

Impact of Late Quaternary climatic fluctuations on coastal systems: Evidence from high-resolution geophysical, sedimentological and geochronological data from the Java Island

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- **Impact of Late Quaternary climatic fluctuations on coastal systems:**
- 2 Evidence from high-resolution geophysical, sedimentological and
- 3 geochronological data from the Java Island
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Abstract

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The major climatic oscillations during the Quaternary Period significantly influenced the evolution and distribution of ancient and modern coastal systems. Here we investigate the morphology and sedimentary infilling of submerged Late Quaternary incised valleys along the northern coast of Java Island (Indonesia) using high-resolution geophysical, sedimentological and geochronological data. Our results indicate that the spatial development and morphology of the incised valleys are predominantly controlled by Quaternary glacial-interglacial eustatic fluctuations, within a marked subsiding setting. The valleys were incised during prominent Quaternary lowstands and most of the valley fill was emplaced during the last postglacial sea level rise. The valley fill forms a transgressive succession, consisting mainly of fluvial deposits at the base (possibly amalgamated from older sequences) overlain by shallow marine sediments and capped by hemipelagic deposits. The valley-fill architecture is strongly dependent on the valley morphology (depth of incision, width of the valleys, and extent of the intertidal zone). The shallow marine deposits contained within the narrow and linear valleys are mostly aggrading muds. The vertical incision and valley formation was chiefly controlled by the extent of glacial sea-level fluctuations. The studied sections represent the continentaloffshore extension of a paleodeltaic system. The implication of our work is that even in predominantly enclosed shallow marine systems that are located distal to the shelf break, the response of the sedimentary system and ensuing stratigraphic configuration can be effectively impacted by the rapid and abrupt Quaternary global climatic transition and eustatic sea-level fluctuations.

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- Keywords: Last Glacial Maximum; Java Sea; Incised Valleys; depositional controls; stratal
- 46 morphology

1. Introduction

The Quaternary Period is characterized by rapid, large-scale and abrupt climatic oscillations 48 49 that strongly influenced the evolution and distribution of ancient coastal systems around the world and continue to exert control until present-day (Adams et al., 1999; Elias, 2013; 50 Gornitz, 2021). The associated eustatic fluctuations predominantly generated arrays of incised 51 valleys during relative sea level lowstands which were inundated and filled during subsequent 52 relative sea level rise, inundated and infilled the incised valleys. Over the last 40 years, owing 53 54 to its scientific and economic significance, extensive research has been focused on the stratigraphy and infilling of such incised valleys or paleochannels (Puchala et al., 2011; Wang 55 et al., 2020). Research conducted elsewhere has provided important geomorphologic as well 56 57 as stratigraphic information from regions such as the North and South American shelf (e.g., Dalrymple et al., 1994; Nordfjord et al., 2006; Moreira et al., 2019), northwest European shelf 58 (e.g., Allen and Posamentier, 1993 and 1994; Tesson et al., 2000; Chaumillon et al., 2010; 59 60 Menier et al., 2010; Martinez-Carreno and Garcia-Gil, 2017), northeastern Australian shelf (e.g., Fielding et al., 2005), southwestern Huanghai shelf (e.g., Kong et al., 2011), South 61 African shelf (e.g., Green, 2009), eastern Indian coast (e.g., Dubey et al., 2019), Sunda shelf 62 in Southeast Asia (e.g., Hanebuth et al., 2009; Puchala et al., 2011; Horozal et al., 2021), 63 among others. 64 65 In Southeast Asia, the Sunda Shelf or Sundaland is an extension of the continental shelf and includes the island of Java, the Malay peninsula, Sumatra, Borneo, Madura, Bali and their 66 surrounding smaller islands. It covers an area of approximately 1.85 million km². Its seas are 67 relatively shallow and was exposed several times during the Pleistocene (e.g., Emery et al., 68 1972; Hanebuth et al., 2009) when Sumatra, Java, Borneo and the Malay peninsula were 69 70 connected and formed a single large landmass (Heaney et al., 1991; Voris, 2000; Bird et al., 2005) (Fig. 1A). During the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), ~26.5–19 ka BP, much of the 71 72 remaining Sundaland area was covered by savanna, grassland, lowland evergreen forests,

marshy grounds and crossed axially by the deeply incised 'rivers' feeding the late fallingstage deltas that debouched close to the present-day shelf break of the Sundaland (Hanebuth et al., 2009; Hanebuth et al., 2011; Puchala et al., 2011; Sathiamurthy and Rahman, 2017; Irwanto, 2019). The Java Sea that today corresponds to a large and shallow sea of the Sunda Shelf, which lies between the islands of Borneo to the north, Java to the south, Sumatra to the west and Sulawesi to the east, was entirely exposed during the LGM (Clark et al., 2009). The Java Sea was occupied by river valleys and channels that coursed to the shelf break located toward the eastern part of Java. Currently, the northwestern region of the Java Sea hosts a poorly-documented offshore sedimentary prism dominated by argillaceous deposits within a rapidly subsiding geodynamic setting (Abidin et al., 2008, 2013 and 2015, Chaussard et al., 2013; Husson et al., 2019). While it is recognized that this region has undergone various phases of tectonic and eustatic fluctuations until recent-times (e.g., Zahirovic et al., 2016), a detailed analysis of the sedimentary architecture and stratigraphic archive, which can potentially encapsulate evidences of important environmental changes in response to endogenic and exogenic forcing, remain less understood. Here, we present a detailed description of the shallow sub-bottom stratigraphy of the offshore section of northwest Java (Fig. 1B) using results obtained from shallow seismic surveys and cores collected in 2015. These results, aided with radiocarbon ages provide insights into the Pleistocene to Holocene transition events and the major climatic and eustatic controls on the sedimentary organization within a subsiding shelf setting.

2. Geological characteristics of Java and Java Sea

2.1. Structural setting

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95 Sundaland consists of a stable core of Paleozoic continental crust that was augmented in size

by tectonism and volcanism associated with subduction along the southern margin of the

continent, with episodes of uplift and subsidence affecting the entire Sunda Shelf (Bird et al., 2005; Metcalfe, 2011). Java represents a volcanic arc built on the southernmost margin of the continental Sunda Plate, due to the subduction of the oceanic Australia-Indian plate (Fig. 2A; Hamilton, 1979). It is a structurally complex island attributable to a long history of accretion of Gondwana-derived crustal blocks that led to a configuration of alternating highs and transverse depressions (Haberland et al. 2014). The northern part of the Northwest Java Basin, including the coastal area, is dominated by extensional faulting with minimal compressional structures (Darman and Sidi, 2000; Sathiamurthy et al., 2006). It was formed by continuous subsidence and southward tilting of the Sunda Plate since the Paleogene (Hamilton, 1979). The subsidence is documented to have resulted in the development of the Pulau Seribu carbonate platforms (Fig. 1B) and the NE-SW trending asymmetrical northwest Java basinal area (Suyanto et al., 1977). Subsequent development of several sub-basins and basement highs within the basin (Patmosukismo et al., 1974) was associated with N-S trending block faulting (Adriansyah et al., 2002).

