THE LATE QUATERNARY DEEP-SEA DEPOSITIONAL SYSTEM IN THE GULF OF PAPUA: LINKING SOURCE, DYNAMIC SEDIMENTATION PROCESS AND DEPOSITIONAL ARCHITECTURE

by

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to explore interactions among eustatic sea level change, fluvial sediment supply, oceanic processes, and seabed morphodynamics, and their controls on delivery of terrestrial sediments to the deep sea, using the Gulf of Papua (GoP), between New Guinea and Australia, as a natural laboratory. The GoP is a 500 km wide embayment that contains excellent examples of adjacent passive and active terrestrial-oceanic margins with multiple sources of terrestrial and neritic carbonate sediments. This work examines source to sink sediment delivery from river systems to the slope and deep-sea basins of the GoP, over the last ~40 ky, at millennial temporal resolution and finer. The results offer new insights into the development of sedimentary successions in deep-sea basins, and also into approaches for provenance analysis.

Mapping and integration of acoustic facies with core physical properties, sedimentary fabric, and chronostratigraphy allows placement of seafloor evolution into a well-defined temporal framework. Chronological constraints permit an assessment of changes in sediment supply and depositional environments across time and space, from marine isotope stage (MIS) 3 to MIS 1. Sand provenance provides additional insights regarding sediment sources and routing.

In summary, the study yields a narrative of sediment delivery along a ~500 km basin margin that is more complex than initially imagined. The sediment delivery to and conduit connectivity between deep-sea basins evolves over time due to the combined effects of eustasy, oceanic processes, and dynamic seabed morphology. Multiple terrestrial sediment sources along a ~500 km basin margin initially converge to form one continuous deep-sea system of channels and two major basins prior to 30 ky BP, that become bathymetrically separated by a large mass-transport deposit. Subsequent sea-level fall approaching the late glacial maximum (LGM) initially drives re-partitioning of sediment sources to create multiple compositionally distinct depocentres, presumably due to migration and incision of individual rivers across the newly exposed coastal plain. Multiple separate deep-sea channels then regain compositional similarity near the end of the LGM, due to regional erosion into compositionally similar catchment rocks. Furthermore sand transport shuts down, except for one depocentre (MV22), fed by local volcanic, that remains active at least into the Middle Holocene.

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List of abbreviations and symbols

AMS	= Accelerometer mass spectrometry
ASCII	= American Standard Code for Information Interchange
BEI	= Backscatter electron imaging
BU	= Basement uplift (Gazzi-Dickinson provenance class)
¹⁴ C	= Carbon 14
Cal. ka	= Calendar thousand years
CEN	= Centre d'Études Nordique
CIA	= Chemical index of alteration
d	= Euclidean distance
DA	= Dissected arc (Gazzi-Dickinson provenance class)
$\delta^{18}O$	= Delta oxygen 18 (measure of ratio between 18 O : 16 O)
KAnAb	= Potassium Anorthite Albite
KEB	= Knudsen extended binary
kHz	= Kilohertz
ky BP	= thousand years before present
γρ	= Gamma density
GoP	= Gulf of Papua
JPC	= Jumbo piston core
L*	= Total lightness
LAS	= Log ASCII standard

LGM	= Last Glacial Maximum
MAR	= Mass accumulation rate
MBSF	= Meter below seafloor
MBPSL	= Meter below present sea level
MBSL	= Meter below sea level
MC	= Multi core
MIS	= Marine isotope stage
MS	= Magnetic susceptibility
MSCL	= Multi-sensor core logger
MT	= Moresby Trough
MTD	= Mass transported deposit
MUN	= Memorial University of Newfoundland
MV	= Melville
MWP-1B	= Melt water pulse 1B
nMDS	= Non-metric multidimensional scaling
NSF-MARGINS	= National Science Foundation margins programs
PANASH	= Paleo-climates of Northern and Southern Hemisphere
²¹⁰ Pb	= Radioactive isotope produced by decay of atmospheric 222 Rn
РТ	= Pandora Trough
RO	= Recycled orogen (Gazzi-Dickinson provenance class)
RSMAS	= Rosentiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science
R/V	= Research vessel

S2S	= Source to Sink
SAR	= Sediment accumulation rate
SEG-Y	= Society of Exploration Geophysics Y format
SEM-MLA	= Scanning electron microscopy and Mineral liberation analysis
SimPer	= Similarity Percentage
T _{a-e}	= Bouma turbidite division (a-e)
ТА	= transitional arc (Gazzi-Dickinson provenance class)
TC	= Transitional continental (Gazzi-Dickinson provenance class)
Wt%	= Weight percent
QFL diagram	= Quartz feldspar lithic fragment ternary diagram
QmKP	= Quartz monocrystalline, potassium, plagioclase
XRF	= X-ray fluorescence

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CHAPTER 1

The Late Quaternary deep-sea depositional system in the Gulf of Papua: linking source, dynamic sedimentation processes and depositional architecture

1.1. Introduction

Deep-sea basins are one of the ultimate sink for sediments derived from land and delivered to the oceans by rivers. Sediments in these basins contain important records of the processes controlling sediment supply, including tectonic, climatic, and oceanographic conditions and processes, and eustasy, and so such basins constitute important archives of earth history. In addition, deep sea basins may possess the materials and conditions required for hydrocarbon production and accumulation, and have been increasingly the focus of petroleum exploration for the last several decades (Fillon et al., 2001; Akutsu, 2007; Morley et al., 2011). For these reasons, the development of such deep-sea sedimentary successions is an important area of study.

The US-National Science Foundation MARGINS Source to Sink Program (S2S) was initiated to better understand the production, transport, and final accumulation of sediments along continental margins, particularly regarding the relative influences of tectonic, climatic, sealevel, and oceanographic processes on development of continental-margin sedimentary cover; the Gulf of Papua (GoP) and associated terrestrial fluvial sources and sedimentary basins were selected as one of the focus areas (NSF-MARGINS, 2004). GoP deep-sea basins are the ultimate sinks for sediment from the Papuan mainland and peninsula, and contain valuable history about the sedimentation rate, dispersal pattern and spatial variation (Francis et al., 2008). This modern foreland basin has formed within a continental-margin salient characterized by gradients in morphology and sediment supply, with mature rivers feeding a wide shelf margin toward the western GoP (delivering sediments to the Pandora Trough [PT]), and steep slope, small mountain rivers and narrow shelf margin to the east, adjacent to the Papuan Peninsula (delivering sediments to the Moresby Trough [MT]) (Figure 1.1.).



Figure 1.1. Locations of Pandora and Moresby Troughs (yellow box) in the Gulf of Papua, a foreland basin to the Papuan Orogeny, which has built the mountain ranges and fold belts to the north and east of the GoP.

This complex continental margin receives large terrigenous sediment flux from at least six medium to large rivers (the Fly/Strickland river system being the largest; 365 million tons/ year estimated for all rivers) (Milliman, 1995) and has been progressively drowned since the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) (23-19 ky BP), with flooding of the shelf contributing to changes in

sediment delivery to the deep sea (Howell et al., 2014) and sediment trapping on the shelf (Slingerland et al., 2008). The selection of the GoP as a focus area for S2S was based on certain regional characteristics considered critical to achieving program objectives, including: strong signal from large sediment yields, minimum anthropogenic effect, quantifiable closed S2S system with an active transfer into accessible deep-sea basins, potential for high resolution of stratigraphic records correlated with sea level history, and access to the entire study area (NSF-MARGINS, 2004).

Through S2S and previous study, the GoP shelf and offshore basins have been intensively investigated by multibeam bathymetry, 3.5 KHz seismic profile and core samples, and thus provide an excellent natural laboratory for analog study of the dynamic processes associated with sources, timing and depositional product (Dickens et al., 2006). This dense data set also permits us a rare opportunity to study the evolution of a regional deep-sea depositional system in higher resolution (centennial-millennial time scale, cm to m sedimentary thickness) over approximately the last 40 Kyr BP, a degree of documentation that could not be possible in many deep-sea studies.

This dissertation consists of three major chapters, framed by this introductory and one concluding chapter. Chapters II-IV are written in self-contained manuscript format, for subsequent publication as journal articles. Chapter II will investigate the Pleistocene-Holocene deep-sea sediment stratigraphy and facies variation of the Pandora and Moresby troughs. Specific objectives in Chapter II are to build a regional Late Quaternary lithofacies and stratigraphic framework for the study area by combining observations of sediment-core stratigraphy and physical properties, accelerometer mass spectrometry (AMS) C-14 data, core x-radiographs and thin sections. This framework will be used to determine depositional timing for

turbidite delivery into the basin, and to evaluate regional facies variability, as influenced by glacio-eustatic, climatic and oceanographic forcing. This framework will form the basis for additional studies of seabed geomorphology and sediment provenance (Chapters III and IV). The maximum absolute age obtained for most cores is approximately 40 Ka, so the time frame for these studies encompasses marine isotope stages (MIS) 3 to 1.

Chapter III is a study of seabed morphological characterization and evolution of the Pandora and Moresby troughs over the time frame of MIS 3 to 1. The main objectives of this chapter are to document and interpret the present to near present sedimentation processes in the seafloor, and to identify acoustic and lithofacies distributions and development, including timing, delivery pathways, and depositional architecture. This chapter incorporates 3D visualization, analysis, and interpretation of seabed morphology, stratigraphy, and sediment acoustic characteristics derived from sub-bottom sonar data and sediment cores collected during the 2004 PANASH cruise of the R/V Melville (Dickens et al., 2006), and multibeam data collected and gridded during that and other cruises.

Chapter IV is a provenance analysis of turbidite sands sampled from jumbo piston cores collected from the Pandora and Moresby troughs during the PANASH cruise in 2004, incorporating morphological and stratigraphic insights from chapters II and III. This chapter addresses three questions. (1) What are the likely sources of terrestrial sediment delivered to these basins? (2) Over what time spans is sediment delivered to each basin? (3) What factors are controlling the timing and pathways of sediment delivery? This chapter will investigate the source-to-sink narrative extending back to ~40 ky BP with an assumption that neither parent rocks nor the sediment composition in the catchment have undergone significant change over that period. This study is novel because one of the first attempts to use advanced Scanning

Electron Microscopy Mineral Liberation Analysis (an advanced semi-automated image analysis approach for grain-scale compositional analysis) (Fandrich et al., 2007) coupled with similarity percentage and clustering analysis (Anderson et al., 2008) to study provenance of detrital sediments.

Chapter V reviews overall findings, strengths, and weaknesses of this dissertation, and offers suggestions for future research in both the Gulf of Papua specifically and sedimentary evolution of deep-sea basins in general.

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CHAPTER 2

Conduits, Timing and Processes of Sediment Delivery across a High-Relief Continental Margin: Continental Shelf to Basin in Late Quaternary, Gulf of Papua

2.1. Introduction

The Gulf of Papua (GoP) deep-sea basin is the ultimate sink for sediment from the southern margin of the Papuan mainland and peninsula, and contains a valuable historical record of the spatial and temporal variations in regional sedimentation rates and dispersal patterns. This region was selected by the US National Science Foundation MARGINS-Source-to-Sink Program (S2S) as a focus area for study of continental margin sedimentation and stratigraphy, because of the high rates of sediment transfer from land to coastal sea to marine basins, and because of relatively modest anthropogenic alteration of both terrestrial and marine portions of the sediment dispersal system; the GoP was the location of numerous S2S research cruises in 2003-2005 to study margin evolution (NSF MARGINS, 2004; Dickens et al., 2006). This modern sedimentary basin has formed within a continental-margin salient characterized by gradients in morphology and sediment supply, with mature rivers feeding a wide shelf margin in the southwest area, and steep slope, small mountain-fed rivers and narrow shelf margin in the southeast peninsular area (Figure 2.1.). Numerous studies have been published evaluating geological processes and products including local geological processes through time (e.g., Howell et al., 2014), and modern regional seabed morphology (Francis et al., 2008), but the regional geological evolution of the deepest basins remains underexplored, particularly with respect to changes in sediment flux and sources over time.

The objectives of this chapter are to build a regional Late Quaternary lithofacies and stratigraphic framework for the study area by combining observations of sediment-core stratigraphy and physical properties, accelerometer mass spectrometry (AMS) C-14 data, core xradiographs and thin sections. Data used to evaluate the study area are derived from analysis of multi-cores and jumbo piston cores collected during the PANASH cruise of the R/V Melville cruise in 2004 (Dickens et al., 2006). In the present study, this framework will be used to determine depositional frequency and timing for turbidite delivery into the basin, and to evaluate regional lithofacies variability, as influenced by glacio-eustatic, climatic and oceanographic forcing. In Chapter 4 of this study, this framework will form the basis for additional studies of seabed geomorphology and sediment provenance. The maximum absolute age obtained for most cores is approximately 40 cal ka, so the time frame for these studies encompasses marine isotope stages (MIS) 3 to MIS 1 (ICS, 2010).



Figure 2.1. Modern physiographic and tectonic elements of the Gulf of Papua (modified after Pigram and Davies, 1987, the relic of the inactive Aure trough was re-drawn based 8 on Cloos et al., 2005).

2.2. Geological background

The island of Papua is one component of a complex convergent plate boundary formed as a result of the collision between the Indo-Australian Plate and the Southwest Pacific Plate Fig. 2.1)(Pigram and Davies, 1987). The study area in the GoP is an example of an active developing foreland basin which receives intense terrigenous sediment influx from the surrounding river systems (Slingerland et al., 2008).

The Pandora and Moresby Troughs are the foredeep of the Papuan Orogen which are originally part of the inactive Aure Trough (Cloos et al., 2005), which has risen since the Late Cretaceous (ca. 65 Ma) (Figure 2.1). These foreland basins began receiving terrigenous sediment in the proximal area as early as Eocene (55.8-33.9 Ma) and reached peak depositional rates through the entire basin during the Pliocene-Holocene (< 5 Ma) when uplift in the orogenic belt intensified (Tcherepanov et al., 2008). The uplift along the collision margin has produced >4000 m relief which, combined with high precipitation rate (2-10 m/yr), produces runoff that delivers abundant sediment downstream (approximately 365 million t/yr; Milliman, 1995). The best documented influxes come from the Fly, Kikori and Purari rivers (Figure 2.1) on the Papuan mainland. Drainage from small river systems on the Papuan Peninsula has never been rigorously quantified (approximations in Milliman, 1995) but could potentially produce significant influx to the deep Moresby Trough in the eastern part of GoP (Figure 2.1.) (Howell et al., 2014).

Source rocks for deep-sea sediments mainly are found within the Papuan Orogen. This tectonic sierra is developed from the colliding New Guinea plate and the Southern Pacific subduction complex, which consists of several arcs, oceanic plateaus and micro-plates (Pigram and Davies, 1987, Pigram et al., 1989; Davies, 2012). The resulting geological formations are widely varied and include quartzo-feldspathic sediment to mafic igneous rocks (Patterson, 2006).

In this study we use the terms Papuan mainland (land north of the western part of the GoP) and Papuan Peninsula (land northeast of the eastern part of the GoP) to spatially define the sediment sources, catchment systems and basins. In general, the sediment transit time from terrestrial sources to deep-sea depocentres is relatively longer for the Papuan mainland (western GoP) (Day et al., 2008) than the Papuan Peninsula (Milliman, 1995), because of the large river systems with well-developed alluvial valleys that deliver sediment to a wide continental shelf south of the mainland region. In contrast, the Papuan peninsula (eastern GoP) is characterized by relatively small mountain-fed rivers and a narrow continental shelf (Figure 2.1).

2.3. Methodology

Data for this study are derived from seven jumbo piston cores (JPC) (MV22, 23, 25, 27, 29, 33 and MV54) and five additional multicores (MC) (MV19, 24, 26, 28 and MV50) collected during the 2004 R/V Melville cruise. The cores sample the shelf, shelf-break, slope, mini-basin to channel and basin floor (Figure 2.2. and Table 2.1.). Core locations were selected based on 3.5 KHz and multi-beam bathymetric data collected during the same cruise. Piston cores were logged shipboard by previous researchers (Dickens et al., 2006; Patterson, 2006; Febo et al., 2008; Muhammad et al., 2008) using a Geotek multi-sensor core logger (MSCL) for gamma-density and magnetic susceptibility. Split cores were imaged using a Geotek geoscan digital imaging system once onshore. Two multicore tubes were sampled from each deployment. One tube was extruded and sub-sampled at 1-2 cm intervals for sedimentological analyses, and second tube was extruded, sliced axially to yield a 2 cm-thick slab, and then imaged by Muhammad et al. (2008) using a portable x-radiography system.



Figure 2.2. Basemap of the Gulf of Papua (NSF focus area). Bathymetry and cores were acquired during the R/V Melville cruise 2004. This study is based on 7 jumbo piston cores (JPC) and 5 multi cores (MC) (red = multicores, green = jumbo piston cores) (EFR= Eastern Field Reef, PT=Pandora Trough, MT= Moresby Trough). Bathymetry from Daniell (2008), showing S2S swath survey tracks.

No	Core	Туре	Long	Lat	Depth	core Length	Present day environment
					(mbsl)	(m)	
1	MV19	MC	145.507	-8.5234	229	0.5	shelf edge to shelf break
2	MV22	JPC	146.471	-9.7731	2058	12.975	basin floor, distal part of the lobes
3	MV23	JPC	145.995	-9.8762	2068	10.125	toe of slope, part of side levee of Moresby Channel
4	MV24	MC	146.248	-9.789	2102	0.5	basin floor, Moresby Channel levee system
5	MV25	JPC	146.56	-9.9333	2193.24	12.765	basin floor, Moresby Channel levee system
6	MV26	MC	146.379	-10.009	2232	0.5	basin floor, Moresby channel, near axis
7	MV27	JPC	146.678	-10.1667	2071	13.845	sea floor rise (eastern field plateau)
8	MV28	MC	147.133	-10.1667	2426	0.45	basin floor
9	MV29	JPC	146.625	-10.0333	2288.2	6.415	basin floor, Moresby channel, near axis
10	MV33	JPC	145.6	-9.867	1787	12.7	Mini basin
11	MV50	MC	146.046	-8.5993	795	0.24	upper slope
12	MV54	JPC	145.389	-8.9364	924.63	11.745	slope

mbsl = meter below sea level MC = multicore JPC = jumbo piston core

Table-2.1. Multicores and jumbo piston cores used for this study, cores are acquired during the PANASH cruise of the R/V Melville cruise in 2004.

Radiocarbon analyses are based primarily on selected species of picked planktonic foraminifera shells (*Globigerinoides ruber and Globigerinoides sacculifer*), or alternatively bulk sediment samples if foraminifera were too rare. Eight plug samples from hemipelagic mud layers above turbidite layers from core MV22, MV23, MV33 and MV25 were extracted in sedimentology and marine geology laboratory, Memorial University of Newfoundland, and foraminifera were hand-picked to yield 30-60 mg samples for analysis, avoiding broken or incomplete shells. Bulk samples (3.5 g) were collected from MV29 (Moresby Channel) which contained too few tests for analysis. Samples were prepared for analysis at the Centre d'Études Nordique (CEN), Université Laval, Quebec, Canada, and analysis performed at the Keck Carbon Cycle AMS Facility, University of California, Irvine, CA, USA. The reported ages were corrected to calendar years using Oxcal v.4.1 with a specific reference to the Marine09 calibration curve for marine samples and Intcal09 calibration curve for wood samples (Reimer et.al., 2013; Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013). A ΔR value was calculated from the average of the values at three nearby reference sites, in order to adjust the default Marine09 reservoir ages to appropriate local values. These three reference sites are in the Torres Strait (sites 1455, 1456 and 1457) and the ΔR value used is 50 yr. The reference ages from previous studies (Febo et al., 2008, Jorry et al., 2008, Patterson, 2006) were also incorporated in age models for this project, used 'as is' when a corrected calendar age was reported, or calibrated as explained above if the original C-14 age was reported (Table 2).

The total lightness data (L*) derived from Geotek Geoscan core images (calculated using the US-NIH Image-J algorithm; NIH, 2012) were used as a proxy for carbonate content, as applied successfully in other nearby cores from the same cruise (Jorry et al., 2008). L* has been

No.	Core	Depth*	Lab	Material	C-14 Age	Error	Calenda	ır Age	References
		(cm)			(Year Bp)	(Year)	Mean	sd	
1	MV-22	160	1	Foraminifera	6,895	20	7,360	75	this study
2	MV-22	1180	1	Foraminifera	Foraminifera 35,840		40,580	420	this study
3	MV-23**	232	2	Wood			19,455		Patterson, 2006
4	MV-23	239	1	Foraminifera	15,570	45	18,495	180	this study
5	MV-23	465	1	Foraminifera	26,010	26,010 100 30,40 5		190	this study
6	MV-23	1000	1	Foraminifera	39,310	450	43,180	405	this study
7	MV-25	206	1	Foraminifera	10,200 25		11,140	105	this study
8	MV-25	1134	1	Foraminifera	43,700 1300 46 ,		46,955	1275	this study
9	MV-29***	589	1	Foraminifera	>51,200	>50,000		this study	
10	MV-33****	154	3	Foraminifera	10,625	5 11,805 190		Jory et al., 2008	
11	MV-33****	333	3	Foraminifera	11,325 12,765 100		100	Jory et al., 2008	
12	MV-33	1215	1	Bulk Sediment	19,560 70		22,815	255	this study
13	MV-54****	190	3	Wood	13,320	25	16,385	260	Febo et al., 2008 (raw)
14	MV-54****	475	3	Wood	14,160 35		17,230	155	Febo et al., 2008 (raw)
15	MV-54****	830	3	Wood	14,175 40 17,250 16		160	Febo et al., 2008 (raw)	
16	MV-54****	994	2	Wood	14,810	80	18,100	235	Febo et al., 2008 (raw)

The delta R local from Torres Strait (site 1455, 1456, 1457)

The calendar age calculation is using Marine09 curve for marine samples and Intcal09 curve for wood samples

Laboratory code: (1) University California Irvine via CEN Universite Laval, (2) National Ocean Sciences AMS (NOSAMS), (3) University of California at Irvine * Below sea floor

** Only calendar age was reported

***Age is exceeded the limit of C-14 dating

****Errors are not reported by author

*****Raw data from Febo et al., 2008, the raw data is corrected using intcal09 curve in this study

Table-2.2. Radiocarbon calendar ages from core samples, including data generated for this study, and for studies cited in the table.

correlated with peak calcium from XRF scans to compensate for the influence on L* of other light minerals; such as, kaolinite, fluorite, or light-colored silicates (e.g., Jorry et al., 2008).

Relative elemental abundances were determined using an Avaatech X-ray fluorescence core scanner for core MV-22, 23, 25 and 27 at the University of Miami Rosentiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science (RSMAS). Cores were scanned at 1 cm intervals, with elemental data from Al to Bi recorded as counts per measurement (McFadden personal communication, 2010). At that time, graphic logs of JPC stratigraphy were also prepared from visual observations.

Piston cores and multicores were imaged X-radiographically using a portable Thales Flashscan 35 flat panel imaging detector illuminated with a Medison-Acoma x-ray generator PX15-HF. Multicores were imaged while on ship (by NSF Margin team during R/V Melville cruise, 2004). Split half-round piston cores were imaged at RSMAS in 2010. For half cores, an aluminum compensator plate was used to provide uniform exposure of the semi-cylindrical core (Principato, 2004; Freifeld et al., 2006) (by Erlangga Septama during visit to RSMAS, 2010).

Samples from select multicores and piston cores were processed to create petrographic thin sections, modified after the method of Kuehl el al. (1988). The 3x5 cm sub-samples were extracted with metal spatulas from selected multi-core slabs and u-channel samples of piston cores, following study of core X-radiographs. Samples were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen, freeze-dried and impregnated with low viscosity LR-white resin under partial vacuum condition (600-750 torr). The impregnated sediment sample was thin sectioned using standard lapidary equipment to approximately 70 micron thickness for study.

In addition to the above analyses, oxygen isotope analysis from MV-27 (McFadden 2010, personal communication) is also incorporated as a reference. The age model for this core is based on correlation to the chronostratigraphy of standard global oxygen isotopic curves, interpolated to give tie points at multiples of 10 cal ka in the hemipelagic component of the MV-27 succession (Figure. 2.3.).

2.4. Results

Core locations, lengths, water depths, and present-day environments are indicated in Table 2.1.

Jumbo Piston Core Sediments

Core sediments are generally composed of mud, silt, and medium to fine sand. Major composition is quartzo-feldspathic, with lesser amounts of amphibole, muscovite, and lithic fragments. Smaller quantities of woody fragments, calcareous mud, and mollusk fragments are also present.

Core MV-54 (11.745 m long) was acquired from the middle NW slope of Pandora Trough (924 m below sea level) (Figure. 2.2.). The sediment is composed primarily of dark gray faintly laminated mud to apparently homogeneous greenish muddy sediment with few thin beds of fine grained sand, with more discrete thin layers (< 5 cm, composed of quartz and volcanic lithic fragments) of sandy sediment in the upper 4 m of core. Gamma density of muds in the upper 3 m of the core is $1.38-1.46 \text{ g/cm}^3$, and $1.58-1.6 \text{ g/ cm}^3$ for muddy sediment deeper in the core. Sand layer density is $1.75-1.89 \text{ g/ cm}^3$ with a skewed bell-shaped curve character (sharp based sand layer with a rapid rise in density at the base and gradual drop off at the top). The general gamma-



are interpolated every 10 cal Ka based on sediment accumulation rates in the hemipelagic component of the sedimentary succession. Erosional bases to sand beds were interpreted based on log and core observations (vertical scale for core depth from seafloor in meter, horizontal scale :Magnetic susceptibility (MS) in *10⁻⁵SI below and Gamma Density in gr.cm⁻³ above).

density log character is serrated in the upper part, and gradually changes into blocky character downward (Figure 2.3.).

In core MV-33 (total length 12.7 m) from a mini-basin in the northern toe of slope of Eastern Fields Reef, 1787 m below sea level (Figure 2.2), the uppermost 1.5 m of the core is composed of calcareous pelagic mud interlayered with trains of coarse-sand-size bioclasts that display reworked textures. The lower portion of the core contains 35 siliciclastic sand layers 15-50 cm thick interlayered with mud. These sand layers are fine- to medium-grained, dominated by quartz and dark volcanic lithic fragments, and less abundant woody debris. These siliciclastic sands are interbedded with calcareous pelagic sandy mud, in which the disseminated coarse grains are mostly skeletal fragments and large foraminifera. The gamma density log shows a highly serrated character with mud density of 1.4-1.45 g/cc in the interval 0-2.5 m, gradually increasing to 1.5 g/cc deeper in core. Sand density is 1.75-1.98 g/cc (mostly 1.75 in calcareous layers) in the upper 2.5 m of core, and around 1.78 g/cc below 2.5 m.

Core MV-23 (10.12 m long), from the toe of slope in Pandora Trough (2068 m below sea level) (Figure 2.2.), contains 23 sand beds interbedded with mud. The gamma density log has a serrated curve with sharp basal contacts (evident in both the log curve and thin sections). Density logs of the sandy layers mostly reflect fining upward with a few blocky patterns in the bottom part of the core (10 m). The log shows a mud density of 1.38-1.4 g/cm³ and sand density of 1.86-1.98 g/cm³, both tending to increase downward. This core is incomplete because of sand loss from the bottom part of the core. This core also contains a gap or missing samples in the interval from 6.9-6.5 m.

Core MV-22 (12.97 m length, 2058 m below sea level) acquired from the lower eastern slope of Moresby Trough; (Figure 2.2.) is mostly mud with sand layers 2.5-10 cm thick (Figure

2.3.). Some sand layers are lenticular, and major minerals in all layers include amphibole, biotite and muscovite. Mud density increases gradually downward in this core, from soft mud in the upper 25 cm of the core with density near 1.26 g/cc, to 1.38-1.42 g/cc in the interval 25-281 cm (near 10 cal ka; Figure 2.3.), to near 1.57 g/cc below 281 cm. Sand layer density is 1.7-1.78 g/cc.

