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Analysis of the South Westland Basin, New Zealand.

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Earth Sciences at the University of Waikato by

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Abstract

Running parallel to the thrust front of the Southern Alps, an elongate, predominantly offshore and relatively deep basin, considered to have originated as a foreland basin, has previously been identified in South Westland, South Island, New Zealand. An integrative approach to basin analysis has been undertaken in this thesis to test the hypothesis that this basin has been formed by the loading of the Pacific Plate onto the Australia Plate during the Late Cenozoic. The two principal approaches to this problem undertaken in this thesis are seismic mapping of industry acquired seismic reflection profiles available for the basin and geodynamical analysis of the basin geometry and its stratigraphy.

Seismic mapping reveals a thick sedimentary section that can be divided broadly into five sequences. The thickness distribution of these units have been digitized into a computer database for subsequent modelling and mapping. The five sequences are titled Sequence E through to A from the basement to the surface. The lowermost sequence, Sequence E, is a thin sheet of marginal marine sediments thickening toward the west. It is believed to have formed in a rift margin setting during the Late Cretaceous–Eocene, overlain by a regionally extensive limestone formed during a marine transgression in the Oligocene. Sequence D has a sheet-like form comprising turbiditic systems deposited in bathyal depths between around 30 Ma and 15 Ma. This is coincident with increasing convergence across the Alpine Fault and initial loading of the Australia Plate, and Sequence D may represent the early underfill stage of foreland basin development. Sequence C is wedge-like in form, consisting of deep water turbiditic systems rapidly deposited between 5 Ma and 3.1 Ma. This corresponds with the uplift of the inner margin of the basin along the South Westland Fault Zone. Sequence B is a prominent lensoidal form prograding facies consisting of mudstone with frequent coarser beds deposited between 3.1 Ma and 1.2 Ma. Sequence A tops the section with a possible eustatically controlled and predominantly slumped deposit of mudstone with thick units of bioclasts near the present surface.

Geodynamic analysis reveals an early stage of thermal subsidence due to late Cretaceous rifting that preceded Tasman Sea spreading. It is compatible with a lithospheric stretching factor of 1.25. Increasingly rapid subsidence since 15–10 Ma is interpreted as possible fault-controlled subsidence due to strike-slip deformation combined with loading resulting from increased convergence across the Alpine Fault. This is followed by the uplift of the inner margin of the basin around 5 Ma to form the presently exposed coastal strip. This event probably also contributed to the loading of the Australia Plate. Flexural analysis of the basement structure of the Australia Plate reveals an unusually weak lithosphere with a rigidity around 9.79 x 10²⁰ Nm. Several alternative interpretations are presented to explain this unusually weak lithosphere, such as high heat flows, lithospheric decoupling and inherited structures. The complex evolution of the basin from rift margin, through strike-slip to foreland basin is believed to have left behind structures that may constrain and/or enhance the flexural response of the Australia Plate.
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Chapter 1

Introduction
1.0 Introduction

An active zone of oblique continental convergence crosses the South Island of New Zealand. The Alpine Fault marks the boundary between the converging plates, the Australia Plate to the west and the Pacific Plate to the east (Figure 1.1). The Alpine Fault originated as a transform fault at about 25 Ma (Kamp, 1986, 1991; Cooper et al., 1987), and the compressive component of the oblique-slip displacement started at about 9.8 Ma (Stock & Molnar, 1982). The amount of lithospheric shortening normal to the continental convergence zone has been estimated at about 70 km in the central part of the South Island (Allis, 1986). This shortening has partially resulted in the uplift of the Southern Alps and the building of an associated 'root' of continental crust. Contrasting with the extreme amount of uplift in the Southern Alps is an elongate sedimentary basin trending parallel to the modern coastline and having a maximum depth to basement immediately offshore of about 3.5–4.0 km (Nathan et al., 1986, Figure 1.1). Kamp et al. (1992) noted several features of this sedimentary basin:

(1) The basin is parallel to the main thrust (Alpine Fault) and mountain belt (Southern Alps).

(2) The basin is asymmetric in cross section, deepening toward the mountain front.

(3) The basin started to form at about 13 Ma, about the time the plate boundary became obliquely convergent.

(4) The basin subsided rapidly, as distal submarine fan turbidites overlie a basal 10 m thick bioclastic shelf limestone.

(5) Typical molasse facies including glacial moraines, and thick conglomerates have been deposited along the SE margin of the predominantly marine basin during the Quaternary.

These features suggest that the basin has formed as the result of the Australia plate being loaded by the Pacific plate (Kamp et al., 1992). Such basins originating from the flexure (bending) of the lithosphere are termed foreland basins.

The broad aim of this thesis is to undertake an analysis of industry acquired seismic reflection profiles to test the idea that the basin formed in a foreland setting. This study includes geodynamical modelling.
1.1 Study objectives

The objectives of this study are:

1. To identify and describe seismic stratigraphic features in the South Westland Basin.
2. Compile a digitized database of seismic stratigraphic information for further processing.
3. Develop a geohistory and geodynamic analysis package for studying the exploration wells in the study area.
4. Expand the geohistory and geodynamic analysis for application to the digitized database and thus the studied area.
5. Produce structure maps of basement, overlying sediment thicknesses and the evolution of the basin through time.
6. Interpret the geological features of the South Westland basin with those of 'classical' foreland basins.

1.2 Location

The study area is bounded to the east by the Alpine Fault, between 10–15 km inland from the coastline (see Figure 1.1). The western boundary is undefined as the sedimentary sequences of the basin simply thin onto the Challenger Plateau, although any sediments beyond around 120 km from the coastline are not covered in this study. The township of Hokitika marks the northern extent of the study area and coincides with a pronounced widening of onshore South Island NW of the Alpine Fault, and the southern end of the Marlborough Fault Zone. To the south, Jackson Bay marks the southern limit of this study due to a paucity of quality data further south. The southern end of the basin coincides with the transition from early Paleozoic continental crust underlying the Challenger Plateau to Late Cretaceous oceanic crust of the Tasman Sea, which has been subducted to a depth of about 150 km beneath Fiordland (Davey & Smith, 1983; Figure 1.1). Although the principal area of interest lies offshore in the modern continental shelf and slope, onshore geology is still important for regional correlation.

Onshore, the topography of South Westland is extremely rugged and relatively inaccessible. The geology is dominated by the dextral obliquely convergent Alpine Fault and the resultant uplifted Southern Alps rising to Mt Cook at a height of 3754 m (McSaveney et al., 1992). The Southern Alps are largely responsible for the huge rainfall in the area by trapping moisture laden air from the prevailing southwesterly weather systems. The high rainfall in association with the high uplift rate in the Southern Alps
combine to produce rapid weathering and erosion, and thus a vast volume of sediment is being transported down the numerous rivers to the continental shelf. Offshore, relatively limited bathymetry shows a general smooth lying shelf becoming more rugged to the southwest and toward the Puysegur Trench off Fiordland.

**FIGURE 1.1:** Map of the South Island, New Zealand, showing key tectonic features. Depth (in kilometres) to basement in the basin is from Nathan et al. (1986). Arrows indicate directions and rates of convergence (from Walcott, 1984b). Inset is a map of New Zealand showing character of the Australia-Pacific plate boundary. (From Kamp et al., 1992)
1.3 Previous studies

The West Coast region of South Island has been extensively geologically mapped due to the presence and exploitation of three major and several minor coalfields, oil and gas seepages and numerous metalliferous prospects. A combination of mountainous terrain, thick forest cover, intense rainfall and relative inaccessibility has prevented geological examination of South Westland on the same intensity as the better known Greymouth–Murchison area to the north in Westland.

Most previous work in South Westland has mostly been in a reconnaissance framework (e.g. Hector, 1863 & Haast, 1879, in Nathan, 1978; Wellman & Willett, 1942), often with an aim to tie local geology with the better known geology of the north. The onshore area is covered in the 1:250,000 series Geological Map of New Zealand by Sheet 17 — Hokitika (Warren, 1967); Sheet 19 — Haast (Mutch & McKellar, 1964); and Sheet 20 — Mt. Cook (Gair, 1967). Complementing the geological maps a number of geophysical maps have also been compiled to display gravity anomalies both onshore (Syms, 1978 & 1979) and offshore (Davy & Davey, 1985; Rose & Davey, 1985; Rose, 1986). Magnetic studies have also been done (Woodward, 1975).

Petroleum exploration in the late 1960's and early 1970's produced the majority of the seismic reflection profiles in the area (Shell B.P., 1967; Esso Exploration, 1968; Magellan Petroleum, 1971; N.Z. Petroleum, 1971, 1974; Australian Gulf, 1973). Three exploration wells were also drilled, two onshore (Harihari-1 and Waiho-1) and one offshore (Mikonui-1). All were dry and abandoned, although extensive reports were written about their findings (N.Z. Petroleum, 1971, 1972; Diamond Shamrock, 1981). Further investigation of the seismic and exploration well data appears to have been limited at the time when favourable plays were not easily found. From seismic data, McNaughton and Gibson (1970) suggested the presence of reef-like structures in the mid-Tertiary sequence, and Norris (1978) undertook an extensive review of the structures seen in near surface seismic profiles on the West Coast Shelf. Nathan et al. (1986) used various Open-file Petroleum Reports submitted by the exploration operators to produce a broad scale map of basement depth in the offshore basin.

Due to the inaccessibility of most of the region and lack of outcrop under dense bush, a number of studies have also focussed on the Cenozoic coastal and near coastal sections exposed between Gillespie Point through Jackson Bay, at the southern end of this study area, to Milford Sound (Cotton, 1956; Young, 1968; Nathan, 1977, 1978; Adams, 1987; Aliprantis, 1987; Sutherland, 1992; Figure 1.2). The stratigraphy of these rocks is of great relevance to a regional synthesis of geological information in the South Westland Basin.
The most intensive compilation of South Westland geology is the Cretaceous-Cenozoic sedimentary basins study done in the West Coast Region by Nathan et al. (1986). The following geological setting is largely based on the synthesis presented by Nathan et al.

