strongly magmatic
478 segment and (b) a weakly magmatic segment in our study area.

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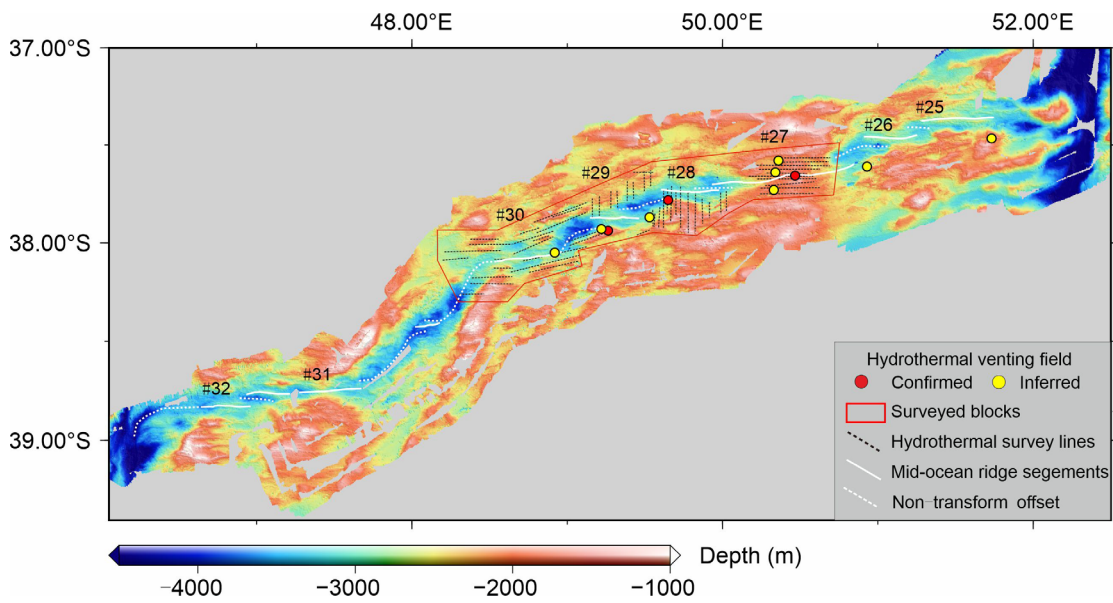