Core MV-25 (12.77 m long), and core MV-29 (6.42 m long) were collected on the eastern edge of the Moresby Trough thalweg (2193 m and 2288 m below sea level respectively) (Figure. 3). Core MV-25 contains 12 units of thinly interbedded mud, silt, and fine sand, interlayered with thicker muddy beds. The gamma density curve is highly serrated with individual layers being bell shaped, with mud density of 1.38 g/cm³ (0-246 cm), 1.43 g/cm³ (246-469 cm), and 1.57-1.59 g/cm³ (bellow 469 cm). Sand layer density is 1.78-1.9 g/cm³.

Core MV-29 down-channel from MV-25 contains interlayered sand and mud in layers that thicken downward. The core is relatively short, and only recovered 5.99 m probably due to sand loss in the bottom part. Mud density varies from 1.38 g/cm³ above 85 cm depth; to near 1.42 g/cm³ below 85 cm). Basal contacts of sandy layers over mud are sharp on the gamma density curve.

Core MV-27 (13.845 m long, 2071 m below sea level) is the core that is farthest down Moresby Channel, near the thalweg (Figure 2.2). This core contains ten layers of mostly fine sand (5-10 cm thick), interlayered with mud. The sand is fine grained and mainly composed of dark lithic fragments and quartz, and displays a fining upward succession in the upper 4 m. Multicores MV-19, -24, -26, -28 and -50 were evaluated for this study (Figure 2.2), and are <50 cm in length. Core MC MV-24 (2102 mbsl) shows a vertical succession of sand with divisions consistent with typical T_c - T_e units in the Bouma sequence (Bouma, 1962) that are partially cross cut by large (2-3 cm diameter) horizontal burrows.

MV-26 (water depth 2232m) consists of a hemipelagic mud layer with mottled appearance, overlying a layer of coarse and poorly sorted lithic wacke incompletely sampled near 45 cm depth (70% mixed metamorphic, mafic-igneous, and sedimentary fragments, with grain size of 0.3-2.5 mm, in carbonate-mud/foraminifera mud matrix).

MV-28 was retrieved from 2426 mbsl, and appears to have almost fully penetrated the surficial hemipelagic mud drape. It reveals a sediment accumulation rate (SAR) of 0.1 cm/yr and mass accumulation rate (MAR) of 0.05 g/(cm²yr) (Muhammad et al., 2008). The mud drape overlies basal muddy layers with several interbeds of thinly cross-stratified fine sand (1-2 cm).

Multi core MV-19, acquired from the shelf break in the corner between Pandora and Moresby Troughs at a water depth of 229 mbsl (Figure 2.2.), consists of mottled silty mud layers interbedded with homogeneous fine- to medium-grained sand. Multi core MV-50 from the upper slope (795 mbsl) shows finer grained materials (silt to mud) with no distinct layering. Both MV-19 and MV-50 show abundant vertical and horizontal burrows with dimensions of 1.5 - 4 cm in length and 0.25 - 0.3 cm in diameter.

Radiocarbon Geochronology and Sedimentation Rates

Calendar ages of ¹⁴C analyses from this study and other samples dated from these cores (Patterson, 2006; Febo et al., 2008; Jorry et al., 2008) range from 7.36 cal ka to older than 40 cal
ka, encompassing Marine Isotope stage (MIS) 3 to 1 (Figures 2.3 and 2.4, Table 2.2). The open slope cores MV-54 and MV-33 from a mini-basin adjacent to the Pandora trough show the highest ¹⁴C sediment accumulation rates (SAR) among all piston cores in this study. Most of MV-54 (1.90-9.94 m below sea floor [mbsf]) was deposited between 16.38 and 18 cal ka, with SAR of 203-271 cm/ka for upper and lower intervals, and a middle interval of much higher SAR (Table 2.2., Figure 2.3b). For MV-33, the sediment from 1.54-1.215 mbsf was deposited from 11.8 to 12.76 ka, with SAR of 87.8 cm/ka (bottom) to 186 cm/ka (top).

Core MV-23, from the western slope of Moresby Trough, has four ¹⁴C dates: 19.455 cal ka at 2.32 mbsf (wood), 18.495 cal ka at 2.39 mbsf (forams), 30.405 cal ka at 4.65 mbsf (forams) and 43.180 cal ka at 10 mbsf (forams). Focusing on ages from forams (ignoring the age reversal created by the woody debris), these ages yield a SAR of 19-42 cm/ka, with highest rates during MIS-3.

Core MV-22 from the lower reaches of Moresby Trough has two dated intervals: 7.360 cal ka (MIS-1) at 1.60 mbsf, and 40.580 cal ka (MIS-3) at 11.80 mbsf, yielding SAR of 30.7 cm/ka, including the youngest age for this data set (middle MIS-1).

SAR for cores in deeper southeastern Moresby Trough and deeper Moresby Channel are generally lower. Cores MV-25 and MV-29 were acquired from the side levee of Moresby Channel (Figure 2.2). MV-25, at water depth of 2193 m, displays SAR of 25.9 cm/ka from 10.2 to 47 cal ka, spanning from MIS-3 to early MIS-1. SAR for core MV-29 over ¹⁴C timescales is not known, due to the ¹⁴C age of >51.2 cal ka at 5.89 mbsf. Analysis of δ^{18} O stratigaphy (McFadden, 2010, personal communication) from core MV-27 in Eastern Field Plateau showsthat this particular area is probably experiencing the slowest SAR of all cores in this study, 0.8 cm/ka from MIS-6 to MIS-1 (Figures 2.3 and 2.4).



Figure 2.4. Age-depth plots. Accumulation rates are calculated directly from calibrated C-14 age to C-14 age. Core MV-27 curve is derived from d18O data (McFadden, personal communication, 2010) Each core top is assumed to have an age of 0 cal yr BP, but could be older if the sediment-water interface was not recovered in piston cores.

Results of thin section and X-radiograph analysis are incorporated into general core lithology described above, and facies descriptions presented below. Specific examples discussed below are provided in Figures 2.5. and 2.9. In jumbo piston cores, thin-section study displays different textures which help distinguish pelagic mud from hemipelagic mud from what are interpreted as muddy turbidites. Non-laminated pelagic/hemipelagic mud appears to have higher porosity than normally graded mud in turbidites. The higher porosity results in more extensive ice-freezing artifacts (Figure 2.5a). Also, pelagic mud is non-laminated and highly burrowed whereas the turbidite mud shows distinct gradation (Figure 2.5b). Abundant fecal pellets occur in the pelagic/hemipelagic mud in contrast with turbidite mud. Pellets are generally elliptical with long axes of 100-200 µm, and with apparent random distribution (Figure.2.5c). Graded mud is intensively burrowed only in the upper part of each occurrence, giving a mottled texture in xradiographs. Bioturbation is sometimes intensified in sand layers or underlying mud. Most burrows evident in pelagic/hemipelagic mud are similar to the ichnogenus Phycosiphon sp., and seem to be associated with the fecal pellets (Figure 2.5d.), but are rarely found associated with turbidite mud.

Multicore MV-24 (2102 mbsl) shows a vertical succession of muddy turbidites with typical T_c-T_e divisions that are partially cross cut by large horizontal burrows similar to echinoderm burrows (e.g. Bromley, 1996) (Figure 2.6.). Modern ²¹⁰Pb activities and sedimentation rates in this core (0.14 cm/yr.; Muhammad et al., 2008) suggest a moderate to low depositional rate.

MV-26 (water depth 2232m) displays preferential grain orientation of large fragments (Figure 2.7.), consistent with reworking beneath a transiting sediment gravity flow.

MV-28 (45 cm in length, not shown) retrieved from 2426 mbsl, shows mud-dominated sequences with thin cross stratification, in fine sand layers, that is interpreted as the T_c division

of the Bouma (1962) sequence. The Recent ²¹⁰Pb SAR of 0.1 cm/yr. and MAR of 0.05 g/cm².yr (Muhammad et al., 2008) suggest very slow modern sedimentation at this locale.

2.5. Lithofacies

Six lithofacies are distinguished on the basis of the observed depositional elements, sedimentary structures, micro-fabrics, texture and the presence of bioturbation either from direct core observation or core x-radiographs. The major depositional elements found in cores include: (1) well laminated sedimentary units of alternating thin sand (dark grey), silt and mud (light grey), (2) thick graded sand (3) thin sand laminae infill in thick mud sometimes as lenses, pockets or showing pinch out termination in one direction, (4) non-laminated/homogeneous calcareous pelagic mud (light grey) and light colored medium to thick calcarenite with abundant bioclasts (5) hemipelagic mud and (6) blocky and deformed slumped sediment. The detailed descriptions of the lithofacies are as follows (Fig. 2.8., Table 3).

Lithofacies-1, this facies is characterized by varve-like interlaminated mud, silt and thin fine-grained sand, with layers well defined in cores and x-radiographs. This lithofacies shows a distinct fining-upward pattern with density curves having a typical thin bell shaped character in sandy units, with overall serrated/ saw tooth curve characters [e.g. interval 2-3 mbsf in MV-22 and all light green colored in Fig. 2.3]. The typical sequence begins with dark gray-greenish thin mud (2-3 cm), underlain by silt and then dark-blackish sand (1-2 cm) with the frequency and the thickness of the sand laminae decreasing upward towards the seabed. This succession is usually overlain by a hemipelagic mud drape shows a transition upward from the heterogeneous lithofacies 1 into faintly laminated mud into more uniform mud.



Figure 2.5. (a) the granular texture of background sediments in this image is actually an artifact from freezing formed during the bulk sediment sample immersion into liquid nitrogen. This artifact can be used to differentiate between homegeneous pelagic/hemipelagic mud (lithofacies 5) and turbidite mud (lithofacies 1). (b) Distinctive size gradation is observed in the turbidite mud (Bouma division Td) (lithofacies 1). (c) Fecal pellets are common in hemipelagic mud (lithofacies 5) but rarely found in normally graded beds. (d) Sharp contact between graded beds and underlying silt and mud (lithofacies 2). The contact zone shows a prominent burrow interpreted as a *Phycosyphon* trace.







Figure 2.6. Multicore MV-24 was acquired from water depth 2102 mbsl. (a) the core x-radiograph shows complex burrows initiated where terrigenous materials (sand layers of Lithofacies 2 or 3) provide a fresh food supply for deep sea organisms. The vertical burrow is *Skolithos* and the concentric shape (enlargement of x-radiograph) in (b) and cross polarized light (xpl) of thin section in (c) is likely a surface trail created by echinoderm species. The stratigraphic arrangement of the burrows reflects adaptation of organisms to the periodic turbidite depositional cycle. The red rectangle is showing the location of the enlargement and thin section.









Figure 2.7. (a) multicore MV-26 acquired from water depth 2232 mbsl. The base of the core x-radiograph (lithofacies 2) shows lag deposit which is probably formed beneath a turbidity current. The grains show a preferential orientation that is likely the paleoflow direction (red square is showing te location of the enlargement) (b) is the enlargement of the x-radiograph and (c) is the cross polarization light (xpl) of the thin section. (The red rectangle is showing the position of the enlargement and thin section).

Lithofacies-2, sheet-like sandy layer: dark grey to blackish colored layers of varied thickness (3->50 cm)(Figs. 2.8 and 2.9). This lithofacies displays upward fining of each depositional unit, typically with saw-tooth or bell shaped gamma-density curve character (Fig. 2.9), and sharp lower contacts that appear erosional in thin section (Fig. 2.5d). There are lag deposits of coarse grained sand sometimes found near the contact between a sand bed and the underlying mud (e.g., MV-23, Fig. 2.8). From the visual appearance, three sub-facies are distinguished. Sub-facies-2a consists of normally graded muddy beds, consistent with the Bouma sequence T_{d-e} (Fig. 2.7). Thin silty mud lenses are sometimes present and are embedded in the mud layer of this sub-facies (Figs 2.6 and 2.7). Sub-facies-2b consists of thinly bedded normally graded layers dominated by fine to medium sand, sometimes displaying Bouma sequence T_{b-c-d} but mostly only T_b or T_{b-c} divisions (Fig. 2.5b, thin section; Fig. 2.8 [MV-23], and Fig. 2.9). This sub-facies shows distinct layering, rich in biogenic materials including foraminifera and wood fragments that may be aligned. Sub-facies-2c consists of medium to thick (15-50 cm) beds of medium- to fine-grained sand, characterized by Bouma sequence T_{a-b} (MV-23, Fig. 2.9). The bottom part is typically normally graded, sometimes massive, with an upward transition into laminated sand and silt. Beds of sub-facies-2c show sharp erosional contacts with occasional basal lag deposits.

<u>Lithofacies-3</u>, thin sand layer/lenses/pinch-out-infill in thick hemipelagic mud. The sand is fine grained, dark grey to blackish colored, showing distinct lamination of typical Bouma division T_b . The gamma density curve shows a stack of thin bell-shaped curves, one for each depositional unit (e.g. successions of thin sand layers in all cores; Fig. 2.3). Depending upon the resolution, very thin bell-shaped segments may appear as needle-like spikes intercalated inside lithofacies 2 or 5. Direct core observation and x-radiographs show that the sand layers either have bidirectional terminations (giving lenses), or may pinch out or inter finger with surrounding mud (MV-22, Fig. 2.8).

Lithofacies-4, calcareous mud and sand: comprised of light grey to cream colored mud, primarily biogenic, highly calcareous and dominated by fecal pellets, traces of shell, and foraminiferal tests. The sediment is highly burrowed, with the primary vertical burrow being *Skolithos* whereas shorter patchy burrows are interpreted as *Phycosiphon* (MV-33, Fig. 2.8). The log character from gamma-density curves is slightly serrated with an overall low density (e.g. intervals : 0-1.7 mbsf Of MV-33, and mostly upper part of MV-23, MV-25 and MV-27 (Fig. 2.3)). This facies is mostly present in the upper part of cores where observed and is distributed widely but most prominently in proximity to the drowned Miocene carbonates (Jorry et al., 2008) such as in cores MV-33 and MV-23 (Figs. 2.2 and 2.3). In core MV-33, lithofacies-4 occurs as a series of layers which are intercalated with hemipelagic mud and calcareous sand. This lithofacies is distinguished easily from its color during visual direct core observation and also from XRF calcium data and L* measurements (MV-33, Fig. 2.10).

<u>Lithofacies-5</u>, hemipelagic mud: comprised of subtly laminated dark gray mud with moderate to intense bioturbation. The gamma-density log is characterized by a lightly serrated curve of generally low density (e.g. most of the dark green colored units in Fig. 2.3). This lithofacies is widely distributed across the study area (Fig 2.8).

<u>Lithofacies-6</u>, slump or debrite deposits, showing either distinct deformed stratification, folded strata with an irregular surface boundary, or being massive without any distinct layering. In some cases this lithofacies is composed of soft mud that might have been deformed during piston core recovery. The gamma-density curve shows a tabular and blocky log character or coarsening upward pattern. This lithofacies only found exclusively in MV-27 (interval 8.5 mbsf).



Figure 2.8. X-radiographs of various lithofacies observed in the jumbo piston cores (see text for the details).



Figure 2.9. The turbidite facies observed in Pandora Trough toe-of-slope (MV23) (lithofacies 2) showing the variation from complete Bouma sequence to beds without lower Bouma divisions or without upper Bouma divisions. The black square on the core shows the position of the core x-radiograph. Schematic profiles of density (red) and magnetic susceptibility (gray) are superimposed on core images, next to graphic logs.



Figure 2.10. Correlation based on total lightness (L*, black profile) and calcium content from XRF scans (red profile) help define the upper part of the core (pre-MWP-1B).

2.6 Interpretation and Discussion

2.6.1 Piston Core SARs and Lateral Correlation

Bathymetric data and core observations encompass five major depositional environments in two major depositional troughs (Pandora and Moresby Troughs) namely slope (MV-54), toe of slope lobe (MV-22, MV-23), mini-basin (MV-33), channel-levee system (MV-25, MV-29 and MV-23) and stable deep sea plateau (MV-27) (Figures 2.1. and 2.2). Figures 2.11a and 2.11b illustrate spatial and temporal variations in SAR. Figure 2.11b was prepared by temporally interpolating ¹⁴C SAR in 10 ka increments indicated on Figure 2.3, incorporating δ^{18} O stratigraphy of McFadden [2010, personal communication]), including MIS boundary ages [ICS, 2010], and assuming that the top of each core represents an age of 0 cal ka. This assumption is probably incorrect, owing to likely loss of surficial sediment during core penetration; if this is the case, this uppermost SAR estimate is a minimum value. With these caveats, the correlation across the five major environments shows temporal and spatial patterns in the SARs across the GoP over the last glacial cycle (Figures 2.3., 2.11a and 2.11b).

There also exist differences between SARs from ¹⁴C ages (e.g. Figure 2.4) and MIS correlations (Figure 2.11). For MV-54, the highest ¹⁴C SAR value is 23,600 cm/Kyr as compared to >57 cm/Kyr in MIS calculation. The rapid ¹⁴C SAR may be due to slump deposition. As well, averaging over long timescales will generally result in lower SAR than when averaged over shorter timescales (Sadler, 1981). As well, the correlation for MV-54 is tenuous, owing to the age of the core bottom likely being younger than the MIS 2-1 boundary.

Slope core MV-54 and Pandora trough mini-basin core MV-33 are the closest to the Papuan mainland river systems, and show the highest SARs in this study, and both span the

general time frame of mid MIS-2 (14-29 cal ka) to early MIS-1 (0-14 cal ka). Core MV-54 is primarily homogeneous marine mud (lithofacies-5 and -6) whereas core MV-33 contains numerous sand layers, including calcareous units (lithofacies-2, -3, and -4). The lack of sand in core MV-54 suggests that this core is located away from the major slope channel whereas core MV-33 more likely is fed by an active channel. This suggests that the mature river systems of the Papuan mainland most likely acted as the major deep-sea feeder during MIS-2, and sediment





Figure 2.11.(b) Bubble map of the SAR for each marine isotope stage (MIS) (cm/yr). The bubble radius is proportional to the SAR (cm/yr).

supply in this region was largely cut off as sea level rose above the shelf edge, consistent with observations over smaller regions of Jorry et al (2008) and Febo et al. (2008).

2.6.2 Interpretation of the lithofacies

<u>Lithofacies-1</u>: this lithofacies is characterized by a distinguished interlamination of mud (mud is graded in thin section (Fig 2.5b)), silt and thin fine grained sand, fairly bioturbated and low in carbonate content, the core location (MV-22) is associated with wave-like depositional features (Francis et al., 2008; Chapter 3 of this study) thus the facies is interpreted as reworked sediment associated with bottom currents and only found in Moresby Trough and also channel area such as in Moresby Channel or Pandora toe of slope(Fig. 2.8).

Lithofacies-2: this lithofacies is divided into 3 sub-facies, sub-facies 2a : occurs as a layer that is intensely burrowed by a horizontal trace maker (e.g. MV-24), suggesting that the tracemaker might have been attracted to organic matter within this muddy unit (Fig. 2.6). These traits suggest deposition via a combination of a low density, low energy turbidity current and subsequent hemipelagic deposition. Sub-facies-2b consists of thinly bedded normally graded layers dominated by fine to medium sand, sometimes displaying Bouma sequence T_{b-c-d} but mostly only T_b or T_{b-c} divisions (Fig-5b, thin section; Fig-8 [MV-23], and Fig. 9). The aligned biogenic materials (including foraminifera and wood fragments) suggest a mixing of reworked shelf materials and fluvial deposits via channel pathway deposited in distal fan. Sub-facies-2c consists of medium to thick (15-50 cm) beds of medium- to fine-grained sand, characterized by Bouma sequence T_{a-b} (MV-23, Fig. 9). Sometimes this sub-facies is only present as a T_b layer, suggesting deposition from upper plane bed condition, and/or erosion by subsequent flows. <u>Lithofacies-3</u>: direct core observation and x-radiographs show that the sand layers either have bidirectional terminations (producing lenses), or may pinch out or interfinger with surrounding mud (MV-22, Fig. 8). This lithofacies is interpreted to represent distal sedimentation from relatively high energy sediment-gravity flows where the sand supply is limited.

<u>Lithofacies-4</u>: Textural observations on the sandy layers suggest that these beds could be differentiated on the basis of depositional mechanism, either as bed load (coarse grained, predominately with bioclasts) carried along by a tractive current, or as the deposit of suspension and gravitational settling as interpreted for the 'calci-turbidites'' of Jorry et al. (2008). This lithofacies is restricted chronostratigraphically, being associated with the timing of Melt Water Pulse 1B (Jorry et al., 2008) (Fig. 2.10).

<u>Lithofacies-5</u>: Visually, this lithofacies cannot be conclusively identified either as a hemipelagic mud, or the muddy portion of a turbidite (Bouma Turbidite sequence T_e). Previous study (Brunner and Ledbetter, 1987; Stanley and Maldonado, 1981) distinguished such units by their grading in mean silt particle size, coarseness in mean silt particle size and particle size frequency distribution in the silt fraction.

<u>Lithofacies-6</u>: This lithofacies is found in cores retrieved from steeper regions of the slope (MV-27, Fig. 8), or associated with the levee-channel system (lithofacies-2 and -5). Slump is interpreted to develop when the levee gradient exceeds critical values for failure. Associated with this unit sometimes is a fine- to very fine-grained sand injectite, providing evidence for penecontemporaneous sedimentary processes developed as a result of the overburden pressure during the shallow burial (MV27, Fig. 8).

2.6.3. Sediment delivery down the Moresby Trough and Channel

SARs in eastern Moresby Trough and the deeper basin in Moresby Channel are lower and correspond to longer time spans than for MV-54 and MV-33 (at least ca. 7-45 cal ka, from youngest to oldest dates). Only MV-23 has sufficient ¹⁴C dates to resolve changes in SAR over time, and its data suggest declining SAR from regressive to transgressive phases of MIS-2 (Figure. 2.4). However, the relatively young date (7.4 cal ka) near the top of core MV-22 (1.6 mbsf) suggests that some sediment is still reaching Moresby Trough in the Holocene, supported by measureable ²¹⁰Pb SAR (0.14 cm/y) near this location (multi-core MV-24), reported by Muhammad et al. (2008) and discussed above.

Core MV-23 in the toe-of-slope of Pandora Trough is composed primarily of lithofacies-2, -4 and -5. It contains a succession of 23 turbidites showing Bouma (1962) divisions T_{a-b} in the lower part (>7.5 mbsf), T_b or T_{b-c} in the middle interval (between 7.5 – 3 mbsf) and nearly complete Bouma sequences of T_{b-e} in the upper core interval (< 3 mbsf) (Figure 2.9). This setting is interpreted to be the product of a channel system in the lower part of the core which evolved over time to an off-channel axis mud-dominated depositional levee setting. The lack of upper Bouma divisions in the base of the core is typical of proximal channel-fill deposits accumulated near a channel axis (Middleton and Hampton, 1973; Lowe, 1982; Yuansheng et al., 2008), whereas T_b or T_{b-c} sequences are characteristic of high energy flow of proximal levee overbank complexes, indicated by climbing ripples produced as flow velocity decreases.

The finer and lower energy deposits comprising the upper part of core MV-23 are consistent with deposition in a more distal overbank environment (Middleton and Hampton, 1973; Lowe, 1982; Yuansheng et al., 2008). Figure 2.9 (left panel) shows the last/uppermost turbidite sequence found in core MV-23, a typical Bouma sequence T_{b-e} with wood fragments 38

deposited in the boundary between T_b and T_c . These fragments are the best evidence of the deposit originating from reworked coastal/fluvial materials. A dated wood fragment (19.455 cal ka) from this depth (2.32 mbsf, Table 2.2, from Patterson, 2006) and the calendar age of forams dated from 6 cm deeper in the core is 18,495 cal ka (Table 2.2) are consistent with the age of the late stages of the LGM sea-level lowstand (ca. 20 cal ka). The slightly older calendar age of the wood relative to the forams suggests that the transit time for such woody debris from fluvial sources to the basin floor (> 150 km; Figure 2.2.) would have been on the order of 1000 years at that time.

Cores MV-25 and MV-29 show evidence of sand-load turbidity currents entering the deepsea basin via the large Moresby channel system. Both cores are located in the off-axis region of the large channel-levee system (Francis et al., 2008; Chapters 3 and 4 of this study). Core MV-25 shows interlaminated mud, silt and fine-grained sand (Figure 2.3) deposited over a 40 ka period, and is interpreted to have been deposited in a side levee environment outside the major channel axis (by 0.6-1 km), based on present-day bathymetry and morphology. The thin turbidite layers in MV-25 are consistent with T_b units, suggesting energetic bed-load deposition possibly through a large flow-stripping system. The core MV-29 shows incomplete recovery (5.99 m length), and is more sand dominated. The ¹⁴C age acquired for hemipelagic mud in the core bottom is >51.2 cal ka, essentially at the upper limit for ¹⁴C dating, although the overlying sandy deposits could be younger (possibly eroded into old mud), and consistent with the depositional ages of nearby cores MV-23 and MV-25.

The chronology (Figs. 2.3 and 2.4) suggests that this depositional system in the lower Moresby Trough and Moresby Channel was active long before the LGM and reached the peak of deposition near LGM time. These observations from MV-23 are valuable evidence for the regional lateral variation of the deposit, documenting the activation and de-activation of the large Moresby Channel system as controlled in part by sea level fluctuations.

Overall, the highest SARs appear to characterize MIS-2 for each basin based on the cores studied herein. No data exist for the Pandora Trough during MIS-3, but core measurements for the Pandora Trough during MIS-1 demonstrate negligible sediment delivery after Melt Water Pulse 1b (Jorry et al., 2008). The Moresby Trough received modest sediment supply from MIS-3 through to MIS-1 and likely to the present, at least as far down-channel as the locations of MV-22 and MV-24, based on ¹⁴C data presented here, and Modern ²¹⁰Pb geochronology of Muhammad et al. (2008).

2.6.4. Later Patterns near the Eastern Shelf-Slope Break

At the same time that sediment supply to the location of MV-54 waned (~14-15 cal ka), sediment supply to the outer shelf and upper slope to the east appears to have increased, based on the analyses of Howell et al. (2014) on cores MV-41, -46, and -49 (near the transition from Pandora Trough to Moresby Trough, where the shelf-edge veers southward and the shelf narrows). These combined observations suggest that sediment supply to the western Pandora Trough may have been cut off by rising sea level ca. 14-15 cal ka, but sediment supply to the deep eastern Pandora and northern Moresby troughs was re-routed and locally increased by changing sediment delivery patterns during the period of transgression.

2.6.5. Controls on Deep Water Sediment Delivery

Previous studies have determined that deep water sedimentation commonly reached its peak in many regions worldwide near the LGM (23-19 cal ka), and de-glacial periods mostly

have been considered non-depositional in deep water (e.g. Muhammad et al., 2008, Bentley et al. 2015). However there is an exception in the Moresby Trough where the evidence from the age model gathered from core MV-22 shows that the turbidite depositional cycle continued until 7.4 cal ka. This age, if correlated with oxygen isotopes excursion curves (Waelbroeck et al., 2002), corresponds to a sea level rise by more than 90 m since the LGM (the outer edge of shelf would have been drowned at 60-100 mbsl). Two possible factors that might account for this late turbidity-current activity are: (1) The shelf-slope setting, where the shelf in the Papuan Peninsula is relatively narrow (30-40 km) and steep, enabling the river mouth easier access to the shelf edge, with a higher gradient to facilitate movement of hyperpycnal flows from the river mouth across the seafloor to the shelf edge (if they were to occur) (Puig et al., 2003), and (2) lack of shelf trapping mechanisms combined with the occurrence of long-shore drift currents which could entrain and deliver sediment from far distant sources, as advocated elsewhere (Normark, 1978, Flood et al, 1991, Posamentier and Kolla, 2003, and Covault et al, 2007; Covault et al., 2011, Howell et al., 2014).