A number of studies have also focussed on the nearby Southern Alps in regards to the character and kinematics of the collision zone in the South Island (e.g. Walcott & Cresswell, 1979; Wellman, 1979; Allis, 1981, 1986; Koons, 1989, 1990; Norris et al., 1990). Katz (1979) noted that subsidence in 'foredeep' basins along the western coast of New Zealand and orogenic uplift in adjacent mountain ranges appear to be linked, but no specific mechanism was discussed. Recent work in the Geochronology Research Unit, Department of Earth Sciences, University of Waikato on the Southern Alps (Kamp et al., 1992; Tippett, 1992) has developed a considerable pool of information about the evolution of the Southern Alps and therefore the implications for the various models of the continental collision zone. It is hoped that this study will complement and add a new dimension to this work.

1.4 Geological setting

The South Westland Basin occurs in the West Coast Region of the South Island, New Zealand, defined by Nathan et al. (1986) as the onshore area and adjacent continental shelf west of the Alpine Fault and Waimea-Flaxmore Fault System (Figure 1.1). The region is broadly divided into two major tectonic units, the West Coast Basin-and-Range Province and the Western Platform. The West Coast Basin-and-Range Province constitutes most of the onshore extent of the West Coast Region. The structure of Westland is dominated by a strong N-NNE structural trend which appears to date back to at least the Early Paleozoic and controls the structure of the present mountain ranges and intermontane basins. The Western Platform is largely offshore to the west of the Cape Foulwind and South Westland Fault Zones and thus includes the South Westland Basin. The area is considered the southern continuation of the relatively stable area to the west of the Taranaki Graben which is northeast of Westland.

The time-stratigraphic subdivisions used in this thesis are summarised in Figure 1.2 (Edwards et al., 1988). The New Zealand stages are based on the range of fossils in marine sequences, and a summary is given by Suggate et al. (1978) and Hoskins (1982).

The existing geological interpretation of South Westland is largely derived from onshore outcrop exposures at or near the coast. The onshore stratigraphy of the main late Cretaceous and Tertiary lithostratigraphic units in the South Westland area are illustrated in Figure 1.3. The broad distribution of the various groups of rocks is shown in Figure 1.4. The geological history of South Westland also needs to be viewed in context of
the evolution of the plate boundary through the New Zealand continental block, particularly the displacement and timing of movement on the Alpine Fault. Numerous reconstructions of the plate boundaries have been compiled by various authors (Walcott, 1984a, 1987; Kamp, 1986a; Spörli & Ballance, 1989). A summary of these reconstructions is given in Figure 1.5.

1.4.1 Pre-Cretaceous rocks

The pre-Cretaceous geology of the South Island can be broadly divided into two major litho-tectonic subdivisions: a western Tuhua Orogen, also termed the Foreland Province, representing a fragment of the Gondwana super-continent, consisting mainly of crystalline rocks with ages ranging from around 680 Ma (Nathan, 1986, p.16) to late Mesozoic; and the Rangitata Province, representing an accumulation of Carboniferous to Jurassic sediments grouped in distinctive terranes that were docked to the Tuhua Orogen during the Rangitata Orogeny.

The West Coast Region is largely underlain by rocks of the Tuhua Orogen, consisting of gneisses, metasediments and intrusive granites. An Early Paleozoic sedimentary sequence ranging from the Cambrian to Devonian is widespread through the region. This sequence is broadly divided into three sedimentary belts, the eastern and central belts are restricted to northwest Nelson, but the western belt extends over much of the region. The western belt occurs through the South Westland area and consists mainly of the Ordovician aged Greenland Group, a uniform and distinctive greenish-grey quartzose flysch-type sequence and is considered similar to exposures in North Westland (Laird, 1972; Laird & Shelley, 1974; Nathan, 1977).

Only a small area, east of Nelson, is underlain by terranes of the Rangitata Province. To the immediate east of the Alpine Fault lies the Haast Schist, a metamorphically derived terrane from the Rangitata Province. The intrusive rocks of the West Coast Region are grouped into two main periods of plutonic activity, at 280-370 Ma (Late Devonian-Carboniferous) and 80-120 Ma (Cretaceous). Both are interpreted as resulting from the plutonic phases of the Tuhuan and Rangitata Orogeny respectively.
### FIGURE 1.2: Geological time scale for Late Cretaceous and Cenozoic time, showing international and New Zealand subdivisions. (After Edwards et al., 1988)
1.4.2 Cretaceous rocks

Two distinct phases of active rifting occurred during the Cretaceous. The first, about 100 Ma is associated with the continental rifting precursor to the creation of the Tasman Sea spreading ridge. Sedimentary evidence for this event is found in the Pororari Group and indicates that deposition of coarse sediments derived from granitic sources occurred in rapidly formed half grabens, with some lateral gradation locally to fluvio-lacustrine sediments. In South Westland, the Pororari Group is represented by the Otumotu Formation which consists of a basal breccia grading upwards to an interbedded sandstone, conglomerate and carbonaceous mudstone with scattered lenses of coal (Nathan, 1977; Nathan et al., 1986)
The second rifting event occurred in the Late Cretaceous (75-65 Ma). The origin of this event is poorly understood and may have been associated with some crustal weakness derived from the active Tasman Sea sea-floor spreading zone. Sediments were deposited in four main recognisable basins through the West Coast Region: the South Westland Embayment, the Paparoa Trough, Pakawau Basin and the Greville Basin. The latter three basins are dominantly fault controlled, but the Late Cretaceous–Paleocene sediments in South Westland have irregular margins and thus the term 'South Westland Embayment' is adopted (Nathan et al., 1986).

The basal unit of this sequence are dominantly fluvio-lacustrine coal-measures (Tauperikaka Coal Measures), grading upwards through a marine transgressive sequence containing interbedded volcanics that are interpreted as being derived from rift volcanics (Whakapohai Sandstone and Arnott Basalt, Fig.1.4; Sewell & Nathan, 1987). Overlying these units is a thin deep-water marine sequence of bioturbated calcereous muddy sandstone (Tokakoriri Formation, Fig.1.4). Adams (1987) noted that the thick sequences of Cretaceous rocks in the onshore sections may imply the existence of a former sedimentary basin lying eastward of a basement high.

### 1.4.3 Eocene–Oligocene

The early Cenozoic in the West Coast Region was marked by the development of a peneplain, due to thermal subsidence and tectonic quiescence of the New Zealand micro-continent as it drifted away from the active spreading zones. The only deposition occurred in the basin remnants of the late Cretaceous rifting event previously mentioned. In South Westland a deep-water marine sequence continued to accumulate (Lower & Middle Abbey Limestone and Upper Abbey Mudstone, Fig.1.4). A short period of local uplift and erosion is suggested by the presence of clasts of older units in the Upper Abbey Mudstone. Intraplate volcanism was also intermittent through the Eocene with basaltic breccia and scattered flows interbedded with the mudstone (Otitia Basalt, Fig.1.4; Sewell & Nathan, 1987). Elsewhere in the West Coast Region deposition was interrupted by the development of the peneplain. A marine transgression across the peneplain began in the mid-Eocene as evidenced by the deposition of the regional extensive Brunner Coal Measures in other parts of the West Coast Region. A number of basins also began to subside rapidly due to NE-SW extension caused by the branching of the Southeast Indian Ridge into the western margin of the New Zealand micro-continent (Kamp, 1986b). This resulted in spreading in the Emerald Basin (Fig. 1.5), which effectively isolated the South Westland Embayment as a wedge of continental crust between two spreading centres. This tectonic configuration may explain the thickening of Late Cretaceous–Eocene sediments to the east of a basement high as noted by Adams (1987). Renewed extension resulted in the...
reactivation of the late Cretaceous rift structures and the formation of the Paparoa Trough/Tectonic Zone, Victoria (Reefton) and Murchison Basin in North Westland. The Oligocene saw continued, but gradually declining, subsidence in the West Coast Region. The Oligocene sediments are dominantly calcareous with regional extensive limestones being deposited. Limestone lithologies are simplified into two main grouping termed Platform Facies (shallow-water bioclastic limestones) and Basinal Facies (calcareous mudstone dominated by deep-water foraminifera). In South Westland the Platform Facies is represented by the regionally extensive, but relatively thin Awarua Limestone (Fig. 1.4). The Awarua Limestone is inferred as a similar age as the extensive Cobden Limestone further north, though possibly extending into the Waitakian (early Miocene). Early studies refer to the Awarua Limestone as a Cobden Limestone 'equivalent'. This limestone often occurs on or near the basement surface and is a prominent feature in seismic reflection profiles in the area.

FIGURE 1.4: Schematic geology and bathymetry of the South Westland region. Note locations of Paringa and Jackson Head Sections as studied by various authors. (After Mutch & McKellar, 1964; Gair, 1967; Warren, 1967; Map 2, Nathan et al., 1986)
1.4.4 Miocene–Quaternary

Major tectonic changes began to occur in the early Miocene, spreading on the Southeast Indian Ridge extension ceased and due to spreading differences between the Antarctic and Australian plates, and the Antarctic and Pacific plates, the Alpine Fault was incepted through the New Zealand micro-continent to relieve the tectonic stress about 23 Ma (Kamp, 1986).

In the West Coast Region the Alpine Fault cut directly across the old rift structures. Even though the Alpine Fault at first was largely a strike-slip transform fault, due to its close proximity the regional tectonic character changed from extensional to compressional. As the basin bounding faults had their sense of movement reversed the pre-Alpine basins ceased subsidence and began to be everted, with the exception of the Murchison Basin which continued to subside. New basins began to form between the now rising mountain ranges in North Westland. The sediments of the time illustrate a marine regression as movement on the Alpine Fault became increasingly oblique. In South Westland, the extensive Tititira Formation consists of deep-water turbidites from the mid-Miocene, deposited in a deep basin that rapidly subsided during the mid to late Miocene. These sediments are exposed onshore in a narrow, steeply dipping discontinuous strip along the coast known as the Coastal Monocline (Cotton, 1956). The Tititira Formation is continuous through the Wanganui Series in the two onshore wells, with numerous beds of coarser sand
found in the mudstones. Exotic blocks and foraminifera from the Arnold and Landon Series are found in sediments of Opoitian age in Waiho-1. Nathan (1978) interpreted these as originating from the erosion of the uplifted and deformed Coastal Monocline, thus placing movement on the Monocline around the Miocene–Pliocene boundary at 5 Ma. This coincides well with increased convergence across the Alpine Fault through the Late Miocene and onwards. A tectonic event at around 5 Ma would also correspond well with the fission track derived age of the uplifted block to the east of the Monocline (Kamp et al., 1992).