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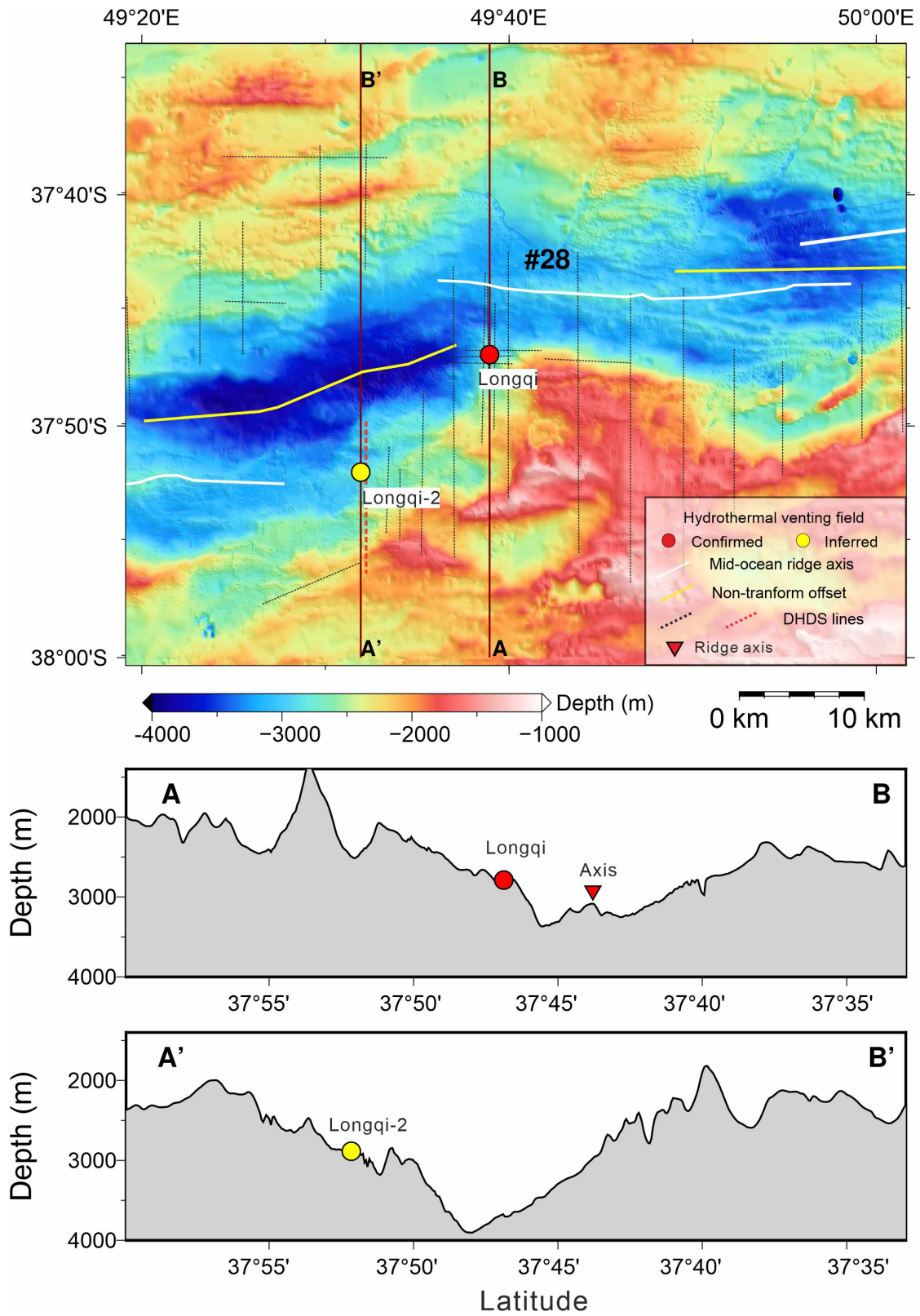
Figure 1



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