In the GoP area, hydrodynamic processes that developed as the continental shelf was flooded may have helped deliver terrigenous materials to the numerous canyon heads along the Papuan Peninsula shelf margin, and from there into deep water in the Moresby Trough. Previous studies have shown that winds, ocean currents, and waves create clockwise coastal circulation patterns and sediment transport, moving material from the central GoP shelf to the southeast (Wolanski et al., 1995; Keen et al, 2006; Selover et al., 2006; Slingerland et al., 2008). Such processes appear to have been active on the upper slope of the eastern GoP during the latest Pleistocene and earliest Holocene (Howell et al., 2014). Such processes should also be capable of providing sediment to deep basins farther east, along the Papuan Peninsula margin, and onward

to the seabed near MV-22 during the Holocene (Figure 2.12). Possible evidence for this is visible in the greater frequency of sandy beds in core MV22 below depth of ~5 m bsf (Fig. 2.3), which could be the result of gravity driven flows (hyperpycnal or turbidity currents or a combination of the two) that are probably more effective at delivering coarse fluvial sediments to the slope than are hypopycnal flows of suspended sediment. This cross shelf flux would have likely been enhanced by potential contributions of hyperpycnal discharge from nearby small mountainous rivers; such flows have not been documented from these rivers, but their size, likely sediment yield, and catchment geometry makes them good candidates for such flows (Milliman, 1995). However, because of the distance separating most cores from the shelf edge and river mouths, and the lack of detailed knowledge for all of these catchments through time, the role of hyperpycnal flows remains speculative.

2.6.6. Spatial integration of sediment accumulation through time

By using SARS for each environmental combined by the predicted affected depositional area (e.g. shelf plain and shelf edge (MV-54): 19,230 sq km, minibasin (MV-33): 1,646 sq km, toe of slope (MV-23): 2,748 sq km, Moresby channel and basin floor (MV-22, MV-25and MV-29): 3,352 sq km and sea rise in Eastern Field plateau (MV-27): 2,355 sq km) sediment accumulation rate for for each MIS can be estimated, reported in m³/y (values in parentheses are mass accumulation in millions of t/y, assuming average sediment bulk density of 1.5 g/cm³ as indicated in Fig. 2.3). In MIS-3 the total accumulation is 2.3 million m³/yr (3.45); in MIS-2 including the LGM the total sediment budget is 145 million m³/yr (219); and in MIS-1 the total sediment budget is 3.8 million m³/yr (5.7) (Table 2.4). Comparison of these accumulation rates with Milliman's (1995) estimated discharge from northern GoP rivers of 365 million t/yr

suggests that the locus of major sediment accumulation is strongly modulated by sea level change, even though more detailed analysis does suggest continued local sediment delivery to the deep sea during highstand conditions (e.g., MV-22, Figs. 2.4, 2.12).

2.7. Conclusions

Six lithofacies across the deep water Gulf of Papua (GoP) are identified based on core visual and textural observation. Chronological constraints permit an assessment of changes in sediment supply and depositional environments across time and space, from MIS 3 to MIS 1. The sediment delivery to the deep water GoP is dominated by two mechanisms, gravity-driven flows down slopes and into deep sea basin primarily during lowstands in western portions of the study area, and hemipelagic sediment accumulation during transgression and highstand. Although the sediment flux appears to be overall dominated by sediment gravity flows, hemipelagic sediment delivery is widespread during periods of sea level highstand. In eastern portions of the study area, off-shelf sediment delivery continued into the Holocene in sufficient local volumes to produce turbidity currents. This late, localized sediment delivery appears to have been facilitated by oceanographic processes that allowed seaward sediment transport after flooding of the shelf.

In summary, deep water sedimentation during the late Pleistocene and Holocene in the Gulf of Papua is characterized by mostly fine sediment delivery, controlled by a combination of fluvial discharge, local morphology and oceanographic processes. This modern analog differs in its complexity from traditional highstand-lowstand sediment-delivery paradigms, in Moresby Trough, sediment delivery continued through late Holocene transgression, creating a coalescing high-stand fan system.



Figure 2.12. Hypothetical depositional model. (a) The channel system was initiated at the lowstand of sea level. (b) During the MIS-1 highstand of sea level, the sedimentation in the western part of GoP (Pandora Trough system) probably ceased; however, deposition in the eastern part of the GoP (Moresby Trough system) still continues although with a slower depositional rate.

Lithofacies Division	General Core description	log character	x-radiograph	Petrographic	Core example
Lithofacies-1	Mud dominated, dark greenish thin mud underlain by silt and dark-	corrected fining unword	varve interlaminated between light (higher density) and	dark mud, no distinct variation,	MV-22, MV-54
	blackish sand	serrated, ming upward	dark (lower density) sediment		
Lithofacies-2	Dark grey to blackish colored layers of varied thickness, fining upward	typically saw-tooth or bell shaped with thick	Laminated sediment, intensely burrowed	sharp contact, appear	MV-23, MC-24
Litilolacies-2	Sheet-shape sand geometry, thin silty mud lenses	sand layer in the bottom part		erosional, grain orientation	
Lithofacies-3	Sand dominated, thin sand lenses intercalated in thick mud. The sand is	thin hell shaped sometimes snike	distinct lamination of thin sand, fairly burrowed, bidirectional	lenses of sand with distint termination	MV-22
	fine grained	unit ben shaped sometimes spike	termination of sand		
Lithofacies-4	calcareous mud and sand, light grey to cream colored mud, biogenic	serated and low density	light colored thick sand, intensively burrowed	sand are bioclast with skeletal fragment	MV-33, MV-23
	dominated with fecal pellet, traces of shell and foraminiferal test	Scrated and low density			
Lithofacies-5	slightly laminated dark grey mud with moderate to intense bioturbation	ightly serated	dark low density sediment, with some thin sand lamination	thinly laminated mud	MV-27
Entitionacies-5					
Lithofacies-6	semi-mottled apearance, varying distinct deformation, or massive without	tabular and blocky log with coarsening	mostly shows irregular sand shape	n/a	MV-27
	any distinct layering	upward pattern			

Table 2.3.

No	Environmental	affected area	Jumbo Piston Cores							SARS (cm/yr)			Sediment Budget (thousand m3)		
		(sq km)	MV-22	MV-23	MV-25	MV-27	MV-29	MV-33	MV-54	MIS-3	MIS-2	MIS-1	MIS-3	MIS-2	MIS-1
1	Moresby Channel and Basin Floor	3,352	Х		Х		Х			0.028	0.028	0.023	938.56	938.56	770.96
2	Pandora Trough toe of slope	2,748		Х						0.043	0.057	0.014	1,181.64	1,566.36	384.72
3	Pandora shelf break and slope	19,230							Х	n/a	0.057	0.012	n/a	10,961.10	2,307.60
4	Minibasin	1,646						Х		n/a	0.08	0.0129	n/a	131,680.00	212.33
5	Sea rise in Eastern Field Plateau	2,335				Х				0.008	0.008	0.008	186.80	186.80	186.80
										Tot	tal	2,307.00	145,332.82	3,862.41	

Table-2.4.

2.8. References

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CHAPTER 3

Late Quaternary Geomorphology, Seabed Evolution, and Terrigenous Sediment Delivery to the Pandora and Moresby Troughs, Gulf of Papua

3.1. Introduction

The study of seabed morphology can provide valuable insights regarding formative sedimentary processes. Because deep-sea sedimentary processes range greatly in terms of temporal and spatial scales over which they operate, morphological analysis to infer formative process may be more elucidating than attempts to directly study the relevant processes. This study presents the 3D visualization, analysis and interpretation of seabed morphology, stratigraphy, and sediment acoustic characteristics derived from sub-bottom sonar data and sediment cores collected during the 2004 PANASH cruise of the R/V Melville in the Gulf of Papua (GoP) (Dickens et al., 2006), and multibeam data collected and gridded during that and other cruises (Figure 3.1a) (Daniell, 2008). The GoP, with associated large river systems and deep ocean basins was selected as a focus area for the US-NSF MARGINS Source to Sink (S2S) Program (NSF MARGINS, 2004), owing to the large terrigenous sediment flux, the presence of active sedimentary processes in fluvial, shelf, and deep-sea settings, and the relatively closed nature of the system over millennial timescales, through its connection to the Coral Sea abyssal plain.

This continental margin receives large terrigenous sediment flux (331 million tonnes/ year) (Milliman, 1995) from rivers that have low anthropogenic and deforestation impacts in the upstream area. The shelf and slope exhibit morphological gradients from the wide gentle shelf-slope setting in the Pandora Trough to the narrow-steep shelf-slope setting in the Moresby Trough, which have all been progressively drowned since the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM)

(23-19 cal ka). The shelf-slope depositional complex built extremely rapidly during the Neogene, and contains hydrocarbon systems that are presently being exploited (Tcherepanov et al., 2008). This area has been intensively sampled and investigated with multibeam bathymetric data collection, 3.5 kHz seismic profiling, and core collection, and thus provides an excellent "natural laboratory" for analog study of the dynamic processes associated with sediment delivery and deposition. This rich data archive (Dickens et al., 2006) allows a rare opportunity to study the evolution of a regional deepwater depositional system at fine temporal and spatial resolution (centennial-millennial time scale, centimeter to meter sedimentary thickness) over approximately the last 40 cal ka (Chapter 2 of this study), a degree of documentation that is not possible in many deepwater studies. The main objectives of this study are to study seabed and shallow subsurface morphology, stratigraphy, and sediments, so as to infer active sedimentary processes over space and time. These observations will allow identification of primary pathways, timing, and mode of sediment delivery across the study area, over the past ~40 ky.

This study will first assess the descriptive morphology of the two major contrasting depocentres in the GoP (Pandora and Moresby troughs), with their associated canyons, channels and slopes, by integrating a published bathymetric grid (Daniel, 2008) with 3.5 kHz seismic data to generate a general acoustic facies classification and distribution map. Core data (Chapter 2 of this study) will then be used to relate lithofacies to acoustic facies, and elucidate detailed depositional processes at work in the area. Previous study has concentrated on linking seafloor geomorphology with broad inferred patterns of sediment delivery and accumulation (Francis et al, 2008). The present will build on the work of Francis et al. (2008) by use of a much more extensive chronostratigraphic framework (Chapter 2 of this study), and much more detailed



Figure 3.1 (a) Base map of the study area. The topographic map is created using bathymetric data compiled by Daniell (2008) and is overlayed with various data available for the study (jumbo piston cores and multi cores; multi-beam bathymetric data, sub-bottom profile data). Annotations shows figures used in this thesis. **(b)** 3D perspective view showing major morphological depocentres in the Gulf of Papua (notes the two subdivisions of Pandora Trough and Moresby Fan).

Regionally there are five morphological basins in the modern Gulf of Papua and adjacent northern Coral Sea (Figure 3.1b and 3.1d) (Francis et al., 2008; Daniell, 2008):

(1) The Bligh Trough forms the southwestern boundary of the study area, and is the eastern border of the Great Barrier Reef and the southwestern terminus of the Pandora Trough and southern terminus of the Ashmore Trough. It is oriented North-South with water depth ranging from 1500 - 2300 meters.

(2) The Coral Sea Basin is a wide abyssal plain covering an area of 100,000 km², with water depth ranging between 2500 to more than 4500 m. It is the most distal and deepest area of the Gulf of Papua and is interpreted as the ultimate depositional sink, connected to the Papuan mainland and peninsula by Moresby Channel.

(3) The Ashmore Trough to the west is the smallest basin and depocentre $(2,009 \text{ km}^2)$ and has water depth ranging of 500 - 900 m. This depocentre is surrounded by elongated semi-drowned carbonate platforms (Tcherepanov et al., 2008) that grew on the top of the northeast-southwest oriented structural ridges (Ashmore Reef to the east, Boot Reef and Portlock Reef to the north-northwest, and the Great Barrier Reef to the west).

(4) The Pandora Trough is the largest basin and depocentre in the northern GoP, covering 17,350 km^2 , located parallel to the toe of the slope of the Gulf of Papua's continental shelf margin. It is elongated through south-southwest – north-northeast, with water depth of 1500 - 2000 m, with an extensive continental shelf adjacent to the basin.

(5) The Moresby Trough is elongated north-northwest – south-southeast direction and covers an area of 6,300 km² parallel with the adjacent Papuan Peninsula, with water depth of 2000-2500 m. It has an open northwestern boundary with the Pandora Trough (roughly along the 2000 m isobath), and feeds into Moresby Channel to the south, which connects this basin with the Coral





Figure 3.1 (c) Bathymetric map of the area (Daniell, 2008) in gray-scale shows regional extent of the Gulf of Papua and five morphological basin in the area, Bligh Trough (BT), Coral Sea Basin (CSB), Ashmore Trough (AT), Pandora Trough (PT), Moresby Trough (MT) and Eastern Field reef (EFR); this thesis is only focused in Pandora Trough and Moresby Trough (d) Sun-shaded bathymetric map (sun direction is toward NE) overlayed with sub-bottom track-line (purple line), jumbo piston cores (green filled circle) and multi-cores (red empty circle).

Sea Basin. This trough is fenced by adjacent mature canyons, which are 2.5 - 8 km wide and 300 - 700 m deep with steep slopes (up to 10.5° or 185 m/km).

This study will focus on seafloor morphology and sedimentary processes in two of these basins: the Pandora and Moresby troughs, extending from shelf break to the basin floor, in order to evaluate the most prominent pathways for sediment delivery from the northern GoP shelf edge to the deeper Coral Sea to the south.

3.2. Geologic Setting

The Pandora and Moresby Troughs are tectonic elements of the Papuan basin, and have existed as active depocentres since early Cenozoic time. The Papuan basin was originally part of Northern Australian margin which evolved from a passive margin with complex rifting episodes from early Mesozoic (Pigram and Pangabean, 1984) to the Paleocene (Weissel and Watts, 1979, Pigram and Symonds, 1991), forming an epicontinental sea with active foreland basin in Middle Oligocene (Pigram et al., 1989). Anti-clockwise rotation of New Guinea against the Northern Australian Queensland Plateau caused spreading that has been active since late Eocene and ceased before late Oligocene (Gardner, 1970), creating the Coral Sea abyssal plain to the south and the Pandora and Moresby troughs to the north, which are separated by plateaus (Eastern Plateau, Papuan Plateau and Queensland Plateau) (Figures 3.1a and b.).

Continued northward movement of the northern edge of the Australian craton caused a collision between the New Guinea plate with the Southern Pacific subduction complex, which consists of several arcs, oceanic plateaus and micro-plates (Pigram and Davies, 1987, Pigram et al., 1989). That collision marked a temporal transition from passive margin to the active foreland margin in Middle Oligocene. This movement was also responsible for the development of the Papuan fold belt and foreland basin immediately to the south of the collision range (Figure 3.2).


The trough remained sediment-starved from late Oligocene to late Miocene. Lack of the terrigenous siliciclastic input enabled the development of carbonate platforms on the south-southwest of the area. In Late Miocene rapid siliciclastic deposition fed the foredeep, which overflowed and inundated the carbonate growth in the northeastern margin (Tcherepanov et al., 2008). During Pliocene time, carbonate development in this locale ceased and shifted southward beyond the reach of the siliciclastic sources, where reefs continue to grow (e.g., the Great Barrier Reef, and barrier reefs along the GoP coast of the Papuan Peninsula) (Pigram, et al., 1989).

3.3 Methodology

High frequency (3.5 kHz) seismic profiles and 12-30 kHz multibeam data were obtained during the R/V Melville cruises in the Gulf of Papua in 2004 (Francis et al., 2008). These data were used to help develop a new regional bathymetric grid (Daniell, 2008) of 3.6 arc-second cell size (approximately 110 meters grid), incorporating data from other sources. For the present study, the Daniell (2008) grid was exported using Fledermaus-Avgrid into ASCII files, then imported as a horizon into Schlumberger Petrel for the primary visualization surface. The 3.5 kHz seismic lines in Knudsen extended binary (KEB) were firstly segmented according to their depth window in SounderSuite - Post Survey, and exported as SEG-Y data. The SEG-Y data were then imported to Petrel as 8 byte seismic data. The jumbo piston core data were logged shipboard by scientific team during the cruise using a Geotek Multi-sensor core logger (MSCL). The log data are modified into Log ASCII Standard (LAS) and imported into Petrel, to tie them into corresponding seismic data. The 2060 km of 3.5 kHz sub-bottom profile acquired during 2004 R/V Melville cruise provide a high resolution seismic image to a maximum depth of about 100 m, which is sufficient to observe and correlate echo boundaries with most of the jumbo piston core data markers.

The acoustic facies interpretation is made based on seismic characterization, relief roughness of the seafloor surface, characteristic reflective strength, penetration, sub-bottom reflector and internal reflector characteristics, linked with characteristics of nearby jumbo piston cores or multi-cores, where available. The classification scheme is adapted from several previous classification schemes (e.g. Damuth and Hayes, 1977, Jacobi and Hayes, 1992, Chough et al., 1997, Gee et al., 1999, Cronin et al, 2005), and is selectively tailored to reflect much detail of

available character specific to the Gulf of Papua seafloor. Each assigned class was digitized in segments with starting and ending nodes readable in MapInfo or Arc-Info format.

Chronostratigraphy is mainly based on age models from radiocarbon analysis of Chapter 2 of this study, augmented by radiocarbon dates from previous studies (Febo et al., 2008; Jorry et al., 2008; Patterson, 2006) (Figure 3.3).

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Depositional Boundaries from Visualization

<u>Pandora Trough</u>: visually, this basin has indistinct geometry with open boundaries to southeast and southwest. Therefore, in order to delineate this trough, boundaries were derived from the interpolation of regional features and manifested relief from structural ridges and the interpretation from the 3.5 kHz sub-bottom profile. Based on these features, this trough can be separated into two parts that appear to relate to sediment delivery and depositional architecture (Figures 3.1a, b, c and d.).

Pandora Trough sub-basin-1 (2,470 km²) is southernmost and is a closed/confined basin with a channel system fed from shelf break to the centre of the basin (Figure 3.1b). The average gradient based along shelf-to-basin transects is $7.5^{\circ} - 5^{\circ}$ (131 m/km – 87 m/km) on the upper slope, $2^{\circ} - 1.5^{\circ}$ (34.9m/km-26m/km) on the middle slope and 0.5° (8.7 m/km) at the toe of slope. Lower gradients are associated with the mini-basin occurrence; however gradients measured as high as 21° (383 m/km) are evident from the canyon steep walls.

Pandora Trough sub basin-2 (14,880 Km²) (Figure 3.1b) lies adjacent to the Pandora shelf with three distinct morphologies: (a) steep gullies and structural ridges in the southern part, (b) rough surfaces with highly irregular topography in the north-northwest part of the sub basin and (c) a relatively smooth and undisturbed seafloor in between (a) and (b).



the core (e.g. 10 Ka) also considering the peak of Ca from XRF scan data of cores MV-22, MV-25, MV-23 and MV-33

The structural ridge in (a) is oriented southwest-northeast with steep slopes of $19 - 35^{\circ}$ (344 – 700 m/km), with heights of 200 - 700 m above the seafloor. The dated dredge sample (MV-36) suggests that this ridge is a drowned Miocene carbonate with an age of approximately 20 Ma (Francis et al, 2008, Tcherepanov et al., 2008).

<u>Moresby Trough</u>: in contrast with the Pandora Trough, the shelf and slope adjacent to the Moresby Trough is narrow and steep with a U-shaped mature canyon and an average topographic height (from the canyon base to the top of channel ridge) of 600 m and width of 3000 m. Morphology the toe of slope includes a distinct fan feature, which is aligned in a parallel direction with the ridge. Moresby Trough can be divided into two areas: the upper part, which connects with the Pandora Trough, and the lower part, which merges abruptly with the seafloor in 2000 meters deep and receives terrigenous sediment from the Papuan Peninsula (see also Figures 3.1a, b, c and d).

3.4.2 Acoustic Facies Classification

The acoustic facies classification consists of three major facies groups: non-stratified echocharacters, stratified echo-characters and echo-characters with rough or undulating relief. Stratification in sediment was assessed from sub-bottom reflectors whereas the depositional and erosional relief was determined from hyperbolae's shapes and vertices on the seafloor surface (Table 1 and 2). For clarity and continuity, interpretation of sedimentary environment follows each facies description in Table 2 and figure 3.4a to 3.4l.

Group	Facies Class	Description	Example	Core	Interpretation
1	la	Non Stratified, gentle - moderate steep relief Strong flat non prolonged seafloor echo with low penetration (15-40 meter)		MV-24 MV-26 MV-28 MV-29	hard surface probably thinner sheet shapes debris flow overlayed by Thick muddy hemipelagic layer
	1b	Strong flat highly prolonged seafloor echo deep penetration (100 meter or more)		n/a	alternating turbidite/ debris with thick hemipelagic layer, mature seafloor with no/ low rate depositional
	1c	Strong irregular highly prolonged seafloor echo deep penetration (100 meter or more)		n/a	rough surface, fine grained mass transport deposits or thick debris flow layer
2	2a	Stratified gentle - moderate steep relief Strong flat seafloor echo with weak- transparent sub-bottom reflector, medium to deep penetration (40-more than 100 meter)		MV-19 MV-41 MV-46	hard surface overlied by muddy turbidite or muddy hemipelagic layer
	2b	Strong continous seafloor echo, with continous sub-bottom reflector, with stratigraphic event termination		MV-23 MV-27 MV-33 MV-66	sheet shape turbidte layer, confined, distal part of fan or channel fill deposit
3	3a	Highly Undulating relief weak to strong single seafloor echo with overlaping hyperbolae, weak to semi prolonged, no sub-bottom reflector, low penetration		MV-54	slump (?) or muddy channel levee system or MTC
	3b	Strong seafloor echo, irregular surface, highly prolonged, with close space intensely overlaping hyperbolae	Marcara A	n/a	conical shape might resemble coherence block from mass transport deposits.
	3с	Strong seafloor echo, continous paralel sub-bottom reflector, with overlaping broad hyperbolae		MV-36 (dredge)	carbonate platform or structural ridge
	3d	Strong seafloor echo continous paralel sub-bottom reflector, slightly overlaping or no overlaping.		MV-22	sheet shape turbidite in fan or channel levee
	Зе	Transparent lens/convex shapes, with strong or weak echo on the base	Service and the service of the servi	n/a	mud drape over small basin or muddy channelized deposits or muddy debris/ slump





Figure 3.4 (a) 3.5 kHz section 0007_2004_080 shows seafloor on Moresby channel with a medium sound penetration without parallel sub-bottom reflector, interpreted as acoustic facies 1a. Facies 1a change gradually into acoustic facies 3e, where the steep gully wall is prone to slumping and facies 3d toward ENE, showing layering with 0.5 - 2 m bed thickness. In contrast, toward WSW the facies changes into acoustic facies 1b. The channel seafloor was interpreted as a high impedance surface (probably silt or coarser grained materials) with strong bottom current, influenced by erosional processes.



(b) 3.5 kHz section 0007_2004_080 is showing acoustic facies 1c which changes laterally into acoustic facies 2b toward SW. Facies 1c is interpreted as seafloor with strong bottom current and dominated by erosional processes. Acoustic facies 2b was interpreted as fan shaped deposits, which are located downslope from the mouth of a mature canyon adjacent to the Papuan Peninsula.

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(c) 3.5 kHz profile 0005_2004_079 (left) and 0005_2004_087 (d, right) shows a typical characteristic of the facies 2a, with a strong flat seafloor echo and a weak-transparent sub bottom reflector. The shelf marginupper slope break deposits (section 0005_2004_079, left) show a strong reflector approximately 30 m below the seafloor, which is interpreted as a hard surface as a result of erosional processes, likely develop when sub-aerially exposed during sea level fall. The shelf plain deposit (section 0005_2004_087, right) shows a distinct layering of what is probably fine sand or silt that are deposited in the shelf edge delta (The straight lines to the left are artifacts produced by the ship while holding station).



(e) 3.5 kHz profile 0004_2004_085 showing an acoustic facies 2b draped over acoustic facies 1c, the facies showing a distinct layering of 1 - 5 m layers, facies 2b thickness controlled by relief on the buried facies 1c surface (> 75 m in the thickest place). To the ESE and WNW the layer terminates by onlap termination.



(f) 3.5 kHz profile 0006_2004_090 shows acoustic facies 3a in the upper slope of the Pandora Trough. The facies shows slightly overlapping small hyperbolae 2 - 10 m high and 20 - 40 m wide. This facies is interpreted as a small channel levee system on the slope. The v shape is due to the track-line trajectories.



(g) 10. 3.5 kHz profile 0007_2004_091 (above) and 0004_2004_085 (below) (h) shows the typical character of acoustic facies 3b, which has an irregular surface and a highly prolonged echo with closed space overlapping hyperbolae. The dip direction on lineaments provides a clue to whether it is compressional (g) or extensional (h).



(i) 3.5 kHz profile 0004_2004_085 showing character of acoustic facies 3c with continuous parallel sub-bottom reflector with broad hyperbolae, interpreted as the remnant of the structural ridge. Between the mini-basins, a package of sediment is evident that resembles acoustic facies 2b



(j) 3.5 kHz section 0007_2004_080 shows strong seafloor echo with semi-continuous sub bottom reflector.



(k) The seismic-core tie between section 0007_{2004}_{080} with core MV-22 density log, interpreted stratigraphy, and calibrated ages, showing good correlation between the density contrast creates by sand layering with the seismic reflectors (red curve = gamma-density, yellow curve = magnetic susceptibility index, black curve = seismic wiggle plot of 3.5 KHz sub-bottom profile).



(I) 3.5 kHz section 0007_2004_091 showing the transparent lens shape in facies 3e is interpreted as slump deposit. The irregular surface with small hyperbolae toward NNE (upslope) is correlated with acoustic facies 3a, suggesting the process originated as one single large mass transported deposit with head detached and slumping downslope. The weak reflector in the base of the slump suggests the lack of density contrast between the slump body and the basin floor.