Interpretation of the recent tectonic structure of South Westland has been dominated by the presence of the Alpine Fault, and the large offsets that have occurred across it. This has resulted in a hypothesis of steeply dipping strike-slip faulting being employed to interpret the structures seen in South Westland (Wellman, 1955; Cotton, 1956; Nathan, 1977). Adams (1987) argues that the numerous low-angle faults and deformation seen in the Paringa area is better explained as the result of a thrust sheet emplacement, and that the Coastal Monocline is an antiformal stack thrust duplex (after the nomenclature of Boyer & Elliot, 1982). Adams sites examples of similar structures overseas and on the Alpine Fault itself further north. An example of contemporary low-angle thrusting can be seen in the northern end of the study area where the Fraser Fault splays off the Alpine Fault (Rattenbury, 1986).

There are a number of implications of this alternative thrust model of the tectonic structure of South Westland. The sole and roof thrusts of the thrust sheet are inferred to extend beyond the coastline into the South Westland Basin. The amount of structural deformation in the sedimentary sequence, probably decreases offshore away from the Alpine Fault, the source of the compressive tectonic regime. Therefore, a relatively undeformed sequence with horizontal reflectors, representing the leading thrust planes are expected in the seismic charts offshore (Adams, 1987). The monoclinal fold of Cotton (1956) is interpreted by Nathan (1977) as extending from Milford Sound to Buttress Point and on geophysical evidence (McNaughton & Gibson, 1970) continues northwards for over 100 km. This implies the thrust system of Adams (1987) in the Paringa area may also extend a considerable distance both to the south and the north of the described area. The thrust system "may be a presently unrecognised feature of the whole Alpine Fault Zone" and "further thrust sheets may lie above and below those exposed" (Adams, 1987).

The series of glaciations from the Nukumaruan onwards (Suggate, 1990) have had a dramatic effect on the topography of the South Westland area, and numerous glaciers and icefields still remain in the central Southern Alps. Glaciers advanced down through valleys into the lowlands, and often beyond the modern coastline as evidenced by buried glacial moraines seen in shallow seismic records offshore (Norris, 1978). Thick
Introduction

fluvioglacial gravels accumulated during and after each glacial retreat to fill the valleys created by the glaciers (Adams, 1980) and cover much of the lowlying areas of South Westland.

At present, the geological processes of South Westland are dominated by the high rates of precipitation of generally over 3200 mm per annum, possibly reaching 15000 mm in higher parts of the Southern Alps (Griffiths & McSaveney, 1983). Understandably, this high precipitation rate in combination with the uplift of the Southern Alps leads to high rates of erosion and transportation of sediments via the numerous river systems. Accordingly the West Coast (from Karamea to Fiordland) of the South Island contributes a substantial amount of sediment to the continental shelf, estimated to be $212 \pm 40$ tonnes yr$^{-1}$ (Griffiths & Glasby, 1985). This is about 55% of the total contribution to the New Zealand continental shelf. In the study area alone, the estimates of Griffiths & Glasby (1985) give a sediment load of 109 tonnes per annum, greater than the estimated sediment loads for the entire North Island.
1.5 Thesis format

The body of the thesis is contained in 6 chapters.

Chapter 1  Introduction

Chapter 2  Basin Analysis
The theory and methodology of the integrative approach in sedimentary basin studies is given. Methodologies discussed include the principles of seismic stratigraphy, geohistory analysis, geodynamical modelling and the handling and processing of seismic data unique to this study.

Chapter 3  Characteristics of Foreland Basins
The characteristics of foreland basins cited in various literature sources are discussed. Features discussed include geophysical features, structural control and stratigraphy, sedimentology, subsidence history and petrography.

Chapter 4  Application and Observations of Basin Analysis in South Westland
The methodologies outlined in Chapter 2 are applied to the seismic and exploration well data in the South Westland basin. Observations from the seismic data are given.

Chapter 5  Interpretation and Discussion of Basin Analysis in South Westland
The observations of Chapter 4 are interpreted and comparisons are made with various geodynamical models. The interpretation of the observations and geodynamical models are discussed.

Chapter 6  Summary and Conclusions

Appendices
Data and information appendices are included in this volume. These include further details of the seismic lines used in the study and more detailed information about the TECHBASE databases and associated subsidiary algorithms used in the processing of the seismic data.
Chapter 2

Basin Analysis
2.0 Introduction

Basin analysis is an integration of a broad spectrum of earth science disciplines, combining to study sedimentary basins as geodynamical entities. Basin analysis research involves aspects of geophysics, structural geology, stratigraphy (outcrop and seismic), sedimentology, geochemistry and mathematical and physical modelling organised in a framework to understand the geological and thermal evolution of a sedimentary basin (Klein, 1987; Welte & Yalçın, 1987).

Sedimentary basins contain strata from which the structural, stratigraphic and tectonic evolution of the basin and surrounds are inferred. This information held in the strata can also be used in the study of lithospheric deformation in the context of contemporary plate tectonic theories. Sedimentary basins are also the sites of almost all the world’s commercial hydrocarbons and some minerals (Allen & Allen, 1990).

Each of the earth science disciplines integrated into basin analysis is a complete scientific pursuit in its own right. Thus this chapter will only cover a few principle topics in any detail, namely seismic stratigraphy, geodynamical modelling, the integral tool of geohistory analysis and an overview of computer data processing. These disciplines and techniques are subsequently used and applied in analysis of the South Westland Basin.

2.1 Seismic stratigraphy principles

2.1.0 Overview

Acoustic impedance is a bulk physical property of a rock and the fluids it contains, and is a function of the density of the rock multiplied by the velocity of the acoustic waves passing through it. Seismic reflections are generated along surfaces of acoustic impedance contrast, with the strength of the reflection increasing as the difference in impedance between two superimposed rock layers increases (Cross & Lessenger, 1988; Sheriff, 1989, p.311).

Using this geophysical phenomenon, sub-surface ‘surveys’ can be undertaken using an energy source to generate seismic waves in or above the strata and a line or lines of geophones to record the reflected seismic energy over time. Seismic surveys can be carried out on land or at sea. Internationally, land seismic surveys are more common than marine surveys (Sheriff, 1989, p.25), however this study uses about 1715 km of seismic lines, only 104 km of which are on land.

The acquired seismic data is processed by various means to correct the data for noise or distortion due to earth properties at the survey site. Further processing can be undertaken
to improve the clarity of the data or to extract and visualise specific information about amplitude and/or velocity. The objective of such processing is to produce a display of data from which geologic information can be interpreted (Sheriff, 1989, p.390).

Seismic stratigraphy is now a routine method used in the interpretation and modelling of stratigraphy, sedimentary facies and geologic history from seismic reflection data. The principles and descriptive parameters of seismic stratigraphy are outlined below.

2.1.1 Fundamental axiom of seismic stratigraphy

A fundamental precept of seismic stratigraphy is that primary seismic reflections are produced by stratal surfaces and unconformities which are formed at particular times during deposition or non-deposition. Therefore seismic reflections are chronostratigraphically significant in the sense that all rocks above a horizon are younger than those below (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977; Vail et al., 1977; Cross & Lessenger, 1988).

The universality of the assumption that a seismic horizon will separate older from younger strata is challenged by Christie-Blick et al. (1987, in Cross & Lessenger, 1988), who demonstrated two examples from deep marine and alluvial-fan environments where strata above an unconformity at one location would be older than strata below it at another location. Also, intuition would suggest that seismic reflections can be generated at sedimentary facies boundaries which can cross time lines, and thus their associated seismic reflections would also cross time lines. Cross & Lessenger (1988) undertake a lengthy discussion on this issue, concluding that seismic reflections are generated in both instances, but that conventional seismic displays emphasis laterally continuous surfaces of sharp impedance contrasts and thus time-significant (and generally laterally continuous) surfaces are emphasized. Facies changes and associated boundaries can be detected by studying subtle waveform changes along or between reflectors.

2.1.2 Seismic sequence stratigraphy model

The concepts of seismic sequence stratigraphy and seismic facies analysis as collated by the authors in Seismic Stratigraphy—applications to hydrocarbon exploration (Payton, 1977) and outlined below, have continued to develop since that compilation. One of the major driving forces to further research was the construction of a chart of global relative sea level through time by a group of geologists from Exxon, headed by P.R. Vail. Vail et al. (1977a,b) used the depositional limits of the coastal facies of marine sequences to interpret sea level histories along various continental margins. The apparent
The synchronicity of sea level changes led to the construction of the charts—and continuing lively debate (Haq et al., 1987).

A significant recent advance in seismic stratigraphic concepts is the development of depositional models of genetically related sediments during various phases of the sea level cycle as detailed by various authors, both in seismic section (Wilgus et al., 1988) and outcrop (Van Wagoner et al., 1990), and summarised below.

There are three major variables that control the stratigraphic patterns and lithofacies distributions within sedimentary deposits (Fig 2.1; Jervey, 1988; Allen & Allen, 1990):

- **Tectonic subsidence** creates the space where sediments can be deposited. Tectonic subsidence changes slowly with respect to eustacy and can be treated as linear with time.

- **Eustatic sea level change** which is believed to be a major control over the stratigraphic patterns and distribution of lithofacies.

- **Sediment supply** controls the amount and type of sediment entering the depositional area and contributes to water depth in that zone. Sediment supply is a function of the sediment source area and the climate driving the weathering, erosion and transportation processes. Sediment supply is often assumed time-constant in the following depositional models.
The combination of tectonic subsidence and eustatic sea level change produces a relative change of sea level (Fig. 2.2). The relative sea level change curve represents the amount of space or accommodation available for incoming sediment in the depositional area. In effect, the higher the relative sea level the greater amount of space available for sediments to be deposited; the lower the relative sea level the less space available. The tectonic contribution is mainly attributed to the creation of long-term space for sedimentary deposits and the preserved thickness of those deposits. The depositional stratigraphic patterns and distribution of lithofacies is thought to be controlled by eustacy (Vail, 1987). Many of the patterns and features described below are interpreted according to this assumption.

Passive margins are usually used as the geodynamical setting for this approach to stratigraphic modelling (Fig. 2.2), although stratigraphic modelling in foreland basins can also be achieved (Swift et al., 1987; Jervey, 1991). The originators of modern seismic sequence stratigraphy also emphasized the generality of their depositional models, and that local factors such as climate, sediment supply and tectonics must be incorporated into a model before application to a particular basin (Posamentier, Jervey & Vail, 1988). The great emphasis on eustatic controls, especially in regions and depositional settings clearly dominated by tectonic processes, should also be noted as a point of concern in this relatively new and still developing stratigraphic model (Sloss, 1988).