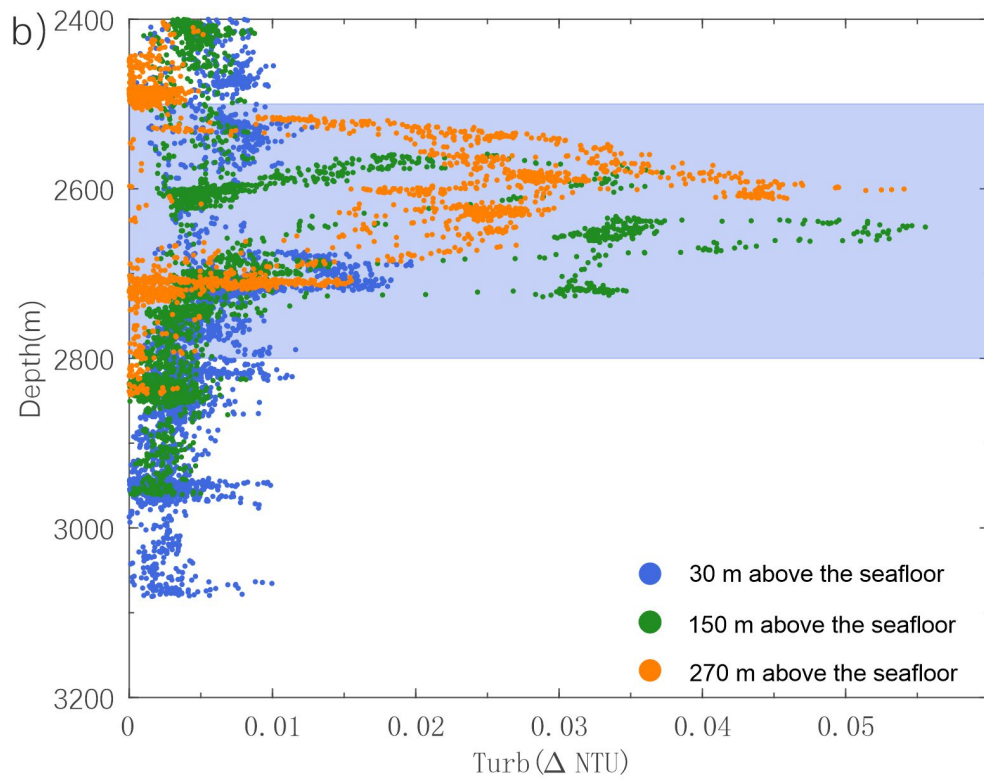
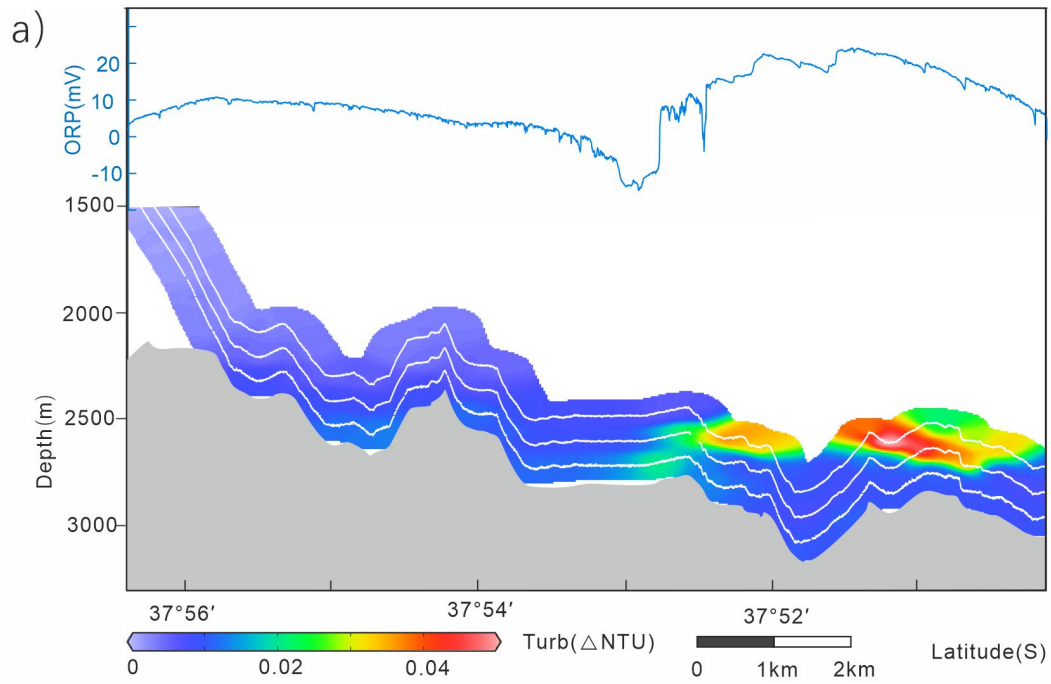
Figure 2



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Figure 3