Ν	o. Facies code and accoustic description	Sediment characters in core	Interpretation
	Facies 1a shows a non-stratified seafloor with very shallow sound penetration (<30 m) and medium to low prolonged echo (section 0007_2004_080, Figure 4a.). This characteristic was found only on the deeper basin floor or channel floor in the middle part of the study area in the Moresby Trough.	This acoustic facies was sampled by multicores MV24, 26, 28 and jumbo piston cores MV29. Multicore MV24 shows a vertical succession of hemipelagic mud and cross lamination fine grained sand that are partially crosscut by distinct horizontal and vertical burrows. MV26 (2232 mbsl) consists of a hemipelagic mud layer with mottled appearance overlying a layer of coarse and poorly sorted muddy lithic sand with oriented grains (This thesis, chapter 2). MV28 (45 cm in length) retrieved from 2426 mbsl, possibly only penetrates the surficial hemipelagic mud drape. It contains a layer of hemipelagic mud overlying a series of 9 fine grained sand layers, 1.5-20 cm thickness, with the sand showing a tendency to thicken downward.	The sharp non prolonged sub-bottom echo exhibits no sound absorption and the surface acts as an acoustic isolator, thus, the affected area could be interpreted as prevailing coarse grained and high impedance lithologysuch as sand or silty sand (e.g. Pratson and Laine, 1989, Chough et al., 1997, Cronin et al., 2005). These observations are consistent with a hard, reflective seafloor covered with thick mud drapes. This accoustic facies is interpreted as channel floor in figure 3.5
	Practes 1b is non-stratified to semi-stratified seafloor with semi prolonged This facies has been observed particularly in the proximal and middle section of the Moresby Channel suggesting the deposition of coarse grained materials from gravity-induced flows followed by periods of hemipelagic accumulation from suspension to the present day. seafloor echo and a medium to deep sound penetration (60~100 meters), which is decreasing downward. This echo facies has been observed in axial and marginal regions of Moresby Channel mostly associated with convergent relief such as gentle bulges or saddle topography (Figure 4a.).	Not penetrated by core	Multibeam bathymetric data shows that this factes is mostly located in convergent relief such as gentle bulges or saddle topography where the bottom current processes creates more optimal erosional than the depositional processes. The echo character suggests flat ground with medium to coarse grained materials overlain by thin muddy or fine grained deposits with presumably low to moderate depositional rates. The semi-stratified features suggest two possibilities: either (1) the extensive presence of sandy or silty turbidite layers (more sand abundance than in facies 1a) or (2) the bottom current has totally swept the recent seafloor mud and exposed an older and coarser layer to the seafloor surface. (Figure 4a. which shows this facies associated with facies 1a, 3d and 3e). This facies is interpreted as levee deposit in figure 3.5.
	Facies 1c shows a very prolonged bottom echo with no sub-bottom reflector, and an irregular seafloor surface. This character has a medium to deep sound penetration (40 - >100 m) and is found mostly within water depth of 1350 - 1780 m on the middle slope with an average slope gradient of 0.52°. The small hyperbolae observed are generally less than 20 m wide, but some exceed 50 m wide (Figure 4b.).	Not penetrated by core	This facies is interpreted to cover a total area of 780 km ² most of which is included in the Pandora slope system (Figure 1b.). The small hyperbolae feature could be interpreted as small sutures within chaotic mass transport deposits (MTDs), implied by the rugged topography and relief. Section 0007_2004_080 (Figure 4b., see also Figure 4e.) shows that this facies is covered by sheet-like turbidite deposits (facies 2b) of the back levée depositional system in Moresby Channel. This facies interpreted as fine grained mass transport or debris flow or the buried MTD's surface (Fig 3.5.)
	Facies 2a shows a distinct seafloor echo with a strong sub-bottom echo overlain by an acoustically transparent layer. It shows several weak to semi-continuous sub-bottom reflectors with a thickness of 2-5 m. The total transparent layer thickness is 40 m. This facies occurs mostly on the shelf edge of the northwest slope of the Pandora Trough and is more sparsely distributed on the Papuan Peninsula shelf edge (Figure 4c and 4d.).	Core MV-41, located in the shelf edge (92 mbsl) is consolidated mud, with little or no lamination, and intensive burrowing in the first 30 cm from the surface. Multi core MV19 (only penetrated 50 cm from seafloor) acquired from shelf break in the corner between Pandora-Moresby Troughs, with water depth of 229 mbsl, shows mottled silty mud layers mixed with fine to medium sand and no evident layering. Multi core MV-50 (only penetrated 50 cm below seafloor) from the upper slope (795 mbsl) shows finer sediments (silt to mud) with no distinct layering. Both MV19 and MV50 are intensely bioturbated (chapter 2 of this thesis).	The strong and very prolonged sub-bottom echo is interpreted as impedance-contrast boundary (possibly an erosional surface, coarse grained lag deposits or non-depositional horizon) overlying younger unconsolidated sediment. This suggests that in the past, this area has undergone a major erosional or weathering event: either subaqueous turbidity flows or debris flows, or subaerial exposure (this facies appears in some locations at water depths roughly coincident with sea level of the LGM in the region; Howell et al., 2014). This facies appears to cover the area of active sedimentation in the upper slope of the Pandora Trough (5,825 km ²). The echo-character of this facies gradually changes downslope to a more transparent surface layer with the virtual disappearance of the sub-bottom reflectors: this suggests more mud-dominated materials downslope. This facies is interpreted as shelfal deposit in Figure 3.5.
	Facies 2b shows either flat or convex seafloor surface, with a strong continuous seafloor echo and a continuous sub-bottom reflector, which can be traced for tens of kilometers. It is also shows as patchy flat surface deposit with the distinct stratigraphic termination (e.g. onlap or downlap) which borders facies 3c (Figure 4e.). Sound penetration commonly exceeds 100 m. This facies is found in the transitional area between the Pandora and Moresby Troughs (near 2000 m depth), and in the toe of the Eastern Field Carbonate Platform (between the slope in Pandora and carbonate platform).	This unit is penetrated by cores MV-23, 25, 27, 33 and 66, all of which contain successions of turbidites, dominantly sandy with interbedded muds (Jorry et al., 2008; chapter 2 this thesis).	This unit is interpreted as continuous sheet-like turbidite deposits alternating with hemipelagic mud layers (Fig 3.5.). The echo-character, which was ground verified with core data, shows a disagreement with the previous references (e.g. Damuth and Hayes, 1977 and Chough et al., 1997), which associate this echo- character with mud dominated layered deposit intercalated with very thin sand layers. However, our ground truth indicates that sandy layers >40 cm thick are also common.
	Facies 3a shows a moderate to strong single seafloor echo with a weak to medium prolonged sub bottom echo with overlapped hyperbolae (30 - 55 m wide). This unit lacks stratificationand has sound penetration of 10 - 20 m. This unit is found mostly near moderate to steep walls or gullies (e.g. at coordinates 146.726E, 9.629S within Moresby Fan and at coordinates 146.249E, 10.030S in proximal area of Moresby canyon) (Figure 4f.).		This unit is interpreted as high-impedance relatively undisturbed seabed. Several local small hyperbolae with v shape vertex below or above the average seafloor also exist in the area and can be interpreted as either channelized slope or developed levee in the slope system (Figure. 41). In facies map (Fig 3.5.) this facies is interpreted as undisturbed seafloor (grey color).
	 Facies 3b is the most prominent facies of the Pandora slope. It shows a strong seafloor echo with a highly irregular surface, with non-stratified and highly prolonged sub bottom echo with closed space and intensely overlapping hyperbolae (17-25 m wide) (Figure. 4g and 4h). No cores are available to verify the lithology and sedimentary structure of this facies. 		The conical shape in the seafloor is 15-35 m high and resembles: an individual coherent block embedding in a MTD, or open crevasses. The chaotic internal echo characters reflect internal heterogeneities (Figure 4g, and 4h.). In plan-view, seabed bathymetry allows discrimination among these three types of features: parallel crescentic shape pointing downslope resemble pressure ridges (Figure. 4g.); parallel crescentic shape solving upslope could represent rotational blocks or just a random line such as in extensional gashes (Figure 4h.). The extensional gashes were dominant in the upper and middle slope where the slope is higher than 1.12 ⁹ , whereas imbrications are prominent in the toe of the slope or the basin floor where the gradient is low/flat, or where the flow is blocked by the remnant of carbonate platform (see further discussion and Figure 8b.). This facies is interpreted as mass transported deposit (MTD) in figure-3.5.
	Faces of shows a strong searbor echo; continuous paratic sub-bottom reflector and broad overlapping hyperbolae (ranging between 300 - 800 m wide) (Figure 4i.). No cores are available to verify the lithology and sedimentary structure of this facies.		This found in the randora frough and is observed as inteaments with a major orientation of SSW – NNE in the South western part of the Pandora Trough and SSE – NNW in the North eastern part of the Pandora Trough (Figure 1b. and Figure 4i.). The rugged relief with height of 50 - 150 m and strong echo reflectors suggests an erosional landscape with a hard seafloor surface. This leads us to an interpretation for this facies as outcropped structural ridges. The dredge sample acquired from the Eastern Field Platform (MV-36) confirmed this facies as the drowned Miocene carbonate platform (Tcherepanov et al., 2008), see Fig 3.5.
	Facies 3d shows a strong seafloor echo, a continuous parallel sub- bottom reflector and slightly overlapping hyperbolae. This unit is found exclusively in the Moresby Trough near toe of the slope of the Papuan Peninsula. The sub-bottom reflectors are parallel and follow the undulatory pattern of the seafloor surface. The strike-parallel seismic section (0007_2004_080) shows narrow non uniform peak hyperbolae (35 - 60 m wide) and approximately 3 - 11 m high from the baseline (Figure 4j).	This acoustic facies is penetrated by core MV-22, which contains hemipelagic mud at the seabed, apparently related to the first break in the seismic data (Figure 4k.). Below hemipelagic mud, a muddy turbidite succession of nine sand layers (5-10 cm thick) is intercalated with very thin sand lenses. The core contains 4.2 % sand overall.	The narrow non-uniform peaked hyperbolae could be interpreted either as sediment wave features or ridge created by bottom current or gravity driven flow, respectively. The multibeam bathymetric data shows contour-parallel lineaments inside the large fan shaped features (see the details in further discussion). Thes features persist laterally tens of kilometers and geometrically resemble a large fan system. The system covers an area of 4,672 km ² of area and volume of 50.5 km^3 by trapezoidal volume calculation, assuming a sediment thickness of 200 m (e.g. base of fan in -2085 mbsl from seismic profile 0007_2004_080) in the upper fan or proximal area, and 25 meters in the lower fan or in the distal area. This facies is interpreted as sediment wave in Fig. 3.5.
1	 Facies 3e shows a transparent lens with convex up sediment geometry, an irregular base, a strong to moderate echo with shallow (less than 30 m) sound penetration (section 0007_2004_091, Figure 41.). The lens 	JPC MV54 (924 mbsl) in the Pandora Trough slope and MV-49 located in Moresby Trough slope (862 mbsl) contains muddy layers interbedded with three thin medium – fine grained sand layers on the upper part which are interpreted as thin sheet-flow deposits (overall core contains 4.7 % sand).	This unit is often found in a stacking arrangement (e.g. at coordinates 145.867E, 8.648S) and deposited in confined regions (e.g. at coordinates 145.899E, 8.841S and 145.716E, 8.743S). In the plan view the head-scarp is mostly associated with scalloped features (Francis et al., 2008) and occur in the shelf edge with water death of 270, 1200 m. This scatter is the prior the plan to the scale of the shelf edge with

shows downlap termination in the lower part of slope parted with the	water depth of 270 -1500 m. This acoustic factos unit was interpreted as a sitump deposit with a distinct
headwall scarp features in the upper slope. No cores are available to	headwall scarp (Figure 41.). This facies is interpreted as muddy slump produced from shelf deposit (Fig
verify the lithology and sedimentary structure of this facies.	3.5.).

Table 3.2 Summary of acoustic facies description, sediment characters in core and interpretation

3.4.3 Seafloor Facies Distribution

The interpreted facies are plotted on the corresponding sub-bottom track-line, placed into geo-referenced spreadsheet entries, and extrapolated to create a map of the generalized facies distribution on the seafloor (Figure 3.5). The map shows that some of the facies distributions are strongly associated with specific ranges of water depth. Acoustic facies 2a occurs from the shelf-edge to 150-450 mbsl, and acoustic facies 1a and 1b occur in water depth >2000 m. Local relief is also associated with facies distribution; the slope of the Pandora Trough is characterized by acoustic facies 3b and 1c (interpreted as a series of mass transport deposits (MTDs), the latter considered to be the older and finer grained MTDs) then grades into facies 3e where the seafloor slope gradients become gentler. In the carbonate platform toe of slope, the flat seafloor surface is characterized by acoustic facies 2b which appears to conform to the Pandora depocentre of ponded turbidites.

Although some facies are associated with particular seabed sediment type and grain size (e.g. facies 1a and 1b) that might be directly controlled by depositional processes, the lithology of the seafloor is not always strongly correlated with a particular facies class. The Moresby Trough slope is characterized by acoustic facies 3d with the Northwest-Southeast orientation interpreted as the remnant of structural ridge. The remnants of high relief features with the same characteristics are also found in the seafloor adjacent to the Pandora Trough slope which is confirmed from the dredge core sample as the drowned Miocene carbonate with Southwest-Northeast orientation (Tcherepanov et al., 2008).



Figure 3.5 Generalized facies map extrapolated from the 3.5 kHz sub-bottom profile character integrated with multibeam bathymetric and core data. Seismic lines and core locations are more clearly visible in Fig. 3.1. Facies numbers and descriptions are indicated in Table 2.

3.5. Discussion

3.5.1 Depositional Elements

Based on integrated acoustic facies mapping and core analysis, we can extend our understanding of seabed processes and products into the subsurface. There are five large seabed morphological elements we consider to be the most striking depositional features in the study area: mass transport deposits (MTDs) in the (1) Pandora Trough slope and (2) Moresby Channel, (3) sheet-like turbidites in the Northern Pandora Trough toe of slope, (4) sediment wave-like features in the Moresby Trough toe of slope, and (5) ponded turbidites in the Pandora basin/depocentre. The ponded turbidites have been evaluated in detail by Jorry et al. (2008), so we will focus on features 1-4.

3.5.2. Multi-flow MTDs in the Pandora Trough

The seafloor of the northwestern Pandora Trough is dominated by rough and uneven topography which is interpreted to be composed of MTDs of remarkable size. The MTD complex is 76 km wide in the widest part, with possible maximum thickness of 150 m from subbottom profiles (Figure 3.6 and 3.7). The multibeam bathymetric and 3.5 kHz sub-bottom data show that the MTD covers an area of ~5,006 km². A profile through the mass transport complex reveals an internal character showing a mixture of chaotic, irregular, and variable amplitudes from transparent to coherent sets of reflections (Figure 3.6). The MTD surface shows distinct multi orientation lineament features which vary in a range of: N 64⁰ W in the western part into N 18^{0} E and N 33^{0} E on the eastern edges.

The interpretation of the suture orientation indicates that the mass transport complex was compartmentalized and formed by a series of events. There is evidence that there are several flow units comprising one mass transport complex. The lack of evidence of headwall scarp,



gashes

Pressure ridge

Figure 3.6 3D perspective view of full extent of the Pandora Trough slope, integrating bathymetry with sub-bottom profile 0007_2004_ 091 looking southwest, showing typical depositional elements in the slope system. A pressure ridge occurs in the toe of the slope where the flow decelerates and creates imbrication (shown parallel in this figure, see also Figure 3.10.). In contrast, above the toe of the slope the flow velocity accelerates creating an extensional gash pattern in middle part.

slump scars and run-out track also mean that Francis et al.'s (2008) hypothesis that the MTDs initiated from the scalloped morphology on the shelf edge can be dismissed; rather, we suggest that the MTDs flowed as a transient series, starting from surficial slumping in the upper slope, becoming perched on mid slope. Overburden that accumulated in the mid-slope added to the shear stress, which after reaching a critical point; triggered the slope failure consisting of muddy flows and rotational blocks. Assuming that the major flow direction was perpendicular to major axis of the pressure ridge, the slide is interpreted to flow from northwest to southeast direction with a total run-out distance of 17 - 30 km. During the event, a portion of the flow (759 km² area) detached and flowed southwestward. There is also evidence of flow acceleration by extensional gash or crease structure on the slope with major orientation N10⁰E. The downslope run-out decelerated at the toe of the slope, creating an extensive pressure ridge with major orientation of N70⁰W. Other smaller MTDs are also evident but their relationship to this larger event is not known.

3.5.3 Moresby Channel MTDs

In the corner between the Pandora Shelf and the Papuan Peninsula shelf, a large lensshaped transparent unit is also observed and is interpreted as a large muddy debris flow with north-south flow direction (Figure. 3.41.). Although the geometry is not clearly defined in bathymetric data, the maximum width of this deposit is inferred to span 12 km in the upper slope, tapering 7.5 km in the lower part, constrained on both sides by structural ridges. The total run-out of this deposit could reach more than 60 km. In contrast with irregular seabed of the Pandora slope MTD (Figures. 3.1b, 3.1d, 3.4g, 3.4h and 3.5) to the southwest, this MTD possess a smooth surface with an average thickness of 15 m. The sub-bottom profile 0007 2004 080 (Figure 3.4b, Figure. 3.4e and Figure 3.1a. for location) shows that this unit is overlain by the Moresby Channel levée deposit. This levee is dated >40 cal ka (core MV-22 in Fig. 3.3 and Chapter 2 of this study) and ceased rapid accumulation soon after 18 cal ka (core MV-23 in Fig. 3.3 and Chapter 2 of this study). Age of the superjacent levee deposits indicate that the debris flow was deposited >40 cal ka (Figs. 3.1b and 3.3).

3.5.4. Turbidites at the Toe of Slope in Pandora Trough

Sheet-like deposits are evident in 3.5 kHz sub-bottom profile 0007 2004 080 (Figure 3.1a). The centre of the depositional package is 20 - 30 m thick and 10 - 15 m thick at the edges. The internal character of the deposit shows a divergent character with several layers, each layer having a thickness of less than 1 m particularly in the upper part (verified by core data), but the sub-bottom profile shows the possibility that the layer not penetrated by core is thickening downward with thicknesses ranging from 1 - 5 m. The sub-bottom profile also shows that the deposit is 30 km long. For comparison, stratigraphy of core MV-23 (2068 mbsl) was projected 6 km to seismic section 0007 2004 080 (Fig. 3.1a). This core shows turbidite layering with layer thickness of 10-50 cm. The seismic section shows a wedge shape character with downlap event termination to the northeast, which might be correlated with massive sand layers (20-50 cm) with T_a - T_c turbidite sequence character, near the core bottom (9.64-9.165 mbsf). This unit could be interpreted as the remnant of the older fan wedge originated from upslope deposited before MTD event. The geometry of the fan is inconclusive; however 2D profiles and bathymetry suggest flow to the southeast. Above this massive sand unit were deposited a series of thin to medium sheet shape turbidite sands (5-20 cm) with T_b-T_e turbidite sequence, interlaminated with hemipelagic mud.

The last turbidite sequence found in the core MV-23 was a typical Bouma sequence T_b - T_e with the wood fragments deposited in the boundary between T_b and T_c , indicative of deposition from deceleration of the waning flow.

The turbidite sequence variation in core MV-23 is interpreted as the effect of the lateral facies change in the depositional system, as the levee slope moderated ongoing deposition, becoming gentler upward. The core age model presented in Chapter 2 of this study shows that this turbidite succession was deposited between MIS-3 (57-29 cal ka) and MIS-2 (29-14 cal ka). The oldest turbidite in the core dated from foraminifera is 43.180 \pm 0.45 cal ka (10 mbsf) and the youngest turbidite date is 18.495 \pm 0.18 cal ka (2.39 mbsf). These results show that sediment delivery through Moresby channel decreased then became dormant after that period due to the combination of the MTD blockage and shelf flooding.

3.5.5. General sediment delivery in Pandora Trough

Observations in the Pandora Trough slope show no indication of an active channel fan system in the modern seafloor, and ²¹⁰Pb analysis also shows slow sedimentation accumulation rates (SAR) (Muhammad et al., 2008). Collectively, results show that the present seafloor is no longer receiving substantial terrigenous sediment supply.

Age models for cores MV23, MV33 and MV54 (Chapter 2 of this study) (Figures. 3.1a and 3.3) illustrate evolving sediment supply and accumulation over space and time. In core MV-23, the last/ youngest turbidite was deposited near 18.495 cal ka. Slightly closer to the GoP shelf, where the down-slope pathway is not blocked, in MV-33, the youngest turbidite dates to 11.83 cal ka (Jorry et al., 2008). On the middle GoP/Pandora Trough slope in MV 54, the youngest turbidite is younger than 15.850 cal ka (Febo et al., 2008). Therefore there is a time lag between

direct shelf – slope sediment transfer in the Pandora Trough mini-basin (MV-33 core location) and the northern Pandora trough (MV-23 core location). It is also clear that the persistence of turbidite sedimentation in upslope portions of the basin in the northern Pandora Trough shows that delivery to lower portions of the basin must have been blocked after the MTD event.

The last turbidite deposited in MV-23 is immediately superjacent to the uppermost ¹⁴C dates in this core (19.5-18.5 cal ka), and constrains the youngest age of the large MTD event in the Pandora slope to the LGM or just afterward, which is the time frame for the last substantial terrigenous sediment supply to this basin. During MIS-3, sea level dropped 60-80 m below present sea level, reaching 100-120 mbsl at the LGM (23-19 cal ka), in MIS-2. During that period, the shelf was exposed and was possibly incised by fluvial systems that extended to near the shelf edge. This enabled nearly direct delivery of terrigenous sediment to the adjacent canyon head, thus feeding the deepwater basin through the channel system. However the sea level fall combined with rapid sedimentation loading also helped trigger the mass transport event in the Pandora Trough (e.g. Lee et al., 2002). This MTD creates rugged seafloor likely responsible for blocking further downslope sediment delivery in the Northern Pandora Trough (i.e., near MV-23) (Figure 3.7).

To the west and southwest, sediment-delivery pathways from the shelf to basin remained active longer, to near the start of Holocene time. The end of substantial and direct shelf – slope – basin floor sediment delivery to the MV-33 location is approximately the age of the youngest turbidite in this core, which is ca. 12 cal ka (Jorry et al., 2008). Within this period the upper slope area (e.g. core MV-54 and farther east; Febo et al., 2008; Howell et al., 2014) also received sediment from the shelf (Figure 3.7).

3.5.6. Moresby Channel

This is a large axial channel system flowing in an almost east-west direction, then deflected northwest-southeast down-gradient. This channel is possibly a down-gradient continuation from the channel systems in the Pandora Trough, which is interpreted to be partially buried underneath the MTD on the North Pandora slope. Before MTD emplacement, this channel network possibly delivered gravity-driven sediment flows from the Papuan mainland into the Pandora Trough, the Moresby Trough, and also further down-flow into the Coral Sea basin.

This channel system flows down as far as 287 km into the lower reach of the Moresby Trough and transitions to the Coral Sea Basin, where relief decreases. There are two jumbo piston cores (JPC) penetrating this channel floor (MV-25 and 29); they generally consist of thin muddy turbidite layers (Figure 3.8) suggesting fine grained sediment delivery by turbiditic current in the past. Core MV-25 is in the flank of the channel and interpreted to be a levee facies.

The age model for MV-29 (Figure 3.3)(Chapter 2 of this study) suggests very slow sediment accumulation, and/or bypass. Although we do not have an exact date of the youngest turbidite deposited in this core, age and stratigraphy from up-gradient levee core MV-23 and very low ²¹⁰Pb sediment accumulation rates from multi-core MV28 (Muhammad et al., 2008), suggest that this submarine channel was no longer active after the LGM (23-19 cal ka) and the hemipelagic accumulation may be reduced by bottom currents (Figure 3.7).

The sediment character from core shows that the turbidite could reach as far as 30 Km from active channel axis (e.g. perpendicular distance between Moresby channel axis with MV-23) and could reach as high as 230 metres (vertical offset between MV-25 and MV-29).



Seismic courtesy of Fugro and Total EP (Fugro)



Figure 3.7 3D perspective view toward N-NE shows the relationships between Pandora mini-basins and North Pandora Trough, where the MTD blocked the sediment transport via slope channel (unpublished seismic data from Andre Droxler, Rice University, courtesy of Fugro).

Figure 3.8 3D perspective view of Moresby Channel from south-southeast, showing gamma density logs (upper axis, grr/cc) and magnetic susceptibility index (MSI) (lower axis, MI) of cores MV-27, MV-29, MV-25 and MV-22 (Chapter 2 of this study). Sandy turbidites are highlighted in yellow on core logs. Although core MV-27 is located 200 m high above and >20 kilometers away from the channel floor, turbidite sands of likely Moresby Channel origin are found in the core. The age model from core MV-27 shows the sedimentation began as early as 160 Ka. The main channel seafloor is characterized by acoustic facies 1a and 1b; core MV-29 shows a turbidite sequence draped by hemipelagic mud, suggesting cessation of turbidity currents after the LGM (23-19 Ka).

3.5.7. Large Sediment Waves: Moresby Fan

We use the name "Moresby Fan" for the mound-shaped deposit spread laterally along the toe of slope of Papuan Peninsula (Figures 3.1b, 3.9a, and 3.9b). This fan is located adjacent to the upper section of the Moresby channel. The fan covers 2,685 km². A series of wave-like sediment features are evident on the surface of the fan, with crest orientations from north northwest – south southeast on the upper part, turning east-west in the distal area. The total inclination from toe of slope to seafloor is 0.8° (13.4m/ Km) over a distance up to 42 km, with wave crests generally perpendicular to the fan length (Figures.3.9a).

Internal wave-like cross-strata are shown in seismic sections 0004_080 and 0004_079 (Figure. 3.9a) both acoustic facies 3d. Wave dimensions generally increase from proximal to near the distal extent, and then diminish rapidly. Proximal height and length are 10-15 m and 500 - 700 m respectively, increasing to 35 - 60 m height and wavelength of 1.2 - 2.6 km distally. Sub-bottom profile data show a consistent pattern of stoss and lee slope on sediment waves, with an average stoss side angle of $6 - 6.8^{\circ}$ degree and lee side angle of $1 - 1.8^{\circ}$ degree. Although we have no data regarding physical transport processes, the seismic section (Figure 3.9a.) clearly shows an aggradation pattern suggesting upslope migration of the sediment waves. In general these waves occur on seafloor slopes higher than $0.5 - 0.6^{\circ}$ (8.7-10.4 m/Km) (Figure 3.9a.).

The core stratigraphy mostly shows a series of thin fine grained sand-silt and mud layer (5 - 10cm) with Tb-Td sequence, and thin silty-sandy lenses (0.5 - 1 cm) interbedded on hemipelagic mud (this thesis chapter 2) (Figure 3.3.). The gamma-density profile shows a saw-tooth character with serrated features produced by alternating coarse and fine layers (Figure 3.3). These observations suggest that this core is within the distal region of the large submarine fan.

Interpreted 3.5 kHz sub-bottom profiles establish some of the regional stratigraphic units (Figures 3.4k. and 3.8). In Figure 3.9a, the purple indicates the youngest unit, dated to 7.36 cal ka (Figure 3.3), at the top of the youngest turbidite sand in the core. The oldest date in MV-22 is 40.58 cal ka which corresponds to the green horizon (Figure 3.4k and 3.a). This evidence suggests that the process of sediment wave construction probably started at or before MIS-3.

The 3D geomorphology (Figure. 3.9b) also shows a local tectonic control on the sedimentation processes. Large mounded features are evident at the mouth of the canyon feeding the fan. Relief suggests that the sedimentation pathway via the canyon was periodically plugged and avulsed anti-clockwise by syn-depositional right-lateral faulting. This fault uplifts the seafloor as high as 165 meters. If we presume the sedimentation is started at MIS-3 (ca. 57 cal ka); the tectonic uplift rate averaged to ~ 0.3 cm/y.

Francis et al. (2008) suggested that this feature is a confined fan-shaped MTD which is transported via a major canyon. Section 0007_2004_080 illustrates the geometrical properties of this sediment wave and includes the evidence from core data (MV-22) which has never been incorporated before. We have identified internal geometries that are too regular to favor an interpretation of MTD emplacement, at least for the uppermost 30-40 m of sediment. We also observed that the sediment transfer and deposition of this fan is strongly confined and controlled by the large canyon system (2.5-8 Km width and 300-700 m deep).

Many previous studies define sediment waves in the deep-sea environment as linked to cross-flow over levee in the adjacent of the active channel system (e.g. turbidite induced sediment wave) (Damuth, 1979, Normark, 1980; Carter et al., 1990; Savoye et al., 1993; Nakajima et al., 1998; Migeon et al., 2000; Wynn et al., 2000; Normark et al., 2002; Migeon et al., 2004) or bottom current related sediment wave migration (Lee, et al., 2002; Masson et al.,

2002, Oiwane et al., 2015). Compared to both type of sediment wave characteristics based on references, the features in the Moresby Fan is unique, and probably are formed due to the combination of both processes. These are observation from our study area:

- The turbiditic induced sediment wave is generally formed in the side levee of the channel systems, whereas in this area no such levee system is identified. The large Moresby Canyon system is not in the close proximity with this feature. It is likely that the sediment wave is formed in the terminal fan.
- The wave geometry in turbiditic induced sediment wave usually has shown an overall basin-ward decrease in wave dimensions (Wynn and Stow, 2002). This is observed in the present study, suggesting the up-slope migration of the sediment wave.

Two possible explanations for the creation of this unusual sediment wave feature are likely:

(1) The feature is a series of large bedforms produced by turbidity currents. The flow creates a deformation front when the velocity suddenly decreases upon arrival in the seafloor, and due to the repeated flow deposition via the channel, those deposits become amalgamated as a stacked complex (e.g. Bouma and Treadwell, 1975, Normark, 1980, Carter et al., 1990, Jacobi and Hayes, 1992 and Migeon et al., 2000).

(2) The feature has inherited morphology which is dominated by pre-existing undulating topography that results from older (MIS-3 or earlier) MTD emplacement on the basin floor. The morphology of the pressure ridge at the leading edge of the MTD created undulatory surfaces that promoted the deposition and ponding of the turbidite sediments. Large scalloped features (16.8 km in diameter) on the shelf edge at 22.5 km up-slope from the Moresby fan have been observed and could be presumed to be the sources of the failure body.