The basic unit of seismic stratigraphy is the depositional sequence, defined as a stratigraphic unit composed of a relatively conformable succession of genetically related strata and bounded at its top and base by unconformities or their correlative conformities (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977) (Fig. 2.3).

The concept of seismic sequences were modified from earlier stratigraphic sequences as defined and identified by Sloss (1963), being units traceable over wide areas and bounded by unconformities of 'interregional scope'. The depositional sequences of Mitchum, Vail & Thompson (1977) are an order of magnitude smaller than those of Sloss, requiring the Sloss sequences to be re-termed supersequences.

Depositional sequences are chronostratigraphically significant as they are bounded at top and bottom by time-tied boundaries, and were thus deposited during a given interval of geologic time. This total interval of geologic time during which a sequence is deposited is termed a sechon (Fig. 2.3; Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977, p.55).
FIGURE 2.2: Sequence stratigraphy diagrammatic section, showing sequences and systems tracts in (a) depth and (b) geologic time. Stratal pattern relationship to eustacy, tectonic subsidence, sediment accommodation potential, and relative change of sea level (c). (from Vail, 1987, Fig. 4; Sarg, 1988, Fig. 1)
Depositional sequences can be subdivided into smaller units of chronostratigraphic significance. These small units are termed systems tracts (Brown & Fisher, 1977; Van Wagoner et al., 1988), which in turn are composed of parasequences sets and parasequences (Van Wagoner et al., 1987). Parasequences are relatively conformable succession of genetically related beds or bedsets bounded by marine-flooding surfaces and their correlative surfaces. A parasequence set is a succession of genetically related parasequences which form a distinctive stacking pattern that is bounded, in many cases, by major marine-flooding surfaces and their correlative surfaces. Systems tracts are a linkage
of contemporaneous depositional systems and correspond closely with particular segments of the relative sea level curve (Posamentier et al., 1988).

2.1.3 Seismic surfaces, boundaries and disconformities

Boundaries of sequences, parasequence sets, and parasequences provide a crucial chronostratigraphic framework for correlating and mapping sedimentary rocks. Sequences and systems tracts are defined and identified by the geometrical relationship of reflectors, including the continuity of surfaces bounding the units, and reflection configuration patterns within the unit (Van Wagoner et al., 1987).

Originally, unconformities were the principal subdividers in seismic sequence concepts, and followed the terms introduced by Dunbar and Rogers (1957) to describe the angularity or parallelism of strata above and below an unconformity. As the concepts of seismic stratigraphic analysis developed, the original definition of an unconformity as "a surface of erosion or nondeposition that separates younger strata from older rocks and represents a significant hiatus" (Mitchum, 1977, p.211), did not sufficiently differentiate between sequence and parasequence boundaries. Recent conceptual developments use surfaces of discontinuity (Vail, 1987) to describe a chronostratigraphically significant boundary in the seismic data. There are a number of such surfaces, representing a variety of depositional or erosional processes (Vail, 1987):

**Sequence boundaries**
- Type 1 Sequence boundary
- Type 2 Sequence boundary

**Marine-flooding surfaces**
- Downlap / Maximum flooding surface
- Trangressive surface
- 'Condensed Section'

These surfaces are identified by the geometric relation of the strata to the surface itself. Discordant relationships between internal strata and sequence boundaries giving reflection terminations are the principal criteria for recognition of surfaces and are termed lapout (lateral termination at depositional pinchout) or truncation (lateral termination due to erosion). Such relationships also form the basis for the interpretation of the surfaces, in particular whether they were formed by erosion or nondeposition. Mitchum, Vail & Thompson (1977) defined a number of terms to describe the geometrical relationships of strata to a sequence boundary and can apply equally to the patterns associated with other surfaces (Fig 2.4). These patterns are described below.
Baselap: Onlap, Downlap

Two important types of lapout at the base of an unit are recognized, collectively termed *baselap* (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977; Allen & Allen, 1990). Successive terminations of strata along a depositional surface produce an increasing nondepositional hiatus in the direction of onlap or downlap (see Fig 2.3).

*Onlap* is baselap where initially horizontal stratum laps out against an initially inclined surface, or where initially inclined stratum laps out against a surface with greater inclination (Fig 2.4B1). Onlap is an indicator of a nondepositional hiatus and landward sediment progradation.

*Downlap* is baselap where initially inclined stratum terminates downdip against an initially horizontal, irregular or inclined surface (Fig 2.4B2). Downlap is an indicator of a nondepositional hiatus and seaward sediment progradation.

In some complex situations the distinction between onlap and downlap may be practically impossible, and the general term of baselap is used.

*Toplap*

*Toplap* is the termination of strata against the upper boundary of an unit. Inclined features, such as foreset beds and clinoforms, may show is pattern. Lateral terminations updip may taper and approach the upper boundary in a near parallel fashion. In some
seismic sections, resolution may be such that reflections appear to terminate at a high angle against the upper boundary (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977) (Fig. 2.4A2).

Toplap is evidence of a nondepositional hiatus. It is produced by the depositional base level being too low to allow formation of the strata updip. Strata progrades below base level during the development of toplap, while sediment bypassing and some minor erosion occurs above base level. Toplap is commonly associated with shallow marine deposits such as deltaic complexes and deep marine fans depositionally controlled by turbidity currents (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977, p. 59)

**Truncation: Erosional and Structural**

*Erosional truncation* is the lateral termination of stratum by erosion at the upper boundary of a depositional sequence, and may occur over a large area or be restricted to a channel. The distinction between toplap and erosional truncation may be difficult in some cases, but in the latter strata tends to maintain parallelism as they terminate abruptly against the upper boundary rather than taper to it. Erosional truncation is evidence of an erosional hiatus (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977, p. 59) (Fig. 2.4A1).

*Structural truncation* is the lateral termination of stratum by structural disruption produced by faulting, gravity sliding, salt flowage, or igneous intrusion. The distinction between structural and erosional truncation should be made in interpretation as structural truncation has only minor, if any, chronostratigraphic significance with respect to unconformities and hiatuses (Mitchum, Vail & Thompson, 1977, p. 59) (Fig. 2.4A1).

Once seismic surfaces have been identified, the actual type of surface is interpreted from the relation of patterns above and below that surface. As listed above, a number of surfaces are recognised (Van Wagoner et al., 1987; 1988).

A sequence boundary is characterised by regional onlap above and truncation below. A Type-1 sequence boundary is a regional surface characterised by subaerial exposure and concurrent subaerial erosion. This sequence boundary is interpreted to form when the rate of eustatic fall exceeds the rate of tectonic subsidence, producing a relative fall of sea level at that location. This causes the drainage base level to fall, rejuvenating streams, promoting erosion and incising valleys. A Type-2 sequence boundary is also marked by subaerial exposure, however it lacks both subaerial erosion and a basinward shift in facies. This sequence boundary is interpreted to form when the rate of eustatic fall is less than the rate of tectonic subsidence, so no relative fall in sea level occurs. These two types of sequence boundary are also used to define two types of sequence, namely a Type-1 sequence, bounded below by a Type-1 sequence boundary and above by a Type-1 or a Type-2
sequence boundary; and a Type-2 sequence, bounded below by a Type-2 sequence boundary and above by a Type-1 or a Type-2 sequence boundary.

A marine flooding surface separates younger from older strata, across which there is evidence for an abrupt increase in water depth. The marine-flooding surface commonly has a correlative surface in the coastal plain and on the shelf. In particular, downlap surfaces are marine-flooding surfaces onto which the bottomset of prograding clinoforms downlap, and are commonly identified by regional downlap on a seismic display. This surface indicates the change from retrogradational to aggradational deposition and is the surface of maximum flooding during a eustatic cycle. While not strictly a marine-flooding surface, the condensed section is the basinward correlative of a marine-flooding surface, consisting of a facies of thin marine beds of hemipelagic or pelagic sediments deposited at very slow rates. Condensed sections are most extensive during regional transgression and play a fundamental role in stratigraphic correlation, both regionally and globally (Loutit et al., 1988).

2.1.4 Seismic facies analysis

After sequences have been seismically defined within the chronostratigraphic framework of sequence boundaries, the environment and lithofacies of a seismic unit can be interpreted from seismic and geologic data. Seismic facies analysis is the description and geologic interpretation of seismic reflection parameters, including configuration, continuity, amplitude, frequency, and interval velocity (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977; Sangree & Widmier, 1979). In addition paleotopographic elements, directions of progradation or fluvial channel flow, and relative changes of sea level can be detected (Cross & Lessenger, 1988). Each parameter provides information on the geology of the subsurface (Table 2.1).

A seismic facies unit is defined as a three-dimensional restricted group of reflectors whose parameters are distinguishable from those of adjacent groups (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977; Sangree & Widmier, 1979; Cross & Lessenger, 1988). The combination of external form and internal configuration parameters must be described to understand the geometric interrelation and depositional setting of the facies units.

Three principle criteria are used in the identifying, classifying and mapping of seismic facies (Cross & Lessenger, 1988): the geometry of reflections and reflection terminations to the unit boundaries; reflection configuration within the unit; and, the three-dimensional external form of the seismic facies. The form and interpretation of unit boundaries is described above (see Fig 2.4). The two other seismic facies criteria are outlined below.
Seismic Facies Parameters | Geologic Interpretation
--- | ---
Reflection Configuration | • Bedding Patterns  
• Depositional Processes  
• Erosion and Paleotopography  
• Fluid Contacts
Reflection Continuity | • Bedding Continuity  
• Depositional Processes
Reflection Amplitude | • Velocity–Density Contrast  
• Bed Spacing  
• Fluid Content
Reflection Frequency | • Bed thickness  
• Fluid Content
Interval Velocity | • Estimation of Lithology  
• Estimation of Porosity  
• Fluid content
External form and areal association of seismic facies units | • Gross Depositional Environment  
• Sediment Source  
• Geologic Setting

TABLE 2.1: Seismic reflection parameters used in seismic facies analysis and their geologic significance, (after Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977; Sangree & Widmier, 1979). The top four parameters (bold type) can be visually assessed directly or by computer enhancement from seismic reflection data.

