

1 The effect of meteoric phreatic diagenesis and spring sapping on the formation of submarine collapse  
2 structures in the Biak Basin, Eastern Indonesia

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9 This article has been submitted for publication and will appear in a revised form. Please carefully note  
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11 **ABSTRACT**

12 The islands of Biak and Supiori, situated in the Bird's Head region of New Guinea, comprise  
13 predominantly Neogene age carbonate units that extend offshore into the adjacent Biak Basin. Unusual  
14 geomorphologic features including pockmarks, headless canyons and semi-circular collapse structures  
15 identified in multibeam bathymetric imagery occur on the southern margin of the Biak Basin. These  
16 features have a bathymetric expression distinct from strike-slip faults of the Biak Fault Zone which  
17 bound the eastern margin of the basin. The Biak Fault Zone comprises several seismically active,  
18 segmented and parallel fault strands. Seismicity along the Biak Fault Zone is responsible for the  
19 shedding of mass transport deposits into the basin, however these are absent from the geomorphologic  
20 features along the southern margin of the basin. Instead, these features appear isolated and unrelated to  
21 activity of the Biak Fault Zone and are interpreted to have formed as a result of 'spring sapping' by  
22 submarine aquifers. Rapid uplift during the Pliocene caused exposure and karstification of carbonates  
23 from onshore Biak which extend into the offshore Biak Basin, providing conduits for a freshwater lens  
24 to develop within older Miocene strata. Diagenetic cement textures and fabrics indicate that many  
25 Miocene carbonates were subjected to meteoric diagenesis within freshwater aquifers that overprinted  
26 burial cements. This is supported by stable isotope analyses of diagenetic cements which record  
27 negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values.

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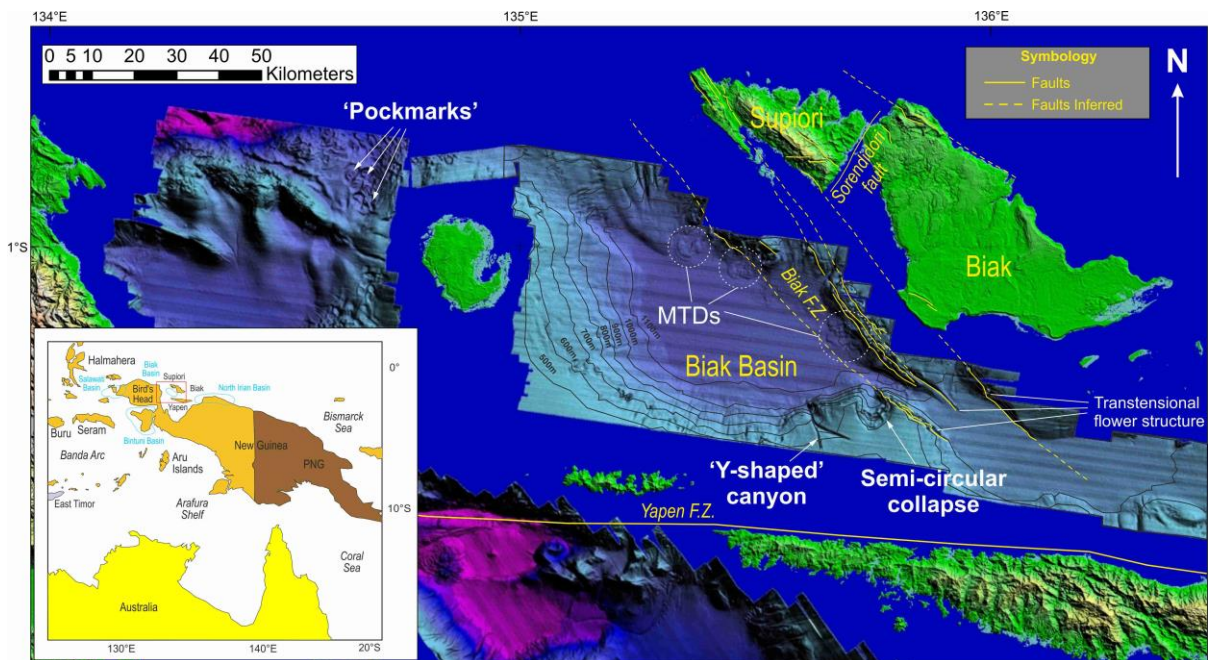
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34 *Keywords:* Spring sapping, meteoric diagenesis, carbonates, aquifer

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 The islands of Biak and Supiori are situated in the Indonesian province of Papua on the Pacific  
38 island of New Guinea (Fig. 1). These islands form part of a small archipelago of islands north of  
39 Cenderawasih Bay, a large embayment to the west of New Guinea (Fig. 1). Biak is the largest island  
40 within this archipelago, with the island of Supiori located to the northwest (Fig. 1). The islands of Biak  
41 and Supiori are separated by the Sorendidori Fault (Fig. 1), an oblique normal fault that downthrows  
42 younger Neogene sediments of the island of Biak to the SE from Early to Middle Miocene carbonates  
43 of the island of Supiori to the NW (Gold et al., 2017). Neogene sediments from Biak and Supiori are  
44 predominantly carbonates that extend SW into the offshore Biak Basin, which is situated south of Biak  
45 and Supiori, and north of Yapen Island (Fig. 1). The Biak Basin is bounded on its eastern margin by  
46 the Biak Fault Zone, a series of parallel, NW-SE trending strike-slip faults that form the linear west  
47 coast of Supiori and Biak (Gold et al., 2017; Fig. 1). These faults also form clearly expressed  
48 lineaments on the seafloor that are readily observed in multibeam bathymetric data (Gold et al., 2017;  
49 Fig. 1).



50  
51 **Fig. 1. ASTER digital elevation and bathymetric multibeam data provided by TGS of the Biak Basin and**  
52 **islands of Biak and Supiori displaying key structural and bathymetric features (MTDs - Mass transport**  
53 **deposits).**

54 Several unusual geomorphologic collapse features are observed along the southern margin of the  
55 offshore Biak Basin (Fig. 1). This study aims to test whether these features are fault-controlled or  
56 diagenetic in origin by examining the bathymetric expression of structural features of the basin using  
57 multibeam imagery and the burial history of analogous outcrop samples collected from formations that  
58 extend offshore. This paper contributes to the understanding of geomorphologic and diagenetic  
59 responses to regional tectonic events in a frontier basin of Eastern Indonesia through application of  
60 laboratory techniques to identify the sedimentary processes that control geomorphologic features.