Unlike deeper core locations along the channel axis in Moresby Trough to the southeast (MV-25, 27, and 29), the MV-22 age model and stratigraphy shows turbidite deposition on Moresby Fan continued until 7.4 cal ka., well after most of the shelf was flooded, and when sea level had approached present elevation (Waelbroeck et al., 2002). Two possible factors could favor this scenario: (1) The shelf- slope setting, where the shelf of the Papuan Peninsula is relatively narrow (30-40 km) and steep, creating a short and steep cross-shelf path for sediment delivery to canyon heads from fluvial sources (as documented on the modern California Shelf, by Puig et al., 2003); and (2) shelf current systems along or oblique to shelf isobaths that are more effective than trapping mechanisms, allowing along-shelf to slope transport over substantial distances (Normark, 1978; Flood et al, 1991; Posamentier and Kolla, 2003; Covault et al, 2007, Covault et al., 2011). In our case, terrigenous materials from the Papuan mainland could flow into canyon head and then deeper depocentres in the Moresby Trough. Similar oblique shelf-to-slope transport and slope accumulation was documented by Howell et al. (2014), at the shelf-edge apex and upper slope location of cores MV-41, MV-46 and MV-49, respectively (Figure 3.5), that is likely driven by oceanic processes on the shelf. This highstand off-shelf transport appears to be highly localized, however, because cores analyzed from other locations on the adjacent middle to upper slope (MV-54 southwest of MV-46 and MV-49, and MV-51; between the location of MV-46 and MV-22) document sediment-starved conditions for the late Holocene (Febo et al., 2008) (Figure 3.5). The Moresby Fan appears to be effective at capturing most of the sediment delivered from upslope locations, however, no substantial Holocene sediment accumulation is observed at downslope locations near cores MV-25 and MV-29.

Figure 3.9 (a) (i) vertically exaggerated (1:10) seafloor bathymetry showing differences among undisturbed seafloor, debris flow, and sediment waves in Moresby Trough; the arrow shows interpreted flow direction toward southwest; (ii) Core MV-22 (log of density: top axis, g/cc, red profile; log of magnetic susceptibility: bottom axis, blue profile, SI units), located in the outer part of the Moresby Fan, has oldest turbidites dated to near 35.84 cal ka (late MIS-3) and youngest turbidite dated to 7.4 cal ka (Chapter 2, this study); (iii) sub-bottom profile 0007_2004_080 (above) and interpretation (below) showing a character of the sediment wave interpreted to be formed in multiple phases during MIS-3-MIS-2, with superimposed core location, depth, and schematic density log (red).

Figure 3.9 (b) 3D view of Moresby Trough looking toward East-Northeast the Moresby Fan complex (vertical exaggeration of 5x); the major was constructed during MIS-3 (near 41.119 cal ka) and continued to build until MIS-1 (7.4 cal ka). The fan then became dormant due to eastward channel avulsion caused by right lateral fault which scraped floor material as high as 165 m, creating a deflection and depositional of younger channel afterward.

3.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, acoustic properties of sub-bottom profiles and geological properties of sediment cores have been used to define acoustic facies that in turn characterize large-scale depositional elements of the Pandora and Moresby troughs. However, there are many uncertainties associated with interpretation due to the limitations of the data such as: limit of core depth of penetration, the sparse space of the sub-bottom profile with the possibility of interpretation pitfalls from seismic resolution, projection, and side-sweep effect from the neighbouring high relief features.

Distribution and cross-cutting relations of facies have been placed in a chronostratigraphic framework using the previously determined ¹⁴C age models of Chapter 2 in this study, demonstrating that, within the temporal limits of the age models, the peak depositional period in Pandora Trough occurred during MIS-2. At that time, a large deep-sea channel network apparently linked the Pandora and Moresby troughs, allowing long-distance transport of terrigenous sediments by large turbidity currents from the Papuan mainland, through Moresby Trough and Channel, to the Coral Sea basin. The turbidite cloud reached at least 30 km laterally (evidence from levee core MV-23) and 200 m vertically (overbank deposits in MV25, MV27 and MV29).

Near the LGM, shelf-edge failure led to emplacement of MTDs on the floor of the Pandora Trough, blocking intermediate reaches of this channel network, ending flow of large turbidity currents from the Pandora Trough to the Moresby trough. Intermittent turbidity currents continued to feed minibasins upslope of the MTD complex (MV-33) until early MIS-1 (earliest Holocene). Along the shelf edge of the Papuan Peninsula, substantial sediment delivery by turbidity currents continued until at least 7.4 cal ka (MV-22) and possibly the present, contributing to the formation of large sediment waves of Moresby Fan. However, this Holocene turbidite sedimentation does not extend much farther into the Moresby Trough, based on negligible Holocene sediment accumulation deeper in the basin.

This study, combined with the observations of Febo et al. (2008), Jorry et al. (2008), and Howell et al. (2014), has shown that sediment delivery from fluvial sources to deep basins in the GoP is controlled by a complex interplay of changing sea level, evolving basin bathymetry (influenced by depositional and tectonic processes), and oceanic transport of sediment from shelf to slope. These conditions have created highly localized conduits for shelf to slope sediment delivery that respond both to global forcing (eustatic sea level) as well as local conditions (shelf gradient, mass wasting, currents, and source proximity), resulting in a complex network of deepsea depositional morphologies active from the LGM to later Holocene time.

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CHAPTER 4

Source-to-sink sediment delivery in the Gulf of Papua from SEM-MLA-aided provenance analysis of deep-sea turbidite sands

4.1. Introduction

Deep-sea sedimentary basins contain important records of terrestrial climatic and tectonic processes and conditions, encoded in the composition and distribution of sediments delivered from uplands to such oceanic basins. In addition to their valuable archives of earth history (e.g., Kiyokawa and Yokoyama, 2009) such deep-water basins are also the locations of increasingly complex petroleum exploration activities (Petzet, 2007). These basins generally represent the ultimate sink for terrigenous sediments, prior to entering the next phase of the rock cycle, via tectonic subduction and recycling (e.g. Underwood and Fergusson, 2005). Understanding how these deep-sea sedimentary systems develop due to combined effects of tectonics, climate, and eustasy is thus important both from the perspective of earth history, and from the applied perspective of petroleum-system evolution. Deep-sea basins and fans commonly accumulate sediment from multiple terrestrial sources (Shapiro et al., 2007), owing to the development of convergent deep-sea channel networks that transport gravity-driven sedimentary flows across continental margins. For this reason, spatial and temporal influences on sediment supply can be complex, and numerous techniques for the determination of sediment provenance have been applied over decades. This study will evaluate the effectiveness of a relatively new approach for provenance analysis – scanning-electron microscopy mineral-liberation analysis (SEM-MLA) (Fandrich et al., 2007) of deep-sea turbidite sands to the Pleistocene-Early Holocene development of two deep-sea sedimentary basins in the Gulf of Papua (GoP), northern Coral Sea, south of Papua New Guinea (Fig. 4.1).
The US-NSF Margins Source to Sink Program (S2S) was initiated to better understand the production, transport, and final accumulation of sediments along continental margins, particularly regarding the relative influences of tectonic, climatic, sea-level, and oceanographic processes on development of continental-margin sedimentary cover (NSF Margins, 2004); the GoP and associated terrestrial fluvial sources and sedimentary basins were selected as one of the S2S program focus areas. To date, numerous GoP studies have explored coastal and shelf processes and stratal accumulations (e.g., NSF MARGINS, 2009), but studies of deep-sea processes and products over timescales up to millennia have been mostly restricted to a small number of cores collected in proximal basins and upper slope settings (Jorry et al., 2008, Febo et al., 2008, Carson et al., 2008; Howell et al., 2014) along with one preliminary study of basinal morphology (Francis et al., 2008). At the present time, the sources and timing of sediment delivery to much of the deep-sea region of the GoP remain largely unexplored, and so the primary questions of the S2S program remain at least partially unanswered. In this study, we will explore the timing, sources, and connectivity of sediment delivery to the two largest deep-sea basins in the GoP: the Pandora and Moresby troughs (Fig. 4.1) (PT and MT, respectively) (Francis et al., 2008), through provenance analysis of turbidite sands found in cores collected during the PANASH cruise of the R/V Melville in 2004 (Dickens et al., 2006), spanning approximately the last 40-50 thousand years (ky).

A source-to-sink system is defined as a series of sediment depocentres or reservoirs connected by delivery conduits, and commonly separated by geomorphic boundaries; in this study, major depocentres include the continental shelf, slope, and marginal basins, connected by canyons and channels, and separated by the shelf-slope break and toe of slope (NSF Margins, 2009). The present study will focus on coarse fluvial sediment delivery from river mouths in the Papuan

mainland and Peninsula to deep basins through the late Pleistocene and Holocene epochs. Elemental, mineralogical, and statistical analyses will be used to identify patterns and trends, which will be placed in a chronostratigraphic and morphological context using our previous studies of cores and geoacoustic data sets (Chapters 2 and 3 of this study). There are two key questions we attempt to answer by this study: (1) what are primary terrestrial sediment sources to the deep sea in our study area (2) and how do the sources and conduits interact and evolve over space and time? This study is novel because it is one of the first efforts to use SEM-MLA for detrital provenance analysis.



Figure 4.1. The physiographic and tectonic elements of the Gulf of Papua (Modified after Pigram and Davies, 1987).

4.2. General geology and source to sink overview in Gulf of Papua

The island of Papua is one component of a complex convergent plate boundary formed as a result of the collision between the Indo-Australian Plate and the Southwest Pacific plate. The GoP is an active foreland basin that receives abundant terrigenous sediment influx from the surrounding river systems (Slingerland et al., 2008).

The Pandora and Moresby Troughs are the foredeep of the Papuan Orogen that has built since the Late Cretaceous (ca. 65 Ma) (Fig. 4.1). These foreland basins began receiving terrigenous sediment in the proximal area as early as Eocene (55.8-33.9 Ma) and reached peak depositional rates through the entire basin during the Pliocene-Holocene (< 5 Ma) when uplift in the orogenic belt intensified (Tcherepanov et al., 2008). The uplift along the collision margin has produced >4000 meters relief, which, combined with high precipitation rate (2-10 m/yr), produces runoff that disperses abundant sediment downstream (approximately 365 million tonnes/year; Milliman, 1995). The best documented influxes come from Fly, Kikori and Purari rivers in Papuan mainland. Drainage from small river systems on the Papuan Peninsula has never been rigorously quantified (approximations in Milliman, 1995) but could potentially produce significant influx to the deep Moresby Trough in the eastern part of GOP (Fig. 4.1) (Howell et al., 2014). During early stages of the S2S program, these eastern rivers draining the Papuan Peninsula were under appreciated with respect to the potential for voluminous sediment supply, and the Fly-Strickland, Purari, and Kikori Rivers were thought to be dominant sediment sources. However, the more recent shelf-edge clay-mineral provenance study of Howell et al. (2014) demonstrated that these eastern rivers have been important sediment sources during latest Pleistocene to middle Holocene time.

Source rocks for deep-sea sediments in this study mainly originate from the Papuan Orogen. This tectonic sierra developed from the colliding New Guinea plate and the Southern Pacific subduction complex, which consists of several arcs, oceanic plateaus and micro-plates (Pigram and Davies, 1987, Pigram et al., 1989). The resulting geological formations are highly varied and range from quartzo-feldspathic and carbonate marine sedimentary rocks to extensive ultramafic complexes (Davies, 2012).

In this study we use the terms Papuan Mainland (land north of the western part of the GoP) and Papuan Peninsula (land northeast of the eastern part of the GoP) to spatially define the sediment sources, catchment systems and basins. In general, the sediment transit time from terrestrial sources to deep-sea depocentres is relatively longer for the Papuan mainland (western GOP) (Day et al., 2008) than the Papuan Peninsula (Milliman, 1995), because of the large river systems with well-developed alluvial valleys that deliver sediment to a wide continental shelf south of the mainland region. In contrast, the Papuan Peninsula (eastern GoP) is characterized by relatively small mountain-fed rivers and narrow continental shelf (Fig. 4.1).

Geological mapping of Steinshouer et al. (1999; primarily classified by age and to a lesser extent gross lithology) and the synthesis of Davies (2012; descriptive text that can be used to elucidate the Steinshouer map, but not on a 1:1 basis) document geological variability of river catchments from the Papuan mainland to the Papuan Peninsula (Fig. 4.2). Davies (2012) describes the upland geology of the Fly, Ramu, and Turama river catchments (feeding sediment to the western shelf of the study area) as a mixture of Neogene marine shelf and reworked terrestrial sediments with minor volcanics of andesitic to basaltic composition. Farther east, bedrock geology of the Kikori and Purari catchments are characterized by more extensive andesitic to basaltic volcanics, and blocks of meta-sediments, green-schist, gneissic granites, and



Figure 4.2. Geological map of Papuan Mainland and Papuan Peninsular (Modified after Steinshouer et al., 1999, Howell et al., 2014), the background earth surface and bathymetry are captured from Google Earth©). White line illustrated the river system catchment area (After Howell et al., 2014).

granitoids (Davies, 2012). The Lakekamu and Vailala river catchments (feeding sediment to the easternmost shelf of this study area) include the Papuan and Aure Fold Belt and Owen Stanley Range; Fig. 4.1), are composed of folded felsic metamorphic rocks, accretionary prisms intruded by gabbro, metabasites, and a large ultramafic belt within an extensive ophiolite complex (Davies, 2012). These formations extend southeastwards towards the coastline most proximal to the location of core MV-22. These formations impart a unique mafic-ultramafic mineral signal to the deep sea basin, including pumice and volcanic debris (Patterson, 2006), ultramafic grains and lithic fragments, and low-grade products of oceanic metamorphism (e.g., actinolite and epidote) (Garzanti et al. 2000, Bloomer et al. 2005 and Garzanti et al. 2007). Thus, from west to east, catchment geology generally increases in both volcanic (andesitic to basaltic) and mafic/ultramafic content (although no one data source documents this trend completely and unambiguously).

4.3. Methodology

4.3.1. Sample Collection and Preparation

Cores and geoacoustic data were collected during the R/V Melville PANASH cruise in March-April 2004 (Pandora and Ashmore troughs) (Fig. 4.1; Dickens et al., 2006). Core locations were selected following geoacoustic surveys, in order to document specific morphological elements of the basins. The geoacoustic dataset includes SEABEAM 2000 12 kHz multi-beam and Knudsen Engineering 3.5 kHz sub-bottom data collected aboard the R/V Melville that contributed to the bathymetric grid of Daniell (2008) which is the basis for bathymetry in Figures 4.1 and 4.3.

Jumbo piston cores were collected from the R/V Melville in 2004 (Fig. 4.1 and Table 4.1) and logged onboard by scientific team using a Geotek Multi-Sensor Core Logger (MSCL) for whole-core gamma density (GD) and magnetic susceptibility (MS). A total of 53 samples were collected from PANASH jumbo piston cores (Fig. 4.3 and Table 4.1), and three samples were obtained from Fly and Strickland river point bars for comparison. The marine samples were acquired from seven jumbo piston cores that sampled major geomorphic elements in the PT and MT: Pandora slope, Pandora toe of slope and mini-basin (MV-54, 23 and 33), Moresby Channel (MV-25 and 29), and eastern and western flanks of Moresby Trough (MV-22 and MV-27 respectively) (Dickens et al., 2006; Francis et al., 2008; chapters 2 and 3 of this study). Fluvial samples from downstream point bars on the Fly and Strickland rivers, and upstream on the Strickland near the Ok Tedi Mine were provided by R. Aalto, collected in 2010 (Aalto, personal communication, 2011).

The marine samples were selected and extracted from relatively thick sandy layers identified in core images, magnetic susceptibility, and gamma-density data from a Geotek Multi Sensor Core Logger (described in Chapter 2 of this study). Morphologic and seismic characterization of core locations are derived from Chapter 3 of this study (Figs. 4.1 and 4.3), and age models used for chronostratigraphic control as well as lithostratigraphic core descriptions are from Chapter 2 of this study (Fig. 4.4).

Samples were wet sieved to retain the sand-sized fraction (0.0625-2 mm), then treated to remove organic carbon and biogenic carbonate (in practice total carbonate) with hydrogen peroxide and hydrochloric acid. Air-dried samples were then grain-mounted using epoxy resin under vacuum and polished using diamond suspension under $30 - 15 - 5 - 1 - 0.1 \mu m$ polisher (Septama, Micro-analysis facilities laboratory, Inco Centre Memorial University of

Newfoundland). Mounts to be used for SEM-MLA were carbon sputtered to augment conductivity (Buckwalter-Davis et al., 2012). In order to review petrographic properties and allow comparison of SEM-MLA methods to traditional provenance techniques



Figure 4.3(a) The base-map of the study area, samples are acquired from 7 Jumbo piston cores and stream samples in Fly and Strickland river system (b) inset of cores location in deep sea Gulf of Papua (GoP). Isobaths are labeled in meters below sea level, and the burgundy lines identify deep-sea channel thalwegs extracted from a DEM based on slope by Patterson (2006).



sedimentary succession. Erosional bases to sand beds were interpreted based on log and core observations. The correlation on the upper part of the core (e.g. 10 Ka) also considering the peak of Ca from XRF scan data of cores MV-22, MV-25, MV-23 and MV-33

(e.g., Dickinson and Suczek, 1979), five samples (70 μ m thin sections) were also prepared for manual point counting.

SEM-MLA was performed with FEI Quanta 400 scanning electron microscope (Septama, Micro-analysis facilities laboratory, Inco Centre Memorial University of Newfoundland). SEM collects backscatter electrons rather than light waves from the minerals surface, enabling grain magnification up to 50,000 times. The results then are quantified by mineral liberation analysis (MLA). The MLA technique first relies on *backscattered electron imaging* (BEI), as a measure of average atomic number, for discriminating grain boundaries, and then offers a variety of x-ray options for classifying the grains as recognized minerals based on their density in the spectral library (Buckwalter-Davis et al., 2012).

4.3.2. Detrital modal analysis

<u>Manual QFL ternary diagram.</u> Point counts to prepare Gazzi-Dickinson ternary diagrams (Dickinson, et al., 1983) were performed on five slides for 300 grains per slide; samples were taken from three cores from different depositional settings: MV-22 (MT), MV-23 (PT) and MV-25 (Moresby Channel). Only framework grains (non-matrix) were counted and recalculated based on three major compositions: quartz (Q), feldspar (F) and lithic fragment (L). This method reduces the dependencies of grain size and alteration and allows accurate determination of original detrital mode and provenance (Ingersoll et al., 1984, Marsaglia and Ingersoll, 1992).

Semi-automated SEM-MLA. SEM MLA is an automated scanning, image-processing, and elemental analysis that relies upon pre-set rules for recognition of grain size, shape, and composition (Fandrich et al., 2007). In this procedure, "particles" are defined as individual clasts, whether composed of one or multiple minerals. "Grains" are defined as portions of particles composed of one mineral phase, whether mono- or poly-crystalline (Fandrich et al., 2007). We

defined lithic fragments as any assemblage of minerals where neither quartz (Q) nor feldspar (F) formed more than 80 % of particle, and three or more minerals with weight percent< 20% were aggregated as a single particle with an enclosing ellipse major axis (grain size) of 0.0625-2 mm. We calibrated the detection process using reflected spectra from lithic fragments of known composition. Based on these criteria and calibration of instrument detection methods, SEM-MLA has a limited ability to automatically distinguish among lithic fragments by rock type (e.g. volcanic, sedimentary or metamorphic rocks).

Our study is one of the first attempts to perform Gazzi-Dickinson provenance study using automated SEM-MLA; therefore, to verify our approach we used both traditional and SEM-MLA methods to compare results: (1) manual point counts (2) SEM-MLA grain-based counts, (3) SEM-MLA particle-based counts, and (4) SEM-MLA area-based counts. <u>Grain based point</u> <u>counts</u>: the grain-based point counts were done on 30-50,000 grains >3.9 μ m in size from the mineral composition database. <u>Particle-based point counts</u>: this method was performed on 30-50,000 particles >62.5 μ m (fine sand size) with a minimum percentage (%) of a particular mineral were >80% and >60% of a particle. If neither quartz (Q) nor feldspar (S) formed >80% of a particle and there were more than three minerals present then the particle was classified as lithic (L). The total (L) classification also included the pumice class and clay minerals. <u>Area based counts</u>: this method used the mineral map from SEM-MLA instead of grains or particles, with area based on total pixel number for each mineral (Appendix-2). Other than the manual point counts specified above, all provenance data discussed hereafter were derived from SEM-MLA.

Detrital Feldspar: The analysis of detrital feldspar can be used to define the origin of plagioclase minerals in sand, as feldspar minerals make-up one of the major frameworks in

almost all siliciclastic sediment (in average of 25 - 45 % in this particular study area). Previous study has described variation in detrital plagioclase composition that can be used to characterize source rocks (e.g., Trevena and Nash, 1981; Weltje and Eynatten, 2004). Sediment sourced from metamorphic terranes generally is depleted of K-feldspar because potassium in general is depleted at the temperature of metamorphism. In contrast, K-feldspar will increase with significant depletion of plagioclase Ca (hence anorthite composition) in volcanic rocks; plutonic rock tend to plot in between or overlap with metamorphic and volcanic rocks (Trevena and Nash, 1979).

The other potential variation in detrital feldspar is the enrichment of the Na Plagioclase during diagenesis and low-grade metamorphism. Albitization can occur both in K-feldspar and plagioclase feldspar although the latter requires deeper burial (Morad et al., 1990, Gonzales Acebrón et al, 2010). Albitization is commonly associated with the recycled orogen type provenance as a secondary product from the burial diagenesis of the sediment or meta-sediment rock fragments. This phenomenon can be observed if the morphology of the parental feldspar or plagioclase is intact (Gonzales Acebrón et al, 2010). The visual observation by using backscatter electron image verified by density spectra is performed during the SEM-MLA analysis, and can be used to discriminate between detrital albite and diagenetic albite (see further discussion in interpretation and discussion section).

4.3.3. Chemical Index of Alteration

The chemical index of alteration (CIA) (Nesbitt and Young, 1982) is calculated from sand samples as a weathering index to identify change caused by chemical weathering of grains. This proxy represents a measure of the amount of clay made during hydrolysis of feldspar (Price and Velbel, 2003, Nesbitt and Young, 1982). The formula represents the ratio of the predominant but

immobile Al_2O_3 to the mobile cation Na^+ , K^+ and Ca^+ represented as major oxides (Nesbitt and Young, 1982, Bahlburg and Dobrzinski, 2011).

$$CIA = \frac{Al_2O_3}{Al_2O_3 + Na_2O + K_2O + CaO} *100$$
 Eq. 1

Whole rock major oxides from samples are converted from elemental assay by adding the weight contributed by the appropriate number of oxygen atoms in the particular oxide (e.g. 10 wt% Al is equivalent to 18% wt% Al₂O₃). The weakness of this methodology is the elemental assay is derived from the mineralogical formulas calculated in MLA (total minerals sample in the database), thus the abundance and CIA results are approximations because the full chemical analysis of the samples was not determined. Data are presented in a ternary diagram and down-core plot. This methodology can also show spatial and temporal weathering trends.

4.3.4. Multivariate Statistical Approach

Multivariate statistical analysis is performed to detect the trends within the data and explore correlations between datasets. We utilize Similarity Percentage (SimPer) (Anderson et al., 2008) to filter the important minerals that contribute to similarity/dissimilarity. This method provides discrimination between sample clusters and shows the contribution percentage of minerals to dissimilarity.

Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) is an ordination technique that transforms data into an n-dimensional domain, using mineral abundance as Cartesian coordinate, and rank similarities of the resultant distances that are projected into a 3-dimensional and 2-dimensional domain (Clarke & Warwick 2001). This method can discriminate samples into more detailed clusters based on their mineralogy (hence more detailed grouping or petro-facies class than

modal detrital analysis). To measure the degree of dissimilarity from each sample in this study we determine Euclidean distance (d), then create a dendrogram relating clusters by the

separating distance d:

$$d(p,q) = {n \choose i=1} (q_i - p_i)^2$$
 Eq. 2

where p (p1, p2, p3,...,pn) and q (q1, q2, q3,...,qn) are two sample points within Euclidean ndimensional domain (Anderson et al., 2008).

4.4. Results

4.4.1. QFL Modal analysis

<u>Manual thin section point counts:</u> results show that most samples from manual point counts display less lithological variability on a QFL diagram than do SEM-MLA results (Fig. 4.5a) and most point count results for our samples classify into the Recycled Orogen field (Fig. 4.5b).

<u>SEM-MLA Grain-based</u>: This method produces most lithic-rich results (Fig. 4.5a). This is possible because in some cases the classification includes coarser matrix as the lithic fragment thus enriches the quantity of the total undifferentiated lithics (31-49 %) over the other framework grains. In general the grain-based method represents a classification based on the smallest individual mineral constituent whether it is sand- or silt- sized. Tight clustering is evident using this method, not unlike manual point counts.

<u>Particle based point count:</u> both of the approaches (thresholds of >60 and >80 wt. %) plot apparently close together without any evident shifting (Fig. 4.5a). This is confirmed by the similar composition for each method in the weight percent minerals (Table 4.1). Results distribute data across the following fields: transitional arc, dissected arc, recycled orogen and transitional continental. These results based on automated classification show lower lithic percentages compared to the manual point counts.

<u>Area based counts</u>: results using this approach encompass the fields of transitional arc, dissected arc and recycled orogen. The results compare well with particle-based point counts; however there is a possibility that results are skewed toward minerals with coarser grain size as they tend to be volumetrically larger (Fig. 4.5a).

Overall, particle-based point counts appear to encompass the largest number of fields (Fig. 4.5b). Figure 4.6b shows that in general most samples are moderate to low in lithic fragments (0-30%) except samples from Pandora mini-basin (MV33) and two samples from MT (MV22). All samples from MT are moderate to high in feldspar (30-80%). Terrestrial samples from Fly and Strickland rivers are low in feldspar (9-12 %) but high in lithics (34-43%) and quartz (47-53%). The sample from Ok Tedi, in contrast, shows low lithic content (7.34 %) but high feldspar (50.36%) and quartz (42.29%). This sample is just downstream from an open cut copper mine into monzonite, monzodiorite and syenite (Aalto, 2011, personal communication). The samples from PT (MV54 and MV23) plot mostly with samples from MV33 show distinct separation from other Pandora Trough samples (Fig. 4.5b)

4.4.2 Detrital feldspar analysis

The QmKP (Quartz monocrystalline, potassium feldspar and Plagioclase feldspar) ternary plot was used to explore compositional variation between potassium feldspar and plagioclase feldspar (Fig. 4.6a and b). SEM-MLA could not distinguish the monocrystalline quartz (Qm) over the polycrystalline quartz (Qp) directly. The discrimination was done by particle observation (>80% of a particle is Quartz), if the impurities present (e.g. sericite) as a grain in that particle (1-20%),



Figure 4.5. (previous page) Ternary diagrams of QFL detrital modal analysis (a) a comparison between manual point count of the thin section, particle based point count, grain based and area based (see text for details) (b) the particle based point count as the selected technique for QFL modal analysis. Axis increments are each 10%.

then the particle will classify as Qp. Samples from the PT mini-basin (MV33-817 and 1173), PT slope sample MV54-49, and the Ok Tedi terrestrial sample are elevated in K-feldspar, as is Moresby Fan sample MV 22-675 and Moresby Channel sample MV25-1104. The following samples are high in plagioclase feldspar: MV33-817 and 1173 (Pandora Trough), MV54-49 (middle slope of Pandora Trough), two samples from Moresby fan (MV22-165 and MV22-562) and one sample from Moresby Channel (MV25-475).

The KAnAb (potassium feldspar, anorthite and albite) ternary plot was used to distinguish the composition variation in feldspar and to detect the presence of authigenic feldspar. The plot shows that samples MV54-49, 33-314, 33-817 and 33-817 from the PT slope and mini-basin are slightly elevated in K-feldspar whereas samples MV22-502, 22-808, 22-936, 25-245, 29-413 and 29-510 from MT show elevated in Na-plagioclase (albite). The terrestrial sample from OK-Tedi is high in K-Feldspar (53 %) (Fig.4. 6b).