2.1.4.1 Reflection configuration patterns

Reflection patterns within the sequence reveal stratification patterns and infer depositional processes. Some observed patterns may be complex and require further description with modifying terms. The definitions and geologic interpretation of these reflection configuration patterns is given below.

**Parallel and Subparallel**

These reflection configurations (Fig 2.5) suggest uniform rates of deposition on a uniformly subsiding shelf or stable basin plain setting (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977; Sangree & Widmier, 1979).

**Divergent**

This reflection configuration (Fig 2.5) is distinguished by a wedge-shaped unit in which lateral thickening is due to thickening of individual cycles within the unit, rather than by reflection termination against a sequence boundary. Internal convergence of reflectors
within the unit commonly causes lateral termination as the strata progressively thin below seismic resolution.

Divergent configurations suggest areal variations in the rate of deposition or progressive tilting of the depositional surface (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977; Sangree & Widmier, 1979).

**Prograding Reflection Configurations**

Several more complex reflection configurations occur (Fig 2.6), formed through progressive development, or *progradation*, of depositional surfaces, called *clinoforms*, that slope from gently dipping, relatively shallow water areas into deeper water. Such patterns are also termed *offlap* in recent papers (Vail, 1987). The clinoform surface is one of the most common depositional features. The configuration may also be divided into upper, middle and lower zones corresponding to Rich's (1951) undaform, clinoform and fondoform zones respectively, or topset, foreset and bottomset segments respectively (Sangree & Widmier, 1979). Prograding clinoforms occur in the variety of forms given below as described in Mitchum, Vail & Sangree (1977).

**Sigmoid**

A sigmoid progradational configuration is a prograding clinoform pattern formed by superimposed sigmoid (S-shaped) reflections. Topset segments have horizontal or near horizontal dips and are concordant with the upper boundary of the sequence. The foreset segments have successively younger lenses superimposed laterally in a depositional downdip direction forming an overall prograding pattern. Depositional angles are quite low, usually less than 1°. The bottomset segments show real or apparent downlap truncation against the base sequence boundary (Fig 2.6a).

**FIGURE 2.5:** Parallel, subparallel, and divergent seismic reflection configurations (after Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977, Fig.4).
The parallelism of the topset reflectors is the most distinctive feature of the sigmoid reflection configuration, suggesting a continued upbuilding (aggradation) of the topset deposits coevally with the prograding of the foreset deposits. This is interpreted as a relatively low-energy, low sediment supply, relatively rapid basin subsidence, and/or rapid sea level rise to deposit and preserve the topset units (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977).

**Oblique**

Oblique progradational reflection configuration ideally consists of relatively steep-dipping strata terminating updip by toplap against the upper boundary, and downdip by downlap onto the lower boundary. Topset beds are characteristically absent. Foreset segments build laterally from a constant upper surface in a depositionally downdip direction. Depositional dips are intrinsically higher than in the sigmoid configuration, and may approach 10°. Baseset segments thin from the foreset units, or terminate against the lower boundary at a relatively high angle (Fig. 2.4b & c).

In tangential oblique progradation patterns, dips decrease gradually in the lower parts of the foreset strata, forming concave-upward patterns. Reflections terminate tangentially against the lower boundary of the seismic facies unit. In the parallel oblique
progradational pattern, the steep parallel foreset strata terminate by downlap at a high angle against the lower boundary.

Oblique progradational configurations infer depositional environments with a combination of relatively high sediment supply, slow or no basin subsidence, and a standstill of sea level to allow rapid basin infill and sedimentary bypassing or scouring of the upper depositional surfaces—thus preventing the formation of topset units (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977, p.128).

**Complex sigmoid-oblique**

Prograding reflection configurations may also be a complex combination of variably alternating oblique and sigmoid progradational patterns within the single seismic facies unit (Fig 2.6d). The topset segment is distinguished by a complex alternating horizontal sigmoid topset patterns and oblique toplap termination patterns. This variability infers topset strata with a history of alternating aggradation and sediment bypassing within a high energy depositional environment. The other segments of this configuration are similar to the sigmoid configuration (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977).

**Shingled**

A shingled progradational reflection configuration (Fig 2.6e) resembles the parallel oblique progradational configuration, except that the thickness of the unit is at the point of seismic resolution. Upper and lower boundaries are commonly parallel, with gently dipping parallel, and occasionally discontinuous, internal reflectors terminating by apparent toplap and downlap. Shingled configurations are interpreted as depositional units prograding into shallow water (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977).

**Hummocky**

A hummocky clinoform reflection configuration (Fig 2.6f) consists of irregular discontinuous subparallel reflectors forming a random hummocky pattern marked by nonsystematic reflection terminations and splits. Relief on the hummocks is low, approaching the point of seismic resolution. The overall reflection pattern is interpreted as strata forming small, interfingering clinoform lobes prograding into shallow water in a prodelta or inter-deltaic position (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977).

**Chaotic Reflection Configuration**

Chaotic patterns are discontinuous, discordant reflections inferring a derangement of reflection surfaces (Fig 2.7a & b). They are interpreted as strata deposited in a variable,
relatively high energy setting, or deformed, but initially continuous strata. Some chaotic patterns may be interpreted as original configuration patterns still identifiable after deformation. Other patterns are so disrupted that identification and interpretation is practically impossible. Slump structures, cut-and-fill channel complexes, and highly faulted, folded, or contorted zones may display chaotic seismic reflection (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977).

**Reflection-Free Areas**

Some seismic data may display reflection-free areas (Fig. 2.7c). These are interpreted as homogeneous, nonstratified, highly contorted, or steeply dipping units, for example large igneous bodies or thick seismically homogeneous shales or sandstones (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977).

**Modifying terms**

Some variations in the basic reflection configuration patterns may be described by common modifying terms which are illustrated in Figure 2.8. Such terms outlined by Mitchum, Vail & Sangree (1977) as wavy, even, hummocky, lenticular, disrupted, contorted, regular, irregular, uniform and variable are self-explanatory.

![Figure 2.7](image)

**FIGURE 2.7:** Diagrams of chaotic and reflection-free seismic reflection patterns. (a) represents a chaotic pattern that may still be identified as original features remain after deformation; (b) no recognisable stratal patterns can be interpreted; (c) represents a reflection-free area (from Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977, Fig.9).
2.1.4.2 **External forms**

Also important to the analysis of seismic facies units is an understanding of their three dimensional forms and areal associations. Figure 2.9 illustrates some the important external forms. Sheets, wedges and banks are the most common shelf seismic facies comprised of a variety of parallel, divergent, and prograding patterns within the internal reflection configuration of the unit. Sheet drapes commonly comprise parallel reflections in a pattern suggesting uniform, low-energy, deep-marine deposition independent of bottom relief. Lenses may occur in any seismic facies unit, but are most common as external form of prograding clinoforms (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977). Mounds and fills are seismic forms produced by strata with a variety of origins, forming prominences, such as reefs or banks, or filling depressions on depositional surfaces, such as submarine canyons or drowned alluvial valleys (Cross & Lessenger, 1988).

**FIGURE 2.8:** Some modifying seismic reflection configurations (from Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977)
2.1.4.3 Mapping seismic facies

Sangree & Widmier (1979) proposed a mapping convention in which the three attributes describing a seismic facies unit are combined.
The coding system has the form
\[ A - B \]
\[ \frac{C}{C} \]

where

\[ A = \text{relationship of reflections to upper boundary} \]
\[ \text{Er} - \text{Erosional truncation} \]
\[ \text{Top} - \text{Toplap truncation} \]
\[ C - \text{Concordant} \]

\[ B = \text{relationship of reflections to lower boundary} \]
\[ \text{On} - \text{Onlap} \]
\[ \text{Dwn} - \text{Downlap} \]
\[ C - \text{Concordant} \]

\[ C = \text{internal reflection configuration} \]
\[ P - \text{Parallel} \]
\[ M - \text{Mounded} \]
\[ D - \text{Divergent} \]
\[ \text{Ob} - \text{Oblique progradational} \]
\[ \text{Ch} - \text{Chaotic} \]
\[ \text{Sig} - \text{Sigmoid} \]
\[ W - \text{Wavy} \]
\[ \text{Rf} - \text{Reflection free} \]

Assuming a relation between seismic and sedimentary facies, seismic facies maps can be interpreted in a similar way to geologic maps. However this assumed relation between seismic and sedimentary facies is a major limitation of seismic facies analysis due to a paucity of literature on the subject (Cross & Lessenger, 1988).

2.1.5 Relation of systems tracts to eustacy

Of particular importance in determining the stratigraphic response of depositional systems to relative sea level fluctuations is the rate of sea level change (Fig 2.2; Vail, 1987; Allen & Allen, 1990). Aggradation will dominate depositional processes when the rate of addition of new space increases, effectively trapping sediments closer to the source and starving distal area of the basin. The greatest increase of new space occurs at the inflection point of the rising limb of the relative sea level curve. Progradational processes will dominate when the rate of addition of new space or accommodation slows down and the sediment supply easily fills the available space, causing surplus sediment to be bypassed. The greatest decrease in new space occurs at the inflection point of the falling limb of the relative sea level curve. This falling inflection point also marks the period when sediments in the basin plain and shelf may be subject to erosion and the formation of an unconformity, which depending on the speed of the sea level fall will produce a Type-1 (rapid fall) or Type-2 (gradual fall) sequence boundary. Thus the sequence boundaries of a depositional sequence are intrinsically linked to falling sea level. Vail (1987) and Posamentier et al. (1988) link other bounding disconformity surfaces to particular points in time on the relative sea level curve, and the systems tracts within those intervals represent the rocks deposited within that time interval (Fig 2.2d).
Systems tracts can be broadly divided into four classes according to their relationship to specific parts of the relative sea level curve: lowstand, transgressive, highstand and shelf margin (Vail, 1987; Van Wagoner et al., 1987; Posamentier et al., 1988; Allen & Allen, 1990).

**Lowstand systems tract**

A lowstand systems tract overlies a Type-1 sequence boundary and is produced by rapid relative sea level fall causing incision of the former shelf and the transferral of sedimentation to the basin floor and slope (Fig 2.10B & C). A lowstand systems tract comprises three separate units, a basin-floor (or lowstand) fan, a slope fan and a lowstand wedge.
A basin-floor fan is deposited during a time of rapid relative sea level fall and represents sediments bypassed through the shelf and slope and deposited in a submarine fan on the lower slope or basin floor (Fig 2.10b). The top of the fan is a downlap surface, and internal patterns may also contain fan channel and fan lobe facies (Fig 2.2a).