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Figure 4

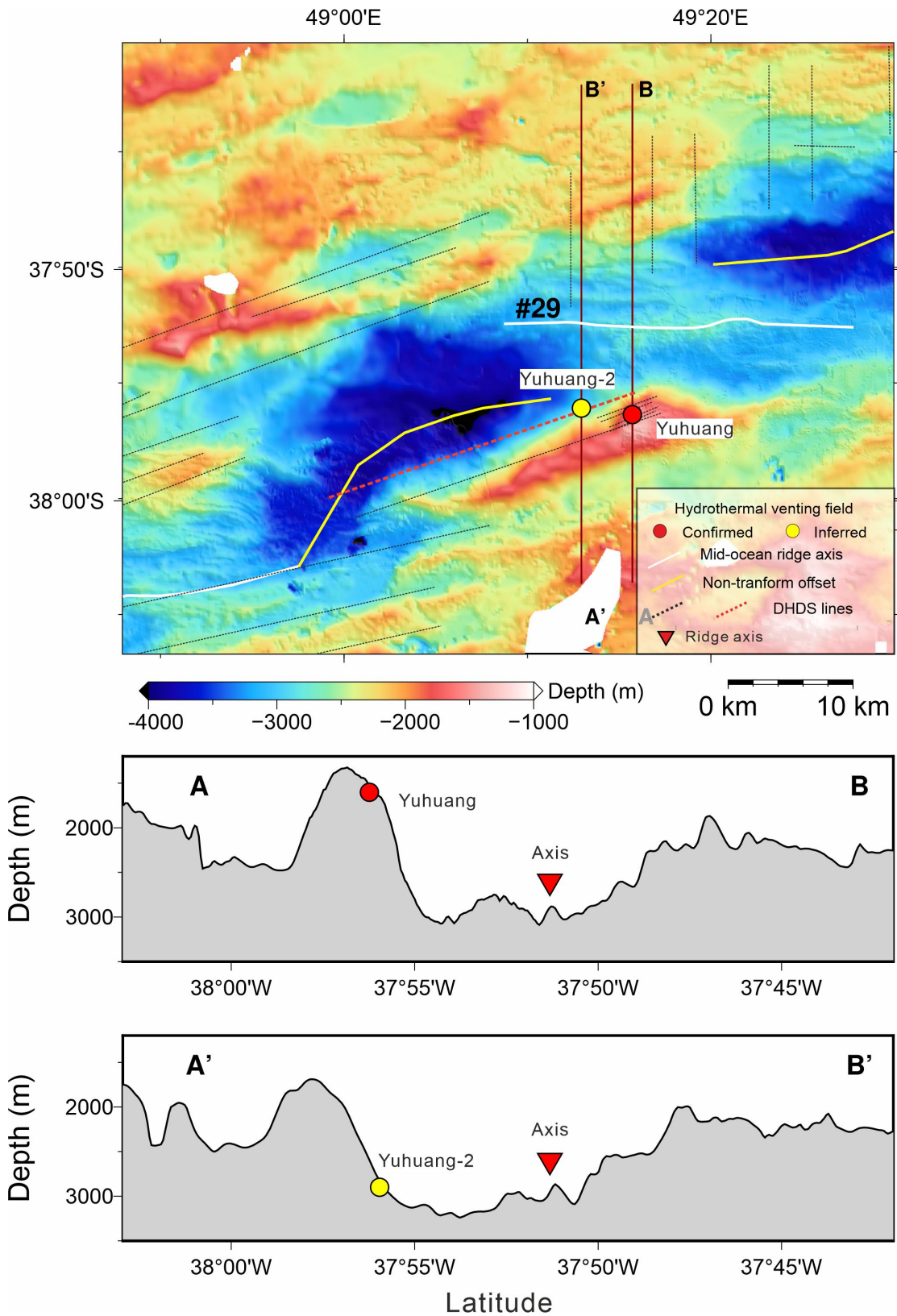
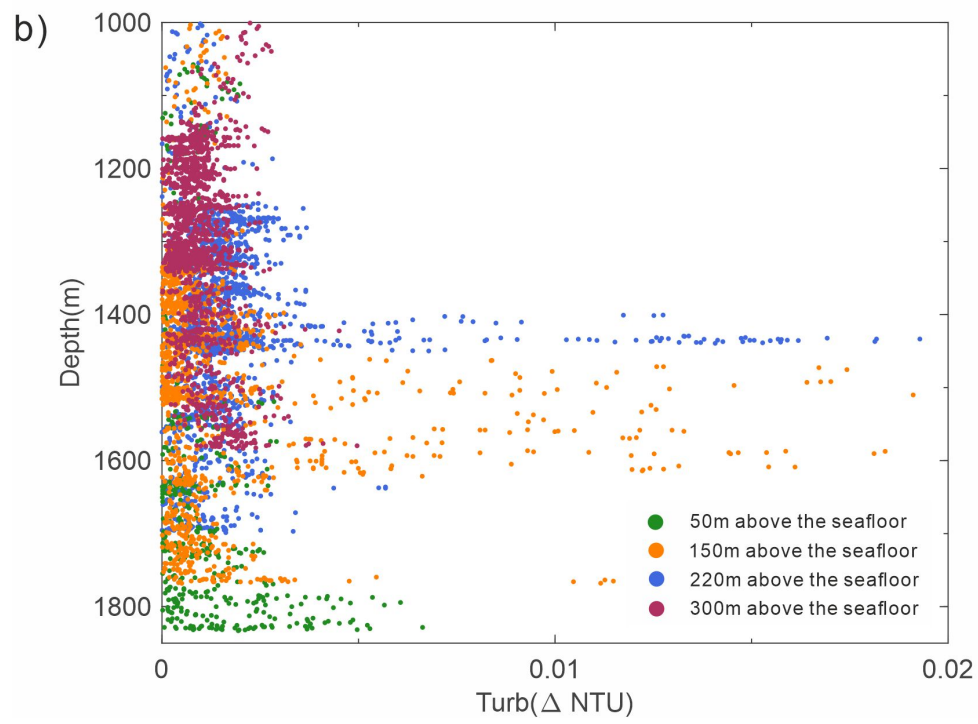
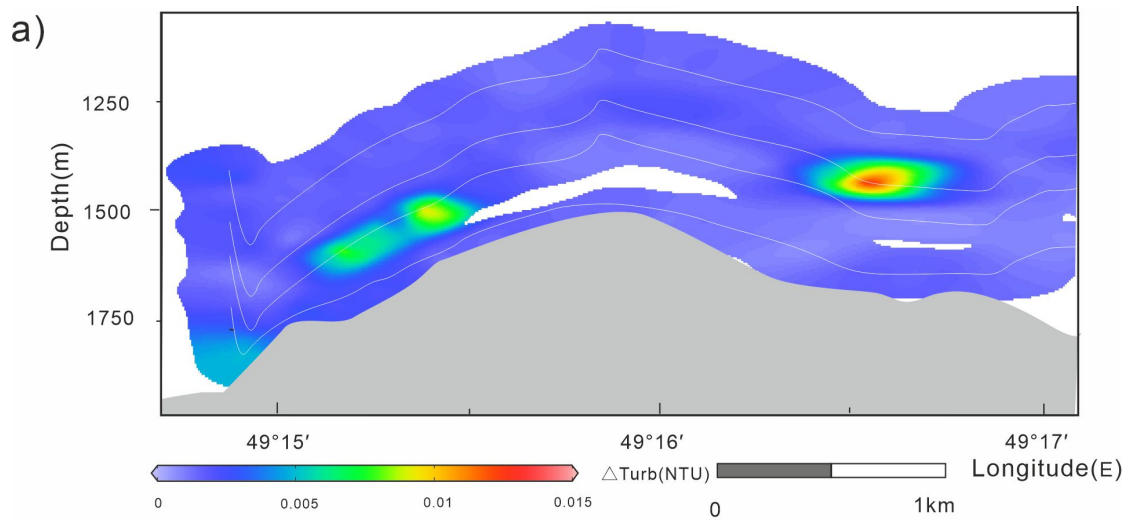


