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1	Cenozoic contourites in the eastern Great Australian Bight, offshore southern
2	Australia: implications for the onset of the Leeuwin Current
3	
4	Christopher A-L. Jackson*
5	Craig Magee
6	Esther R. Hunt-Stewart
7	
8	Basins Research Group (BRG), Department of Earth Science & Engineering, Imperial
9	College, Prince Consort Road, LONDON, SW7 2BP, UK
10	
11	*corresponding author email: c.jackson@imperial.ac.uk
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13	ABSTRACT
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15	Thermohaline oceanic currents influence global heat transfer, controlling local and global
16	variations in climate, biodiversity, and the terrestrial biosphere. Paleoceanographic studies
17	typically use biostratigraphic and geochemical proxies to reconstruct the dynamics of these
18	currents in Earth's ancient oceans, although seismic reflection data have also been
19	successfully employed, most commonly in the North Atlantic Ocean. Here we use 2D seismic
20	reflection data from the Ceduna Sub-basin, Great Australian Bight, offshore southern
21	Australia to describe middle Eocene-to-Recent contourites deposited within an overall
22	carbonate-dominated succession. These deposits comprise large (100 m wavelength by up to
23	50 m tall) bedforms and deep (10-90 m), wide (up to 3 km) erosional scours. The scours are
24	particularly well-developed at one specific stratigraphic level, defining moats that encircle
25	Middle Eocene shield volcanoes, which formed syn-depositional bathymetric highs. We

suggest that sediment erosion, transport, and deposition may record middle Eocene initiation

of the Leeuwin Current, one of the most important ocean currents in the southern hemisphere.

Deepest seabed scouring may reflect middle Miocene waxing of the so-called 'proto-Leeuwin

Current', possibly driven by changes in ocean circulation patterns caused by the Miocene

Global Optimum. The results of this seismic reflection-based study are consistent with results

derived from other paleoceanographic proxies, thereby highlighting the continued key role

seismic reflection data have in understanding the occurrence, geographical distribution, and

33 34 significance of ancient ocean currents.

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35 **Introduction.** By influencing seawater temperature and salinity, ocean current activity 36 controls regional and global trends in climate and biodiversity. Determining past changes in 37 thermohaline circulation patterns in the world's oceans is thus important to understanding 38 how climate and biodiversity varied in deep time and, therefore, may change in the future (cf. "geological analogues" of IPCC, 2007; see also e.g., Henderson, 2002; Wunsch, 2002; 39 Rahmstorf, 2003; Wyrwoll et al., 2009). Paleooceanographic analysis commonly relies on 40 41 biostratigraphic and geochemical proxy data, which: (i) are expensive to collect, and typically 42 only collected on academic scientific cruises (e.g. IODP); (ii) are spatially limited (i.e. 43 collected over a relatively small area within a discrete stratigraphic intervals); and (iii) do not 44 typically provide a physical (i.e. stratigraphic) record of the initiation, extent, and decay of 45 oceanographic currents (e.g. von Blackenburg, 1999; Henderson, 2002). Seismic reflection 46 data can image very large (up to 10's of metre thick, and several hundred-to-tens of kilometres long) contourite systems, which provide an explicit record of ocean current-47 48 driven, erosion and reworking of the ancient seabed (e.g. Boldreel et al., 1998; Davies et al., 49 2001; Faugères et al., 1999; Rebesco and Stow, 2001; Stow et al., 2003; Due et al., 2006; 50 Hohbein et al., 2012; Rebesco et al., 2014). When integrated with more widely used 51 paleoceanographic proxies, as they have been most commonly and successfully in the North 52 Atlantic Ocean (e.g. Tucholke, 1979; Tucholke & Mountain, 1979; Mountain & Miller, 1992; 53 Davies et al., 2001; Müller-Michaelis et al., 2013; Calvin Campbell & Mosher, 2016; Boyle 54 et al., 2017), seismic reflection data form a key part of the oceanographer's toolkit.