2.2. Geomorphology and seafloor sedimentary cover

Morphologically, the Java Sea is roughly rectangular in shape, located between Sumatra to the west and Bali to the east. In the west, it is open to the Indian Ocean through the Sunda Strait and the Karimata Strait, respectively. In the east, it has an open connection to the Flores Sea and the Sulawesi Sea through the Makassar Strait (Durand & Petit, 1995; Genia et al., 2007). The Java Sea including Jakarta Bay is a large (~310,000 km²), shallow sea (40–100 m water depth) and the slope is toward the east at the edge of the Sunda Shelf. Seafloor surface sediment of Indonesian waters including the Java Sea generally consists of cohesive finegrained sediments (Fig. 2).

Java presents an elongated morphology with a surface area of ~130,000 km² (~1000 km in

length and ~210 km wide). The coastline is structurally controlled and shows an irregular

morphology. Northern Java including the Jakarta Bay is in a transition area between the volcanic arc and the extensional back-arc zone. This area is characterized by the flat alluvial plain of the coastal zone. The southern parts of Java are occupied by volcanic mountains where Mount Semeru is the highest (~36576 m). Java is drained by multiple rivers, with large drainage basins in the north and small drainage basins in the south (Figure 3). The drainage pattern is predominantly controlled by the volcanic arc and recent uplift (Marliyani, 2016).

2.3. Sea level changes

On a global scale, the development of Quaternary stratigraphy of continental shelves was predominantly controlled by glacio-eustatic fluctuations (Suter et al., 2012). Hence, an understanding of relative sea-level change may help to explain critical interactions in earth environmental systems throughout the Quartenary (Shennan, 2018).

The Sundaland core is considered to be tectonically quiescent, as evidenced by the lack of noticeable seismic activity of the fault systems. However, a recent biographical study on organism divergence time (Husson et al., 2019) shows that Sundaland was subaerially exposed before 400 ka and subsequently experienced subsidence at a rate of 0.2–0.3 mm yr⁻¹ (Sarr et al., 2019). The insights gained from Sarr et al. (2019), resulted in an updated framework of sea level changes for Sundaland by combining variations of both glacio-eustatic and subsiding activity.

the sea level by ~120 m had fully exposed the Sunda Shelf. Several previous studies (e.g., Bird et al., 2005; Sathiamurthy et al., 2006; Cannon et al., 2009; Sathiamurthy et al., 2017), using sedimentological, geophysical and palynological data records from the LGM stage, reconstructed the paleogeography of Sundaland along the areas from the South China Sea and Malacca Strait to the Java Sea. The area was dominated by large fluvial drainage systems with

During the LGM, when ice sheets were at their maximum, the glacio-eustatic depression of

savanna and lowland evergreen vegetation in their catchment areas (Fig.1A). Sea level changes seem to play a critical role in variability of the sedimentary successions in these areas including the Jakarta Bay and the Java Sea.

The last marine flood that initiated ~19 ka BP had significant consequences on the remobilization of sediments of the paleolandscapes associated with the vast coastal plain, which occupied most of the present-day Java Sea. During this sea level rise, the new hydrodynamic conditions led to a reorganization of the sedimentary architecture that initiated with continental sedimentary regime to a mixed sedimentary system (i.e., both marine and continental) and then culminated in an exclusively marine-dominated stratigraphic

3. Material and methods

3.1. Geophysical data acquisition and processing

architecture, to reach the current coastline of northern Java.

Two high-resolution reflection seismic (HRRS) single channel data records were used. The first set of seismic profiles correspond to refined HRRS campaigns that were carried out in June to July 2015, covering nearly the entire Jakarta Bay. The second set of seismic profiles were obtained from the HRRS data acquisition campaign that was conducted in March 1990 (unpublished report by Kurnio et al., 1991) for the Java Sea (Fig. 1B). Both seismic records were acquired by deploying a sparker system that could penetrate up to 250 ms TWTT. Cheaspeake Sonarwiz 5 software was used for processing the single channel data by completing the sea bottom track by noise attenuation, seismic signal gaining by Automatic Gain Control and User Define Gain/Attenuation, bandpass filtering through frequency selection to have a better resolution of seismic reflectors at upper layers of sub-sea bottom and seismic trace stacking by increasing the ratio of signal/noise to obtain a better quality of the

reflectors. The time-depth conversion for sediment unit boundaries was assumed using an internal velocity of 1600 m/s beneath the seafloor (Puchala et al., 2011; Martínez-Carreño and García-Gil, 2017). Thus, 200 m depth was reached with some approximately visible reflectors. Survey positioning was achieved with a differential global positioning system (DGPS) using CNAV 3050. The seismic reflectors were analyzed following the procedures enlisted by Mitchum and Vail (1977), Brown and Fisher (1980), Posamentier et al. (1988), Posamentier and Vail (1988), and Catuneanu (2019).

3.2. Sediment cores

Ten boreholes (BH-01–BH-10) were drilled (Figs. 1C and 2B) around the Jakarta Bay. The borehole, BH-10, has the deepest water depth (22 m below Lowest Astronomical Tide -LAT), while the others varied from 14 to 19 m water depth below LAT. Among the 10 boreholes, the drilling depth of BH-02 and BH-07 reached 150 m below the sea bed and both boreholes were located in the middle of the bay (Fig. 1C and Table 1). The other boreholes were drilled to a depth of 60 m below the seafloor. The retrieved sediment cores were used to describe the lithology, microfauna and organic matter (e.g., fragments of fossilized wood, rootlets, charcoal, etc.) to decipher the depositional environments, which were interpreted based on granulometric analyses (30 g dry samples were sieved for grain sizes 2 mm, 500 μ m, 250 μ m and 63 μ m) and microfossil analysis (using stereo zoom Zeiss Stemi SV 11) following standard procedures.

3.3. AMS ¹⁴C dating

The selected samples for radiocarbon dating were analyzed with Accelerator Mass

Spectrometry at the Radiocarbon Laboratory, University of Arizona, USA. Each age

measurement was conducted on shell fragments and organic matter extracted from the cores.

All radiocarbon dates are given in years before present/1950 (BP) (Smith et al., 2011; Reimer

et al., 2013). Radiocarbon dates with a "measured radiocarbon age" older than 46,400 yrs BP are outside the detection limits and are not calibrated; thus, these ages are shown as > 46,400 yrs BP (Table. 2).