Figure 5

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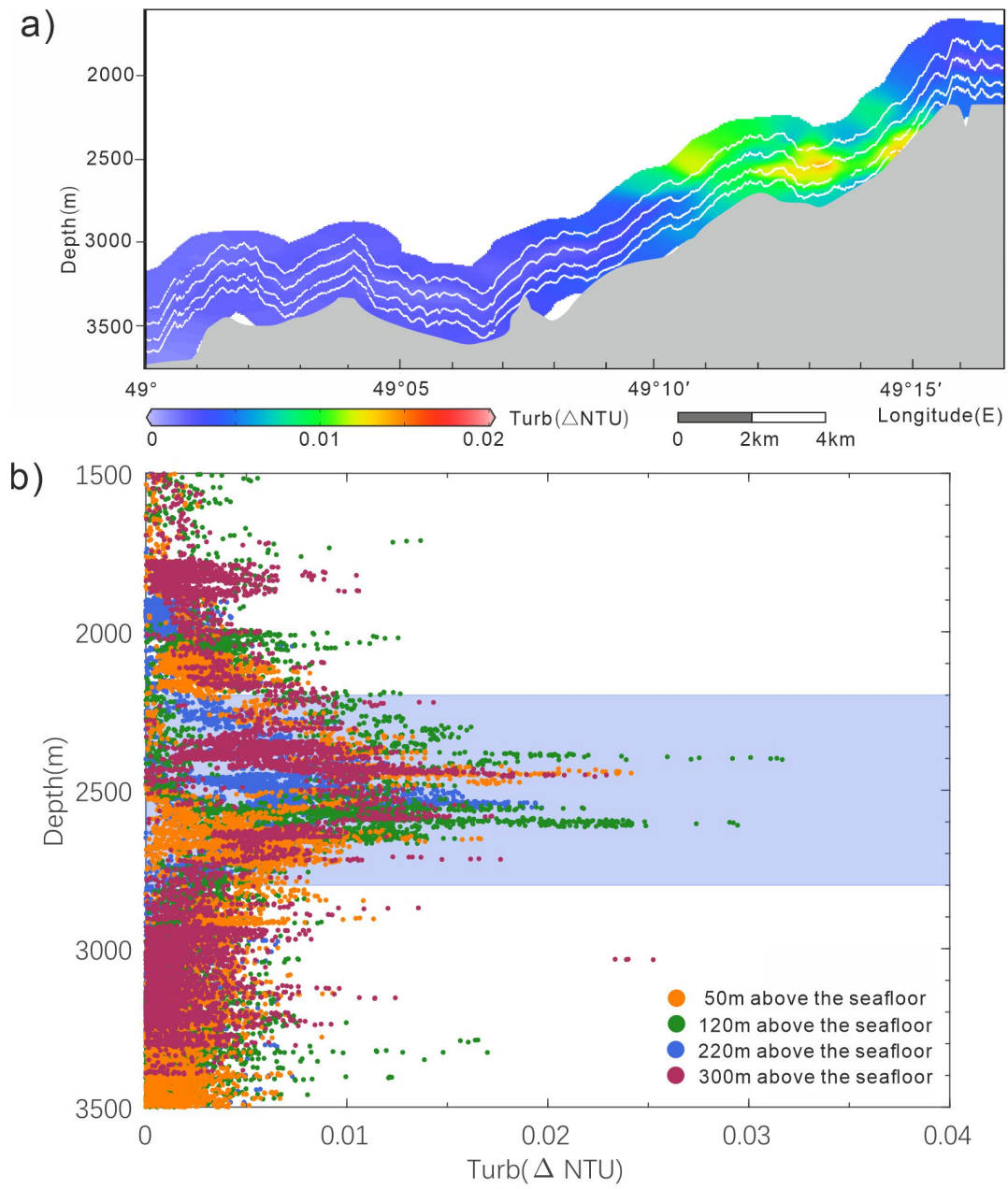
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