55 In this study we use 2D seismic reflection data from the Ceduna Sub-basin, Great 56 Australian Bight, offshore southern Australia to identify and map Middle Eocene-to-Recent 57 contourites, which possibly record the middle Eocene initiation of the current now known as 58 the Leeuwin Current. Although its age of initiation is debated, the present Leeuwin Current is 59 the longest (5000 km) and one of the most important ocean currents in the southern 60 hemisphere (Fig. 1A). It is connected to and samples the global thermohaline system via the Indonesian Gateway (Feng et al., 2009), flowing southwards at relatively shallow depths 61 (<300 m) and modest speeds (<2 m s⁻¹, but as low as 0.3-0.5 m s⁻¹ in the Great Australian 62 Bight) along the western coast of Australia and thereafter eastwards into the Great Australian 63 64 Bight (Fig. 1A) (Cresswell and Golding, 1980; Cresswell & Domingues, 2009). Transporting 65 warm, low-salinity waters derived from the South Equatorial Current within a relatively 66 narrow band (<100 km), the Leeuwin Current contributes to climatic variations and 67 vegetation patterns (e.g., Caputi, 2001; Feng et al., 2009; Wyrwoll et al., 2009), and continent-scale biodiversity patterns by transporting otherwise low-latitude fauna to 68

anomalously high latitudes (e.g., Cann and Clarke, 1993; McGowran et al., 1997; Passlow et 69 70 al., 1997). By providing what we think is the first physical evidence for ocean current activity 71 in relatively deepwater, offshore southern Australia, our seismic reflection-based study 72 broadly supports studies proposing a middle Eocene initiation age for the Leeuwin Current 73 (McGowran et al., 1997; see also Feary and James, 1995, 1998). More generically, our study confirms that seismic reflection data, if integrated with biostratigraphic and geochemical 74 75 proxies, can help improve our understanding of deep-time dynamics of the Earth's ancient 76 oceans.

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78 Geological Setting. The Ceduna Sub-basin is located in the Bight Basin, offshore southern 79 Australia (Fig. 1A), and formed in response to Jurassic-to-Early Cretaceous rifting and Early 80 Cretaceous-to-Recent, post-rift thermal subsidence. Numerous submarine volcanoes were 81 emplaced during earliest Middle Eocene magmatism at *ca*. 42 Ma (the 'Bight Basin Igneous Complex'; Schofield & Totterdell, 2008; Jackson, 2012; Magee et al., 2013), with the 82 83 volcanoes onlapped by the fully marine, Middle Eocene-to-Recent, carbonate-dominated 84 Nullarbor Limestone (Fig. 1B) (Schofield & Totterdell, 2008). Schofield & Totterdell (2008) 85 and Jackson (2012) identify numerous 'scours' in the Nullarbor Limestone, although they do not explore their age or origin, their genetic relationship to the Middle Eocene volcanoes, or 86 87 the potential paleoceanographic significance of their causal current. There are no direct 88 constraints on Middle Eocene-to-Recent water depths in the distal Ceduna Sub-basin, 89 although the heights of Eocene clinoforms along the northern basin margin (Feary and James, 90 1995, 1998; McGowran et al., 1997) and the preservation of pristine submarine volcanoes 91 within fully marine sediments (Magee et al., 2013; Jackson (2012) suggests the basin 92 deepened to a few hundred metres (i.e. broadly comparable to the present depth of the 93 Leeuwin Current; see above) during middle Eocene flooding (see also McGowran et al., 94 1997; Shafik, 1983; 1990). The Ceduna Sub-basin lies outboard of the modern day shelf edge 95 in water depths of 200–4000 m; the seabed in the study area is below the influence of the 96 modern Leeuwin Current, which extends to depths of 300 m (Feng et al., 2009).