61

## 62 **2. Neogene geological history**

63 During the Early to Middle Miocene, carbonate platforms flourished across much of the Bird's  
64 Head and are recorded in outcrop and the Salawati, Bintuni, and Biak Basins. These carbonates form  
65 part of the 'New Guinea Limestone Group' which includes several contemporaneous carbonate  
66 formations found across much of western New Guinea (Visser and Hermes 1962; Pieters et al. 1983;  
67 Brash et al. 1991; Gold et al., 2017). From the Middle to Late Miocene, a reduction of carbonate  
68 accumulation rates due to environmental deterioration which were outpaced by the rate of relative sea-  
69 level rise led to the drowning of the New Guinea Limestone Group platform beneath deep-water strata  
70 (Gold et al., 2017).

71 Rapid uplift of New Guinea, validated by fission track ages of metamorphic units, is recorded  
72 from 10 Ma, and in many areas since 5 Ma (Hill and Gleadow, 1989). This culminated in the  
73 formation of the regional 'intra-Pliocene unconformity', dated within the Salawati basin to have  
74 occurred at approximately 4 Ma (Decker et al. 2009). This unconformity is related to rapid uplift of  
75 the Misool-Onin-Kumawa ridge, an arcuate anticline sub-parallel to what is now the Seram Trough  
76 (Pairault et al., 2003). The collision of the Banda Arc with the Australian margin in the Timor area  
77 caused large scale surface deformation across the Bird's Head and Banda Arc from slab-mantle  
78 decoupling (Spakman and Hall, 2010). The rapid isostatic uplift resulting from this decoupling caused  
79 the formation of this unconformity and the rapid exhumation of the Neogene sediments.

80 The Biak Fault Zone is interpreted to be a young feature as it incises Pliocene strata (Gold et al.,  
81 2017). Recent sedimentation within the Biak Basin is controlled by activity along the Biak Fault Zone  
82 (Bertoni and Garcia 2012; Memmo et al. 2013).

83

### 84 **3. Investigation of offshore features**

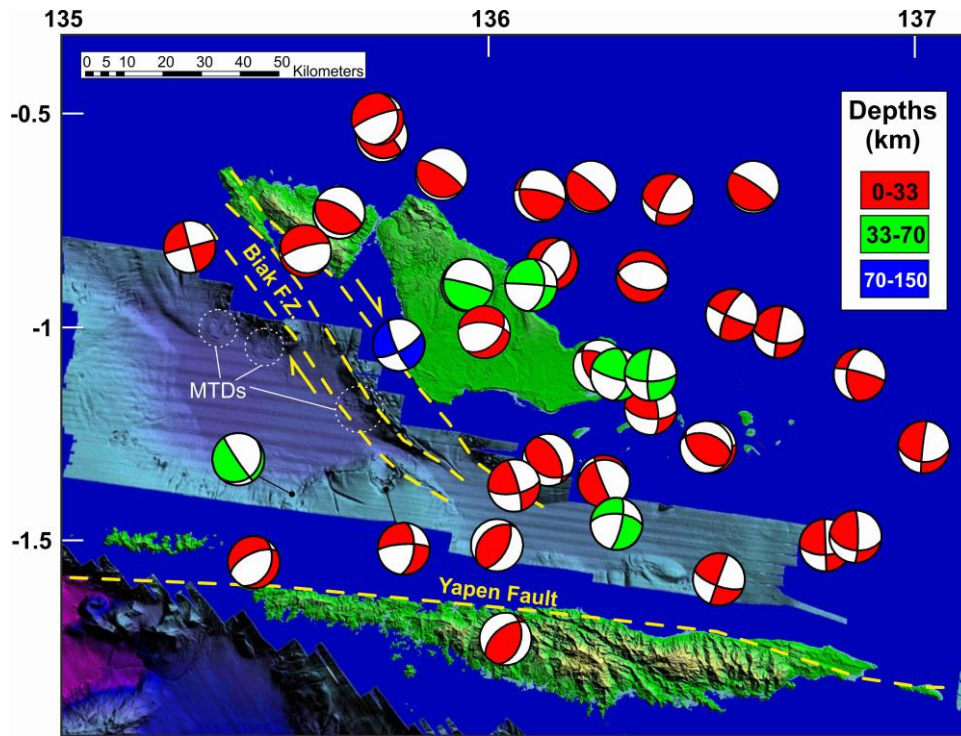
85 'Pock marks', headless canyons and semi-circular collapse features observed in bathymetric  
86 multibeam data occur several kilometres offshore south-west of the island of Biak (Fig. 1). In  
87 multibeam data, a narrow 'Y-shaped' headless canyon oriented NW-SE is approximately 10 km in  
88 length and 700 m wide (Fig. 1). Approximately 20 km east of this structure, a semi-circular collapse  
89 feature is approximately 7 km in diameter (Fig. 1). The potential for these structures to be fault-  
90 controlled or diagenetic in origin was examined.

91

#### 92 *3.1. Active faulting on the Biak margin*

93 The 'Y-shaped' canyon and semi-circular collapse structure are situated west of NW-SE striking  
94 segments of the Biak Fault Zone which forms a transtensional flower structure to the east of the Biak  
95 Basin (Fig. 1). The orientation of the 'Y-shaped canyon' and semi-circular collapse structures is also  
96 NW-SE and are parallel to the strike of the Biak Fault Zone (Fig. 1). Recent earthquake CMT focal  
97 mechanisms in the Biak and Supiori region plotted between 1st January 1976 and 1st January 2018  
98 show that the Biak Fault Zone is currently seismically active (Fig. 2). Focal mechanisms indicate that  
99 presently principal displacement along the Biak Fault Zone has a dextral strike-slip component along a  
100 NW-SE striking plane parallel to the orientation of the faults identified in multibeam bathymetry (Fig.  
101 2). Lobate mass transport deposits (MTDs) are common along strands of the Biak Fault Zone,  
102 indicating the shedding of material during fault movement (Fig. 2), however they are absent from the  
103 collapse structures on the southern margin of the Biak Basin. The 'Y-shaped' canyon displays no  
104 evidence for seismicity within the last 40 years, nor is it associated with any MTDs (Fig. 2). The semi-  
105 circular collapse structure is associated with an earthquake that occurred on 24th November 1990 at a

106 depth of 15 km, however this may be related to the slumping of overlying material into the collapse  
107 feature.