4. Results

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4.1. Interpretation of seismic reflection configuration patterns and seismic stratigraphy 198 The seismic profiles were analyzed in terms of continuity, amplitude, configuration and 199 200 termination of reflectors following Mitchum et al. (1977) and Catuneanu (2019). This was followed by the recognition of seismic units and description of the recognized units along 201 202 with their boundaries (unit boundary - UB). The characteristics of the acoustic facies are summarized in Table 3 for the seismic units observed in the offshore zone and identified in 203 boreholes BH-02 and BH-07. 204 205 To illustrate the Holocene infilling of the incised valleys from the Jakarta Bay to the Java Sea, we selected five seismic profiles that are located in the central part of the study zone. 206 207 In the five profiles (sparker profiles: L-42, CL-06B, L-C7, L-C8 and L-X), located at water depths ranging from 5 to 50 m, seven seismic units, i.e., U1–U7, from the base towards the 208 top, were identified in the sedimentary infilling of the incised valleys (Fig. 4 and Table 3). 209 These units are illustrated on the selected profiles, except for Units 1, 2 and 3, which are only 210 adequately visible on L-42. Units 1 and 2 are characterized by discontinuous reflectors with 211 212 an acoustically opaque configuration. Unit 1 (U1) is located in the basal part (Fig. 4A) and displays a thickness of >25 ms TWTT 213 (>20 m). The reflectors of U1 demonstrates very poor continuity, low frequency and low 214 215 amplitude (Table 3). The reflection configuration is aggrading sub-parallel with attenuated 216 zones (acoustically opaque) as a result of subsurface gas. It should be noted that this area has

been shown to contain acoustically turbid zones, which are related to the presence of gas in 217 218 organic-rich sediments (e.g., Schubel, 1974; Baltzer et al., 2005). 219 Unit 2 (U2) presents an acoustic thickness varying from 20 to 35 ms TWTT (~16 m to 28 m). 220 Continuity, amplitude and frequency in seismic facies range from low to medium and very 221 poor at some parts with acoustic turbidity (Table 3). Reflector configuration displays aggrading sub-parallel to parallel patterns associated with a shallow marine environment, such 222 223 as a deltaic depositional system. Unit 3 (U3) exhibits an acoustic thickness varying between 35 ms to 60 ms TWTT (~28 m to 224 48 m). U3 is characterized by aggrading reflectors in the sedimentary prism wedging 225 morphology systems towards the south and the north, particularly in the lower section of the 226 seismic line L42. This seismic facies is interpreted as a deltaic depositional system. 227 228 Unit 4 (U4) overlies U3 (Figs. 4 and 5) and has an acoustic thickness varying between 50 ms 229 and 70 ms TWTT (~40 m to 64 m). The reflectors show very poor to moderate continuity and the amplitude and frequency are medium (Table 3). The top of the unit is bounded by an 230 erosional surface. The internal reflectors show corrugated reflector stacking pattern, probably 231 due to the prevalence of superimposed subaqueous lobes within a deltaic system, and some 232 233 erosional surfaces, which in turn are located at the southern and northern parts. The seismic facies could suggest that U4 comprises an alluvial plain depositional environment (Reineck 234 and Singh, 1980; Catuneanu et al., 2009; Catuneanu, 2019). 235 Unit 5 (U5) overlies U4 with an acoustic thickness varying between 5 ms to 50 ms (~4 m to 236 40 m) and is bounded by erosional surfaces on the top and bottom (Figs. 4 and 5). The unit 237 extends laterally to a planar geometry. The continuity of seismic facies is very poor to poor 238 corresponding to acoustic attenuation and demonstrates an oblique-aggrading subparallel 239 geometry, while amplitude and frequency are low to high (Table 3). Aggrading subparallel 240

seismic reflector geometry is commonly found beside discontinuous reflectors that could indicate existing gas pockets. This unit presents a general organization of horizontal reflectors with some downlap and onlap in a few places. Using indications from the seismic facies, the depositional environment of U5 is interpreted as a delta plain with some parts containing alluvial channels and tidal flat sediments (Brown and Fisher, 1980; Reineck and Singh, 1980; Catuneanu et al., 2009; Catuneanu, 2019). The next unit, U6, presents an acoustic thickness of 5 ms to 40 ms TWTT (~4 m to 32 m) (Figs. 4 and 5). This unit reveals acoustic facies that are characterized by aggrading parallel and progradation pattern of poor continuity, and low to high frequency with very low to high amplitude (Table 3). The base of U6 corresponds to a subaerial unconformity and demonstrates flat upper layers that overlie clinoform deposits in some parts (Figs. 4 and 5), which intersects U5 with a divergent filling pattern. The variation in thickness of this unit is associated with incised channels and U6 is interpreted as delta front deposits within a shallow marine setting (Reineck and Singh, 1980; Dalrymple et al., 2003; Catuneanu et al., 2009; Catuneanu, 2019). Unit 7 (U7) is the most recent seismic unit which overlies U6 (Figs. 4 and 5). The seismic facies show medium to good continuity with good amplitude and medium frequency. Seismic reflector configuration is predominantly aggrading parallel (Table 3). The acoustic thickness ranges between 5 ms to 30 ms TWTT (~4 m to 24 m). The depositional environment of U7 is interpreted as a subaqueous fan delta in the south-central and eastern parts that can be associated with existing river mouths and a shoreface setting toward the north as seen in the

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4.2. Lithofacies description and correlation from sediment cores

modern bathymetric map of the study area.

Lithofacies description of the recognized seismic units was conducted on selected cores, i.e., BH-02, BH-04, BH-05, BH-06, BH-07 and BH-09 (Figs. 2B and 6). It is evident from the sparker profile L-42 (Fig. 4A) that these cores represent a complete and continuous record of stratigraphic successions in units U2 to U7, and thus provide the optimal opportunity to investigate the sedimentary infilling history of the study area. U2 was recognized at a depth of 130–150 m and consists of dark grey to olive grey silt and clay, and medium to dark grey very-fine to fine-grained sand and the depositional environment indicated an inner shelf setting. U3 comprises of sediments that correspond to grey clay and dark grey mediumgrained sand as seen in BH-02 and BH-07 and gathering information from the seismic facies, this unit is interpreted as being deposited in a deltaic setting. The lithology of U4, as seen in cores BH-04 to BH-09, and identified at a depth of 46–100 m below the seabed, is characterized by dark grey to olive grey silt with traces of clay, medium to coarse grain greyish brown sand and silt with traces of clay that indicate a shallow marine to alluvial plain depositional environment. Core description of boreholes BH-04 and BH-09 (Fig. 6) reveal that U5 consists predominantly of greyish brown to brown sand and brownish grey silt and clay. Informed by the seismic facies and lithofacies, we interpret the depositional environment of U5 as a delta plain with some parts containing alluvial channels and tidal flat sediments. The sediments of U6, witnessed in the boreholes BH-05 and BH-07, reveal dark grey to black sand, medium to coarse grained sand and dark grey mud with some medium grain sand. The basal sequence boundary is overlain by yellowish-brown medium grain sand, reversed graded bedding, containing shell fragments, which denote a shallow marine to deltaic depositional environment. U7 occupies the stratigraphic succession between 0 to 12 m and consists of yellowish-grey clay with medium grained sand containing visually ±10% of shell fragments and depositional environment is interpreted as a shallow offshore environment