4.4.3 Chemical index of alteration (CIA)

Figure 4.7a is a ternary plot of CIA variables (Eq. 1) and shows a gradient in Al₂O₃:CaO+Na₂O composition from Moresby Trough (high in CaO+Na₂O) Pandora Trough (higher in Al₂O₃), especially samples from slope (MV54) and Pandora mini-basin (MV-33). Samples from MV33 and MV54 show higher Al₂O₃ (hence CIA) values than most samples from Moresby Trough (Fig. 4.7a and Table 4.2).



Figure 4.6. The detrital feldspar analysis ternary diagram (a) QmKP (b) KAnAb plot. Axis increments are 10% each.

The samples from Moresby channel (MV25, and MV29, MV27) overlap with samples from Pandora toe of slope (MV23) in having $Al_2O_3 < 75\%$. Samples MV33-1173 and MV33-314 are relatively low in Al_2O_3 but elevated in K₂O. Terrestrial samples from both Fly and Strickland Rivers show high Al_2O_3 . Two samples from MT (MV22-165 and 562) shows $Al_2O_3 < 60\%$ (Fig. 4.7a). Table 4.2 shows that core samples from MT are generally lower overall in CIA compared to core samples from PT, but in-core variability is comparable.

Profiles of CIA in cores MV22, MV23 and MV-25 (Fig. 4.7b) show an apparently correlated minimum in CIA around approximately near the LGM, during mid to late MIS2, followed by a CIA increase during deglacial time. Core MV29 has no constrained age model, but also shows a CIA minimum at the same depth range in seabed. (Fig.4.7b). In contrast, a CIA minimum occurs in MV27 prior to MIS2.

Composition	MV22-156				MV23-805		MV25-554			
				n.						
	Grain %	Particle %	Area %	Grain %	Particle %	Area %	Grain %	Particle %	Area %	
Lithic fragment	22.70	5.47	10.26	28.57	32.42	40.49	28.25	23.50	24.80	
Amphibole	5.95	7.23	16.20	1.84	1.75	1.06	2.72	2.94	4.99	
Quartz (mono)	0.60	0.70	0.78	8.77	8.39	27.11	11.82	12.62	26.19	
Quartz (poly)	21.78	26.61	8.77	19.15	18.17	5.00	14.82	15.73	5.40	
Chloritoid	0.25	0.3	0.18	0.45	0.42	0.36	0.15	0.17	0.04	
Epidote	0.32	0.38	0.11	0.45	0.41	0.20	1.64	1.76	1.64	
Anorthite	7.25	8.74	33.54	7.82	7.42	7.71	11.34	12.18	15.25	
Albite	0.03	0.03	0.01	4.48	4.19	3.57	5.57	5.89	5.18	
Muscovite	0.10	0.12	0.11	8.02	7.99	3.41	4.13	4.40	2.31	
Orthoclase	0.49	0.57	0.29	2.17	2.06	2.97	3.60	3.85	2.97	
Pumice	22.58	28.03	6.12	13.62	12.94	5.33	11.28	11.98	4.86	
Perthite	17.94	21.81	6.93	4.65	4.39	0.91	4.68	4.98	2.33	

Table-4.1 Comparison of composition percentages for SEM-MLA grain, particle (80%), and area counts in selected samples, for mineral compositions that describe greatest dissimilarities among sample clusters.

Core and	CIA mean ± 1
geographic region	std deviation
MV22 (MT)	67.0±7.2, n=8
MV25 (MT)	69.5±1.8, n=9
MV27 (MT western flank)	71.5±2.4, n=7
MV29 (MT)	64.2±2.8, n=5
<u>All MT</u>	<u>68.1±3.6</u>
All MT MV23 (PT)	<u>68.1±3.6</u> 71.2±3.0, n=12
All MT MV23 (PT) MV33 (PT floor)	68.1±3.6 71.2±3.0, n=12 73.0±4.7, n=8
All MTMV23 (PT)MV33 (PT floor)MV54 (PT middle slope)	68.1±3.6 71.2±3.0, n=12 73.0±4.7, n=8 71.8±3.4, n=4

Table-4.2 Summary CIA results for all cores

Grain	Clusters from SimPer Analysis, with number of samples (n) per cluster											
Composition	1, n=2	2, n=2	3, n=2	4, n=5	5, n=1	6, n=5	7, n=9	8, n=11	9, n=1	10, n=1	11, n=1	12, n=10
Lithic	5.96 ± 0.91	28.40 ± 0.94	31.39 ± 1.30	34.47 ± 1.94	22.87	20.40 ± 1.54	29.39± 1.19	26.46 ± 1.20	28.64	25.28	26.01	26.56 ± 1.41
fragment												
Amphibole	7.69 ± 0.93	2.38 ± 0.43	3.26 ± 0.95	2.09 ± 0.43	2.86	5.35 ± 1.22	2.15 ± 0.64	3.75 ± 0.92	3.97	5.40	3.37	5.52 ± 0.70
Quartz (mono)	0.93 ± 0.35	5.13 ± 0.39	9.00 ± 1.86	11.22 ± 1.67	12.28	6.66 ± 1.01	8.02 ± 1.37	7.12 ± 1.28	12.24	8.13	9.09	7.83 ± 0.63
Quartz (poly)	24.41 ± 2.06	13.96 ± 1.24	14.45 ± 0.88	10.99 ± 1.99	15.30	14.99 ± 1.25	16.39 ± 1.08	14.88 ± 1.38	12.25	9.33	11.59	11.98 ± 1.31
Chloritoid	0.21 ± 0.11	0.37 ± 0.23	1.13 ± 0.44	0.69 ± 0.15	0.16	1.93 ± 0.75	0.59 ± 0.17	0.98 ± 0.47	2.30	2.96	0.81	2.22 ± 0.51
Epidote	0.33 ± 0.06	0.31 ± 0.02	0.44 ± 0.21	0.87 ± 0.38	1.71	2.37 ± 0.56	0.58 ± 0.30	1.91 ± 0.50	0.83	3.37	2.51	2.24 ± 0.69
Anorthite	8.15 ± 0.49	7.75 ± 0.27	6.16 ± 2.46	8.08 ± 0.87	11.85	9.64 ± 1.10	8.18 ± 0.58	10.16 ± 0.92	8.83	10.44	12.18	10.23 ± 0.86
Albite	0.11 ± 0.10	3.82 ± 0.23	3.67 ± 0.03	4.86 ± 0.47	5.73	4.95 ± 1.34	4.66 ± 0.32	5.11 ± 0.61	4.44	7.16	7.18	5.38 ± 0.54
Muscovite	0.17 ± 0.08	7.18 ± 2.71	11.14 ± 2.09	7.38 ± 1.23	4.29	8.74 ± 1.50	7.31 ± 1.01	6.90 ± 0.93	9.96	11.05	7.77	8.54 ± 0.79
Orthoclase	0.52 ± 0.05	2.93 ± 0.43	2.27 ± 0.36	2.30 ± 0.24	3.75	2.22 ± 0.59	2.89 ± 0.39	2.51 ± 0.58	3.35	1.15	2.08	2.38 ± 0.57
Pumice	25.34 ± 2.71	5.20 ± 3.61	2.36 ± 0.15	4.96 ± 1.79	4.85	4.88 ± 1.73	3.36 ± 0.59	5.53 ± 1.93	1.53	3.01	4.05	3.40 ± 0.91
Perthite	23.19 ± 2.80	17.40 ± 1.73	9.34 ± 0.67	8.26 ± 0.90	11.66	9.32 ± 2.58	12.19 ± 1.69	10.81 ± 1.42	7.16	5.21	9.30	7.51 ± 1.23

 Table 4.3 Average and standard deviation of compositions in clusters identified by SimPer cluster analysis of SEM-MLA data



4.4.4 Multivariate Statistics

SimPer analysis shows that there are 12 particle compositions that account for most dissimilarity in grain populations: monocrystalline quartz, polycrystalline quartz, perthite, chloritoid, amphibole, pumice, undifferentiated lithic fragments, albite, orthoclase, muscovite, anorthite and epidote (Table 4.3). SimPer analysis allows the content of these minerals to represent the cluster coordinates within a 12D domain. In Figure 4.8a, results are rotated and projected into a 2D space at the orientation that provides the greatest separation of results. Samples from Pandora Trough (MV23, 33 and 54) generally fall on the right and left sides of the plot, while Moresby Trough (MV-22, 25, 27 and 29) fall in an irregular field extending from top to bottom in the centre of the plot (Fig. 4.8a). The relatively great Euclidean distances separating multiple samples from one core (e.g., all samples from MV-23) demonstrate that there are both compositional variations between locations, and also within individual cores. Sample MV22-165 and MV22-562 are outliers with d=38 (Fig. 4.8b). The correlation matrix and modal mineralogy data (Table 4.3) show that the major variables contributing to the differences for these outliers from other clusters are the abundance of the pumice, polycrystalline quartz and amphibole. These samples therefore are not included in subsequent cluster analysis. Figure 4.8c is a dendrogram plot separating results into 12 clusters, each separated by a Euclidean distance of *d*<12 (Eq. 2).

How well the algorithm calculated the ordinate distance match to original dissimilarities is measured by a stress factor (stress = standardized residual sum of squares) (Chen and Chen, 2000, Anderson et al., 2008). After removal of outliers, the Kruskal fit scheme shows an acceptable/good stress value of 0.11 in 2D projection (K2) and excellent with stress value of 0.05 in 3D projection (K3) (Kruskal, 1964) (Fig. 4.8b).

To explore provenance patterns in time and space, Figure 4.8d shows provenance samples color-coded according to clusters in Figure 4.8c, then correlated stratigraphically where possible. Results show that before 20 ky BP (thick dashed black line in Fig. 4.8d), Pandora Trough was characterized by clusters 2, 4, and 7, whereas at that time Moresby Trough was characterized mostly by cluster 8 in all four Moresby Trough cores, with local contributions from clusters 4, 5, 6 and 7 . Variables that contribute to the dissimilarity are (% contribution): undifferentiated lithic fragments (25.02 %), pumice (16.43%), perthite (12.82%), anorthite (10.13%), polycrystalline quartz (9.85%) and monocrystalline quartz (7.33%). The Pandora Trough system is richer in: lithic fragments, perthite and quartz (both monocrystalline and polycrystalline) and Moresby Trough more abundant in pumice, anorthite and amphibole. There are lateral variations between location of MV29 (cluster 6) and the surrounding Moresby channel system (cluster 8) with major contributions to dissimilarity from undifferentiated lithic fragments (37.47%), perthite (13.57%), muscovite (12.82%), pumice (8.5%) and amphibole (8.46%). In comparison with surrounding cores, MV29 is depleted in lithics, perthite and pumice.

After 20 ky BP, Moresby Trough sediments shift from primarily cluster 8 to laterally correlated cluster 12. This shift is indicated by upward variation in perthite (26.26%), quartz polycrystalline (19.05%), pumice (14.9%), muscovite (9.45%) and amphibole (8.59%). Quartz and pumice decrease upward, and muscovite and amphibole increase upward.

In Pandora Trough, both MV54 and MV33 contain younger sediments from cluster 3 which consists of >75% combined lithics, polycrystalline quartz, muscovite, perthite, and monocrystalline quartz (Table 4.3). These sediments overlie cluster 7 that is found deeper in MV-23 (probably deposited before 30 Kyr and ceased afterward) but continuously deposited in MV-33. Cluster 3 is depleted in anorthite, with respect to cluster 7.

Sediments within similar age ranges from MV33 (ponded turbidites: Jorry et al., 2008) and toe of slope deposits (MV23), show contrasting composition, with MV-33 sediments from cluster 2 and 7 after 22,815 ky BP (the oldest age from MV-33), and MV-23 sediments from clusters 4 and 8 (~19- 30.4 ky BP). The major minerals contributing to dissimilarity are: perthite (47.53 %), quartz (19.34 %) and lithic fragments (17.18 %). The PT mini basin (MV-33) is depleted in undifferentiated lithic fragments and quartz but elevated in perthite. After 20 ky BP, sediment composition in MV33 shifts to cluster 3 but in MV-23 shifts to cluster 12, with cluster 12 depleted in lithics and elevated in amphibole, anorthite, and epidote compared to cluster 3. The lateral variation between MV-33 (clusters 2 and 7) and the rest of the Moresby channel system (clusters 6, 8, 10, and 11) is found in perthite (elevated in MV-33), polycrystalline quartz (elevated in MV-33), amphibole (depleted in MV-33), lithic fragment (elevated in MV-33) and anorthite (depleted in MV-33).

Western Moresby Channel (MV27) composition is similar to Moresby Trough before 40 ky BP (cluster 5), and shifts to clusters 4 and 7 after 40 ky BP, more similar to Pandora Trough (e.g. MV-23 core location) composition.

4.5. Interpretation and discussion

The timing and sources of terrestrial /fluvial sediment delivery to the deep GoP basins are presented using three distinct quantitative approaches for provenance analysis, all using data derived from SEM-MLA analysis described above. The Gazzi-Dickinson approach provides a well-documented approach to turbidite sand provenance analysis, across three dimensions that allows for comparison with many prior studies using this approach. CIA analysis will provide insights regarding the intensity of weathering before and during sediment delivery. Multivariate







number, and small italic label identify sample code (sample code correspond to sample depth [cm] in core.

statistical approaches will provide a richer perspective on sediment compositional variability that is limited only by the characteristics of grain populations (i.e., clusters in Table 3) rather than three prescribed ternary axes.

4.5.1 Gazzi-Dickinson ternary diagram

Turbidite sand provenance in Gulf of Papua was initially reported as contrast variation between the mature quartzofeldspathic sand derived from Papuan Mainland and immature glass rich volcaniclastic sand with rhyolitic composition (75-77% wt. SiO2 and 4.9 – 7.6 wt.% of Na2O + K2O from the Papuan Peninsula (Patterson, 2006). However, Patterson (2006) collected data from only cores MV-22 and MV-66 with three samples from each core. Our results build on this, and show more compositional variation and wider trends compositional trends, ranging from recycled orogen (RO) and magmatic arc provenances such as transitional and dissected arc (TA and DA) in Pandora Trough to continental block provenances such as Basement Uplift (BU) and transitional continental (TC) in Moresby Trough (Fig. 4.5b). These variations likely reflect variability in sources terranes and sedimentary transport and routing. Based on the ternary diagram we divided the provenance in the GOP into:

<u>Recycled orogen</u>: these sediments originated from collisional uplift of the Papuan orogen. This constitutes a background pattern in the entire study area and is at times a major assemblage in both Pandora and Moresby Troughs. The composition range is 40-75 % quartz, 10-55 % lithic fragments and 20-48 % feldspathic minerals. Although not quantified specifically, we note that the detritus eroded from these source rocks is rich in sedimentary to metasedimentary lithic fragments (Fig. 4.9b). There are compositional variations among sediments originating from the Papuan Peninsula and Papuan mainland mostly in volcanic and mafic composition, particularly

due to ultramafic and metamorphic rocks from the ophiolite belt of the Papuan Peninsula, not found in the Papuan Mainland (Fig. 4.2).

<u>High Feldspar</u>: the composition of these samples reflects the provenance derived from source terranes within continental plates rich in potassium feldspar to plagioclase feldspar (continental block provenance). There are two provenance classes within this group found in the study area, basement uplift (BU) and transitional continental (TC), which might not have originated from continental block provenance. One possible explanation is that some of the samples are high in feldspar content and mature minerals such as zircon because of volcanogenic sources (samples MV22-165 and MV22-562) (Fig. 4.9A), and some contain high proportion of eroded felsic intrusives (all samples from MV-29) (Fig. 4.9b). In this case, the ternary diagram fails to discriminate provenance effectively, as all samples plot into the continental block field.

<u>High Albite:</u> there are two albitization patterns common in sand, either diagenetic, e.g. where the partial albitization following the fractures zone or other weak zones such as grains contact, twinning zone; or zoning, evident as radial zoned albitized appearance where anorthite resides in the middle or grain core as it is has a higher melting point (Ramseyer et al., 1992, Gonzales Acebrón et al, 2010). One sample from Moresby Channel (MV25-475) shows partial albitization in K-feldspar which is probably diagenetic in origin (Fig. 4.10).

<u>Magmatic arc</u>: this is defined as provenance derived from volcanogenic arc, either directly as volcaniclastic debris (un-dissected arc) or derived as a by-product of denudation processes of the volcanic highland and the underlying intrusives (dissected arc) (Dickinson and Suczek, 1979). This provenance shows substantial pumice/amorphous mineral percentage (6-15 %); igneous lithic fragments are common (Fig. 4.9c). This provenance class was found in both of the trough systems. PT is more dominated by dissected arc, with where the elevated potassium feldspar

came mostly from roofing of the plutonic/hypabyssal rocks such as pegmatite, whereas samples from Moresby Trough are more dominated by transitional arc lithologies, with sources such as Neogene and tertiary volcanic rocks abundant in Papuan Peninsula (Fig. 4.2).

4.5.2 Chemical index of alteration (CIA)

The CIA ternary diagram (Fig. 4.7a) and summary Table 4.2 shows that most samples from the Pandora Trough system and the Fly/Strickland rivers are highly weathered (high in Al2O₃). This is consistent with both the observed geology (abundant recycled shelf and terrestrial sediments and uncommon recent volcanics), as well as the long-distance transport through extensive alluvial valleys of the large rivers feeding the western GoP, and most proximal to the central and eastern Pandora Trough. Samples from Moresby Trough show lower CIA, consistent with delivery from proximal sources (including the Papuan Peninsula) that include abundant young volcanic and intrusive rocks (Fig. 4.9c). Transit times from sediment source to sink would be shorter here than farther west, due to short and steep rivers with less alluvial valley storage than the Fly/Strickland, for example (Brunskill, 2004).





with sedimentary and metasedimentary lithic fragments.







High K₂O characterizes two samples from the PT basin floor, MV33-1173 and MV33-314 (Fig. 4.7a). This might be explained by volcanic activity providing fresh volcanic sources. The backscatter image of MV33-1173 (Fig. 4.9d) also shows that this sample contains abundant pumice. Similarly, Moresby Fan samples MV22-165 and MV22-562 are relatively low in Al₂O₃ also low in CIA (Fig. 4.8a). Each of these cases could be explained by sediment sourcing from fresh volcanic formations during their respective time frames.

These results suggest a reduction in the degree of chemical weathering experienced by formations providing sediment to the lower PT and MT, which could be explained by cooler conditions and less intense chemical weathering rates around the LGM (Fig. 4.7b; Nesbitt and Young, 1982).

4.5.3 Non metric multidimensional scaling analysis (nMDS)

Samples MV22-165 and MV22-562 were statistically classified as outliers (and excluded from cluster analysis) due to their unique composition (cluster 1, Table 4.3) which is consistent with volcanogenic origin. Seabed delivery could have been relatively direct, via atmospheric fallout, or via seabed-sediment transport of lightly reworked material.

Stratigraphic correlation of clusters (Fig. 4.8d) shows that before 20 ky BP, PT and MT received sediment from different sources (PT, primarily clusters 2, 4, and 7; MT, primarily clusters 3, 6, and 8). Major compositional differences are that the PT system before 20 ky BP is richer in lithic fragments, perthite and quartz (polycrystalline and monocrystalline) whereas Moresby Trough system is richer in anorthite, amphibole and pumice. These results suggest that Pandora Trough turbidite sands are sources from felsic plutonic, sedimentary, and meta-sedimentary source rocks of the Papuan orogeny (Davies, 2012, and Fig. 4.2), which is mostly
drained by relatively large rivers (Fig. 4.1). In contrast, Moresby Trough turbidite sands originated from strata including younger volcanic and ultramafic rocks of the Papuan Peninsula (Fig. 4.2) delivered via smaller, steeper rivers with more rapid transport and shorter residence time in alluvial deposits. Provenance of MV27, on the western flank of MT, has a similar characteristic with the MT provenance before 40 Kyr. BP (cluster 8), then switches to provenance more consistent with PT cores (clusters 4 and 7, high in quartz, feldspar and lithic fragments) after that period.

After 20 ky BP, sediment composition becomes similar across the PT upper slope (MV-54), PT toe of slope (MV-23) and the entire Moresby Trough system except MV 27, with increased quartz and feldspar grains of cluster 12 (Fig. 4.8d, Table 4.3). Comparison of cluster 9 mineral compositions with terrestrial sample composition (Figs. 4.6a and 4.6b) and regional geology (Fig. 4.2) suggests that this channel levee system was receiving mixed sources both from the Papuan mainland and Papuan Peninsula. This linked depositional system extended from Pandora Trough toe of slope MV23 (also just upslope from Moresby Channel) into Moresby Trough (MV25 and MV22). Samples from this system post 20 ky BP are high in perthite, polycrystalline quartz similar to the Pandora Trough provenance but also high in mafic minerals such as amphibole and anorthite, more consistent with MT and the Papuan Peninsula, suggesting major sediment sources from the northern GoP and Papuan mainland were mixing with Neogene volcanics from the Papuan Peninsula.

Most samples from MV29 (interpreted in Chapter 2 of this study to be near the channel thalweg) show more mature composition depleted in lithic fragments and perthite, and elevated in mafic components such as amphibole (cluster 6, Fig. 4.9b and Table 4.3) compared to other

localities in Moresby Channel, suggesting a localized source from the Papuan Peninsula not widely represented in other cores.

4.5.4 Synthesis

Figure 4.11 conceptually illustrates sediment sources and delivery to the PT and MT over five time spans encompassed by one or more core age models, supplemented with a Pleistocene-Holocene sea level curve (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) highlighting the time interval of interest (oldest to youngest): Early MIS3 (>40 ky BP; sea level 50-70 meters below present sea level (mbpsl); Fig. 4.11a,), late MIS3 (30-40 ky BP; sea level 60-80 mbpsl; Fig. 4.11b); early MIS2 (20-30 ky BP; sea level 70-120 mbpsl; Fig. 4.11c); mid MIS2 (17-20 ky BP; sea level 100-120 mbpsl; Fig. 4.11d); and late MIS2/early MIS1(<17 ky BP; sea level 100-50 mbpsl; Figs. 4.11e and 4.11f). Ages of marine isotope stages are from Lisiecki and Raymo (2005).

Early MIS3 (>40 ky BP)

During early MIS 3 (Fig. 4.11a), sea level was ~50-70 m lower than present, and there were two major sediment sources to the MT and PT documented by cores with sediments of this age (MV23, 25, and 27), likely the Papuan mainland and Papuan Peninsula to the east, based on proximity and lithology (Figs. 4.1 and 4.2). Sediments along the western flank of Moresby Trough were likely sourced from the central to eastern Papuan Mainland including felsic and recycled sedimentary provenances (MV23 basal samples, clusters 4 and 7) (Davies, 2012)(Fig. 4.2). Eastern MT and Moresby Channel likely received sediments from the Papuan Peninsula and easternmost mainland via rivers entering the eastern GoP (MV25 and MV27 basal samples, cluster 8), including relatively abundant volcanics and ultramafics (Davies, 2012) (Fig. 4.2).

Late MIS3 (33-40 ky BP)

During late MIS3 (Fig. 4.11b), sea level was falling through ~70-80 mbpsl, which may have induced incision and erosion in near-coastal portions of many river systems, and enhanced sediment transport across the narrowing continental shelf (Covault et al., 2007, Covault et al., 2011). MT continued to receive sediments consistent with Papuan Peninsula rock types (MV22 and 25; clusters 8 and 10, Table 4.3) (Davies, 2012) (Fig. 4.2). Chronostratigraphy for MV27 is constrained by δ^{18} O stratigraphy (McFadden, unpublished, cited in chapter-2 of this thesis), 2015), and with the cluster stratigraphy in Figure 4.8d suggests that sediments of cluster 4 were being transported down the eastern PT (MV23) and western MT (MV27) during this time interval (Fig. 4.3b), suggesting a shared source for sediment in these two cores during at least part of this time span.

Figure 4.3b illustrates modern bathymetry in the study area, along with submarine channel thalwegs determined from slope analysis of the modern bathymetric data set used for Figure 4.3b (Daniell, 2008, processed as described in Patterson, 2006, and Francis et al., 2008). It is unlikely that terrigenous sand could have been delivered to MV27 from locations directly upslope at that time, because MV27 is located on the deep flank of a mid-ocean plateau (Eastern Fields Plateau), with no obvious sources of terrigenous sand. Although modern bathymetry has almost certainly changed from the local bathymetry of 30-40 ky BP, the presence of a modern thalweg connecting locations of MV23 and MV-29 (immediately downslope of MV27) does suggest the possibility that comparable delivery conduits might have existed during late MIS3. Core chronostratigraphy documents 3-10 m of local seabed aggradation at these core locations over the past 30-40 ky. The present water depths at MV23 and 27 are comparable (2068 and 2071 m respectively), but present difference in depth between MV23 and the thalweg at MV 29 (water depth 2288 m) is

~220m over a distance of ~200 km (slope of ~11 m/km), within the range of gradients required for sustained turbidity current transport (Wright et al., 2001).

Collectively, these observations suggest that sediments sourced from geologically distinct locations and carried by sediment-gravity flows (northwest of MV 54 and 33, and northeast of 54 and 23; Figs. 4.2 and 4.3b) could be delivered to one location from multiple submarine channels that presently converge between MV23 and MV29. Based on modern channel elevations and core locations in Figure 4.3b, sand that accumulated near MV27 ca. 20 ky BP to >40 ky BP (chapter-2 and 3 of this thesis) would have required turbidity currents suspending sand >200m above the thalweg elevation downslope of MV27. Core MV29 is constrained chronostratigraphically by only one basal dead radiocarbon measurement and tenuous lithocorrelation (Chapter 2 of this study), and contains sediments of different composition from surrounding cores (cluster 6), potentially from a unique local source not previously identified, or at a different time (if our lateral chronostratigraphic correlations are incorrect). Considering the flow energy likely required for elevating sand suspensions >200m above the bed, non-deposition or seabed erosion (exposing older sediments) is one plausible explanation for the provenance contrast between MV29 and surrounding cores in sediments >2m in the seabed. One possible explanation for differing lithologies in sediments of the same age in MV27 compared to MV22 and 25 is that only turbidity currents along the MV23-MV29 route were energetic enough to deposit sands 200 m upslope from the thalweg (i.e., at MV27), whereas turbidity currents arriving from more eastern thalwegs did not suspend sand to the same elevations. This mixing of sediments from multiple sources at this time is supported by the comparable CIA values for sediments of this age in these cores, shown in Figure 4.7a (CIA values of 65-75 immediately preceding MIS2 in each core).

Early MIS2 (20-30 ky BP)

During early MIS2 (30-20 Kyr BP), (Fig 4.11c) sea level dropped through 70-120 mbpsl, sub-aerially exposing continental shelves adjacent to the PT and MT. Our age models cannot resolve elevated sediment supply at this time, but core lithology (Chapter 2 of this study)documents abundant sandy turbidites in core sediments of this age from the PT (MV23 and 33) and MT (MV 22 and 25) (Fig. 4.4). Sand compositions indicated by cluster analysis (Figs. 4.8 and 9b) suggest multiple local sources. Single occurrences of individual clusters include clusters 1 and 11 in MV22, and cluster 5 in MV25. Cluster 8 is shared by MT cores MV22 and 25, as well as MV23 which is >200 km up-channel, along a channel axis very distant from that feeding MV22. The MV27 location, 200 m above the thalweg on the western edge of MT, continued to receive sand from turbidity currents with the same composition as the previous time span (clusters 4 and 7) which differs from the composition of sands that accumulated both closer to the main thalweg, and along up-channel location MV23 (Figs. 4.3b for location and Fig. 4.8d).