108  
109 **Fig.2. Recent earthquake CMT focal mechanisms in the Biak and Supiori region plotted from the**  
110 **International Seismological Centre catalogue using MIRONE software in between 1st January 1976 to 1st**  
111 **January 2018. Focal mechanisms are plotted over ASTER DEM and multibeam bathymetric imagery.**  
112 **Mass transport deposits (MTDs) are common along strands of the Biak Fault Zone (Biak F.Z.) which**  
113 **exhibit a predominantly dextral strike-slip component along computed fault planes that are parallel to**  
114 **structures observed in multibeam bathymetry. MTDs are absent from the collapse structures on the**  
115 **southern margin of the Biak Basin. The ‘Y-shaped’ canyon displays no evidence for seismicity within the**  
116 **last 40 years, nor is it associated with any MTDs. The circular collapse structure is associated with an**  
117 **earthquake that occurred on 24th November 1990 at a depth of 15 km displaying oblique slip with either a**  
118 **dextral N-S component, possibly relating to the Biak F.Z., or a sinistral E-W component. However, this**  
119 **earthquake may also have been related to the collapse of overlying material into an undercut cavity.**

120  
121 The surface expression of the ‘Y-shaped’ canyon and semi-circular collapse feature is markedly  
122 different to that of the Biak Fault Zone (Figs. 1 & 2). Segments of pure strike-slip often appear as  
123 straight or wavy faults of modest topographic expression (Le Pichon et al., 2001). This is clearly

124 shown along the principal strands of the Biak Fault Zone which are laterally continuous, with evidence  
125 for displacement and high relief fault scarps between minor faults parallel to the main strands of the  
126 transtensional flower structure (Fig. 1). In contrast, the ‘Y-shaped’ canyon is observed in low relief  
127 except for a deep narrow incision along its central course. Neither the ‘Y-shaped’ canyon nor the semi-  
128 circular collapse feature display evidence for displacement or lateral continuity. It is, therefore,  
129 interpreted that these structures are isolated and are not fault-controlled by activity of the Biak Fault  
130 Zone.

131

### 132 3.2. *Submarine spring sapping*

133 The erosional undercutting of a slope results in mass wasting of overlying material (Orange and  
134 Breen, 1992) and is known by a variety of terms including ‘seepage erosion’ (Hutchinson, 1968),  
135 ‘artesian sapping’ (Milton, 1973) and ‘spring sapping’ (Johnson, 1939; , Small, 1965; Bates and  
136 Jackson, 1980; Robb, 1990). In this article the term submarine spring sapping is favoured. There are  
137 many examples of where spring sapping has resulted in the formation of submarine canyons  
138 worldwide (e.g. Johnson, 1939, Robb, 1984; Paull and Neumann, 1987; Paull et al, 1990; Robb, 1990;  
139 Orange and Breen, 1992; Orange et al., 1994; Dugan and Flemings, 2000; 2002; Green et al., 2007;  
140 Flemings et al., 2008; Bratton, 2010 ).

141 Lateral migration of meteoric water within marine basins is well documented (Wu and Chafetz,  
142 2002; Bratton, 2010). Bratton (2010) defined three spatial scales of submarine groundwater discharge:  
143 1) nearshore – 0-10 m offshore, 2) embayment – 10 m – 10 km offshore, 3) shelf – width of the entire  
144 continental shelf. Fresh water has been reported in a well 100 km off shore Florida in the Gulf of  
145 Mexico, 10 km offshore of Saudi Arabia and offshore Bahrain in the Persian Gulf, and beneath the  
146 continental shelves of the North Atlantic (Kohout, 1966; Fetter, 1980; Chafetz et al., 1988; Chafetz  
147 and Rush, 1995; Edmonds, 2001; Wu and Chafetz, 2002; Person et al., 2003; Fleury et al., 2007).  
148 Meteoric diagenesis of ancient carbonates through lateral flow of fresh water in palaeoquifers is also  
149 well-documented (Grover and Read, 1983; Dorobek, 1987; Niemann and Read, 1987; Wu and  
150 Chafetz, 2002; Moore and Wade, 2013).

151 Submarine spring sapping results in headward erosion and slope undercutting that leads to  
152 repeated slope failure and the formation of gullies and/or canyons (Orange and Breen, 1992). Orange  
153 and Breen (1992) attribute the cause of spring sapping to be seepage induced slope failure controlled  
154 by critical pore pressure gradients whereby flow through a porous medium exerts a force on grains  
155 greater than the frictional or cohesive force holding the grains in place and material is transported  
156 away leading to slumping of overlying material. It has been suggested that this process may be the  
157 most significant mechanism for causing slope failure leading to the development of headless canyons  
158 (Johnson, 1939; Sangrey, 1977).





























159 Due to the isolated nature of the collapse features, and their tendency to form headless canyons,  
160 the potential for these structures to be created through a process of submarine spring sapping was  
161 examined. Carbonate units that are exposed on the islands of Biak and Supiori are interpreted to  
162 extend into the offshore Biak Basin (e.g. Gold et al., 2014). Therefore, samples were collected from  
163 Biak and Supiori to determine whether evidence for meteoric diagenesis is observed onshore in units  
164 interpreted to be present in the subsurface of the Biak Basin.

165

#### 166 **4. Material and methods of onshore analogue analyses**

167 Fieldwork was conducted in 2011 and 2013 on the islands of Biak and Supiori. Carbonates were  
168 described in the field and sampled for analysis at Royal Holloway, University of London. In total 47  
169 samples were selected for petrographic analyses using thin section petrography to determine their post-  
170 depositional burial history. Cement types observed during petrographic analysis were divided into  
171 those that form in meteoric waters, the marine realm, and shallow and deep burial environments based  
172 on features described by Tucker and Wright (1990) and Scholle and Ulmer-Scholle (2003), and  
173 depicted in Figure 3.



Stage	Fluids	Environment	Features	Mineralogy	
Early Diagenesis	Freshwater	Meteoric Vadose	 	Early meteoric exposure and flushing of meteoric pore fluids results in leaching of aragonitic grains leading to secondary $\phi$ (possibly leaving only micrite envelopes) Aggrading neomorphic replacement of micrite mud to micro-/pseudospars	Mineralogy of features (e.g. fibrous aragonite or microcrystalline HMC) will provide evidence of depositional environment, aforementioned marine minerals will imply a coastal spray zone, for example Non-ferroan LMC spar cements
		Meteoric Phreatic	   		
	Marine	      	Non-ferroan aragonite, microcrystalline HMC. Marine cements form rapidly and are therefore inclusion rich leading to brown, cloudy colours in PPL		
Late Diagenesis	Pore Fluids	Shallow Burial	      	Ferroan calcite in reducing conditions. Thin dolomite rinds on HMC marine cements	
		Deep Burial	       	Ferroan calcite spar and dolomite in reducing conditions. Depleted in Mn, enriched in Fe gives a dull cathodoluminescence. Inclusions are often absent	

174

175

**Fig. 3. Features of carbonate cement fabrics and textures observed within different diagenetic**

176

**environments:  $\phi$  - Porosity; LMC - Low Magnesian Calcite; HMC - High Magnesian Calcite; PPL - Plane**

177

**Polarised Light (after Tucker and Wright, 1990; Scholle and Ulmer-Scholle, 2003).**

178

179

Nine samples (Biak 1-5, Supiori 1-4) deemed representative of the varying diagenetic cement

180

types identified through thin section petrography were later selected for bulk-rock stable isotope ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$

181

and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) analyses to determine the presence of meteoric cements. Samples were milled to extract

182

powdered calcite specifically from areas in which cements were abundant, avoiding bioclastic grains

183

to ensure bulk isotope values indicative of diagenetic cement. Carbon dioxide was extracted from

184

samples by reacting the milled powder with phosphoric acid using the procedure described by McCrea

185

(1950). Three standards were used to fix the calibration curve, NBS19, LSVEC, and RHBNC.