4.3. Micropaleontological indices

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Microfossils were identified and described from cores BH-02, and BH-07 (Table 4). The dominant benthic foraminifera taxa (i.e., Ammonia spp.; Asterorotalia spp.) (Fig. 7 and Table 4) in U2 seem to indicate a coastal waters environment. Ammonia tepida is indeed known to be tolerant to continental organic matter and freshwater inputs in the southwestern Pacific region (Debenay, 2012). Asterorotalia spp. is a typical warm water epifaunal benthic foraminifera well represented in riverine influx dominated coastal domain (Panchang and Nigam, 2012; Saraswat et al., 2017). Microfossil barren zones are observed in U4 in both BH-02 and BH-07. A gradual increase in benthic foraminifera, especially *Elphidium* spp., Operculina spp. and Quinqueloculina spp. is seen in the upper parts of U4 and in U5 within BH-07, while ostracods are very rare in these two units (Table 4). Similarly, in BH-02, the lack of ostracods is evident in U4 and U5, while rare occurrences of *Elphidium* spp., Pseudorotalia spp. and Quinqueloculina spp. is noticed in upper parts of U4. U6, similar to U3, entails an abundance of various species of ostracods and benthic foraminifera and this could be indicative of a shallow marine setting (Table 4). U7 reveals the presence of some marine benthic foraminifera taxa found in modern warm marine waters of southwestern Pacific Ocean (e.g. Dendritina spp., Spiroloculina spp., Hohenegger et al., 1999; Debenay, 2012). *Dendritina* spp. is indeed a full marine species frequently found abundant in regions protected from extreme hydrodynamic forcing.

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4.4. Radiocarbon ages

A total of 3 cores (i.e., BH-05, BH-06 and BH-07) were sampled for radiocarbon dating. The dating analysis from a sample recovered at 134.5 m depth of BH-07 and pertaining to U2 revealed an age of > 49,900 ka BP.

In the same core, 14 C dating results (Table 2) of samples at 77 m depth and 56.2 m depth, and within U4, presented ages of > 46.4 ka BP and 41.8 \pm 1.5 cal ka BP, respectively.

The result of radiocarbon dating applied on shell materials of the sub-sample from 14.3 m below the seabed from BH-06 revealed an age of 8461 ± 29 cal yrs BP (Table 2).

The dating applied on molluscan shell collected at 7 m depth below seafloor from BH-05 returned an age of $3,308 \pm 24$ cal yrs BP (Table 2).

5. Discussion

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5.1. Sequence stratigraphic framework

While all the depositional units are not equally preserved in all the studied valleys, a general stratigraphic scheme can be drawn that applies over the entire zone or system. The chronology of the complete succession remains speculative for Units 1, 2 and 3 except for the upper units (U4–7), wherein, the formations indicate ages ranging from the Pleistocene to Holocene. U4 that signifies the falling stage systems tract shows a first stage of incision and is characterized by alluvial deposits (Figs. 4 and 6), which indicate ages of > 46.4 ka BP and 41.8 ± 1.5 cal ka BP (MIS 3) (Table 2) and we interpret this sequence to be associated with the accumulation of regressional deposits following the persistent drop of relative sea level since MIS 5e. The microfossil assemblages (benthic foraminifera and ostracods) within U4 show a dramatic decline in BH-02 and BH-07 (Table 4) that further supports the interpretation of relative sea level drop and subaerial exposure of the shelf. U5 incorporates mixed fluvio-estuarine deposits that could have been emplaced initially under lowered relative sea levels, during which, regressional alluvial channel deposits continued to accumulate and sealed the first incisional features. Incision synchronously propagated across these deposits, and later as relative sea level began to gradually increase there could have been reduced incisional capacity with aggradation of sediments due to a rise in base level and some filling

of the incised system, and owing to these evidences, we deduce U5 to represent the lowstand systems tract. The gradual rise in sea level and estuarine sedimentation is corroborated by the increase in population of brackish and saline water favoring benthic foraminifera species such as *Elphidium* spp., *Operculina* spp. and *Quinqueloculina* spp. in BH-07. U6, demonstrating an age of 8461 ± 29 cal yrs BP (Table 2) in the intermediate part of the sequence and which lies above the transgressive surface, consists of shallow marine sediments that may have been deposited during rapid transgression after ~15 ka BP, which could efficiently preserve the preceding fluvial deposits, and we posit that this unit elucidates the transgressive systems tract. Lastly, the Holocene sediments forming the hemipelagic drape of U7 that overlie the maximum flooding surface represent the highstand systems tract.

5.2. Valley morphology

As defined by the seismic data shown in figure 5 (Fig. 1B for location), the valleys run parallel to the coast and are between 1 and 10 km long. They follow a regional slope towards the shelf break and reach maximum depths of ~30 to 40 m. These valleys are increasingly wide towards the east, particularly where several valleys converge, and are linked to the confluence of fluvial channels. Indeed, there could have been high rates of sedimentation, channel flow and drainage discharge which could possibly explain the processes of alluviation and incisional dynamics that promoted the notable widening of the emerging valleys in the Java Sea (Fig. 8), that are mainly controlled by global sea level changes during the LGM (Voris et al, 2000; Hanebuth et al., 2004; Clark et al, 2009; Sar et al, 2019).

These valleys, filled by marine transgressive deposits (U6–shallow marine), are underlain by mixed fluvio-estuarine formations of weakly consolidated origin (U5–lowstand channel fill), the facies of which are mainly fine to medium grained.

The morphology of the valleys demonstrates generally a flat bottom and markedly steep edges (Fig. 5).

The morphology with a flat bottom and marked edge can be explained by the lithological nature of the incised unit (U5), consisting of weakly consolidated and easily remobilized alluvial plain deposits, and conversely as a zone where the potential for incision is very low given the low to medium slopes in a region very far from the continental slope (Fig. 8A).

The incision depths of ~8 m to 32 m, (Fig. 5) are of the same order as those documented from other parts of the world, for example, on the platforms of the American east coast (Thomas and Anderson, 1994; Foyle and Oertel, 1997), the Bay of Biscay (Lericolais et al., 2001; Chaumillon et al., 2008; Chaumillon et al. 2010; Menier et al., 2010; Estournès et al., 2012; Menier et al., 2014; Martínez-Carreño and García-Gil, 2017), the Mediterranean (Tesson et al., 2010; Tesson et al., 2015), India (Dubey et al., 2019) and also in Southeast Asia (Hanebuth, et al., 2009; Puchala et al., 2011; Alqahtani, et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020; Horozal et al., 2021).