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98 Paleoceanography of the Great Australian Bight. The Quaternary extent and dynamics of 99 the Leeuwin Current in the Great Australian Bight are relatively well understood (Cresswell 100 and Golding, 1980; Feng et al., 2009; Wyrwoll et al., 2009), whereas its timing of initiation, 101 and its pre-Quaternary eastward 'reach' into the Great Australian Bight, remain uncertain. 102 Based on their discovery of warm-water, Eocene microfauna in the Otway Basin, McGowran 103 et al. (1997) suggested an even older, Middle Eocene age of initiation for the Leeuwin 104 Current in the Great Australian Bight, arguing these fauna were likely derived from warm 105 low-latitudes (i.e. via the proto-Leeuwin Current) and not cold high-latitudes (i.e. via the 106 Flinders Current) (Fig. 1A); this interpretation is supported by fully coupled climate model 107 simulations (Huber et al., 2004). However, pre-Early Oligocene initiation of the Leeuwin 108 Current is disputed given that opening of the Tasmanian Gateway, which facilitated 109 eastwards flow of warm ocean waters along southern Australia into the Pacific, did not occur 110 until the Early Oligocene (e.g. Stickley et al., 2004; Wyrwoll et al., 2009). These studies 111 together suggest the proto-Leeuwin Current in some way shaped the Eocene-to-Recent 112 stratigraphic evolution of the Great Australian Bight shelfal regions, although the 113 stratigraphic expression of time-equivalent, basin-centre units, which should also record the 114 initiation and influence of this important ocean current, has yet to be documented.

Although Middle Eocene initiation of the Leeuwin Current is disputed, there is evidence from IODP Leg 182 that anomalously warm waters entered the Great Australian Bight during the middle Miocene, possibly in response changes in ocean circulation driven by the Miocene Climatic Optimum (e.g. Savin et al., 1975; Feary and James, 1995, 1998; Gourley and Gallagher, 2004). For example, McGowran et al. (1997) document the 'Little Barrier Reef', a thick (350 m), laterally extensive (>475 km long), rimmed carbonate platform developed along the northern margin of the Bight Basin (Fig. 1A).

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123 Data and methods. Our dataset consists of 109 time-migrated, zero-phase, 2D seismic reflection lines that have a cumulative line length of c. 13,000 km and cover c. 44,000 km² of 124 125 the central Ceduna Sub-basin (Fig. 1A). The NW- and NE-trending lines are spaced 4-16 km 126 and 4–8 km, respectively (Fig. 2). The Gnarlyknots-1a borehole constrains the age of four 127 key seismic reflections (Horizons A–D; Figs 1B and 3). This borehole also contains well-log 128 data indicating the relatively thin (<300 m) Nullarbor Limestone has a fairly constant P-wave velocity of 2100 m s⁻¹ (cf. Espurt et al., 2009); this allows us to convert measurements in 129 130 milliseconds two-way time (ms TWT) to metres (e.g. 100 ms TWT=105 m). Extrusive 131 igneous bodies were identified and mapped using the geometric and geophysical criteria 132 outlined by Totterdell & Schofield (2008), Jackson (2012) and Magee et al. (2013). Our 2D 133 seismic lines are widely spaced relative to the size of the intra-Nullarbor features we describe 134 below, meaning we cannot document their full, three-dimensional external form or internal 135 architecture (cf. Calvin Campbell & Mosher, 2016). However, intra-Nullarbor scours and 136 'mounded' seismic facies are typically imaged on and can be mapped between, several

adjacent seismic lines. In particular, it is clear that the scours are only developed adjacent toand define 'moats' that encircle the volcanic vents (Figs 2 and 3).