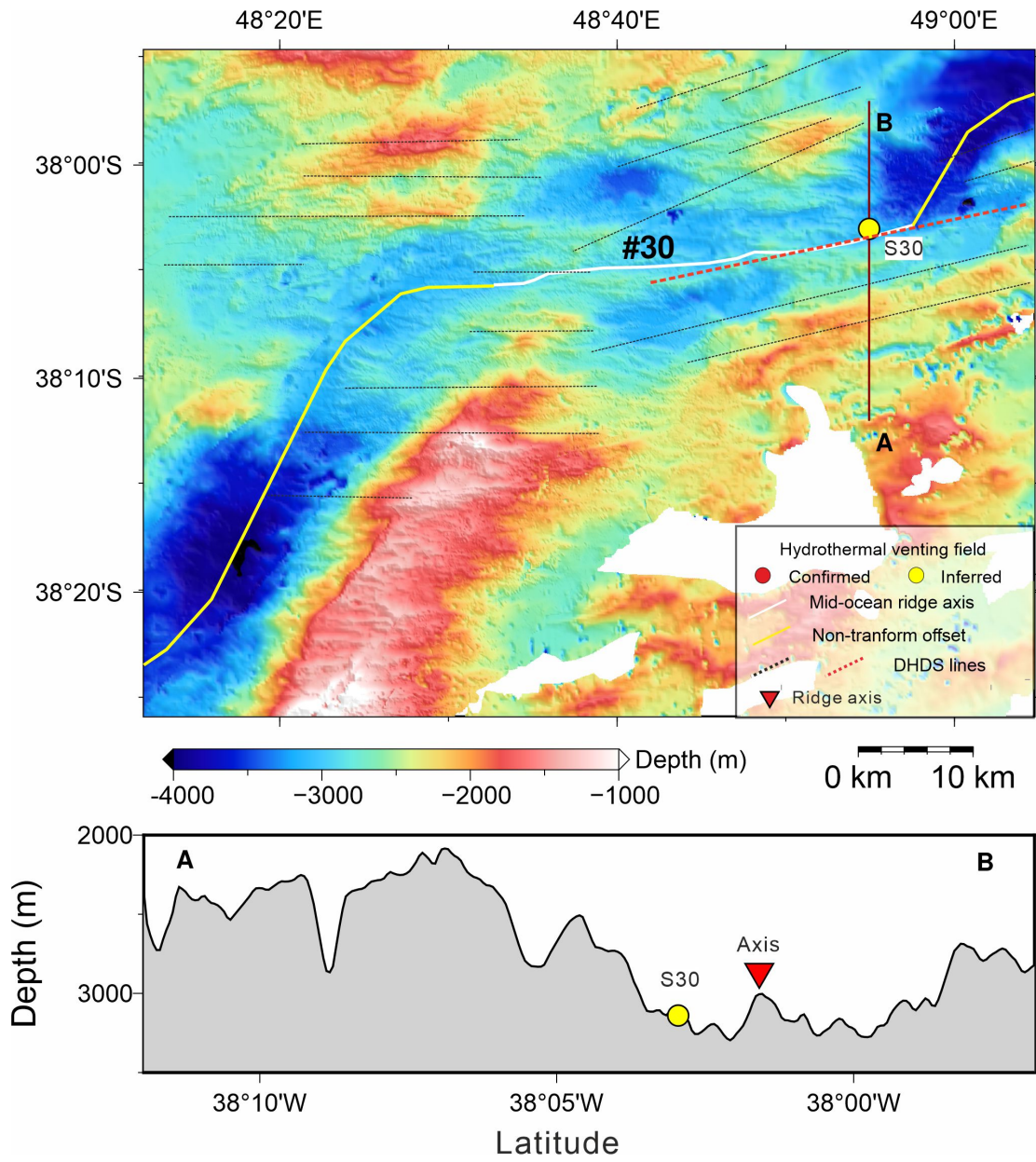
Figure 6



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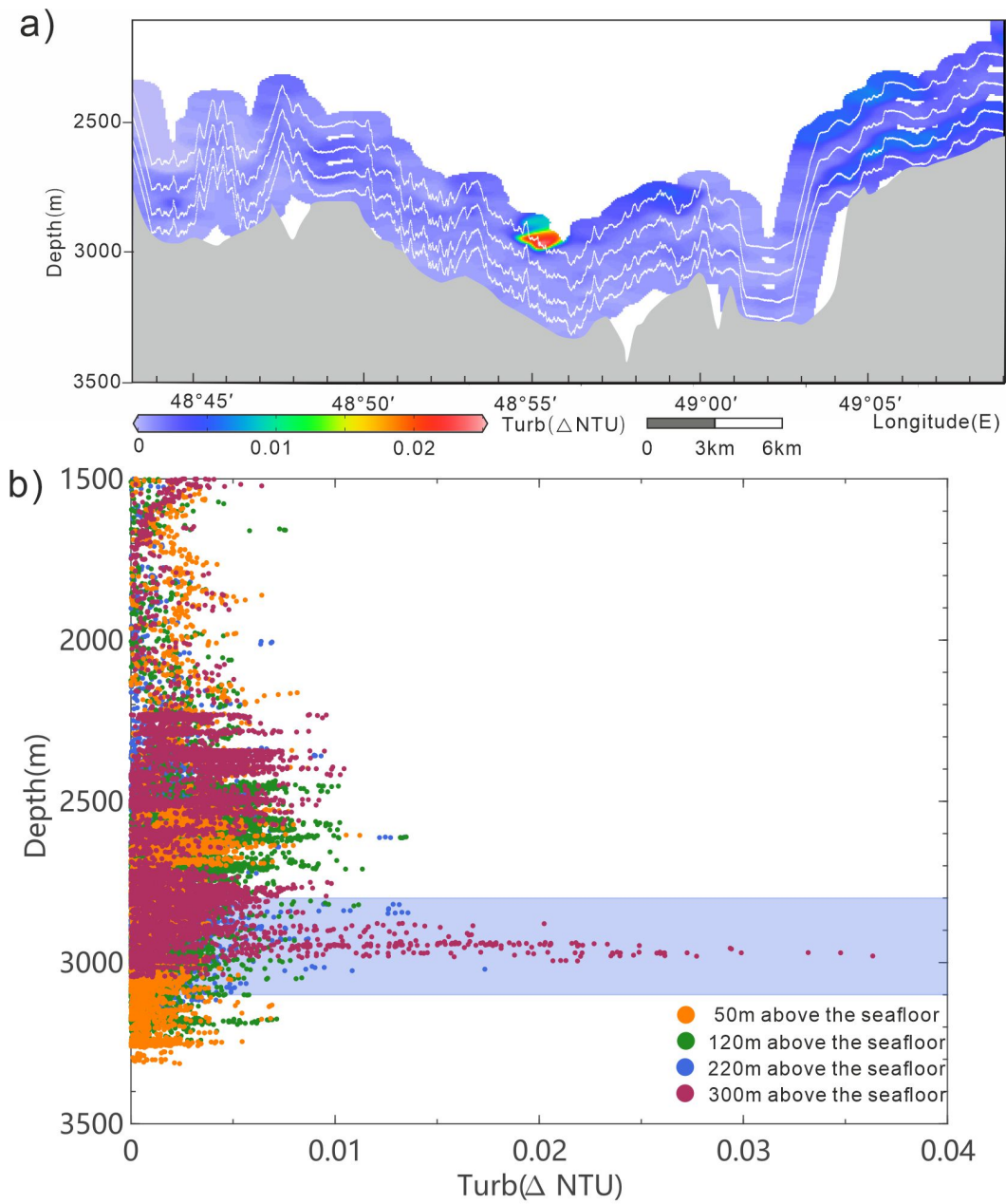
Figure 7