5.3. Depositional evolution

The main stratigraphic units recognized across the study area are composed of continental formations (U4 and U5) that transitions upward to shallow marine deposits (U6 and U7). This interpretation is also confirmed by the succession of fossil foraminifera faunas, from taxa that are indicative of environments under continental influence (*e.g. Asterorotalia* spp.) to those that are indicators of shallow coastal waters (*e.g. Dendritina* spp., *Spiroloculina* spp., *Operculina* spp.) (Fig. 7 and Table 4). The core and the major parts of the valley fills are composed of alluvial deposits (U5) and shallow marine deposits (U6 and U7), and the vertical facies succession is predominantly deposited within a transgressive setting.

In our proposed model of valley morphogenesis, the supposed thalweg, which overlays the erosional surface UB-4, is dated at 41800 +/- 1500 cal. age BP, which corresponds to the last and deepest incision (pre-LGM incision), and therefore, the overlaying fluvial deposits (U5) could be younger than 25 ka. Based on deductions implied in previous studies (e.g.,

Posamentier and Allen, 1999; Posamentier, 2001), the alluvial channels more than likely 386 387 formed when the shelf was not fully subaerially exposed and the lowstand fluvial system was incapable of substantially efficient downcutting, both laterally and vertically. 388 On the seismic records (Fig. 3B and Table 3) U4 seem to illustrate an irregular and oblique 389 aggrading subparallel or wavy reflector geometry and we interpret it as interfluves or bars, 390 dominated by sandy to silt-argillaceous facies established during the marine isotopic stage 3 391 392 (Fig. 9). Unit 5 is interpreted to consist of lowstand channel fill deposits that accumulated during 393 periods of significant drops in sea level but the majority during the post lowstand system tract 394 395 (LST), which was lower than present-day in this zone (Fig. 9). Our results clearly highlight the occurrence of alluvial channel deposits and nearshore tidal flat sediments that are 396 explicitly indicative of a shift from a relatively sand-rich lowstand system to a clay-rich 397 398 nearshore sediment as mention in Table 4. Gathering consensus from the global and Sunda shelf sea level curves (Fig. 9), the transition from a fluvial to a shallow marine setting in our 399 400 data could correspond to the post-LGM abrupt and rapid sea level rise induced by 401 deglaciation. Furthermore, our inference of an abrupt and rapid rise in sea level is congruent with previous findings (Hanebuth et al., 2000) of an accelerated increase in eustatic levels in 402 the northern Sunda Shelf during the MWP 1A (meltwater pulse) event that commenced at 403 ~14.7 ka and terminated before ~13.8 ka, including an abrupt rise of up to ~16 m within a 404 span of 300 years that occurred between 14.6–14.3 ka cal BP (Hanebuth et al., 2000). 405 Unit 6, dated at ~8461 +/- 29 cal. age BP, which mainly rests above Unit 5, is interpreted as 406 407 deposited in the course of the last sea level rise over the area (Fig. 8). As the fluvial valleys were flooded by the rising sea levels, sediment supply could not keep pace with the increase 408 409 of accommodation space, and this would explain the aggrading nature of Unit 6. The very homogeneous structure of Unit 6 and the inferred fine-grained sedimentation would point to a 410

wave-dominated bay (Dalrymple et al., 1994). While there is an inexistence of sandy barriers in the seismic record, the Java Sea seems to be a sector that was very calm, favoring lowenergy sedimentation comparable to that in estuarine central basins (lagoonal basins). Further expanding on our sedimentological and seismic data, we favor the interpretation of very calm and low-energy conditions in the Java Sea during the deposition of Unit 6. We base this on an additional line of evidence, viz. the preservation of Unit 5 could be plausible only under rapid transgression and placid hydrodynamic environments. This can effectively weaken potential erosional processes, given that ubiquitously, the efficient preservation of lowstand fluvial deposits, subsequent to erosion during transgression and reworking by inclement hydrodynamic conditions, would be, at best, in patches (Allen, 1991; Allen and Posamentier, 1993; Posamentier, 2001). Unit 7 is interpreted as offshore muds aggrading above the estuarine valley fills as the first succession overlaying UB-6. It rests above the maximum flooding surface that truncates all the units below (Figs. 4 and 10). The unit is dated at ~3308 +/- 24 yr BP, and is composed of Holocene-age hemipelagic drape. U7 was emplaced during a full transgression over the area, inasmuch as it overlaps most of the valley interfluves.

6. Conclusions

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Two remarkable incisions are identified in the Java Sea shelf. The first incision occurred during the sea level drop of the marine isotopic stage 3, which was later sealed by lowstand alluvial channel deposits. These deposits were re-incised during the LGM, creating the second incisional surface. This discontinuity does not intersect the Upper Pleistocene incision, indicating a relatively low incision potential, in a context of rapid sea level rise within very sheltered hydrodynamic conditions.

The incised valleys demonstrate a wide and flat bottom morphology along with very steep edges owing to low velocity channel flow and shallow paleo-topographic gradients. The

sedimentary infill of the incised valleys indicates the continent-offshore extension of the 436 437 paleodeltaic system, complete with variable facies characteristics and variable rates of deposition. Influences of regional slope and hydrodynamics are recognized to have 438 exercised control over the spatial distribution of facies types as well as grain sizes of the 439 facies types. 440 Prevalence of major river systems that drained the Sundaland Craton that advanced over 441 442 former offshore regions during LGM created an extensive incised valley and associated geomorphic-sedimentary infill. 443

Author Contributions

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- Author Contributions: Conceptualisation: F.N., D.M., M.M., H. and C.E.; methodology: F.N.,
- D.M., R.K. and M.S.; field investigation: F.N. and I.K.; manuscript preparation: F.N., D.M.,
- 447 M.M., M.R. and H.; review and editing: F.N., D.M., M.M., M.R., M.S. and C.E.; figures:
- D.M., M.M., F.N., and C.E.; microfossil analysis: F.N. and K.T.D.