186

RHBNC is the Royal Holloway standard taken from Iceland spar which forms at low temperatures.

187

One standard was used for NBS19 and LSVEC, and three samples of RHBNC were used as a control

188

to monitor the run. Analytical precision, based on the RHBNC standard, was less than 0.05‰ for both

189

oxygen and carbon ratios (Table 1). Consistency of results was achieved by comparing laboratory

190

standards against NBS19 using the calibration curve. The stable isotope data are recorded in relation to

191

the heavier isotope ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ), and Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard.

192

193 **5. Petrographic analysis**

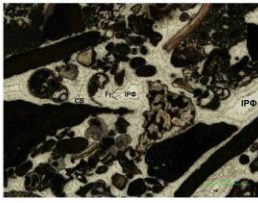
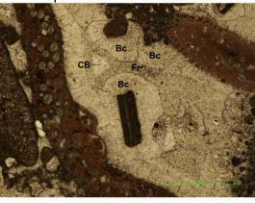


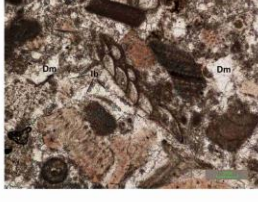

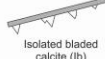
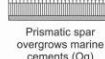
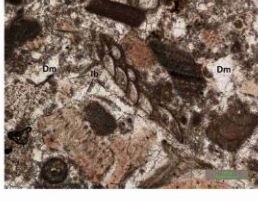









194 The diagenetic features of the samples including porosity forming episodes, cross cutting  
195 relationships, and overgrowth of cements was examined (Fig. 4). Different carbonate cement textures  
196 and fabrics form within different diagenetic environments relating to the chemistry of the waters they  
197 are bathed in, saturation with respect to carbonate, and levels of oxygen upon burial (Fig. 2).

198

199 *5.1. Description*

200 Samples Biak 1 of the Pleistocene age Mokmer Formation and Supiori 1 of the Early Miocene  
201 age Wainukendi Formation are classified as grainstones which contain inclusion-rich fibrous fringes  
202 and botryoidal cements, with intervening primary interparticle porosity (Fig. 4). The remainder of the  
203 samples which are Pliocene age or older (Biak 2-5, Supiori 2-4) contain abundant isopachous or  
204 uneven bladed calcite cements fringing grains, pore-filling inclusion-free equant calcite cements and a  
205 packstone fabric undergoing aggrading neomorphism of originally aragonitic micrite to calcite micro-  
206 or pseudospar (Fig. 4). This fabric is later cross cut by the development of secondary mouldic porosity  
207 (Fig. 4).

208

Diagenetic Zone	Petrography		Features	
MARINE	Biak 1 - Mokmer Fm. 	Supiori 1 - Wainukendi Fm. 	 HMC micrite envelopes (ME)	 Primary interparticle porosity (IPΦ)
	Supiori 2 - Wainukendi Fm. 	Biak 5 - Wafordori Fm. 	 Isolated bladed calcite (Ib)	 Prismatic spar overgrows marine cements (Og)
SHALLOW BURIAL/MIXING	Supiori 2 - Wainukendi Fm. 	Biak 5 - Wafordori Fm. 	 Blocky-equant texture, drusy fabric mosaics (Dm)	
METEORIC PHREATIC	Biak 3 - Wardo Fm. 	Biak 4 - Wafordori Fm. 	 Aggrading neomorphism (Nm)	 Secondary mouldic porosity of leached (preferentially aragonitic) grains often surrounded by micrite envelopes (ME)
	Biak 3 - Wardo Fm. 	Biak 4 - Wafordori Fm. 	 Uneven, equant-bladed texture (Ue)	

209

210 **Fig. 4. Thin section photographs in plane polarised light of cement textures and fabrics observed during**  
 211 **petrographic analysis of samples. Different cement textures and fabrics are observed to be characteristic**  
 212 **of the marine, shallow burial and meteoric phreatic diagenetic realms.**

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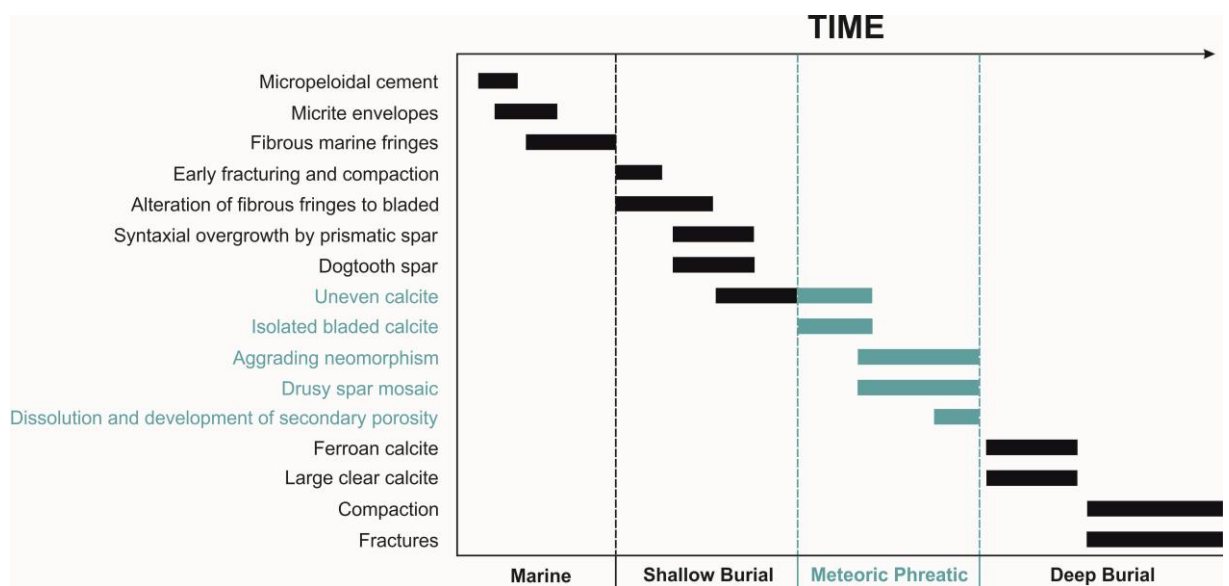
214 *5.2. Interpretation*

215 Samples from the relatively young Pleistocene age sediments of the Mokmer Formation are  
 216 interpreted to have been deposited in a reefal environment on the reef crest and reef front. These  
 217 environments are home to photosynthetic organisms and high hydrodynamic energies that act to  
 218 remove CO<sub>2</sub> away from the site of deposition. This increases alkalinity and encourages precipitation of  
 219 early marine cements such as fibrous fringes that often do not fully occlude interparticle pore space  
 220 (Figs. 3 & 4).