During this time span, the occurrence of cluster 4 at MV27 is unique, and is the last sand body deposited at this location, to the present. Cluster 4 compared to cluster 8 is enriched in monocrystalline quartz and lithic fragments, and depleted in epidote, amphibole, polycrystalline quartz, and chloritoid, and is generally consistent with the more sedimentary/felsic provenance of western catchments feeding sediment to our study area. Contrasting sediments were accumulating both up-channel and down-slope, suggesting that contrasting delivery mechanisms may have been transporting sands to the locations of MV27, compared to MV23 (PT) and MV 22 and 25 (MT), such as direct or indirect volcanic delivery, versus fluvial supply of reworked terrestrial sediments. It is also possible that our age models for this time period are inaccurate, resulting in faulty chronostratigraphic correlations. Regardless, this time span appears to have been characterized by diverse sediment sources and compositions, which is generally consistent with many regional rivers crossing the exposed shelf, delivering local sediment directly to the most proximal basins, a condition consistent with the lowest sea level of the LGM that occurred near the end of this time span.

<u>Mid MIS2 (17-20 ky BP)</u>

Mid MIS2 (20-17) Kyr BP (Fig 4.11d), sea level 100-120 mbpsl, coincides with the Last Glacial maximum (23-19 Kyr BP from Oxygen isotope curve, 20-18 Kyr BP from CIA curve in this study). The sea level is in the lowest position recorded, and shelf area is sub-aerially exposed. During this time, sand is no longer being deposited at MV27, and the locations of MV23, 22, 25, and 29 (based on potentially inaccurate chronostratigraphic correlation) are all accumulating sediments of cluster 12 composition. Compared to cluster 8 composition (which characterized many cores during the previous time span; Fig. 4.8d), cluster 12 is enriched in chloritoid and amphibole, and depleted in pumice and perthite (Table 4.3), suggesting possible increase in the relative proportion of sediment delivery from the more mafic/ultramafic Papuan Peninsula, compared to the more felsic/sedimentary Papuan Mainland (Fig. 4.2; Davies 2012), or alternatively, expanded exposure and erosion of such mafic/ultramafic materials in proximal catchments.

This similarity of sediments deposited in the up-channel regions of MV23 and 22 to the thalweg-proximal locations of MV25 and 29 contrasts with the compartmentalized composition of sediments deposited during the previous time interval. This relative uniformity could be due to either the effects of very large turbidity currents that transport uniform material across large areas, or because similar sediment types are being produced in multiple catchments. Cessation of

sand accumulation at MV27 at this time suggests that the latter explanation could be more plausible. This uniformity does not encompass sediments accumulating in PT at this time (MV33, clusters 2 and 8). The lack of continuity between MV33 and MV23 is possibly attributable to blockage of sediment-gravity flows by a large mass-transport deposited between PT and MT, that likely occurred near the LGM, according to morphological and chronostratigraphic analysis (Chapter 2 of this study).

Late MIS2/early MIS1(<17 ky BP)

During late MIS2/early MIS1(<17 ky BP sea level 110-0 mbpsl) (Fig 4.11e and f), sediment delivery to deep GoP basins decreased greatly, particularly following the Younger Dryas stadial (Jorry et al., 2008), although local delivery of mostly muddy sediment continues to the present at modest rates (Muhammad et al., 2008; Howell et al., 2014). Sandy sediment delivery to the location of MV54 appears to begin abruptly ca. 16 ky BP (Febo et al., 2008) then cease abruptly as well ca. 15-14 ky BP, near the time of a major deglacial melt-water pulse (Melt-water Pulse 1A) (Liu et al., 2004; Kubo and Syvitski, 2006; Febo et al., 2008) (Fig. 4.4). During this time, sandy MV54 sediments were composed of (old to young) of clusters 8, 3, 9, and 12, a general increase over time of mafic/ultramafic and low-grade metamorphic products (Table 4.3, Fig. 4.8d). These relatively rapid changes in sediment composition at MV54 are consistent with changes in organic content and magnetic properties identified in the same core by Febo et al. (2008), and are coincident with the flooding of the outer shelf at that time (based on the regional sea level curve of Howell et al. [2014]); this suggests that these changes are associated with sediment dispersal processes that shift rapidly as the shelf and associated incised river channels are flooded, and tidal and coastal processes begin to influence river mouths more strongly. Sandy sediment delivery to PT (MV33) ceases during MWP1b, then resumes during the Younger Dryas (ca. 12.5-11.5 ky BP) (Jorry et al., 2008)(Fig. 4.4), retaining generally felsic/sedimentary provenance (clusters 7 and 3, old to young) (Fig. 4.8d) consistent with modern Fly/Strickland sediment composition (Figs. 4.5 and 4.6) (Milliman, 1995; Brunskill, 2004). Elsewhere in the deep basins, sandy sediment delivery ceases (MV23 and 27) in some locations, while sediments of clusters 6, 12, and 1(uniquely at MV22) are reaching the deep MT, from sources that include fresh volcanics (cluster 1) as well as weathered and eroded mafic/ultramafic rocks (cluster 12). Because these deposits are largely localized on the eastern margin of MT, likely sources are proximal, upslope of MV22, from the Papuan Peninsula (Figs. 4.2 and 4.3b). Unlike other locations in this study, relatively rapid sediment accumulation continues at MV22 into the middle Holocene (Fig. 4.4, at least 24 cm/ky since 7.4 ky BP) (chapter-2 this thesis), containing abundant fresh pumice (Table 4.3, Figs. 4.9a and also 4.9d), which is consistent with proximal supply of fresh volcaniclastic sediments (Patterson, 2006).



Figure-4.11 (a-f) Late Quaternary source to sink reconstruction in GoP

4.6.Conclusion

This study of SEM-MLA provenance analysis has yields the following insights, regarding both applicability of this powerful analytical tool, and the geological evolution of deep GoP sedimentary basins since the late Pleistocene.

Methodology:

- SEM-MLA can be used to replicate Gazzi-Dickinson provenance analysis. SEM-MLA
 results do not introduce artifacts due to methodology, and can yield a broader and more
 insightful classification of samples than manual point counts. For our samples, particlebased SEM-MLA counts yielded the broadest classification of samples, with no evidence
 of artifacts.
- 2. The combined use of SimPer and nMDS allows determination of sample clusters based on the information content of SEM-MLA analysis, rather than a prescribed threedimensional space such as a ternary plot. This approach is much more effective at discriminating differences and similarities across large datasets with many parameters than is the case for more traditional QFL analysis.

Geology of Study Area:

- 3. The chemical index of alteration (CIA) shows that Pandora Trough in general is characterized by more highly weathered minerals compared to the Moresby Trough, and minimum values of CIA were evident for some locations near the time of the LGM, indicating some combination of low weathering rates, rapid erosion, and rapid transport from land to deep-sea basins.
- Cluster analysis of sample mineralogy yields a story of sediment delivery along a ~500 km into basin margin that is much more complex than initially imagined. Results indicate

that sediment delivery to and conduit connectivity between deep-sea basins evolves over time due to the combined effects of eustasy and dynamic seabed morphology. Multiple terrestrial sediment sources along a \sim 500 km basin margin initially converge to form one continuous deep-sea system of channels and two major basins prior to 30 ky BP, that become bathymetrically separated by a large mass-transport deposit. Subsequent sealevel fall approaching the LGM initially drives re-partitioning of sediment sources to create multiple compositionally distinct depocentres, presumably due to migration and incision of individual rivers across the newly exposed coastal plain. Multiple separate deep-sea channels then regain compositional similarity near the end of the LGM, possibly due to regional erosion into compositionally similar catchment rocks. After this, sand transport to the deep basins shuts down, except for one depocentre (MV22). This is likely due to combined factor of (1) morphological setting where the shelf-slope distance is narrow thus ease the access from river mouth into shelf edge and reduce shelf trapping capacity (2) oceanographic processes namely long-shore drift current which actively entrain sediment during the flooding event in shelf corridor, and (3) based on mineralogical composition; probably contain an additional terrigenous influx from local volcanism that remain active into the Middle Holocene.

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CHAPTER 5

The Late Quaternary deep-sea depositional system in the Gulf of Papua: linking source, dynamic sedimentation processes and depositional architecture, discussion and conclusion

5.1. Discussion and conclusion

This study has examined source to sink sediment delivery from river systems to the slope and deep-sea basins of the Gulf of Papua (GoP), over the last ~40 ky, at millennial temporal resolution and finer. The results have offered new insights into the the development of sedimentary successions in deep-sea basins, and also into approaches for provenance analysis. Chapter I is primarily introduction and context, with major products of research presented in chapters II-IV.

Chapter II is an integrated study of lithofacies, lithostratigraphy, and chronostratigraphy in the GoP. Six deep water lithofacies are identified based on core visual and textural observation. Chronological constraints permit an assessment of changes in sediment supply and depositional environments across time and space, from MIS 3 to MIS 1. The sediment delivery to the deep water GoP is dominated by two mechanisms, gravity-driven flows down slopes and into deep sea basins primarily during lowstands in western portions of the study area, and hemipelagic sediment accumulation during transgression and highstand. Although the sediment flux appears to be overall dominated by sediment gravity flows, hemipelagic sediment delivery is widespread during periods of sea level highstand. In eastern portions of the study area, off-shelf sediment delivery continued into the Holocene in sufficient local volumes to produce turbidity currents. This late, localized sediment delivery appears to have been facilitated by oceanographic processes that allowed seaward sediment transport after flooding of the shelf. In summary, deep water sedimentation during the late Pleistocene and Holocene in the Gulf of Papua is characterized by mostly fine sediment delivery, controlled by local morphology and oceanographic processes. This modern analog differs in its complexity from traditional highstand-lowstand sediment-delivery paradigms.

Chapter III evaluated the morphology and seabed dynamics of the two major contrasting depocentres in the GoP (Pandora and Moresby Troughs), with their associated canyons, channels and slopes. The study incorporated multibeam bathymetric, geo-acoustic and core data to relate depositional processes, routing, timing and products over ~40 Ka time scales, during which the continental margin was exposed during sea level fall to the LGM, and was then drowned during the deglacial transgression. Our work has established 10 acoustic facies classes, based on the sound penetration, seismic internal characters and seafloor relief, facilitated by 3D seafloor visualization. Integration of acoustic facies with core physical properties, sedimentary fabric, and chronostratigraphy allowed placement of seafloor evolution into a well defined temporal framework.

This study revealed three possible pathways of sediment delivery to the deep sea. Pathway (1) is long distance transport of the sediment from Papuan Mainland via mature river across shelf and slope, to the Pandora basin floor and Moresby Channel to their final fate in the Coral Sea Basin. The channel developed into a major sediment transfer avenue, hosting large turbidity currents with the turbidite cloud reaching at least 30 Km laterally (evidence from core MV-23) and 200 m vertically (evidence from channel-levee flank deposits such as in MV-25, MV-27 and MV-29). Pathway (2) is the short distance sediment transport apparently from the collision margin of the Papuan Peninsula, delivered via small rivers across a narrow shelf into large deep-sea canyons. Major depositional units include a large sediment-wave like feature at the western

toe of slope in Moresby Trough. There are two possibilities of such processes to create this element: a large wave with undulatory morphology created by flow interaction with the bed, or formation as a drape over pre-existing undulatory topography, possibly from the remnant of a past MTD.

Pathway (3) is the intermediate- to long-distance delivery from northern GoP rivers and Papuan Peninsula along coastal pathways to the Moresby Trough when the shelf edge is subaqueous, via oceanic and coastal hydrodynamic transport.

We propose two developments in the source-to-sink narrative for our study area during the past ~40 ky. (1) In the Pandora Trough, turbidite sedimentation is dominant from late MIS-3 to the end of MIS-2 (>40 Ka - 14 Ka), and ceased by early Holocene due to relief modification caused by MTD, rising sea level and associated shelf trapping of sediment. (2) Turbidite sedimentation continued in the Moresby Trough, although at a slower rate, into the Holocene transgression. Sediment sources to deep water included reworked shelf edge deposits, and more direct river-mouth supply entrained by coastal currents on the flooding continental shelf (<~15 Ka). This flooding and current system enabled coalescence of multiple river sources to supply fan aggradation in the Moresby Trough.

The understanding of this modern deepwater analog provides insights on the detailed control on the sub-reservoir scale of deep-sea sand delivery and accumulation, controlled by local morphology and relief modification, and oceanographic processes.

Chapter IV is a provenance analysis of deep-water turbidite sands in the Moresby and Pandora troughs, using SEM-MLA and multivariate statistical methods. This chapter provides the following insights, regarding both applicability of this powerful analytical tool, and the geological evolution of deep GoP sedimentary basins since the late Pleistocene. Methodology:

1. SEM-MLA can be used to replicate Gazzi-Dickinson provenance analysis. SEM-MLA results do not introduce artifacts due to methodology, and can yield a broader and more ternary QFL insightful classification of samples than manual point counts. For our samples, particle-based SEM-MLA counts yielded the broadest classification of samples, with no evidence of artifacts.

2. The combined use of SimPer and nMDS allows determination of sample clusters based on the information content of SEM-MLA analysis, rather than a prescribed threedimensional space such as a ternary plot. This approach is much more effective at discriminating differences and similarities across large datasets with many parameters than is the case for more traditional QFL analysis.

Geology of Study Area:

3. The chemical index of alteration (CIA) shows that Pandora Trough in general is characterized by more highly weathered minerals compared to the Moresby Trough, and minimum values of CIA were evident for some locations near the time of the LGM, indicating some combination of low weathering rates, rapid erosion, and rapid transport from land to deepsea basins.

4. Cluster analysis of sample mineralogy yields a story of sediment delivery along a \sim 500 km basin margin that is much more complex than initially imagined. Results indicate that sediment delivery to and conduit connectivity between deep-sea basins evolves over time due to the combined effects of eustasy and dynamic seabed morphology. Multiple terrestrial sediment sources along a \sim 500 km basin margin initially converge to form one continuous deep-sea system of channels and two major basins prior to 30 ky BP, that become bathymetrically

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separated by a large mass-transport deposit. Subsequent sea-level fall approaching the LGM initially drives re-partitioning of sediment sources to create multiple compositionally distinct depocenters, presumably due to migration and incision of individual rivers across the newly exposed coastal plain. Multiple separate deep-sea channels then regain compositional similarity near the end of the LGM, possibly due to regional erosion into compositionally similar catchment rocks. After this, sand transport to the deep basins shuts down, except for one depocenter (MV22), fed by local volcanic, that remains active at least into the Middle Holocene.

The understanding of this modern analog has an implication to the petroleum exploration conceptual model, especially for a better prediction of sub-reservoir scale geometry (millennial – centennial time scale, metre-tens metre sedimentary unit) whether in the Gulf of Papua which is known to host major oil and gas reserves or other deep sea systems.

5.2 Potential for Improvement and Future Work.

Most scientific investigations tend to be incomplete, and allow room for improvement. In the present study, there are many uncertainties associated with the interpretation due to the limitations of the data. These include: depth of core penetration, wide spacing of cores, wide spacing and shallow penetration of of the sub-bottom profiles, the possibility of interpretation pitfalls from seismic resolution, projection, and side-sweep effect from the neighbouring high relief features. This study would have certainly benefitted from a more dense seismic grid using sources with greater seabed penetration, coring tools with greater penetration, and cores at closer spacing. A more intensive seismic survey was originally proposed for the PANASH cruise (A. Droxler, personal communication), but was not conducted due to regulatory problems. Some deeper cores in the study area do exist, with much greater penetration (e.g., cores collected by the R/V Marion Dufresene in 2005, including MD40 of Jorry et al., 2008), but these were not available for the present study. Nevertheless, with the limits of the data available, this study did provide new knowledge and insights described above.

Two major recommendations for future work are proposed. First, study of Marion Dufresne cores from the deep basins should be conducted to develop a more complete picture of shelf to basin sediment delivery over more time than a partial glacial cycle. Ongoing studies of these cores are primarily biostratigraphic in nature, and would benefit from more physical sedimentological evaluation. Second, the analytical and statistical approaches used here for provenance analysis (SEM-MLA, SimPer, and nMDS) could be evaluated in more detail to produce a standard detrital provenance methodology, as a potential alternative or successor to the Gazzi-Dickinson approach. Such a development would standardize advanced analytical techniques that allow for much richer analysis, data extraction, and interpretation than is possible with more traditional approaches.

5.3 References

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Appendices

No	Section Segment	Location	Sta	art	E	nd	Length	depth	range intersection	core penetrated	Facies	Description	color code	line code
1	0001_2004_083	1 moresby	x 147.30595	-10.16666	x 147.231281	v -10.216641	Km 22.63	min 2260	max 2410 n/a			Strong continuous paralel sub bettem echo with slightly everlaping broad by perhalae (2.8 ± 4.5 km)		
											2b	distinct layering with thickness of 2 - 8 m, sound penetration: 75-80 m		•••••
		2 moresby	147.231281	-10.216641	146.846925	-10.0333345	61 13 9	2320	2410 0001_2004_082 @ 147.1333;-10.1667		1a	strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with shallow to medium penetration 40 -80 m		
		Sinoresby	140.840925	-10.055555	140.719937	-10.055550	13.9	2280	2505 11/8		1b	strong semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with indistinct discontinous reflector, iregular surface, sound penetration: 70-80 m		
		4 moresby	146.719957	-10.033356	146.324825	-9.961541	47.5	2210	2305 n/a	MV-29	1a	strong semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with indistinct discontinous reflector, iregular surface, sound penetration: 70-80 m.		
2	0001_2004_082	1 moresby	146.3789303	-10.00882	146.205715	-10.0810296	20.5	2160	2240 0001_2004_083 @ 146.3587; -10.0191		1a	strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with shallow to medium penetration, 100 at the lower point, decreasing to 60-80 m at the higher topography 50 m at the channel, u shape channel, 15-25 m depth, 880 m width.		
		2 moresby	146.205715	-10.08103	146.151749	-10.10349	6.41	2150	2155 n/a		3e	transparent lens, convex up, strong echo of type 1a in the base penetration: 50 m, probably slumning/ debris from upper slope		
		3 moresby	146.151749	-10.10349	146.0988	-10.12555	6.291	2060	2150 n/a		1b	strong semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with very indistinct discontinous reflector, flat surface,		<u></u>
		4 moresby	146.0988	-10.12555	146.085139	-10.166675	20.3	1850	2060		Зc	stund penetration. 50-00 m. strong seafloor echo, continous parallel sub-bottom reflector with narow and non overlapping		
		5 moresby	146.085139	-10.166675	146.291554	-10.166685	22.6	2025	2100		1b			
												strong semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with very indistinct discontinous reflector, flat surface, sound penetration: 50-60 m		
		6 moresby	146.291554	-10.166685	146.422112	-10.166663	14.3	2100	2170		2b	medium to strong seafloor echo, continous - semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, very narrow hyperbolae (0.5-1 km) with rugous surface. Semi distinct layering with interval of 5-10 m medium penetration (70m), layering diminish toward east		•••••
		7 moresby	146.422112	-10.166663	146.539537	-10.166626	12.9	2170	2180		1b	strong semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with very indistinct discontinous reflector, flat surface, sound penetration: 50 m, filling the valley area, gradually changes to facies 3D toward east.		<u></u>
		8 moresby	146.539537	-10.166626	146.9437	-10.16666	58	2070	2375	MV-27	2b	medium to strong seafloor echo, continous - semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, narrow hyperbolae (1.2 km) locally rugous surface and flat surface. Semi distinct layering with interval of 2- 10 m, medium penetration of 70 m, abruptly changes into facies 1a.		•••••
		9 moresby	146.9437	-10.16666	147.18	-10.166679	12.1	2375	2430 0001_2004_083 @ 147.1333;-10.1667		1a	strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with medium penetration of 80 m, in eastern part were overlied by debris flow.		
		10 moresby	147.18	-10.166679	147.244844	-10.166659	7.097	2350	2410		3e	transparent lens, convex up, strong echo of type 1b in the base medium penetration of 80 m, interpreted as slumping or thin debris flow from upper slope		
		11 moresby	147.244844	-10.166659	147.306363	-10.16667	6.55	2280	2400		2b	strong continuous paralel sub bottom echo, with overlaping broad hyperbolae (3.5 m), distinct to indistinct layering with thickness of 2 - 15 m, sound penetration: 100 m		•••••
4	0007_2004_080	1 moresby	147.11188	-9.551	146.937	-9.61	20.26	570	2050		3e	transparent lens, semi continous seafloor echo with irregular undulating surface weak/transparent sub-bottom reflector, shallow penetration 40 m, some artifact		
		2 moresby	146.937	-9.61	146.7936	-9.6608	16.7	2055	2130		2b	med-strong continuous paralel sub bottom echo, smooth surface low relief no hyperbolae, distinct layering with thickness of 1-5 m, gradually changes into facies 1c, sound penetration of 80 m		•••••
		3 moresby	146.7936	-9.6608	146.6447	-9.7126	17.31	2115	2130		1c	strong irregular highly prolonged seafloor echo, slightly or no overlapping hyperbolae (1-5 Km width) sound penetration: 60 m locally drapped by 2 m transparent layer		
		4 moresby	146.6447	-9.7126	146.325	-9.824	37.2	2055	2090	MV-22	3d	strong seafloor echo, continous -semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, narrow to medium width hyperbolae (0.9-2.5 Km), layering with 0.5 - 2 m thickness gradation to facies 3C toward west (near the channel) sound penetration of 70 m		
		5 moresby	146.325	-9.824	146.27196	-9.842685	6.1	2065	2085		Зc	distinct layering with thickness of 5-10 m, upper 25 m dominated by weak echo, transparent layer, with strong base echo resemble facies 3d on the base, total sound penetration : 50 m.		
		6 pandora	146.27196	-9.842685	146.21	-9.864	7.19	2085	2143		1a	strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with shallow penetration of 20- 40 m, mostly associated with chanell thalweg and wing. Channel a (east) is 63 m depth to the top of levee, 2.6 km width interpreted as the active channel, channel b (west) is 38 m depth, 1.2 km width, filled partially by mud interpreted as abandoned.		
		7 pandora	146.21	-9.864	146.129	-9.892	8.8	2080	2090		1b	strong semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with very indistinct discontinous reflector,rugous surface, with thin transparent layer (1m) sound penetration 40-50 m		·····
		8 pandora	146.129	-9.892	145.915652	-9.96677	24.801	2075	2085	MV-23 proj 6.7 km	2b	strong continous seafloor echo with continous to semi-continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, showing divergent trend toward east, distinct strong reflector showing thin layering (less than 1 m) thicker bottomward (1-5 m) sound penetration 30-40 m		•••••
5	0008_2004_082	1 moresby	146.56044	-9.933313	146.399167	-10.000398	19.17	2175	2210	MV-25	2b	medium-strong seafloor echo, continous -semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector with indistinct layering, average thickness = 2 m, sound penetration of 50 m		•••••

	2 moresby	146.399167	-10.000398	146.37893	-10.00882	2.469	2200	2230			1a	strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom, sound penetration of 60 m rough surface with wide hyperbolae (1-1.5 km), showing channel with width of 800m and 30 m depth, filled by muc	Ł	
6 0005_2004_079	1 pandora	145.014495	-9.296638	145.05525	-9.36	8.295	660	1000			3e	semi continous seafloor echo with irregular undulating surface weak/transparent sub-bottom reflector, deep penetration (100m)in shelf, medium penetration in slope (4-60 m), hard reflector 60 m from seafloor, layering (5-15 m).		
	3 pandora 4 pandora	145.05525 145.05949	-9.36 -9.3623	145.05949 145.108	-9.3623 -9.3716	0.53	1000	1000	0007 2004 091 @ 145.0979; -9.3704		1a	strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, with medium penetration of 80 m, possibility caused by orientation of the section (could interpreted as 3a) prolonged echo, no sub-bottom reflector medium penetration of 40 m in rugous area, 60 m in flat		
	5 pandora	145.108	-9.3716	145.142	-9.376	3.762	1230	1345	;		3a 1a	area strong flat non prolonged to semi prolonged sub bottom reflector, steep gradient, with medium penetration of 50-60 m gradually changes to facies 3d eastward.		www.
	6 pandora	145.142	-9.376	145.238	-9.389095	10.6	1345	1430			3d	medium-strong seafloor echo, continous -semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, layering with 2 - 10 m thickness, showing alternating between transparent layer and dark layer, locally folded rugous surface, interpreted as slide, penetration= 60 m upper part layering = 20 m below 40 m.	n	
	7 pandora	145.238	-9.389095	145.8382	-9.4696	66.44	1430	1820	0007_2004_091 @ 145.6912; -9.45016		3b	overlapping hyperbolae (50-200 m)locally shown a pounded soft sediment with transparent layer 20 m depth, 2-3 km width, penetration = 60-100 m.		11111111111111111111111
	8 pandora	145.8382	-9.4696	146.107	-9.505	29.74	1830	1965			1c	strong irregular highly prolonged seafloor echo, slightly or no overlapping hyperbolae (0.5-1 Km width) sound penetration: 60 m filling the low area.		
	10 moresby	146.107	-9.505	146.767	-9.59	72.3	1890	2080			3d	medium-strong seafloor echo, continous -semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, layering with 2 -5 m, showing alternating transparent and dark layer, depth of penetration= 40-60 m	n	1111111111111111111111111
	12 moresby	146.672	-9.58	146.907012	-9.61133	26	2080	2110			За	medium seafloor echo, continous -semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, layering with alternated transparent and dark layer, depth of penetration= 60-80 m		
7 0004_2004_085	1 pandora	145.585	-9.9043	145.665	-9.9247	9.052	1790	1790			2b	strong continous seafloor echo with continous to semi-continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, divergent toward N-NW distinct strong reflector showing thin layering (less than 1 to 2 m) sound penetration 50 -60 m		
	3 pandora	145.665	-9.9247	145.73698	-9.796	45.41	1860	2010			Зc	medium continuous paralel sub bottom echo, broad overlapping hyperbolae 2-4 Km, distinct layering with thickness of 2-5 m, sound penetration of 40 m.		******
	4 pandora	145.73698	-9.796	145.54977	-9.7486	21.18	1770	1790	000_2004_085 @ 145.6417; -9.7719		2b	strong continous seafloor echo with continous to semi-continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, divergent toward N-NW distinct strong reflector showing thin layering (less than 1 to 2 m) sound penetration 60 -80 m, event terminated at structural ridges		
	5 pandora	145.54977	-9.7486	145.5246	-9.7422	2.85	1100	1720			Зb	medium seafloor echo, highly prolonged, without sub-bottom reflector, broad overlapping hyperbolae (3.1 km), sound penetration = 60 m, very steep gradient data unreliable in some segment		
	6 pandora	145.5246	-9.7422	145.378	-9.70499	16.6	1720	1740			3a	medium seafloor echo, continous -semi continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, layering with 2 -8 m, showing alternating transparent and dark layer, depth of penetration= 60-70 m		~~~~~~
	7 pandora	145.378	-9.70499	145.33335	-9.6655	8.237	1720	1745			3e	transparent lens, convex up, strong echo of type 1a in the base penetration: 80 m, low gradient, lenses with thickness 15-30 m, 8.237 km length, deposited toward S-Sw		
	8 pandora	145.33335	-9.6655	145.5925	-9.6685	33.63	1640	1760			3b	strong seafloor echo, highly prolonged, without sub-bottom reflector, close space intensely overlapping hyperbolae (50-200 m) penetration = 80 m, some showing intensively thrusting		
	9 pandora	145.5925	-9.6685	145.600034	-9.86668	31.36	1770	1780	000_2004_085 @ 145.6417; -9.7719	MV-33	2b	strong continous seafloor echo with continous to semi-continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, divergent toward S-SW distinct strong reflector showing distinct layering of average 5m sound penetration 50 -60 m in distal part		
8 0007_2004_091	1 pandora	145.08397	-9.352	145.323127	-9.5822	38.484	1030	1645	0005_2004_079 @ 145.0979; -9.3704		Зе	transparent lens, convex up, medium echo of type 3a in the base penetration: 80 m, low gradient, lenses with thickness 10-25 m, 7.884 Km length		
	3 pandora	145.323127	-9.5822	145.611177	-9.6025	47.16	1660	1760			3b	strong seafloor echo, highly prolonged, without sub-bottom reflector, close space intensely overlapping hyperbolae (50-200 m) penetration = 50 m, some showing extensional gashes and pounded sediment.		
	4 pandora	145.611177	-9.6025	145.618342	-9.6018	4.463	1760	1765			2b	strong continous seafloor echo with continous to semi-continous parallel sub-bottom reflector, pounded and thicker toward mid of the depocenter, distinct layering of less than 1 m to 5 m, sound penetration total= 40m, pounded sediment = 25 m		
	5 pandora	145.618342	-9.6018	145.757	-9.326	34.26	1645	1760			3b	strong seafloor echo, highly prolonged, without sub-bottom reflector, close space intensely overlapping small hyperbolae less than 200m and wide hyperbolae 2-3.5 km resemble facies 3c penetration = 50 m, some showing extensional gashes and pounded sediment		
	6 pandora	145.757	-9.326	145.966685	-9.00008	42.94	1610	1720			1c	strong irregular highly prolonged seafloor echo, slightly or no overlapping hyperbolae (1-5 Km width) sound penetration: 60 m sometimes showing layering)	
9 0007_2004_092	1 pandora	145.966685	-9.00008	145.9422	-8.92497	8.774	1500	1610			1c	strong irregular highly prolonged seafloor echo, no overlapping hyperbolae, moderate gradient, sound penetration = 60 m		