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140 Description of intra-Nullarbor seismic facies. We define two main stratal units within the 141 Nullarbor Formation (SU1-2), separated by a major erosional surface (Horizon D; Figs 1 and 142 3). The base of SU1 is defined by a high-amplitude, laterally-continuous, positive seismic 143 reflection defining the contact between the Pidinga Formation and the Nullarbor Limestone 144 (i.e. Horizon B), or a series of volcanoes (i.e. Horizon C) (Figs 1B and 3). SU1 comprises the 145 lower part of the Nullarbor Limestone and, away from the volcanoes, is typically 146 characterised by low-to-moderate amplitude, parallel-to-sub-parallel, very continuous 147 reflections (Fig. 3). Closer to the volcanoes (i.e. <2 km), a series of gently-dipping ($<4^\circ$) 148 reflections are developed in SU1, and these locally display bilateral downlap onto the 149 underlying reflections and thus define convex-up, 'mounded' bodies (Figs 3B-D). These 150 inclined reflections, which either dip towards (Fig. 3A) or away (Figs 3C-D) from the 151 volcanoes, typically overlie low-angle ($<6^\circ$) erosional surfaces, which are up to 2 km wide 152 and display up to 100 m of relief; these surfaces pass laterally into (seismically) conformable 153 surfaces (Fig. 3).

154 The base of SU2 is locally defined by a major erosion surface along which numerous 155 scours are developed (Horizon D; Figs 1-3). These scours locally define a series of 'moat-156 like' features that fully or partly encircle 15 of the 57 vents present in the Ceduna Sub-basin (e.g. Fig. 2). The scours have a relief of 10–90 m, extend <3 km from the volcanoes, and 157 158 their flanks dip $0.1-6.1^{\circ}$, being best-developed around volcanoes that are typically >200 m 159 tall. Some of the scours are asymmetric, consisting of a long, gently dipping outer margin 160 inclined towards the vents and a shorter, more steeply-dipping surface that dips away from 161 the vents (Figs 3B–D). However, our 2D seismic data do not allow us to confidently 162 determine if the scours are consistently asymmetric in one direction, or if they are 163 preferentially developed on one side of the vents (Fig. 2). Two main types of seismic facies 164 fill the scours: (i) high-amplitude, 'mounded' reflections, which have a relief of up to 50 m 165 and a distance of 100–200 m between adjacent mound crests (Fig. 3B); and (ii) low-to-high 166 amplitude, gently-dipping ($<2^{\circ}$), moderately discontinuous to laterally-continuous reflections 167 (Fig. 3). The upper part of SU2 is dominated by low-to-high amplitude, flat-lying to gently-168 dipping ($<2^{\circ}$), laterally-continuous reflections (Fig. 3), with erosionally based packages of 169 chaotic reflections being locally developed.

171 Interpretation of intra-Nullarbor features. Based on their development in a fully marine 172 succession and given that post-Middle Eocene water depths were probably at least several 173 hundred metres (see Jackson, 2012), it is unlikely the intra-Nullarbor scours and mounds 174 formed subaerially. Furthermore, the coeval basin margin, which was likely located several hundred kilometres to the north, was carbonate-dominated and constructional (Fig. 1; see also 175 176 Feary and James, 1995, 1998), suggesting only limited sediment bypass to deep-water, and 177 that voluminous, strongly erosional gravity currents, such as turbidity currents, were likely 178 not responsible for the formation of the intra-Nullarbor scours and mounds. Although large 179 mounded bodies, typically interpreted as sediment waves, are commonly observed in many 180 deepwater depositional systems, scours of the irregular shape and size to those observed here 181 are not (e.g. Posamentier & Kolla, 2003).