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Caption Figures

- Figure 1. A: Map showing the spatial distribution and type of vegetation cover in Sundaland
- during the LGM. Figure adapted from Heaney (1991), Voris (2000) and Bird et al. (2005). **B:**
- Location of seismic lines in the Java Sea and also shown are the bathymetry contours. C:
- Location of seismic lines and boreholes used in this study from the Jakarta Bay.
- Figure 2. A. Map of the Java Sea seafloor sediments. B. Map of seafloor sediments of the
- Jakarta Bay (Harkin, et al., 2004) and geology of the Jakarta-Tangerang area.
- 690 **Figure 3.** Map showing the bathymetry and morphobathymetric features of the Java Sea and
- the Indian Ocean. Also shown is the drainage basins and the fluvial network of Java. Note the
- large drainage basins in the north and the smaller basins in the south. The southeastern limit
- of the Sunda Shelf is visible at the ~110 m

- **Figure 4. A:** Sparker 2D High Resolution Seismic profile L-42. The profile passes through
- 695 cores BH-02 and BH-07, south to north in the Jakarta Bay. Vertical scale in two-way travel
- time in seconds (TWTs). The scale in meters is established for sediments with P-wave
- velocity of 1600 m/sec. **B:** Sparker 2D High Resolution Seismic profile CL-06, west to east in
- the Jakarta Bay. Vertical scale in two-way travel time in seconds (TWTs). The scale in meters
- 699 is established for sediments with P-wave velocity of 1600 m/sec.
- Figure 5. Sparker 2D High Resolution Seismic profiles C-8, C-7 and C-X. The profile C-8 is
- located in. Vertical scale is in two-way travel time in seconds (s TWT). The scale is in meters
- and is established for sediments with P-wave velocity of 1600 m/sec.
- 703 **Figure 6.** Stratigraphic correlation of the facies types recognized in the sediment cores and
- interpretation of corresponding depositional environments. Also shown are the stratigraphic
- 705 positions of samples used for AMS ¹⁴C dating.
- 706 **Figure 7.** Microfossil assemblages that aided in the interpretation of the depositional
- environments of the sediments. Benthic foraminifera: 1. Asterorotalia; 2. Operculina; 3 & 7

Pseudorotalia; 4. Quinqueloculina; 5 & 6. Elphidium; 8-10. Ammonia yabei. Ostracoda: 11. 708 709 Phlyctenophora; 12. Neocytheretta; 13. Loxoconcha; 14. Keijella; 15. Neomonoceratina; 16 710 Hemicytheridea 711 Figure 8. A: Reconstructed paleochannel network of the offshore Java Sea based on High 712 Resolution seismic profiles (location of all lines shown in 1B). B: Time slice from the north of the study area at ~72 m subsea showing the principal trunk incised valley and associated 713 714 components of the fluvial system such as incised dendritic tributary valleys, scroll bars and abandoned meander loops. Figure modified from Posamentier (2001). 715 Figure 9. Regime diagram showing the global eustatic sea level and Sunda shelf sea level 716 717 curve for the past 125 ka and 20 ka, respectively, along with timing of the major Marine Isotopic Stages (1–5) and the Last Glacial Maximum. Sunda shelf sea-level curve is adapted 718 719 from Twarog et al. (2021). Red stars indicate the calibrated ages of sedimentary units (shown with white circles and U7-4) from ¹⁴C radiocarbon dating of shells, shell fragments and 720 721 sediments. 722 Figure 10. A: Present-day sedimentary architecture of the northern Java Sea. B: Schematic depiction of the evolution of incised valley fill in Java Sea, modified from Posamentier 723 (2001). It shows from the time of maximum sea level lowstand, (A) sedimentation was 724 characterized by fluvial deposition, (B) followed by rapid transgression and filling by traction 725 and hemipelagic sedimentation, and finally, (C) the time of sea-level highstand and deposition 726 727 of hemipelagic drape over the entire area.

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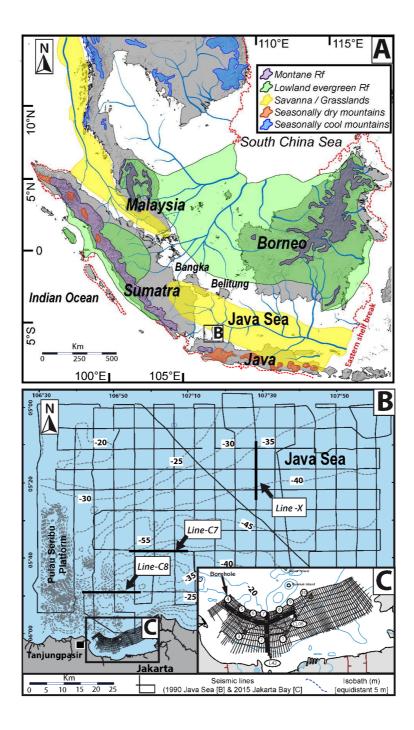


Figure 1. A: Map showing the spatial distribution and type of vegetation cover in Sundaland during the LGM and red dashed line shows the approximate spatial extent of exposed landmass of Sundaland during the LGM. Figure adapted from Heaney (1991), Voris (2000) and Bird et al. (2005). **B:** Location of seismic lines in the Java Sea and also shown are the bathymetry contours. **C:** Location of seismic lines and boreholes used in this study from the Jakarta Bay.

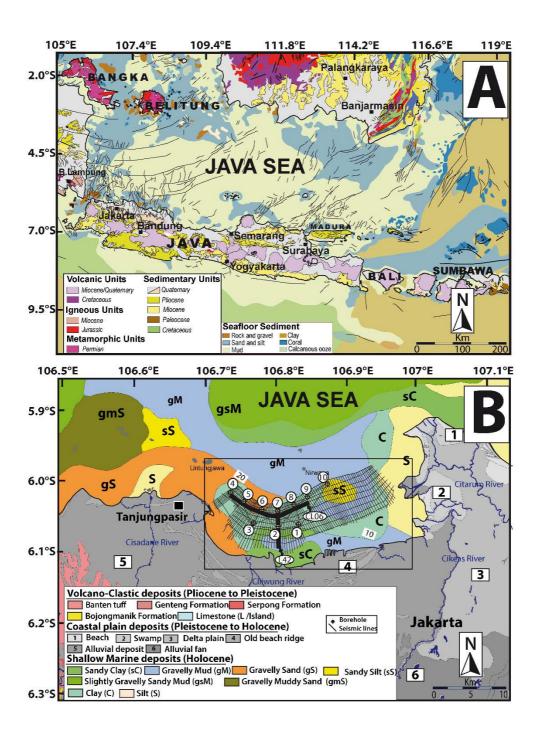


Figure 2. A. Map of the Java Sea seafloor sediments. **B.** Map of seafloor sediments of the Jakarta Bay (Harkin, et al., 2004) and geology of the Jakarta-Tangerang area.