		2 pandora	145.9422	-8.92497	145.97044	-8.69928	27.31	970	1500	0006_2004_089 @ 145.936; -8.7295		3e	series of transparent lens, convex up, medium echo of type 1c in the base, steep gradient,	
												50	penetration – 50 m, steep gradient lenses with tinkness of 10-15 m, 0-5 km length	~~~~~~
		3 pandora	145.97044	-8.69928	146.043666	-8.8153	30.88	760	980	0006_2004_088 @146.0580; -8.7998		Зc	medium continuous paralel sub bottom echo, no overlapping wide hyperbolae (3.5 km), distinct layering with thickness of 10 m sound penetration of 70 m, drapped by thin transparent layer 1 -2 m.	
10	0006_2004_088	1 pandora	145.7558	-8.63	145.797	-8.6038	5.445	770	880				weak-medium continuous paralel sub bottom echo, no overlapping wide hyperbolae (2.5 km),	
												3c	distinct layering with thickness of 10 m sound penetration of 50-80 m, drapped by thin transparent layer 1 -2 m.	
		2 pandora	145.797	-8.6038	145.8367	-8.582098	4.991	840	880			2a	semi continous seafloor echo with irregular undulating surface weak/transparent sub-bottom reflector, penetration = 70m transparent layer with 20 m thickness, overlayed with thin 1-2 m transparent layer.	
		3 pandora	145.8367	-8.582098	146.018341	-8.7666	111.9	320	800	loop @ 146.6457; -8.593 0007_2004_092 @ 146.0580; -8.7998	MV-49,MV-51, Mc-50	Зc	weak-medium continuous paralel sub bottom echo, no overlapping wide hyperbolae (4.5 km), distinct layering with thickness of 10 m sound penetration of 90 m, showing alternating between transparent and dark layer.	*********
11	0006_2004_089	1 pandora	146.0183	-8.7666	145.94516	-8.7387	11.9	890	1110			3c	v. weak-medium continuous paralel sub bottom echo, no overlapping wide hyperbolae (4.5 km), indistinct layering with thickness of 10 m disrupting in some place with facies 1c, with strong echo, rugous surface sound penetration of 70 m, drapped by 5 m transparent layer	
		2 pandora	145.94516	-8.7387	145.833	-8.6679	23.02	1000	1110			2a	semi continous seafloor echo with irregular/ rough surface weak/transparent sub-bottom reflector, penetration = 70m transparent layer with10-15 20 thickness, overlayed with thin 1-2 m transparent layer.	******
		3 pandora	145.833	-8.6679	145.766	-8.78677	15.13	970	1055			Зc	weak-medium continuous paralel sub bottom echo, no overlapping wide hyperbolae (4.5 km), semi distinct layering with thickness of 10 m overlayed with type 2a facies, sound penetration = 50-80 m	
		4 pandora	145.766	-8.78677	145.474	-8.67364	36.6	550	1180			3e	series of transparent lens, convex up, medium echo of type 1c in the base, steep gradient, penetration= 50 m, lenses thickness of 5-10 m with 4-6 km length.	
12	2 0006_2004_090	1 pandora	145.474	-8.67364	145.353	-8.741	17.14	140	640			3e	transparent lenses, multi stage, convex up, with lenses thickness of 10 m in upper slope to 25 m in lower slope, no hyperbolae, rugged surface, high gradient, sound penetration = 70-80 m	
		2 pandora	145.353	-8.741	145.292833	-8.77999	18.51	120	140			2a	strong semiprolonged seafloor echo with irregular/ rough surface weak/transparent sub-bottom reflector, penetration = 60 80m, low gradient or almost flat.	
		3 pandora	145.292833	-8.77999	145.352167	-8.8579	10.84	140	860			3e	transparent lenses, multi stage, convex up, with lenses thickness of 5 m above and to 15-20 m underneath , no hyperbolae, rugged surface, high gradient, sound penetration = 45-70 m	
		4 pandora	145.352167	-8.8579	145.388672	-8.936333	16.62	750	1025		MV-54	3a	weak to medium single seafloor echo with overlapping hyperbolae (narrow, 50-300m) prolonged - semi prolonged echo, no sub bottom reflector, sound penetration of 50-60 m	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~
		5 pandora	145.388672	-8.936333	145.37756	-8.9337	1.315	880	920			2a	strong semiprolonged seafloor echo with irregular/ rough surface, mostly overlain by 5 m transparent layer in the surface, weak/transparent sub-bottom reflector, penetration = 60-80m, moderate gradient	
		6 pandora	145.37756	-8.9337	145.222625	-8.897133	17.5	240	920			3e	thin transparent lenses (1-2 m), covering 3c type facies in some place, convex up strong non	
		7 pandora	145.222625	-8.897133	145.236542	-8.938995	20.3	120	180		MV-55	2a	strong semiprolonged seafloor echo with irregular/ rough surface, no sub-bottom reflector, showing small hyperbolae (20-50 m width) and isolated wide hyperbolae 4 km, 20 m depth, sound penetration = 80 - 100 m	
		8 pandora	145.236542	-8.938995	145.28263	-8.97146	6.219	140	720			3e	thin semi transparent lenses (1-5 m), convex up, strong reflector with semi prolonged echo, with	
13	3 0005_2004_088	1 pandora	145.83555	-8.4354	145.800735	-8.43627	6.246	370	400	0005_2004_087 @ 145.83555; -8.4354		3e	thick semi transparent lenses (40 m), convex up, medium to weak reflector underneath, with	
		2 pandora	145.800735	-8.43627	145.6296	-8.4499	18.41	140	280			20	surface resembles facies 1c.	
		3 pandora	145.6296	-8.4499	145.6493	-8.72583	42.48	480	920		MC-19 projected	Za	strong semiprolonged seafloor echo with irregular/ rough surface, no sub-bottom reflector, showing thick semi transparent lenses (40 m). convex up, medium to weak reflector underneath, with	
		4 pandora	145.6493	-8.72583	145.7558	-8.63	16.5	835	940			3e	surface resembles facies 3a. weak to medium single seafloor echo with overlapping hyperbolae (narrow, 50-300m) prolonged -	
14	4 0005_2004_087	1 pandora	146.19281	-8.60794	146.158	-8.61305	4.002	95	130			3a	semi prolonged echo, no sub bottom reflector, sound penetration of 50-60 m strong reflector with high-prolonged seafloor echo, very irregular/ rough surface, sub-bottom	······································
		2 pandora	146.158	-8.61305	146.121231	-8.610325	4.054	120	460			2a	reflector occur, layering with average thickness of 3-8 m, depth penetration, (>100 m). thick semi transparent lenses (40 m). convex up, medium to weak reflector underneath, steep	*****
		2	146 101001	0.0100005	145 067117	0.461525	24.7	275	675			3e	gradient with surface resembles facies 1c, penetration: 80 m	~~~~~~~
		3 pandora	146.121231	-8.610325	145.967117	-8.461535	24.7	275	675			Зc	hyperbolae, rugous surface, with layer thickness of 6-10m, stratigraphic terminated by topography high, facies 1d on the base, sound penetration of 80 m.	
		4 pandora	145.967117	-8.461535	145.7987	-8.4671	29.6	350	440	0005_2004_088 @ 145.83555; -8.4354	MV-46	3e	thick semi transparent lenses (40 m), convex up, medium to weak reflector underneath, steep gradient with surface resembles facies 1d, penetration: 80 m	
		5 pandora	145.7987	-8.4671	145.83439	-8.454	12.36	420	690			3c	strong paralel sub bottom echo, no hyperbolae, smooth surface, layer thickness of 2-10 m,	
		6 pandora	145.83439	-8.454	145.8358	-8.394	7.229	140	320	0005_2004_088 @ 145.83555; -8.4354		3e	thick semi transparent lenses (20 m), convex up, divergent toward down slope/ south underneath,	
		7 pandora	145.8358	-8.394	145.793869	-8.38648	24.9	70	140		MV-41	2a	steep gradient with base resembles facies 1b, penetration: 50-60 m strong reflector with high-prolonged seafloor echo, very irregular/ rough surface, no sub-bottom reflector, transparent layer with thickness of 10-30 m, base surfaces resemble facies 1b, moderate-	
		8 pandora	145.793869	-8.38648	145.83555	-8.4354	24.9	140	400	0005_2004_088 @ 145.83555; -8.4354		30	gentle gradient, sound penetration of >130m thick semi transparent lenses (20 m), convex up, divergent toward down slope/ south underneath,	
												36	steep gradient with base resembles facies 1b, penetration: 50-60 m	



- 1. Grain Based point count: include all grains which are $> 3.9 \mu m$ (e.g. = no.1, 2, 4,5 etc)
- 2. Particle based point count: include all grains which are > 62.5 μ m (e.g = no.1)
- 3. Area based point count: include all total number of grids

Physiographic Position	Density	Formula	Reference	P	andora Tro	ough Slope											Pandor	a Trough	Basin Floo	r							
Sample				MV54-49	MV54-180 N	MV54-320 MV5	4-360	MV23-113	MV23-155	MV23-239 1	VV23-327	MV23-416 N	MV23-506 N	1V23-698 N	AV23-732	MV23-779	MV23-805	MV23-940	MV23-980 N	1V33-314 M	V33-521	MV33-628 M\	/33-817	MV33-916	MV33-1036	MV33-1115	MV33-1173
Altered minerals/clay	2.6	Al2Si2O5(OH)4		16306	8586	14250	14424	18222	23309	15823	19474	17463	18534	19302	13867	14820	17163	19207	13920	14766	12681	14057	13931	12983	13693	13937	10343
Amphibole	3.23	Ca2[Mg4(Al0.75Fe0.25)]Si7AlO22(OH)2		3623	1067	1949	2234	3489	4198	3295	4384	2743	1163	1541	941	772	1104	1412	1354	1255	676	910	992	793	1121	1092	1000
Biotite	3	K(Mg,Fe)3(AlSi3O10)(OH)2	Klein	173	55	68	111	289	219	89	191	79	20	80	20	27	34	45	66	37	24	25	28	21	54	42	29
Quartz	2.65	SiO2	Jones	4358	3256	3780	3212	5205	6810	4257	5146	4152	7632	7412	5375	4695	5269	6249	4897	5000	3127	3329	2329	3063	3390	3496	2016
Quartz_mixture	2.65	SiO2	Jones	7140	3276	6843	9306	5989	11487	5903	6999	10836	6568	13059	4288	4113	11501	10610	6530	7306	7529	7530	6267	6693	7688	8350	5532
Chloritoid	3.54	(Fe1.2,Mg0.6Mn0.2)2Al4Si2O10(OH)4		1086	612	712	523	1902	1804	1420	2088	466	498	426	358	330	272	401	265	398	211	276	255	197	344	269	77
Epidote	3.4	Ca2(Al,Fe)3Si3O12OH	Jones	522	221	294	508	2172	1434	1417	2370	1234	376	531	271	715	271	706	562	145	141	159	153	185	203	254	110
Garnet	3.74	Mg3Al2(SiO4)3		769	379	1036	429	1430	1263	761	1020	413	338	348	346	316	390	193	174	978	175	355	364	293	440	359	115
Anorthite	2.76	CaAl2Si2O8	Klein	5227	2334	3895	5326	6697	7472	5578	7050	5840	4120	5508	3294	4728	4699	5113	4067	2142	4179	3877	3619	3841	3949	3813	2960
Albite	2.62	NaAlSi3O8	Klein	2803	1199	1818	1975	4613	4025	2753	3984	2918	2532	3593	1987	2430	2693	3026	2590	1788	2234	2227	1753	1861	2320	2350	1483
Diopside	3.2	CaMg0.9Fe0.1Al0.1Si1.9O6	Klein	68	61	26	64	409	369	230	473	348	96	144	38	125	53	267	160	34	41	17	40	26	17	53	27
Augite	3.4	(Ca0.9Na0.1)(Mg0.9Fe0.2Al0.4Ti0.1)(Si1.9Al)2O6		143	25	63	147	618	312	363	636	430	172	161	46	226	127	188	228	403	324	252	292	257	275	324	204
Enstatite	3.3	Mg0.85Fe0.1Ca0.05Si0.95Al0.05O3	Klein	8	8	2	27	23	20	25	9	14	7	34	9	16	8	24	36	3	10	1	4	. 7	10	12	4
Titanite	3.5	CaTiSiO5		60	73	37	50	352	312	324	507	255	58	90	47	115	23	164	79	23	35	32	31	46	36	58	27
Ilmenite	4.8	FeTiO3	Klein	596	172	381	284	439	657	436	467	367	164	337	156	170	248	258	221	306	255	205	257	253	218	232	173
Magnetite	5.2	Fe3O4	MP Jones	184	96	55	60	241	380	272	411	123	44	133	75	124	66	108	122	97	40	50	62	50	55	58	33
Muscovite	2.8	KAI2(AISi3O10)(OH)2	Klein	5027	2681	4788	3017	7134	6857	4287	5754	4336	4744	4670	3650	4139	4816	3756	3063	6115	3390	4183	4358	3758	3979	3479	1963
Fosterite	3.32	(Mg1.6Fe0.4)SiO4		42	12	35	15	91	64	16	43	55	74	77	30	75	30	47	45	18	34	25	21	. 10	23	37	13
Orthoclase	2.57	KAISi3O8	Jones	2162	897	1246	1244	742	1907	1288	914	1173	1185	2042	926	1114	1304	1903	1317	977	1590	1339	1256	1399	1454	1380	1206
Monazite	5.1	(La,Ce)PO4	Jones	2	1	7	0	1	3	3	7	1	2	5	3	1	3	3	1	1	1	2	0	0	2	0	0
Pumic-glass	0.82	(SiO2)(K2O)(Na2O)		1716	408	1219	3154	1891	1593	1350	1835	3002	2806	2977	1720	1357	2795	2035	2991	1090	1388	1109	1267	1320	1559	1706	2892
Rutile	4.3	TiO2	Klein	54	37	34	33	37	67	39	40	73	31	78	17	31	30	43	33	245	345	391	342	372	378	315	258
Spinel	4	Mg0.8Fe0.2Al1.9Cr0.1O4	Jones	2	1	0	4	3	2	3	1	2	3	3	1	9	3	3	4	2	1	5	1	0	2	2	1
Sphalerite	4	ZnS	Klein	1	0	0	4	0	0	2	2	3	0	1	0	1	0	3	3	1	1	2	1	0	1	0	1
Calcite	2.71	CaCO3	Klein	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	1	0	2	0	1	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Zircon	4.7	ZrSiO4		13	13	7	8	13	16	13	7	19	18	24	5	13	13	16	20	9	7	5	7	10	5	8	6
Dolomite	2.85	CaMg(CO3)2	Klein	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Iron_sulphide	4.19	CuFeS2		85	28	30	27	210	142	150	241	63	26	60	41	37	31	45	41	54	20	34	36	12	49	39	29
Staurolite	3.64	Fe1.4Li0.1Mg0.1Al8.6Si3.9Al0.1O21.7(OH)2.3		32	13	16	7	25	13	16	14	1	13	4	2	109	9	9	1	0	1	4	2	1	0	10	4
Al_Silicate	2.9	AI2SiO5		743	157	557	349	336	265	277	212	151	455	172	270	2396	576	218	362	450	861	985	1230	1297	906	694	706
Tourmaline	3.27	NaFe1.75Mg0.5Al6.75Si6O18(BO3)3(OH)4		98	37	138	86	207	95	78	79	39	58	27	33	52	66	31	32	30	40	76	40	69	72	83	16
Pyrrhotite	4.6	Fes	MP Jones	3	0	1	2	4	3	2	2	1	1	3	0	3	1	3	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	4	0
Pertnite	2.56	KAISIJUSNAAISIJUS		5539	1912	4378	/0/3	3346	5841	3352	3546	6893	4598	8342	3184	4069	8182	6824	4936	4755	/209	6107	8923	6220	5593	5393	6030
Xenotime	5	YPO4		1	1	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Pentlandite	5	(Fe,NI)958	Jones	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
corundum	4.02	AI2U3	Klein	25	0	8	2	2	1	15	9	0	1/	4	b	/0	21	6	1	4	2	8	2	/	1	10	9
Apatite	3.2	Ca5(PO4)3F	Klein	0	2	0	3	1	3	3	4	1	2	3	0	2	3	8	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Barite	4.4		Jones	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Akormanito	2.0	IVIg1.5re0.5AI45I5018		39	12	20	5/	59	68	99	49	40	4/	97	15	28	32	43	48	12	25	28	40	10	30	24	19
Akermanite	2.94		Klain	5	2	22	4	20	22	6	13	33	1	28	1	2	4	4	10	5	1	14	1	0	1	8	2
Serpentine Class slide	2.3	Mg3512U5(UH)4	Kiein	24	3	23	5	/	19	2/	9	12	39	25	18	11	12	14	4	4	9	14	15	5	6	13	1
Glass-Slide	2.4			20	0	3	1251	1521	1654	42	10	1177	1/	2770	244	31	1500	1222	9	U E 20	240	252	0	0	Z	1120	0
Unknown Tatal Particle Count	2			908	38400	947	1251	1521	1054	5/6	826	11//	599	2//9	344	822	1583	1322	933	538	248	352	3/9	415	488	1130	295
Total Particle Count				59609	28498	48068	22020	67748	82709	54692	00020	04776	57358	74136	41389	48099	03441	04314	49131	48993	46858	4/9/3	48300	454/6	48366	49037	37584

Physiographic Position	Density	Formula	Reference			Мо	resby Tro	ough Fan				Moresby Trough Channel													Eastern Field Platform							
Sample				MV22-165	MV22-397 N	/V22-502 M	/V22-562	MV22-674 N	/V22-808 N	MV22-936 M\	/22-1113 M	IV25-246 M	1V25-340 N	1V25-475 N	MV25-554 MV	V25-630 M	1V25-954 N	1V25-1073 MV	25-1104	MV25-1210 M	V29-184 M	IV29-259 M	/29-413 N	/V29-510 N	1V29-611	MV27-248	MV27-343 N	/V27-462 M	V27-480 MV	27-547 M	V27-760 MV	/27-1289
Altered minerals/clay	2.6	Al2Si2O5(OH)4		19799	12690	12505	12991	18921	13379	8967	20327	12321	16972	18924	6959	11170	11968	12659	15769	19768	10860	10199	12548	10478	10517	14477	11895	15292	17333	12040	15572	12035
Amphibole	3.23	Ca2[Mg4(Al0.75Fe0.25)]Si7AlO22(OH)2		5194	2299	2058	4332	2130	1438	680	3122	2163	3276	3563	671	1137	729	1764	2114	3070	1987	3451	3798	1796	3056	886	1464	2467	1325	1556	2705	1847
Biotite	3	K(Mg,Fe)3(AlSi3O10)(OH)2	Klein	775	104	160	208	70	32	23	70	252	221	174	3	13	1	19	56	102	80	299	258	63	59	25	43	79	47	42	116	56
Quartz	2.65	SiO2	Jones	520	3427	2899	650	3781	3859	2286	4838	2291	4200	5005	2911	3126	3750	3575	4522	4371	3897	3466	4499	3868	3492	5082	3558	3927	5649	3533	2862	2958
Quartz_mixture	2.65	SiO2	Jones	18991	4553	4617	11944	11914	4998	2157	11565	7191	7200	7540	3650	5416	6018	8069	8024	10958	6253	7216	8394	7139	9546	5748	5949	7005	6604	5270	7637	4795
Chloritoid	3.54	(Fe1.2,Mg0.6Mn0.2)2Al4Si2O10(OH)4		218	939	757	77	705	344	266	921	861	1394	1578	38	121	51	315	561	1028	720	1274	1721	620	643	269	380	726	460	572	828	642
Epidote	3.4	Ca2(Al,Fe)3Si3O12OH	Jones	279	1035	855	171	824	1068	399	2065	741	1437	1415	405	795	809	1128	668	1378	856	1224	1966	1111	1332	232	391	1142	383	582	1126	963
Garnet	3.74	Mg3Al2(SiO4)3		28	414	514	20	265	103	94	349	851	706	549	2	15	7	63	133	544	391	1165	1237	278	285	122	234	304	165	197	758	221
Anorthite	2.76	CaAl2Si2O8	Klein	6321	4701	4916	4198	7491	5224	3400	8110	4785	5609	6224	2794	3801	3799	4270	6041	7874	4262	4213	5375	4858	6108	3517	3498	6139	4988	4413	5278	4295
Albite	2.62	NaAlSi3O8	Klein	28	2452	2387	95	3284	3079	1657	3707	1811	2981	3038	1371	1981	2349	2181	3663	3348	2341	2006	4422	2387	2699	2462	1903	3135	3135	2267	2544	2529
Diopside	3.2	CaMg0.9Fe0.1Al0.1Si1.9O6	Klein	11	227	180	26	77	386	189	530	205	476	226	168	177	106	324	152	189	376	540	401	392	654	52	129	370	142	170	159	171
Augite	3.4	(Ca0.9Na0.1)(Mg0.9Fe0.2Al0.4Ti0.1)(Si1.9Al)2O6		355	251	224	603	261	250	170	877	308	488	376	79	249	155	385	207	424	388	928	1085	1038	1148	59	118	354	135	223	316	254
Enstatite	3.3	Mg0.85Fe0.1Ca0.05Si0.95Al0.05O3	Klein	5	21	17	4	24	13	7	18	15	21	21	13	16	2	14	42	17	36	69	5	24	62	12	25	27	12	20	4	11
Titanite	3.5	CaTiSiO5		14	211	183	8	95	158	60	430	152	329	242	85	109	114	208	109	181	258	307	590	285	299	65	123	239	95	103	80	153
Ilmenite	4.8	FeTiO3	Klein	192	342	364	256	556	219	159	594	543	686	515	80	96	82	262	279	473	445	544	448	308	390	129	291	371	223	222	394	230
Magnetite	5.2	Fe3O4	MP Jones	299	190	142	226	103	93	41	151	199	358	190	56	12	6	61	121	98	462	383	337	113	218	49	177	240	119	124	104	71
Muscovite	2.8	KAI2(AISi3O10)(OH)2	Klein	89	3215	4298	126	4160	3300	2930	5383	3587	5408	5571	1018	2718	2843	3406	3206	5168	3174	4725	6146	4882	3750	2737	2599	3566	3252	2889	4906	3458
Fosterite	3.32	(Mg1.6Fe0.4)SiO4		8	31	48	2	40	10	7	32	39	36	48	2	14	4	16	15	19	65	24	41	11	17	28	37	51	16	65	22	46
Orthoclase	2.57	KAISi3O8	Jones	426	857	932	268	2326	887	523	1250	950	1170	1676	886	915	1261	1253	1967	1506	1086	1288	826	1460	1237	1084	1177	1604	1672	970	1073	1050
Monazite	5.1	(La,Ce)PO4	Jones	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	1	4	1	2	0	1	0	2	1	5	3	6	1	1	4	0	1	0	2	0	0	0
Pumic-glass	0.82	(SiO2)(K2O)(Na2O)		19697	1527	1758	11936	4079	1734	906	2207	1844	1964	2861	1153	3367	2982	2257	4005	2584	1358	2228	2280	1959	4617	3323	1427	3056	3107	2820	1836	1959
Rutile	4.3	TiO2	Klein	5	39	72	3	59	49	58	106	84	95	77	16	47	36	60	41	68	344	275	506	406	338	28	48	34	31	32	33	29
Spinel	4	Mg0.8Fe0.2Al1.9Cr0.1O4	Jones	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	7	5	2	5	2	7	3	14	6	3	8	4	2	11	6	2	1	0	5	7	3	1
Sphalerite	4	ZnS	Klein	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	6	2	3	0	1	0	3	1	3	0	0
Calcite	2.71	CaCO3	Klein	2	2	1	1	1	6	0	0	1	2	4	0	0	1	2	0	5	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	0
Zircon	4.7	ZrSiO4		38	14	14	34	9	15	9	20	12	13	18	11	7	10	22	11	16	19	29	25	25	18	4	8	21	15	9	12	15
Dolomite	2.85	CaMg(CO3)2	Klein	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
Iron_sulphide	4.19	CuFeS2		113	130	150	124	114	39	26	143	154	121	104	7	8	12	49	50	65	128	341	152	35	71	26	45	93	61	62	99	42
Staurolite	3.64	Fe1.4Li0.1Mg0.1Al8.6Si3.9Al0.1O21.7(OH)2.3		1	17	9	0	20	15	9	10	40	9	21	0	11	3	5	10	10	2	1	0	15	5	9	2	2	11	17	21	16
Al_Silicate	2.9	Al2SiO5		4	300	787	9	976	272	322	274	599	649	589	44	280	158	161	256	532	220	385	392	578	236	231	164	168	299	199	430	245
Tourmaline	3.27	NaFe1.75Mg0.5Al6.75Si6O18(BO3)3(OH)4		9	69	117	3	92	29	22	63	134	89	166	4	14	18	19	31	156	28	77	29	22	15	41	36	51	35	40	77	56
Pyrrhotite	4.6	FeS	MP Jones	19	13	12	17	5	3	1	14	2	1	3	1	0	0	3	1	1	4	46	13	8	6	2	1	5	7	13	2	2
Perthite	2.56	KAISi3O8NaAISi3O8		15646	2766	3522	13132	10302	3928	2390	8500	4275	4204	4714	2779	3986	4465	6087	5724	7482	3527	4247	3338	5366	7108	3691	3879	5036	4810	3797	5584	3648
Xenotime	5	YPO4		0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pentlandite	5	(Fe,Ni)9S8	Jones	6	0	0	9	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
corundum	4.02	Al2O3	Klein	0	3	9	0	12	1	8	9	7	4	21	0	10	16	5	22	3	2	0	3	4	3	2	2	13	8	8	23	1
Apatite	3.2	Ca5(PO4)3F	Klein	8	1	1	35	3	0	0	4	1	3	3	3	0	2	3	3	0	8	19	14	10	8	2	7	3	0	1	1	1
Barite	4.4	BaSO4	Jones	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cordierite	2.6	Mg1.5Fe0.5Al4Si5O18		36	34	44	30	116	40	25	50	51	46	59	45	20	12	59	58	35	61	107	56	38	208	19	47	76	29	47	22	29
Akermanite	2.94	Ca2Mg(Si2O7)		116	2	1	122	3	1	1	42	26	14	7	2	9	1	43	4	12	11	15	8	2	12	1	2	4	0	6	2	1
Serpentine	2.3	Mg3Si2O5(OH)4	Klein	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	4	0	2	26	0	0	1	5	0	1	8	0	0	0	0	8	2	8	4	17	0	6
Glass-slide	2.4			1	10	4	1	2	8	2	7	2	103	27	0	133	117	22	7	12	1	0	2	4	3	10	3	74	156	117	1	4
Unknown	2			3807	362	510	1886	1954	342	186	1349	1111	783	490	632	478	334	2570	410	1456	287	525	584	620	596	498	945	490	571	624	910	352
Total Particle Count				93063	43251	45072	63548	74780	45326	27986	77152	47619	61078	66073	25892	40261	42226	51363	58291	72966	43957	51642	61507	50218	58766	44937	40611	56177	54910	43080	55540	42192