182 Based on their development in a fully marine succession deposited in several 183 hundreds of metres of water, our preferred interpretation is that the scours formed in response 184 to ocean current-related incision of the seabed (Fig. 4). Such scours are common in modern 185 seas and oceans, typically in association with channel-related contourite drifts (sensu Stow et 186 al., 2002). The spatial restriction of Ceduna Sub-basin scours to within c. 3 km of the 187 volcanoes, strongly suggests the volcanic edifices formed syn-incision bathymetric highs that 188 perturbed the velocity structure of the causal ocean currents. We suggest this perturbation 189 increased current turbulence and, most critically, seabed shear stress, driving localised 190 erosion of the seabed immediately adjacent to the volcanoes (Fig. 4) (e.g. O'Reilly et al., 191 2003; MacLachlan et al., 2008). Submarine scours of broadly similar geometry, dimension, 192 and origin are observed adjacent to igneous rock-cored bathymetric highs in the Pisces Reef 193 system, Irish Sea, UK (Callaway et al., 2009), and in the Capel and Faust basins, offshore 194 eastern Australia (Rollet et al., 2012). Scours are best-developed adjacent to the tallest 195 volcanoes because only these were expressed at the paleoseabed at the onset of the ocean 196 current initiation (see below); shorter volcanoes were buried by this time, thus they lack 197 flanking scours.

We interpret that inclined and mounded reflections developed throughout the Nullarbor Limestone represent dip-oblique and dip-parallel sections, respectively, through contourite drifts (cf. Rebesco and Stow, 2001; Stow et al., 2003; Hohbein et al., 2012; Rebesco et al., 2014). Sedimentary bodies like this are commonly associated with seabed scours, being deposited when bottom current energy is low enough to permit sediment reworking within bedforms (Fig. 4) (e.g. Stow et al., 2002). Like the scours, intra-Nullarbor bedforms are spatially restricted to within a few kilometres of the vents, suggesting they too formed due to volcano-driven perturbations in ocean current velocity and seabed shear stress.
In their case, however, an increase in seabed shear stress was only sufficient to rework
sediment and not deeply erode the seabed (Fig. 4).

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209 Implications for the paleoceanographic development of the Great Australian Bight. 210 Although the Gnarlyknots-1a borehole penetrates the Nullarbor Formation, no 211 biostratigraphic data were collected; as a result, we cannot constrain the age of intra-212 Nullarbor scours, associated strata, or indeed, the causal current more tightly than 'middle 213 Eocene-to-Recent'. Furthermore, no paleobathymetric data (e.g. benthic foraminifera) were 214 collected in Gnarlyknots-1a, meaning we have no direct constraints on water depth variations 215 during the middle Eocene-to-Recent, and thus the depth of formation of the ocean current-216 related scours and bedforms remains uncertain (see also discussion in Jackson, 2012). Our 217 relatively widely spaced 2D seismic reflection data also do not allow us to confidently 218 determine if intra-Nullarbor scours are preferentially developed on one, most likely the 219 down-current (i.e. lee) side of the seabed obstruction (i.e. the volcanoes), or if the associated 220 bedforms are best-developed on one, most likely the up-current side of the vents, and display 221 down-current accretion (e.g. Callaway et al., 2009; Rollet et al., 2012). Because of this, we do 222 not know the dominant direction of the causal current.

223 Notwithstanding these limitations, it is informative to discuss the implications of our 224 study for the Paleogene paleoceanographic evolution of the eastern Great Australian Bight. 225 Using biostratigraphic proxy data from the Bight and Otway basins, McGowran et al. (1997) 226 suggest the initiation of eastwards protrusion of a so-called 'proto-Leeuwin Current' into the 227 Great Australian Bight during the middle Eocene, with further evidence for its presence in the 228 middle Miocene (Fig. 1A; see also Feary and James, 1995, 1998). This interpretation was, 229 however, challenged by Wyroll et al. (2009), who suggest these fauna may simply record 230 locally elevated sea surface temperatures unrelated to the initiation of a plate-scale 231 thermohaline current. We here suggest middle Eocene-to-Recent contourites developed in the 232 Ceduna Sub-basin are associated with Paleogene initiation of an oceanographic current, 233 which we link to the postulated proto-Leeuwin Current, and which operated in broadly 234 similar waters depths (i.e. a few hundred metres) to the present Leeuwin Current (Fig. 4). 235 More specifically, we propose these features record late middle Eocene initiation and 236 subsequent fluctuations in the strength and erosivity of, the current. The major intra-237 Nullarbor erosion surface (Horizon D), for example, which is best-developed immediately 238 adjacent to the volcanoes, may represent intensification or 'waxing' of the proto-Leeuwin Current (Fig. 4). Despite a lack of age data, we tentatively suggest this erosional event, and related bedforms, may be the stratigraphic expression of the Miocene Climatic Optimumrelated event proposed by Feary and James (1995, 1998), during which time anomalously warm waters encroached eastwards into the Great Australian Bight from western Australia (see also Savin et al., 1975; Gourley and Gallagher, 2004).