221 Sediments influenced by meteoric phreatic diagenesis are characterized by pervasive  
 222 calcitization of aragonite, extensive dissolution with well-developed mouldic porosity, and the  
 223 occurrence of isopachous bladed and pore-filling equant calcite cements (Quinn, 1991; Figs. 3 & 4).  
 224 Meteoric diagenesis is often responsible for aggressive dissolution and porosity enhancement due to

225 undersaturation of meteoric waters with respect to calcite and the development of secondary mouldic  
 226 porosity (Tucker and Wright, 1990). These characteristics are observed in samples from Pliocene and  
 227 older sediments, with the exception of sample Supiori 1 of the Wainukendi Formation. It is therefore  
 228 interpreted that onshore samples from Biak and Supiori were subject to pervasive overprinting by  
 229 meteoric cements which is likely to extend into the offshore. This supports Hendarjo and  
 230 Netherwood's (1986) observations from the nearby Salawati Basin where most offshore samples were  
 231 subject to meteoric phreatic diagenesis after burial.

232 Through petrographic analyses a paragenetic sequence of cement phases precipitated with  
 233 increasing time and burial was determined based on cross-cutting and over-printing relationships (Fig.  
 234 5). Over printing relationships suggest that they underwent diagenesis in a meteoric phreatic  
 235 environment late on during their paragenetic history (Fig. 5).



236  
 237 **Fig. 5. Paragenetic scheme of cement phases forming with increasing time and burial. Evidence for**  
 238 **diagenesis in the marine, shallow burial, meteoric phreatic and deep burial diagenetic realms is**  
 239 **interpreted. Based on overprinting relationships, the meteoric phreatic diagenetic realm is encountered**  
 240 **late on in the paragenetic sequence.**

241

242 **6. Results of stable isotope analysis**

243 The results of the bulk-rock stable isotope analyses are given in Table 1. The results show that  
 244 calcite comprised >94% of the powdered carbonate material in all but one sample. Sample Biak 3 of  
 245 the Korem Formation contained only ca. 70% calcite. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of the calcite cements range  
 246 from -5.36 to -1.48‰<sub>VPDB</sub> (Table 1) and the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values range from -7.61 to +2.74‰<sub>VPDB</sub> (Table 1).  
 247 Carbon-oxygen cross plots of the analysed samples are shown in Figure 6.

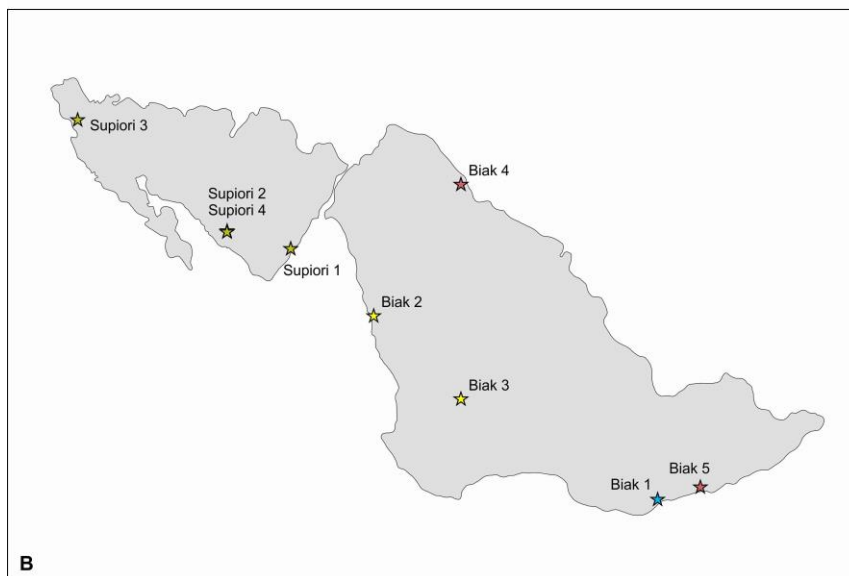
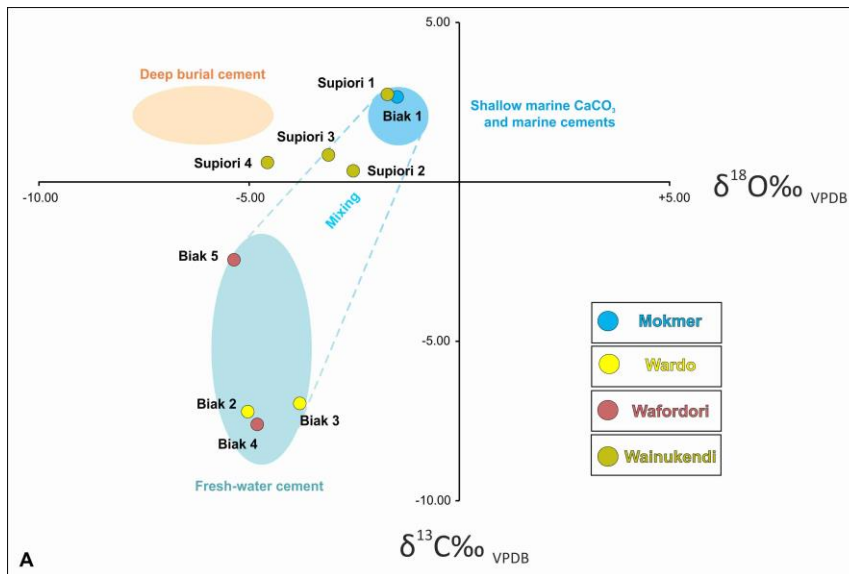
Samples	Formation	Age	$\delta^{13}\text{C}(\text{‰})$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{‰})$	Est % carb.	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ sea water	Temp (°C)	Depth (m)
<b>Standards</b>								
RHBNC			3.31	-10.37	95.49			
RHBNC			3.23	-10.35	102.36			
RHBNC			3.22	-10.42	96.00			
<b>Average</b>			<b>3.25</b>	<b>-10.38</b>	<b>97.95</b>			
<b>External Precision</b>			<b>0.04</b>	<b>0.03</b>				
NBS-19			1.94	-2.20	100.00			
<b>Known</b>			<b>1.95</b>	<b>-2.20</b>				
LSVEC			-46.50	-26.70	112.37			
<b>Known</b>			<b>-46.50</b>	<b>-26.70</b>				
<b>Outcrop</b>								
Biak 1	Mokmer	Pleistocene	2.66	-1.48	94.34	-1.20	17.2	572.3
Biak 2	Wardo	Pliocene	-7.21	-5.03	97.52	-1.20	33.8	1126.0
Biak 3	Wardo	Pliocene	-6.95	-3.79	71.92	-1.20	27.6	920.5
Biak 4	Wafordori	Middle - Early Miocene	-7.61	-4.81	98.23	-1.20	32.6	1087.7
Biak 5	Wafordori	Middle - Early Miocene	-2.44	-5.36	98.96	-1.20	35.5	1182.5
Supiori 1	Wainukendi	Early Miocene	2.74	-1.71	97.73	-1.20	18.1	604.8
Supiori 2	Wainukendi	Early Miocene	0.34	-2.52	95.91	-1.20	21.7	723.5
Supiori 3	Wainukendi	Early Miocene	0.84	-3.11	96.77	-1.20	24.4	813.4
Supiori 4	Wainukendi	Early Miocene	0.61	-4.56	95.64	-1.20	31.4	1046.8