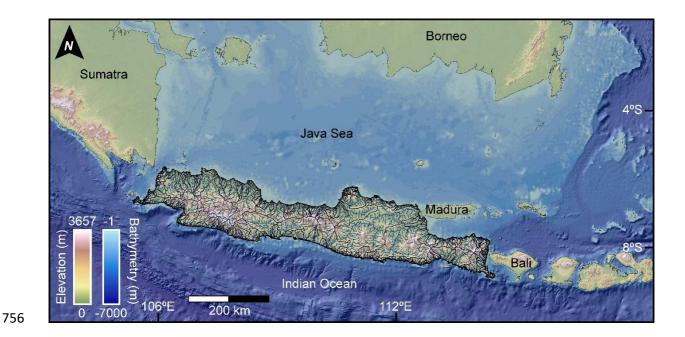


Figure 3. Map showing the bathymetry and morphobathymetric features of the Java Sea and the Indian Ocean. Also shown is the drainage basins and the fluvial network of Java. Note the large drainage basins in the north and the smaller basins in the south. The southeastern limit of the Sunda Shelf is visible at the ~110 m

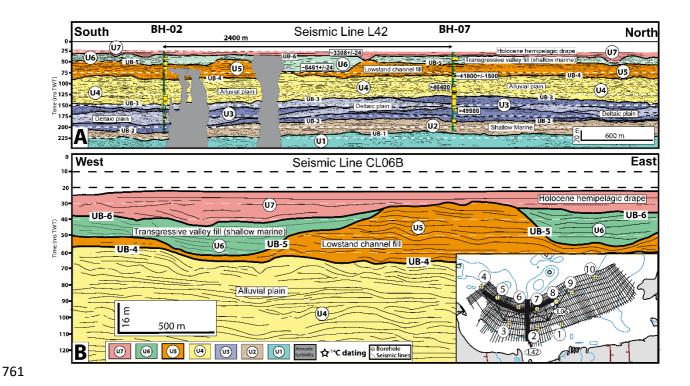


Figure 4. A: Sparker 2D High Resolution Seismic profile L-42. The profile passes through cores BH-02 and BH-07, south to north in the Jakarta Bay. Vertical scale in two-way travel

time in seconds (TWTs). The scale in meters is established for sediments with P-wave velocity of 1600 m/sec. Note that the light blue coloured packages within U3 indicate the head of several deltaic lobes that are stacked and extends laterally. **B:** Sparker 2D High Resolution Seismic profile CL-06, west to east in the Jakarta Bay. Vertical scale in two-way travel time in seconds (TWTs). The scale in meters is established for sediments with P-wave velocity of 1600 m/sec.

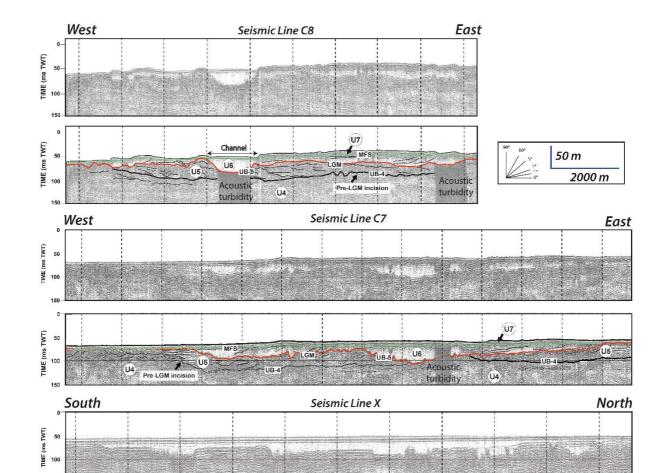


Figure 5. Sparker 2D High Resolution Seismic profiles C-8, C-7 and C-X. The profile C-8 is located in. Vertical scale is in two-way travel time in seconds (s TWT). The scale is in meters and is established for sediments with P-wave velocity of 1600 m/sec.

Channe

U5 Acoustic

TIME (ms TWT)

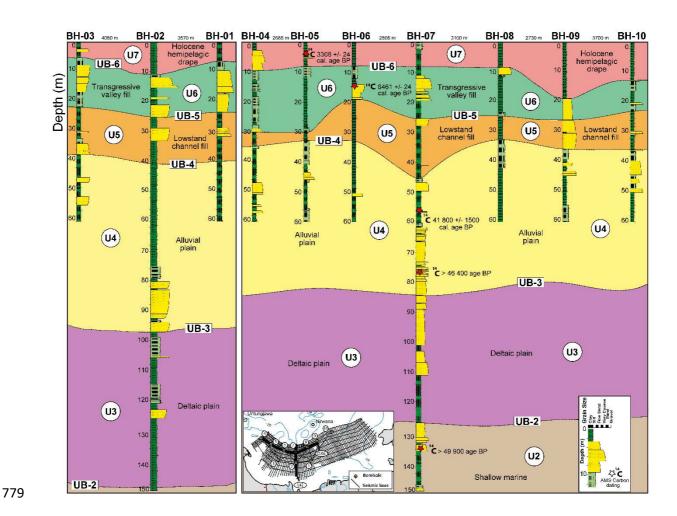


Figure 6. Stratigraphic correlation of the facies types recognized in the sediment cores and interpretation of corresponding depositional environments. Also shown are the stratigraphic positions of samples used for AMS ¹⁴C dating.

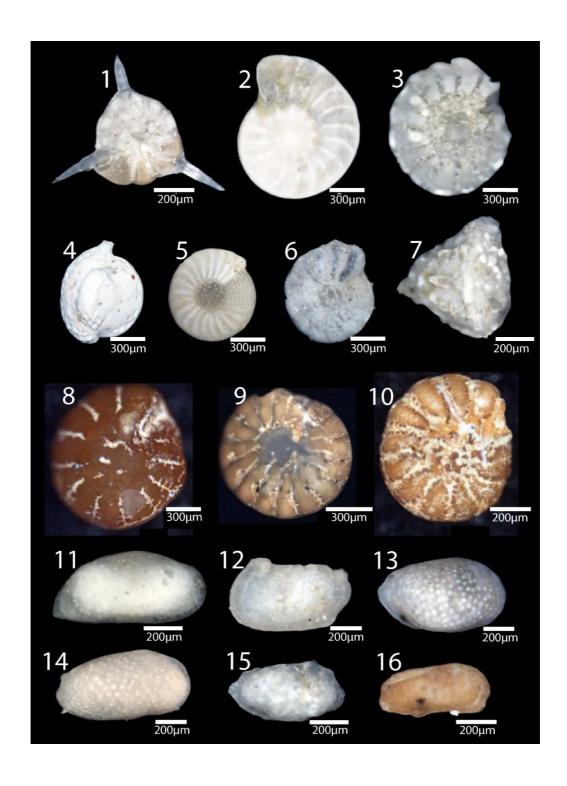


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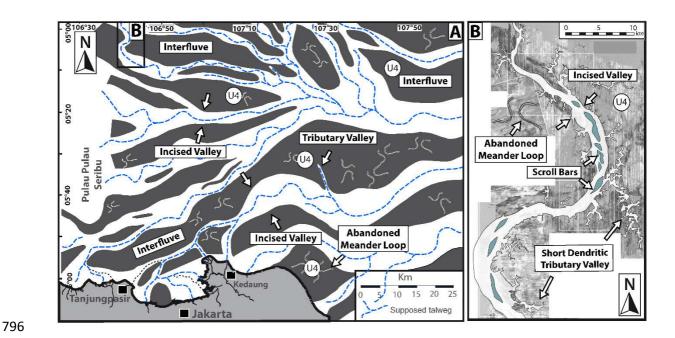