Slope fans are deposited during the late relative sea level fall and early relative sea level rise. Slope fans are characterised by turbidite and debris-flow deposition on the middle or the base of the slope. Deposition can be coeval with the basin-floor fan or with the early portion of the lowstand wedge. The top of the slope is a downlap surface for the lowstand wedge, and internal structures may also contain channel facies (Fig 2.2a).

Lowstand wedges are characterised by incised valley fill on the shelf, onlap onto the slope and downlap onto the previous basin-floor and slope fans. They are deposited during the late relative sea level fall or early rise (Fig 2.10c). The internal structure of a lowstand wedge is progradational, with the top surface representing the top of the lowstand systems tract with a marine-flooding surface termed a transgressive surface (Fig 2.2a).

Transgressive systems tract

A transgressive systems tract is deposited during rapid sea level rise and are characterised by retrogradational parasequence sets (Fig 2.10d). These sets back-step onto the basin margin, with strong onlap onto the sequence boundary in the landward direction and downlap onto the transgressive surface in the basinward direction.

As the rate of relative sea level rise slows, and the rate of addition of new space decreases, the sets of parasequences change from being retrogradational to aggradational. The surface at which this occurs is termed the maximum flooding surface and marks the top of the transgressive systems tract (Fig 2.2a).

Condensed sections occur in the distal regions of the basin during periods of transgression as sediments are trapped on the retrograding shelf (Fig 2.2a).

Highstand systems tract

Highstand systems tracts form after maximum flooding as relative sea level rise slows and aggradational parasequences are succeeded by progradational parasequences with clinoform geometries (Fig 2.10a & e). Highstand systems tract parasequences onlap onto the sequence boundary in a landward direction and downlap onto the previous transgressive and lowstand systems tracts in a basinward direction. Condensed sections
also occur during the early stages of a highstand systems tract before major progradation occurs (Loutit et al., 1988). Initially, as new space is added, rivers will aggrade with a vertical stacking pattern, eventually evolving into lateral stacking patterns as an equilibrium profile is reached. A highstand systems tract is bounded at the top by a Type-1 or Type-2 sequence boundary and at the bottom by a prominent downlap surface. Internal patterns are progradational (Fig 2.2a).

**Shelf-margin systems tract**

When relative sea level fall is gradual, sedimentation may shift basinward in a series of weakly progradational to aggradational parasequence sets (Fig 2.10f). The sets onlap onto the sequence boundary in the landward direction and downlap onto the sequence boundary in the basinward direction. The base of a shelf-margin systems tract is a Type-2 sequence boundary (Fig 2.2a).

### 2.1.6 Seismic stratigraphy Interpretation procedure

Vail (1987) recommends a seven step seismic stratigraphy interpretation procedure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seismic sequence stratigraphy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Well-log sequence analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Synthetic, well-to-seismic ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Seismic facies analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Interpretation of depositional environment and lithofacies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Forward seismic modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Final interpretation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given data constraints some of the above steps are not fully treated in this study.

Vail (1987, p.5) continues to describe the methodology for interpreting depositional sequences and systems tracts on seismic sections by identifying discontinuities on the basis of reflection terminations:

- Look for places where two reflectors converge, as where reflectors converge there will be reflection terminations.
- Mark the reflection terminations with arrows.
- Draw in the discontinuity surface between the onlapping and downlapping reflections above and the truncating and toplapping reflectors below. If discontinuity becomes conformable follow its position across the section by reflection correlation.
- The recommended colour code system for tracing reflection patterns and surfaces of discontinuity are (Table 2.2):
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of pattern/surface</th>
<th>Colour</th>
<th>Black &amp; white lines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflection patterns</td>
<td>red</td>
<td>thin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection terminations</td>
<td>red</td>
<td>thick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downlap surface</td>
<td>green</td>
<td>dashed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transgressive surface</td>
<td>blue</td>
<td>dotted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 2.2:** Recommended seismic sequence stratigraphy interpretation colour code (Vail, 1987).

* Identify the type of discontinuity:
  * regional onlap above and truncation below is probably a sequence boundary
  * regional downlap indicates a downlap surface

Given the paucity of well-log information in the study area, well-log sequence analysis and synthetic well-to-seismic ties are of only limited scope. Analysis is restricted to depth/velocity studies.

Also unfortunately, the quality of some of the seismic information in the study area is poor, hampering the ability to fully integrate the above seismic sequence interpretation into an analysis scenario using the systems tract models. In these cases seismic facies analysis and interpretation of depositional environments provides valuable information even though it cannot be fully integrated (for example, see Beggs, 1990; Stagg et al., 1992).

Forward seismic modelling is not carried out in this study.

As discussed above the integrated final interpretation of a seismic sections is only a subdivision of the integral approach to the basin analysis methodology.
2.2 Geohistory Analysis

2.2.0 Overview

Geohistory analysis is the integration of a number of quantitative stratigraphic techniques to display the geological history of an exploration well or section. Lithostratigraphic, biostratigraphic and paleobathymetric information are combined to provide the data for routines that compute decompacted sediment thickness and tectonic movement as a function of time. The results can then be interpreted to reveal sedimentation rates and episodes of thermal uplift and/or subsidence through time. The term 'geohistory analysis' was introduced by Van Hinte (1978), and the concepts and applications have since developed to the point that it is now a standard tool in sedimentary basin analysis. Of particular importance is the thermal history and associated hydrocarbon maturity modelling (Waples, 1980; Falvey & Deighton, 1982; Guidish et al., 1985; Tissot et al., 1987; Waples et al., 1992). Numerous geohistory application examples are available in the literature, both in New Zealand (e.g. Hayward, 1987; Hayward & Wood, 1989; Cook et al., 1990; Hayward, 1990) and internationally (e.g. Thorne & Watts, 1989; Moussavi-Harami & Brenner, 1992; Tang & Lerche, 1992).

Geohistory analysis aims at compiling a subsidence curve (total and tectonic) and the burial history of stratigraphic units through time (Fig 2.12). One way to conceptualise such diagrams is that they represent the stratigraphic units present at a reference location, backwards through time. Three corrections to the present stratigraphy are needed for the process of generating a geohistory plot (Allen & Allen, 1990):

1. **Decompaction**: present-day compacted thicknesses must be corrected to account for the progressive loss of porosity with depth of burial.
2. **Paleobathymetry**: the water depth at the time of deposition determines its position relative to present sea level.
3. **Eustatic changes**: changes in the paleo sea level relative to that of the present need to be considered.

The calculations involved in these corrections can readily be done manually, but this approach can be time consuming. In this study a computer program has been developed to quickly do the necessary calculations and facilitate ease of use through 'user-friendly' interfaces and graphic visualisation. The program is largely based on GEO_HIST, a VAX/VMS computer program developed by Ray Wood (Wood, 1989) of the Geophysics Division of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (now the Crown...
2.2.1 Decompaction theory

The decompaction technique of Falvey and Deighton (1982) is based on the concept that each sedimentary unit has a skeletal thickness, the ‘ultimate’ burial thickness of the unit when porosity equals zero and no further compaction can occur. This can be computed from:

\[ Z_{SK} = \int_{Z_1}^{Z_2} (1 - \phi(Z)) \, dZ \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.1)

where

- \( Z_{SK} \) is the skeletal thickness
- \( Z_2 - Z_1 \) is the unit thickness
- \( \phi(Z) \) is the porosity function with depth.

The skeletal thickness remains constant throughout burial. The decrease in unit thickness can then be calculated if the function \( \phi(Z) \) is known for that unit. There are a number of options for modelling the porosity of a sediment with depth. Sclater and Christie (1980) assumed a general exponential function, and Baldwin and Butler (1985) argue for the concept of ‘solidity’ rather than porosity in their relationship calculations. These models assume ‘bulk’ properties of the sediment being compacted (or decompacted) and lump together the complex processes of physical compaction and diagenesis, which are often time dependent also. Schmoker & Gautier (1989) present a case using time-temperature exposure as a measure of porosity decrease rather than depth. This approach has the implication that sediments may compact over time forming a second-stage, passively formed basin. The behaviour of compacting clay minerals is also more complex than the simple porosity-depth functions suggest, and is modelled by Audet & Fowler (1992).

Falvey & Middleton (1981, in Allen & Allen, 1990) argued that the exponential porosity-depth relationship does not fit shallower depth data very well, and they derived the alternative general porosity-depth relationship used in this study:

\[ \frac{1}{\phi(Z)} = \frac{1}{\phi_0} + kZ \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.2)

where

- \( \phi_0 \) is the porosity at time of deposition
\[ k \] is an empirically derived compaction constant

\[ Z \] is the depth.

This relationship is based on the assumption that an incremental change in porosity is proportional to the change of load and the ratio of void space to skeletal volume (Falvey & Deighton, 1982). With equations (2.1) and (2.2), the skeletal volume can be calculated as:

\[
Z_{SK} = (Z_2 - Z_1) - \frac{1}{k} \ln \left[ \frac{1}{\phi_0} + kZ_2 \right] - \frac{1}{k} \ln \left[ \frac{1}{\phi_0} + kZ_1 \right] \quad (2.3)
\]

Using the terminology \( Z_3 \) as the depth to the top of the unit at an earlier time, the bottom depth of the unit, \( Z_4 \), can be calculated by iteration from a rearrangement of equation (2.3):

\[
Z_4 - \frac{1}{k} \ln \left[ \frac{1}{\phi_0} + kZ_4 \right] = Z_{SK} + Z_3 - \frac{1}{k} \ln \left[ \frac{1}{\phi_0} + kZ_3 \right] \quad (2.4)
\]

The amount of compaction calculated by the above formulas is a function of original porosity (\( \phi_0 \)), compaction constant (\( k \)), layer thickness and depth of burial. The first two values can be taken from 'standard' constants in the literature, as shown in Table 2.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LITHOLOGY</th>
<th>ORIGINAL POROSITY (( \phi_0 ))</th>
<th>COMPACTION CONSTANT (( k ))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sandstone(^1)</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>siltstone(^1)</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mudstone (shale)(^1)</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overpressured shale(^2)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>limestone (marl)(^3)</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volcanic(^2)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 2.3:** Porosity and compaction constants of various 'typical' lithologic units.