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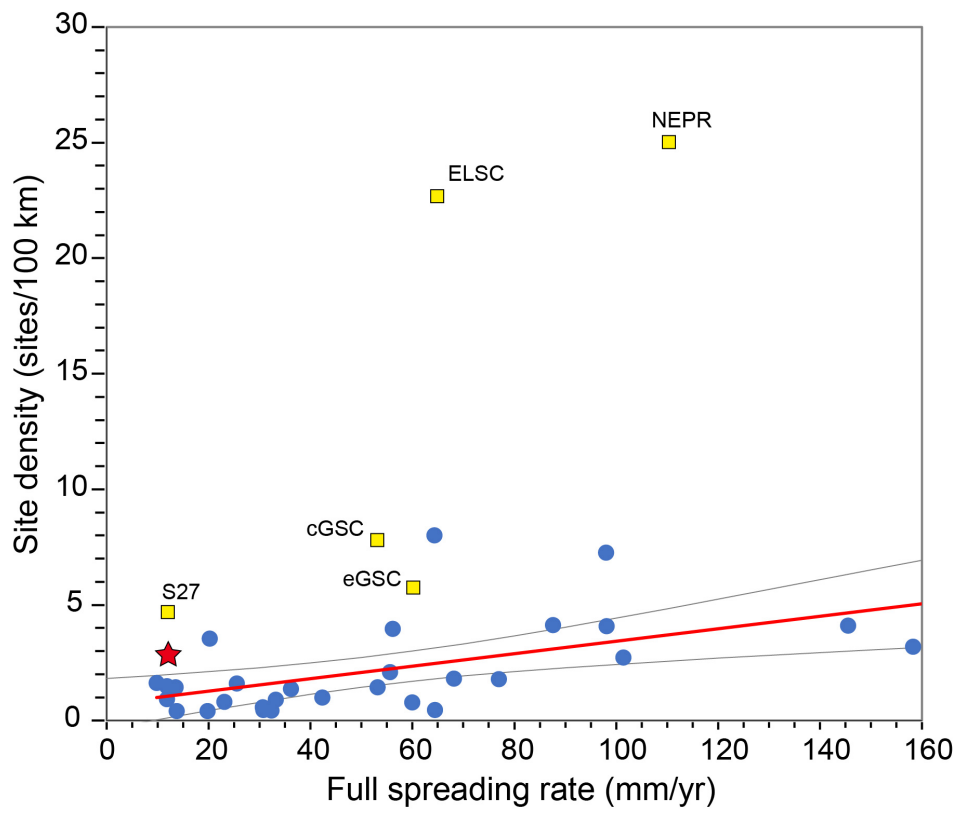
Figure 8



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