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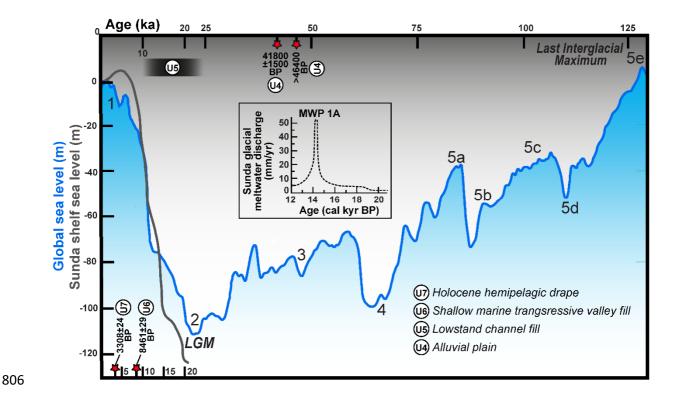


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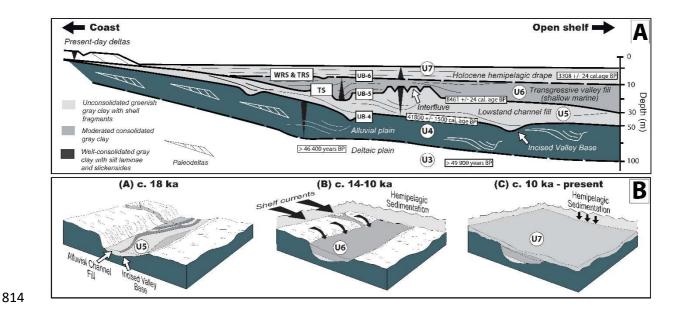


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Tables

Table 1. Locations, water depth and lengths of sediment cores recovered from the the

Jakarta Bay and analysed in this study

	Core	Water		Coordi	nates	
Core	length	depth (m)	WGS_1984_U	TM_Zone_48S	Latitude	Longitude
	(m)	depth (m)	X (m)	Y (m)	(S)	(N)
1	60	15.31	704259.24	9330033.60	6°3'28.92"	106°50'43.98"
2	150	14.72	700755.12	9329627.65	6°3'42.52"	106°48'50.09"
3	60	13.76	696699.08	9330108.06	6°3'27.30"	106°46'38.15"
4	60	14.46	692826.95	9335232.98	6°0'40.92"	106°44'31.67"
5	60	15.27	695034.37	9333810.38	6°1'26.97"	106°45'43.62"
6	60	16.54	697886.62	9332414.95	6°2'12.11"	106°47'16.50"
7	150	17.36	700646.47	9332020.42	6°2'24.64"	106°48'46.28"
8	60	18.23	703556.3	9334974.58	6°1'49.40"	106°50'20.78"
9	60	19.59	705541.07	9334974.41	6°0'47.30"	106°51'25.11"
10	60	20.49	708651.68	9336919.69	5°59'44.30"	106°53'6.01"

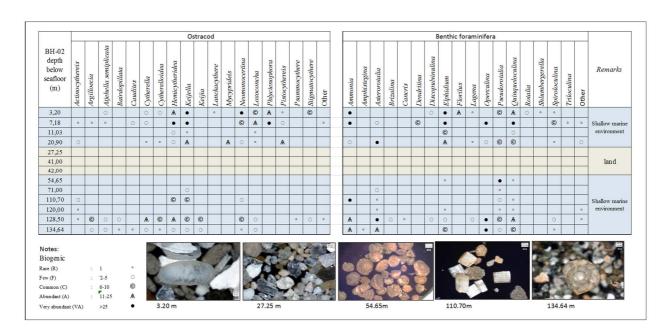
Table 2. AMS $^{14}\mathrm{C}$ dating of shells, shell fragments and sediments retrieved from the

834 cores

Core	Lab number	Depth (mbss)	Seismic Unit	d13C value	Age (¹⁴ C years BP)	Material
BH-05	X32132	7	U7	3.5	3308±24	Shell
BH-06	X32133	14.3	U6	-4.0	8461±29	Shell
	X31404	56.2	U4	-29.1	41800±1500	Sediment and shell fragments
BH-07	X31405	77.00	U4	-19.2	>46400	Sediment and shell fragments
	X31406	134.45	U2	0.8	>49900	Sediment and shell fragments

Unit	Facies	Illustration	Continuity	Amplitude	Frequency	Reflector Configuration	Interpretation
U-7	F-7A		Good	Good	Medium	Aggrading parallel	Marine muds
0 -7	F-7B		Medium	Good	Medium	Aggrading parallel	Channel fill
	F-6A	N. Calvi	Poor	Very poor	Low	Transparent	Channel infill polymix
U-6	F-6B		Poor	High	Low	Acoustic turbidity	Gas-charged sediments
	F-6C		Poor	Medium	High	Aggrading parallel	Bars associated to channel migration
	F-5A		Very poor	Medium	Low	Acoustic turbidity	Gas-charged sediments
U-5	F-5B		Poor	Medium	High	Oblique-aggrading subparallel	Channel bars system
	F-5C		Poor	High	High	Oblique-aggrading subparallel	Channel bars system
	F-4A		Medium	Medium	High	Aggrading subparallel	Bars associated to channeling drainage system
U-4	F-4B		Poor	Medium	Medium	Acoustic turbidity	Gas-charged sediments
	F-4C		Poor	Poor	Medium	Irregular Oblique- aggrading subparallel	Bars associated to channeling drainage system
11.2	F-3A		Medium	Medium	Medium	Aggrading sub parallel	Marine muds and sandy intercalation
U-3	F-3B		Very poor	Medium	Medium	Acoustic turbidity	Gas-charged sediments
U-2	F-2A		Medium	Medium	Low	Aggrading folded parallel	Marine muds
U-2	F-2B		Very poor	Medium	Low	Acoustic turbidity	Gas-charged sediments
U-1	F-1A		Low	Medium	Low	Aggrading sub- parallel	Marine sediments
U-I	F-1B		Very poor	Low	Low	Acoustic turbidity	Gas-charged sediments

Table 4. Microfossil abundances in BH-02 and BH-07



Actinocythereis	ia					7			~					Ostracod Benthic foraminifera																		
Actino	Argilloecia	Atjehella	Cytherella	Cytherelloidea	Cyheropteron	Hemicytheridea	Keijella	Keijia	Neomonocertina	Neocytherettha	Loxoconcha	Phlyctenophora	Pistocythereis	Stigmatocythere	Mycyprideis	Other	Аттопіа	Asterorotalia	Brizalina	Cancris	Cibicides	Dendritina	Elphidium	Florilus	Lenticulina	Operculina	Pseudorotalia	Quinqueloculina	Spiroloculina	Triloculina	Other	Remarks
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