\(^1\) Falvey & Deighton (1982); \(^2\) Wood (1989); \(^3\) Schmoker & Halley (1982)

It should be noted that the parameters used are empirically derived from data that may not be valid in the setting being analysed. For example the parameters for limestone are derived from tropical carbonates in South Florida, and thus may not accurately reflect the
compaction behaviour of temperate carbonates in New Zealand. Note that volcanics are assumed to have little original porosity and to be uncompactable.

2.2.2 Paleobathymetric and eustatic corrections

Paleobathymetric corrections, or the estimation of water depths are an essential part of establishing the burial history of a stratigraphic unit, yet it is difficult to establish with great accuracy. Paleobathymetric information comes from a number of sources, in particular (Allen & Allen, 1990):

- benthic foraminifera, and less importantly
- sedimentary facies and
- distinctive geochemical signatures.

Some organisms inhabit a particular depth range, and can be used to obtain a direct depth estimate. However, most paleodepth estimates are indirectly obtained. Qualitative estimates can be derived from a comparison with modern species assemblages and by recognition of ecological trends of benthonic and planktonic foraminifera through time. Quantitative methods can also be used to obtain estimates, using ratios of, for example, plankton/benthos, arenaceous/calcereous foraminifers, per cent radiolarins or ostracods, species dominance and diversity or morphological characteristics. These techniques allow interpretations of environmental factors such as chemical environment (salinity, pH, oxygen and CO₂ contents, nutrient availability), the physical environment (temperature, light, energy level, type of substrate, turbidity) and biological environment. As much information as possible is needed to produce a reliable depth estimate (Allen & Allen, 1990, p.271).

Sedimentary and geochemical data are far less reliable indicators of paleobathymetric data, and generally used only to confirm paleontological observations. Some sedimentary structures, such as wave ripple marks, are restricted to particular depth ranges (<200 m), however general sedimentary facies reflect supply and process and not particularly diagnostic of depth. If identified, the gradients of flood plain slopes may be used to estimate heights above sea level (Homewood et al., 1986, p.207). Geochemical data is restricted to estimates of the carbonate compensation depth (CCD), which can be derived from microfossil studies. Some mineral species such as glaucony and phosphates may also provide water depth information.

Eustatic corrections for global sea level fluctuations can be included after the decompaction process. Bearing in mind the uncertainties and debate surrounding the ‘Vail’ global sea level curve (Vail, Mitchum & Thompson, 1977; Haq et al., 1987), Allen & Allen (1990) recommend using only the first-order cycles (most likely due to volume changes in ocean ridge systems) and those confidently linked to glaciations/deglaciations be included.
Concern at the possible masking of tectonic information by an uncertain or arbitrarily selected sea level is expressed by Hegarty et al. (1988), but conclude a strong tectonic signal will be unperturbed by sea level corrections of moderate amplitude. The amplitude of sea level fluctuation remains the key question in the use of the relative sea level in this type of application.

2.2.3 Backstripping and tectonic subsidence calculations

Basin evolution is a dynamic process driven by tectonic processes which in turn are a result of the behaviour of the lithosphere. Basin subsidence due to the loading effect of the sedimentary column can be calculated and thus the amount of subsidence due to ‘other’ tectonic processes (such as thermal cooling, lithospheric thinning or loading) can be estimated. This process is termed backstripping, introduced by Watts & Ryan (1976). Numerous examples of backstripping applications exist in the literature, in particular, the Atlantic margin (Steckler & Watts, 1978), the North Sea (Thorne & Watts, 1989), and North American basins (Bond & Kominz, 1984; Heidlauf et al., 1986). Two main assumptions are made in this technique: (1) that the subsidence due to loading occurs rapidly in comparison to other processes and; (2) that the lithosphere fully compensates loading in local (Airy) isostatic equilibrium (Wood, 1989). The second assumption is probably the most open to debate, especially in a foreland basin setting, but further knowledge of the supporting lithosphere is required to calculate the ‘true’ lithospheric compensation value (see Allen & Allen, 1990, p.272). The loading effect of the water column can also be included or ignored in the following calculations.

FIGURE 2.11: Diagram illustrating local isostatic equilibrium (from Steckler & Watts, 1978; Wood, 1989)
Figure 2.11 illustrates the concept of local isostatic equilibrium used to calculate the tectonic curve, where:

- $Z_1$ is the observed or backstripped thickness of water and sediments and is the total of:
  - $Z_W$, water thickness, and;
  - $Z_{SK}$, skeletal thickness.

$Z_1$ is also equal to the total of:

- $Z_L$, subsidence due to loading, and;
- $Z_O$, subsidence due to other tectonic processes.

If the column were in equilibrium then $Z_O$ and $Z_L$ would be related by

$$Z_L (\rho_m - \rho_1) = Z_O (\rho_1 - \rho_0) \quad (2.5)$$

where

- $Z_O$ is subsidence due to tectonic processes
- $Z_L$ is the subsidence due to loading
- $\rho_m$ is the average asthenosphere density (3.3 Mg/m$^3$)
- $\rho_0$ is the density of the displaced material, either 0.0 or 1.0 Mg/m$^3$
- $\rho_1$ is the density of the basin fill (sediment and water).

The total depth to basement $Z_1$ is the sum of $Z_O$ and $Z_L$, therefore

$$Z_O = Z_1 \left[ \frac{\rho_m - \rho_1}{\rho_m - \rho_0} \right] \quad (2.6)$$

The average or effective density of the water/sediment column ($\rho_1$) is derived from the relationship (Wood, 1989):

$$\rho_1 = \frac{(Z_W \times \rho_W) + (Z_{SK} \times \rho_S)}{Z_1} \quad (2.7)$$

where

- $Z_W$ is the thickness of the water, including the porosity of the sediments
- $Z_{SK}$ is the skeletal thickness of the sediments
- $\rho_W$ is the density of the water (1.0 Mg/m$^3$)
- $\rho_S$ is the 'average' density of the sediment grains (2.7 Mg/m$^3$)

and

$$Z_1 = Z_W + Z_{SK}, \text{ is the total of the sediment/water column as in Figure 2.12.}$$

The calculated bulk density of the sedimentary column is an important factor in assessing its loading effect. An alternative process for deriving the bulk density by calculating the mean porosity of a layer, using lithologic density 'standards' to find the bulk density of a layer, and then calculating the weighted total of all the layers to find the total bulk
density is given by Steckler & Watts (1978). Tests indicate that results of this method do not significantly differ from those of Wood (1989), and rather than add another area of 'fuzzy' lithologic standards, the technique has not been used in this study.

2.2.4 Computer Programming

The computer application, GeoHist+, was developed for this study largely based on the GEO_HIST program of Ray Wood (Wood, 1989) and interface concepts in similar applications like Subside!™ (Wilkerson & Hsui, 1989). The program was originally developed in QBASIC™ on an IBM-PC compatible computer, and then transferred and rewritten for a Macintosh Plus computer using the Lightspeed Pascal™ programming language. GeoHist+ makes full use of the Macintosh 'GUI' (Graphics User Interface) environment of mouse driven windows, menus and dialog boxes. The listings of the program are given in the appendices of this volume.

The program functions with the following steps:

• Information from a well-log or section (seismic or outcrop) is entered. Information for each entered unit comprises:
  • Name of the unit
  • Depth to top of unit
  • Depth to base of the unit
  • Age of the base of the unit
  • Paleodepth of deposition of the unit
  • Lithology of the unit

In GeoHist+ a unit may be described as a mixture of lithologies, e.g. 30% sand, 10% mud, 40% limestone and 20% volcanic. The full list of possible lithologies is given in Table 2.2. The resulting lithologic parameters (k and \( \phi_0 \)) of the unit are calculated automatically as a weighted average of each of the components.

• The entered data can be edited, saved to a text file or restored from a text file. The text file may also be edited independently of the GeoHist+ application.

• The data is processed according to the theory given above. The data is checked for irregularities, and units are then 'removed' from the top of the sedimentary column one by one. At each 'stage' the remaining units are decompacted and adjusted for paleobathymetry and eustacy. The amount of tectonic subsidence at each stage is also calculated.

• The decompacted data set can then be saved or viewed as a text file.
• The decompacted information can also be visually displayed on the screen (see Figure 2.12), or plotted to a graphics plotter.

![GeoHist+ Graphic Display](image)

**FIGURE 2.12:** Example of the graphical display output of GeoHist+.

Computed values in GeoHist+ are corrected for paleo sea levels adapted from the long-term curves of Haq *et al.* (1987). The sea level values are contained in a text file called `Paleosealevel.data` which accompanies the GeoHist+ application. The option of altering the paleo sea level data can be easily exercised with this arrangement. Currently, the maximum sea level is 167 m in the mid Cretaceous. Values for paleo sea-level from the mid Jurassic to the present have been included and a constant sea level of +91 m is assumed for older data.

Stratal unconformities in the form of non-deposition hiatuses or erosion events may be modelled in GeoHist+. To simulate a hiatus, the depth to base is entered as equal to the depth to top (i.e. zero thickness) for the appropriate timespan. To simulate an erosional event a depth to base that is less than the depth to top (i.e. a ‘negative’ thickness) is
entered. The program checks that a sufficient thickness of sediments are deposited before they are eroded.

One consequence of the Falvey and Middleton (1981, in Falvey & Deighton, 1982) porosity-depth relationship is that there is a limit to the amount of sediment that can be eroded. The limit is

$$\frac{1}{\phi_o \times k} \text{ km}$$

(2.8)

The actual limits for each lithology are (Wood, 1989):

- Sand: 2083 m
- Siltstone: 866 m
- Mudstone: 588 m
- Limestone: 1040 m
- Overpressured shale: 1932 m
- Volcanics: unlimited

The program will check the entered data before processing for erosion events that exceed these limits.

Subsidence driven by the effect of the water column is also included in sediment load driven subsidence in the GeoHist+ calculations of the tectonic curve.
2.3 Geodynamical Modelling

2.3.0 Overview

Geohistory analysis is the quantitative analysis of subsidence rates through time derived from the observed data of well-logs, or seismic or outcrop sections. The tectonic subsidence calculations derived from observed data can be compared with geodynamic models in order to possibly obtain information about the nature and geologic history of the supporting lithosphere.