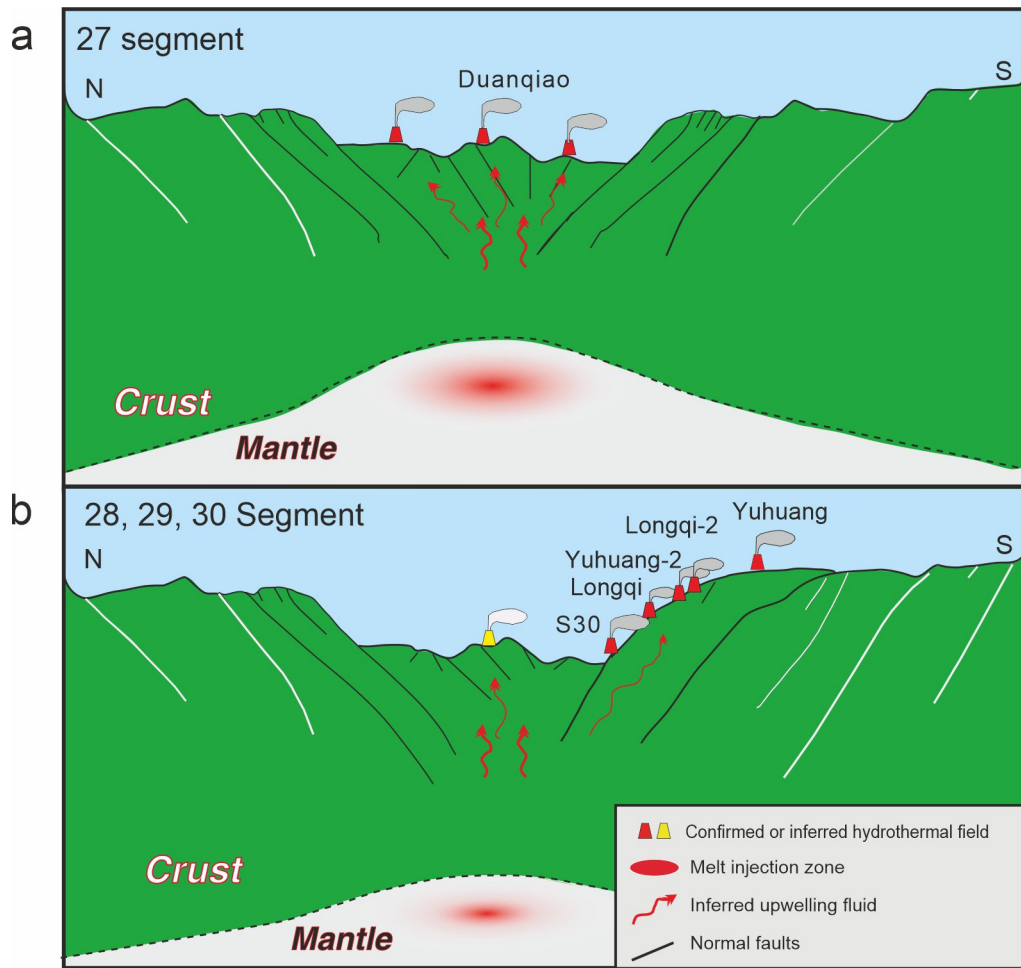
Figure 9



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Figure 10



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