248  
 249 **Table 1. Oxygen and carbon isotope data including standards and precision information. The stable**  
 250 **isotope data are recorded in relation to the heavier isotope ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ), and Peedee Belemnite**  
 251 **(VPDB) standard. Isotopic composition of sea water taken from Shackleton and Kennett (1975).**

252 **Temperature calculated using method described by Anderson and Arthur (1983). Calculated burial depth**  
253 **using a geothermal gradient of 3°C/100m.**

254

255         The results of the stable isotope analysis indicate that the majority of the cements show a trend  
256 from precipitation in normal shallow marine waters to precipitation in the meteoric phreatic diagenetic  
257 realm, supporting observations made through petrographic analysis (Fig. 6). Meteoric cements have  
258 negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values as fresh water is more enriched with the lighter  $^{16}\text{O}$  isotope. However, during late  
259 diagenesis pore fluids also often exhibit negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, and less negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , (Fig. 6) due to  
260 higher temperatures of precipitation on burial and fractionation (Dickson and Coleman, 1980; Tucker  
261 and Wright, 1990).



262  
 263 **Fig. 6. A) Carbon-oxygen cross plots for Neogene carbonate samples analysed for stable isotope**  
 264 **geochemistry. Samples Biak 1 and Supiori 1 which display obvious marine cements lay within the carbon**  
 265 **and oxygen isotopic values expected for the precipitation of marine cements. There is a trend towards**  
 266 **freshwater cements occurring during burial, supporting the interpretation of a submarine freshwater**  
 267 **aquifer beneath the burial diagenetic environment. B) Location map of samples collected from the islands**  
 268 **of Biak and Supiori**

269  
 270 Samples Biak 1 and Supiori 1 of the Mokmer and Wainukendi Formations, respectively, plot  
 271 close together in the low positive end of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (Fig. 5). Both these samples exhibit very  
 272 obvious early marine diagenetic features such as inclusion-rich fibrous fringes and botryoidal cements

273 (Fig. 4), and plot with carbon and oxygen isotope values expected for normal marine carbonate  
274 cements (Fig. 6). Samples from the Wardo (Biak 2-3) and Wafordori (Biak 4-5) Formations exhibit  
275 highly negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values between -3.79 and -5.36‰  $\text{VPDB}$ , typical of values expected of meteoric  
276 phreatic cements (Fig. 6). The oldest Early Miocene samples from the Wainukendi Formation (Supiori  
277 2-3) fall within the mixing zone between normal marine and meteoric phreatic cements (Fig. 5).  
278 However, sample Supiori 4 of the Wainukendi Formation exhibits  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values approaching  
279 those expected for deep burial cements (Fig. 5).

280 The results of the bulk-rock stable isotope analyses allowed palaeothermometry calculations to  
281 determine temperatures at which the cements precipitated. A geothermal gradient of  $3^\circ\text{C}/100\text{m}$  was  
282 calculated from bottom-hole temperatures in the similar Salawati (Redmond and Koesoemadinata,  
283 1976), Bintuni (Chevallier and Bordenave, 1986), and North Irian (McAadoo and Haebig, 1999)  
284 regional basins was used to convert temperature to depth.

285 The method for calculating palaeodepths and precipitation temperatures was taken from work  
286 on the cement stratigraphy of Miocene carbonates from Sabah, Malaysia (Ali, 1995). It was assumed  
287 that the parameters of Ali's (1995) method would closely match that of the Biak Basin since samples  
288 used in both experiments were of similar age, latitude, geothermal and hydrothermal gradients, and  
289 were likely to have similar starting sea-water temperatures and isotopic values.

290 To equate the calculated  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VPDB}}$  values obtained by mass spectroscopy to burial depth, it is  
291 necessary to know the isotopic composition of the ambient pore fluids, the geothermal gradient for the  
292 time of each cement stage, and the degree of openness of the system (Ali, 1995). As the isotopic  
293 composition of the pore fluids is unknown, it is impossible to relate the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VPDB}}$  values precisely to a  
294 burial depth. However, an estimate of palaeo-precipitation temperature can be given using Equation 1.  
295 This equation follows a standard palaeotemperature calculation given by Epstein et al. (1953), later  
296 refined by Irwin et al. (1977) and Anderson and Arthur (1983), and used by Ali (1995) on Miocene  
297 carbonates from Sabah.

298

299 
$$T = 16.0 - 4.14 (\delta_c - \delta_w) + 0.13 (\delta_c - \delta_w)^2 \quad [\text{Eq.1}]$$



300 Where:

301  $T$  = precipitation temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )

302  $\delta_c$  = oxygen isotopic composition of  $\text{CO}_2$  produced from calcite at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$

303  $\delta_w$  = oxygen isotopic composition of  $\text{CO}_2$  in equilibrium with formation water, given as  $-1.2\text{‰}$  for  
304 seawater composition prior to the establishment of polar ice caps (Shackleton and Kennett, 1975; Ali,  
305 1995).

$$306 \quad \quad \quad D = T/Gg \quad \quad \quad \text{[Eq.2]}$$

307 Where:

308  $D$  = depth (m)

309  $T$  = precipitation temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) calculated using Equation 1

310  $Gg$  = geothermal gradient, here given as  $3^{\circ}\text{C}/100\text{m}$  (0.03)

311

312 Using the  $3^{\circ}\text{C}/100\text{m}$  geothermal gradient, maximum burial depth can be calculated using  
313 Equation 2. From the recorded values of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , it is calculated that meteoric cements from sample Biak  
314 5 of the Wafordori Formation attained the greatest burial depth and temperature values of ca. 1.2 km  
315 and ca.  $35.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively (Table 1).