244 Our study shows that seismic reflection data can image erosional and depositional 245 features that provide a physical stratigraphic record of ancient ocean currents. We 246 demonstrate that by placing these features into a broad chronostratigraphic framework, we 247 can complement rather sparse micro-faunal evidence, and gain important insights into the 248 timing of onset of major ocean currents. Data limitations notwithstanding, our seismic 249 reflection-based approach does, at the very least, provide a clear hypothesis testable with 250 future scientific drilling (e.g. IODP). Seismic reflection data allow erection of a physical, 251 stratigraphic framework and remains an essential part of the paleoceanographer's toolkit. 252 Future work should focus on detailed mapping of seismic reflection datasets from, for 253 example, the western Bight Basin and Otway Basin; this may reveal similar, age-equivalent 254 current-formed stratigraphic features, thus raising the possibility that the proto-Leeuwin 255 Current extended further eastwards and influenced faunal distribution and potentially climate 256 over a wider area than currently assumed.

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429

430 FIGURE CAPTIONS

431

432 Fig 1. (A) Map illustrating the geographical setting of the study area. The area covered by 2D 433 seismic reflection data is outlined by a solid black line. Inset shows the key modern 434 oceanographic currents developed along the western and southern Australian margin. 435 LC=Leeuwin Current; ACC=Antarctic Circumpolar Current; WAC=West Australia Current; 436 FC=Flinders Current. OB=Otway Basin. Modified from Jackson (2012); oceanographic 437 currents from Bilj et al. (2013). Grey dashed lines indicate boundaries between sub-basins 438 forming part of the Great Australian Bight. (B) Simplified stratigraphic column based on data 439 from boreholes Gnarlyknots-1A and Potoroo-1. Key seismic horizons (A-D) and seismic 440 units (SU1-2) are indicated. The stratigraphic occurrence of intrusion and extrusive components of the Bight Basin Igneous Complex (BBIC) are shown. Modified from Jackson(2012).

443

Fig. 2. Time-structure map of the Horizon B (base Nullarbor Limestone) clipped where it intersects Horizon C (top volcanic vents); this illustrates the distribution of volcano summits (labelled 'v' and encircled by a solid white line) that rise above Horizon D, and intra-SU2 scours (labelled 's'). d=drifts. (A) and (B) are from the southern and northern parts of the study area respectively. See Figure 1A for location of map. Light grey lines indicate seismic reflection profiles. Note that the geometries of the Horizons C and D are poorly constrained away from the 2D seismic reflection profiles.

451

Fig. 3. (A)–(D) Interpreted seismic profiles illustrating the geometry, scale and relationship between extrusive volcanic features of the Bight Basin Igneous Complexes and intra-Nullabor Limestone contourites (i.e. scours and bedforms). Locations of the seismic lines are shown in Figure 2. Note the vertical scale is provided in ms TWT and metres, based on an intra-Nullarbor interval velocity of 2100 m s⁻¹. Uninterpreted versions of sections are available in DRI1.

458

Fig. 4. (A–C) Schematic diagrams illustrating the evolution of intra-Nullarbor Limestone contourites in the Great Australia Bight. The vertical dashed line in the 'current strength' column indicates the threshold for sediment erosion/non-deposition; these conditions occur at the onset of T2.

463

464 Data Repository Item (DR1). Uninterpreted versions of the seismic profiles presented in
465 Fig. 3.

















Fig. 4