316

## 317 **7. Discussion**

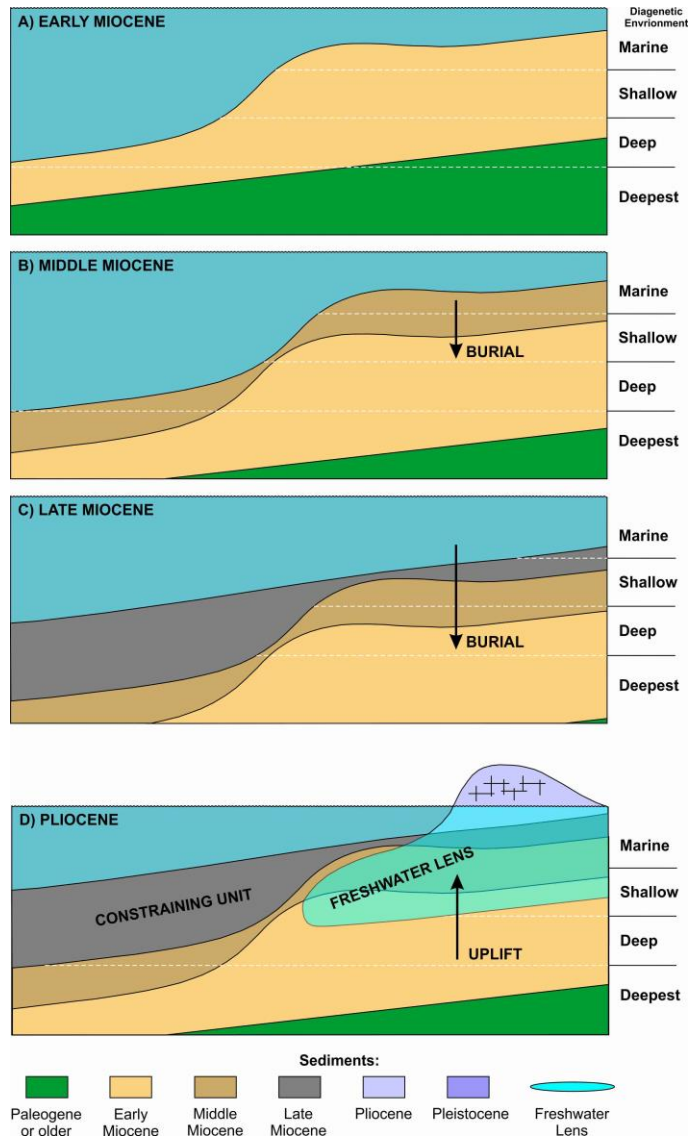
### 318 *7.1. Synthesis of petrographic and stable isotopic data*

319 Carbonate cements that have undergone meteoric phreatic diagenesis specifically related to  
320 subaerial exposure are reported to display variable  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with relatively constant  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values  
321 (Allan and Matthews, 1982). However, relatively constant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and variable  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values are an  
322 indicator of meteoric diagenesis at relatively low water-rock ratios (Wu and Chafetz, 2002). Samples  
323 from Biak and Supiori display increasingly negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values which indicate considerable  
324 water-rock interactions suggesting meteoric waters had a progressively greater influence on the  
325 isotopic composition of samples during burial (e.g. Wu and Chafetz, 2002).

326 Observations of overprinting of cements indicate that meteoric diagenesis occurred late on in the  
327 paragenesis of the carbonate samples (Fig. 5). This is supported by the temperatures calculated for the  
328 precipitation of meteoric cements during stable isotope analysis which suggest they were precipitated  
329 at depths ca. 1 km (Table 1). During the Early to Middle Miocene, carbonates originally formed in the  
330 marine diagenetic environment were progressively buried, passing through underlying diagenetic  
331 environments precipitating deeper burial cements (Fig. 5).

332 Samples dated from the Early Miocene through to the Pliocene are interpreted to have attained  
333 burial depths of approximately 1.2 km (Table 1). This suggests relatively rapid uplift of Neogene strata  
334 since the Pliocene. There may have been gradual burial of carbonate strata in the Bird's Head region  
335 up to the Pliocene until the formation of the regional 'Intra-Pliocene' unconformity at 4 Ma (Decker et  
336 al., 2009) which is responsible for the rapid exhumation of Neogene sediments.

337 Meteoric phreatic diagenesis within carbonate rocks is usually attributed to periods of low  
338 relative sea-level, especially within shallow water facies rocks (Meyers and Lohmann, 1985; Quinn,  
339 1991; Frank and Lohmann, 1995; Melim, 1996; Moore and Wade, 2013). Karstic joints that are  
340 developed in subaerially exposed carbonates of the hinterland act as a conduit for freshwater aquifers  
341 to extend offshore. In the Biak and Supiori region, relative sea-level lowstand is attributed to the  
342 tectonic uplift, exhumation subaerial exposure and karstification of the youngest Neogene sediments  
343 during the formation of the 'Intra-Pliocene' unconformity (Fig. 7). Karstic joints acted as conduits for  
344 freshwater to develop a subterranean lens bathing older strata in meteoric waters. It is interpreted that  
345 this freshwater lens is the cause of meteoric phreatic diagenesis within samples analysed by this study.  
346 The process of exhumation uplifted strata previously buried within deep diagenetic environments up  
347 into the region influenced by the freshwater lens, causing overprinting of meteoric cements on  
348 interpreted burial cements (Fig. 7).



349

350 **Fig. 7. Schematic model showing development of the freshwater lens during the Neogene. A) During the**  
 351 **Early Miocene, carbonate platforms grow within marine diagenetic realms, burying older to deeper burial**  
 352 **diagenetic environments, B) As relative sea-level rises, Middle Miocene carbonate strata backstep across**  
 353 **former Early Miocene platform, burying it within the shallow burial diagenetic realm, C) As relative sea-**  
 354 **level continues to rise, the Early Miocene platform is progressively buried to deeper diagenetic**  
 355 **environments, D) Uplift forming the intra-Pliocene unconformity exposes Pliocene sediments.**  
 356 **Karstification forms conduits for freshwater lens to develop and penetrate older strata. Strata previously**  
 357 **buried within deep diagenetic environments are uplifted into meteoric realm causing overprinting of**  
 358 **meteoric diagenesis over burial cements. The oldest sediments are not uplifted far enough to reach fresh**  
 359 **water lens and retain deepest burial diagenetic signature.**

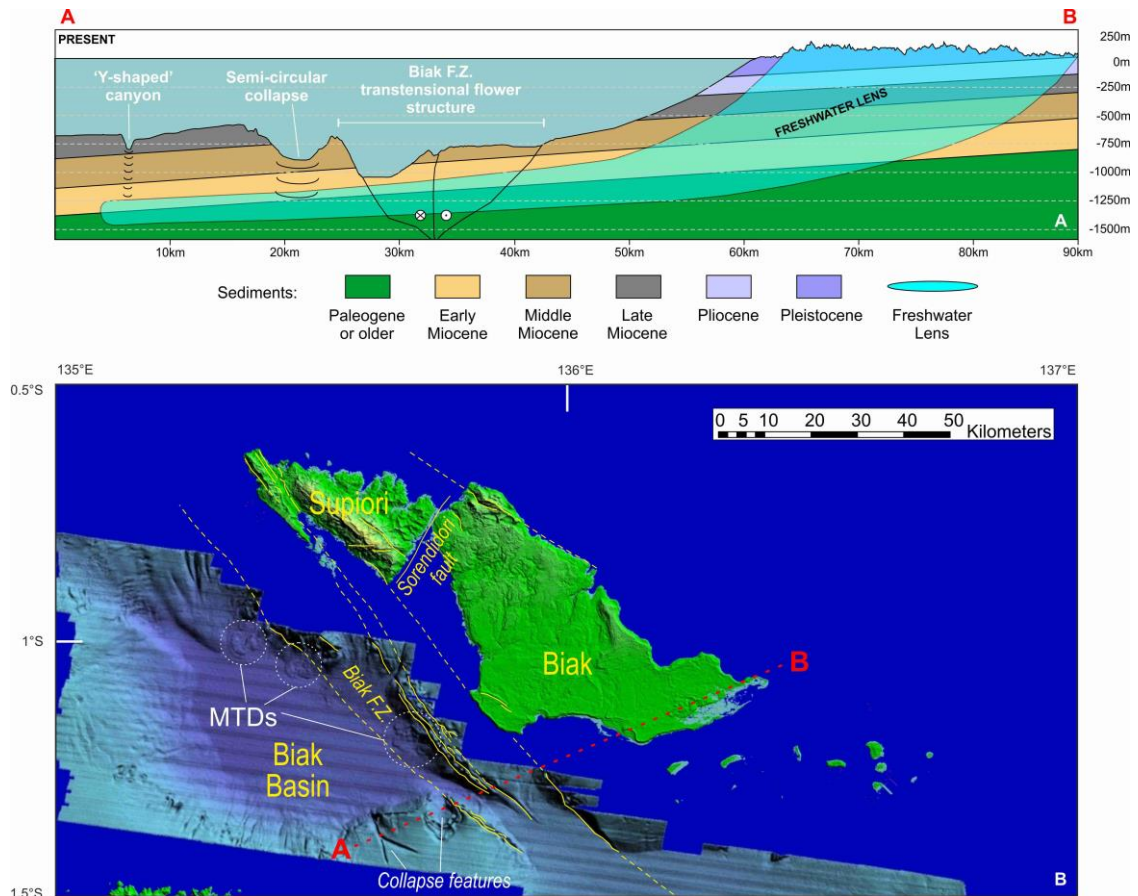
360

361           Some of the oldest Early Miocene samples from the Wainukendi Formation exhibit carbon and  
362 oxygen isotopic values close to those expected for deep burial cements (Fig. 6). It is interpreted that  
363 these samples have not been uplifted through the freshwater lens, and are exposed updip of the lens on  
364 the island of Biak. Inversely, the youngest Pleistocene sediments have not been buried to such an  
365 extent to have reached the freshwater lens, and remain unaffected by meteoric diagenesis (Fig. 8).

366

#### 367 7.2. *Effect of meteoric diagenesis in the Biak Basin*

368           ‘Pock mark’ and collapse features, such as those observed west of Biak and Supiori (Fig. 1), are  
369 often associated with gas seepage (e.g. Hovland and Judd, 1998; Yun et al., 1999). However, here they  
370 are interpreted to be caused by submarine ‘spring sapping’. The process of submarine spring sapping  
371 is interpreted to be driven by the freshwater lens responsible for the meteoric phreatic overprinting of  
372 samples collected onshore Biak and Supiori extending a considerable distance offshore (Fig. 8). The  
373 Biak and Supiori aquifer extending offshore into the Biak Basin represents the shelf scale of Bratton  
374 (2010). At the shelf scale the freshwater aquifer extends as far as the shallowest overlying confining  
375 unit, typically comprising fine-grained sediments (Bratton, 2010). The confining unit in Biak and  
376 Supiori are interpreted to be Late Miocene to Pliocene deep water sediments (e.g. Gold et al., 2017).  
377 The thickness of the meteoric lens at the shelf scale is typically several hundred metres and has a width  
378 of approximately 80km (Bratton, 2010). In the offshore Biak Basin the width of the lens extends  
379 approximately 55 km offshore and is interpreted to be approximately 250 m thick (Fig. 8). The  
380 interpreted ca. 1 km depth of the Biak freshwater lens is comparable to that of the Floridian Aquifer  
381 and extends almost as far offshore (Fig. 8).



382  
 383 **Fig. 8. A) Present day topographic and bathymetric profile along transect A-B across southern Biak and**  
 384 **into the offshore Biak Basin. The freshwater lens extends southwest from the island beneath the Biak**  
 385 **basin, comparable to the Floridian Aquifer. B) Transect A-B displayed in map view across the southern**  
 386 **margin of the Biak Basin**

387

388 It is unknown whether the 'Y-shaped' canyon or semi-circular collapse feature observed in  
 389 multibeam bathymetry (Fig. 8) formed during subaerial exposure or subaqueously. However, it is  
 390 likely that both are relatively recent structures, no older than the Pliocene. The lateral, rather than  
 391 vertical, displacement of carbonate units by the Biak Fault Zone permitted the freshwater lens to  
 392 extend beyond the transensional flower structure via well-developed karstic joints acting as conduits  
 393 to the southern margin of the Biak Basin.

394

395 **8. Conclusions**

396 Petrographic and stable isotope analysis of Neogene carbonates from the Bird's Head region of  
397 New Guinea enables the reconstruction of their subsequent burial history and potential as hydrocarbon  
398 reservoirs. The following conclusions can be drawn from these reconstructions.

399 Calculation of burial temperatures and depths reached by samples suggest that they attained a  
400 maximum temperature of ca. 35.5°C and depth of ca. 1.2 km up until the Pliocene. Sediments were  
401 rapidly exhumed during the creation of the 'intra-Pliocene unconformity' formed when rapid isostatic  
402 uplift as slab-mantle decoupling close to Timor affected the wider Banda Arc and Bird's Head region.  
403 This uplift resulted in a period of low relative sea-level in the Biak and Supiori region with the  
404 development of a freshwater aquifer formed as a response. Most samples show evidence of meteoric  
405 phreatic diagenesis through petrographic recognition of meteoric cements and presence of light oxygen  
406 isotopes. Precipitation of these cements is interpreted to have occurred late on in the paragenetic  
407 history of the samples as they passed through a freshwater lens during uplift. Subsequent 'spring  
408 sapping' by this freshwater lens is responsible for various collapse structures observed in multibeam  
409 bathymetry of the Biak Basin.

410

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424

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