Subsidence models attempt to represent the tectonic processes occurring during and after a rifting event causing lithospheric stretching and resultant subsidence. A number of models have been used in various tectonic situations with varying degrees of complexity. Flexural models simulate the flexure response of the lithosphere to sediment and/or thrust loads, again various models exist with varying degrees of complexity and application. Both type of model are discussed below.

2.3.1 Subsidence modelling

Various models have been used for the subsidence of sedimentary basins and rifted continental margins resulting from thermal changes and compensation mechanisms. McKenzie (1978) proposed a simple model for the development and evolution of sedimentary basins, assuming the crustal and lithospheric extension to be the same (uniform stretching) (Fig. 2.13). A number of modifications have been made to the McKenzie model, including non-uniform extension (Royden & Keen, 1980; Hellinger & Sclater, 1983) and variable extension with time (Jarvis & McKenzie, 1980; Cochran, 1983). Given the lack of detailed geologic data required to support the more complex models, the simplest thermal model (McKenzie, 1978) will used in this study. The same approach is used by Wang & Stein (1992) for subsidence analysis in the Gulf of Papua, a similar tectonic setting to the South Westland study area.

The McKenzie model (1978) assumes ‘instantaneous’ and uniform stretching of the lithosphere and crust with passive upwelling of hot asthenosphere to maintain the isostatic equilibrium. Although an instantaneous rifting event is a mathematical assumption, Jarvis & McKenzie (1980) found that as long as rifting times were less than 20 Myr in duration, the uniform extension model was a very reasonable approximation. The lithosphere is isostatically compensated throughout extension, and radioactive heat sources are ignored.
Before stretching

Aesthenosphere

After stretching

Rift

**FIGURE 2.13:** Schematic diagram of notation and fundamental precepts of the uniform stretching model. The crustal and lithospheric stretch factors are \( \beta_c \) and \( \beta_L \). For uniform stretching \( \beta_c = \beta_L \). (From Allen & Allen, 1990, Fig. 3.9).

The total subsidence in an extensional basin is composed of two components (Fig. 2.14):

- initial fault controlled subsidence which is dependent on the initial thickness of the crust and the amount of stretching \( \beta \);

- subsequent thermal subsidence caused by the cooling of the upwelled asthenosphere, and which is dependent on the amount of stretching only.

The subsidence resulting from initial fault controlled, mechanical stretching can be obtained as

\[
y_S = \frac{\gamma_L \left\{ \left( \rho_m - \rho_c \right) \frac{\gamma_C}{\gamma_L} \left( 1 - \alpha_v \frac{T_m}{2} \frac{\gamma_C}{\gamma_L} \right) - \frac{\alpha_v T_m \rho_m}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\beta} \right) \right\}}{\rho_m(1 - \alpha_v T_m) - \rho_s} 
\]  

(2.9)
where

- $\beta$ is the stretch factor
- $\gamma_L$ is the initial thickness of the lithosphere
- $\gamma_C$ is the initial thickness of the crust
- $\rho_m$ is the density of the mantle
- $\rho_C$ is the density of the crust
- $\rho_s$ is the average bulk density of sediment or water filling the rift
- $\alpha_v$ is the thermal expansion coefficient of both crust and mantle
- $T_m$ is the temperature of the asthenosphere

$\gamma_S$ is positive for subsidence, negative for uplift. Commonly used literature values can be used when the actual parameters are poorly known (Parsons & Sclater; Allen & Allen, 1990):

- $\gamma_L = 125$ km
- $\rho_m = 3330$ kg m$^{-3}$
- $\rho_C = 2800$ kg m$^{-3}$
- $\rho_w = 1000$ kg m$^{-3}$ (fresh water)
  - $= 1030$ kg m$^{-3}$ (marine water)
- $\alpha_v = 3.28 \times 10^{-5}$ °C$^{-1}$
- $T_m = 1333$ °C

Subsidence caused by thermal contraction is approximated by:

$$S(t) \sim E_0 \frac{\beta}{\pi} \sin \frac{\pi}{\beta} (1 - e^{-t/\tau}) \quad (2.10)$$

where $\tau$ is the thermal time constant of the lithosphere:

$$\tau = \frac{\gamma_L^2}{\pi^2 K} \quad (2.11)$$

where $K$ is the thermal diffusivity of the lithosphere ($= 10^4$ m$^2$s$^{-1}$). $E_0$ is given by

$$E_0 = \frac{4 \gamma_L \rho_m \alpha_v T_m}{\pi^2 (\rho_m - \rho_s)} \quad (2.12)$$

The rate of thermal subsidence decreases exponentially with time (Figure 2.14). Model subsidence curves for various values of the stretching factor $\beta$, using known values for crustal and lithospheric thickness ($\gamma_C$ and $\gamma_L$) can be compared with observed tectonic subsidence values through time (derived from geohistory analysis) to obtain an estimate of the amount of stretching that occurred during the initial rifting event.
2.3.2 Flexural modelling

The flexural response of the oceanic and continental lithosphere can be described mathematically in a mechanical model by a number of methods, again with varying degrees of assumptions and complexity. The wavelength and amplitude of the flexural deformation have important thermal and geological implications (Stem, 1990). Three morphological elements (load, basin and forebulge) are a constant theme in flexural modelling (Fig. 2.15).

\[ D \frac{d^4 \omega}{dx^4} + P \frac{d^2 \omega}{dx^2} + (\rho_m - \rho_s) g \omega = q_a(x) \]  

(2.13)

where
- \( D \) is the flexural rigidity of the plate
- \( P \) is the horizontal forces acting on the plate
- \( x \) is the horizontal scale
- \( \omega \) is the deflection of the plate
- \( q_a(x) \) is the applied vertical load on the plate
- \( \rho_m \) is the density of the mantle
- \( \rho_s \) is the bulk density of the basin sediment fill
- \( g \) is the gravitational acceleration constant (9.8 m s\(^{-2}\))

**FIGURE 2.14:** The subsidence change through time for various values of the stretch factor, \( \beta \), obtained from equation (2.10). The rate of thermal subsidence decrease exponentially with time. Curves shown refer to a lithosphere of initial thickness 125 km and an initial crustal thickness of 31.2 km (after Dewey, 1982, p.387; Allen & Allen, 1990, p.59).
Chapter 2

The flexural rigidity is a function of the elastic thickness and other rheological properties of the flexed lithosphere:

\[ D = \frac{Eh^3}{12(1 - \nu^2)} \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.14)

where

- \( E \) is Young's modulus (literature standard = 70 GPa)
- \( h \) is the equivalent elastic thickness of the lithosphere
- \( \nu \) is Poisson's ratio (literature standard = 0.25)

The elastic thickness is a numerical result derived from the various assumptions about the force system and mechanical properties of the plate, and is intrinsically related to the flexural rigidity of the plate (equation (2.14)).

Applying two boundary conditions to the general flexural equation (2.13):

1. Applied load is at the end of the plate, thus the applied vertical load, \( q_a(x) = 0 \), since the applied load is zero except at the location of the load \( x = 0 \).
2. Assuming no horizontal forces are applied, \( P = 0 \)

the general equation becomes

\[ D \frac{d^4\omega}{dx^4} + (\rho_m - \rho_s)g\omega = 0 \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.15)

**FIGURE 2.15:** Schematic diagram of the profile and notations of a flexed lithospheric plate (after Allen & Allen, 1990, Fig. 4.4).

Equation (2.15) is ideally limited to modelling the geometry of deflection in oceanic lithosphere. Ignoring the fundamental complexities of continental lithosphere and
assuming elastic behaviour, the equation can be loosely applied in continental flexural situations (Allen & Allen, 1990). Karner et al., (1983) also noted that the with simple thermo-elastic models there was an apparent consistency between oceanic and continental lithospheric rigidities, suggesting that both have similar mechanical properties.

The general solution for a fourth order differential is accomplished by breaking it into exponential, sine and cosine components. Constants are determined according to the boundary conditions (Turcotte & Schubert, 1982, pp.125–126) and $\alpha$ is the flexural parameter (Walcott, 1970) given by

$$\alpha = \left\{ \frac{4D}{g \left( \rho_m - \rho_s \right)} \right\}^{1/4} \quad (2.16)$$

Following solution of equation (2.15), a number of useful and simple expressions can be made about the geometry of the deflection. Assuming an unbroken lithosphere model and if the maximum deflection ($\omega_0$ at $x=0$) is known, the profile of the deflection obeys (Fig. 2.15)

$$\omega = \omega_0 e^{-x/\alpha} \left( \cos \frac{x}{\alpha} + \sin \frac{x}{\alpha} \right) \quad (2.17)$$

Alternatively the maximum deflection may also be calculated as

$$\omega_0 = \frac{V_0 \alpha^3}{8D} \quad (2.18)$$

where $V_0$ is the line emplaced end load at $x = 0$. The half width of the depression ($x_0$) can be found at the point where the deflection is zero ($\omega = 0$), equation (2.17) becomes:

$$x_0 = \frac{3\pi \alpha}{4} \quad (2.19)$$

The distance from the line load to the highest part of the forebulge can be found as:

$$x_b = \pi \alpha \quad (2.20)$$

If the half width of the depression and/or the distance of the forebulge are already known from other information (e.g. seismic sections), then equations (2.19) and/or (2.20), may be used to calculate the flexural parameter ($\alpha$), which in turn can be used in equation (2.16) to calculate the flexural rigidity ($D$) or even the line load ($V$) in equation (2.18).

The height of the forebulge above the datum of zero deflection is

$$\omega_b = -\omega_0 e^{-\pi} = -0.0432 \omega_0 \quad (2.21)$$
If the lithosphere under a line load is broken, such as may be the case in rift zones and obduction or subduction zones, then the boundary conditions need to be modified (Walcott, 1970). For the same load and elastic thickness, the broken plate model is modelled as a semi-infinite elastic plate, and predicts twice the maximum deflection of an unbroken plate model (Turcotte & Schubert, 1982). If the maximum deflection is known, the deflection profile for a broken plate is given by

\[ \omega = \omega_0 e^{-x/a} \cos x/a \]  

(2.22)

or alternatively the maximum deflection can be found as

\[ \omega_0 = \frac{V_0 \alpha^3}{4D} \]  

(2.23)

The half width of the basin is given by

\[ x_0 = \frac{\pi \alpha}{2} \]  

(2.24)

showing that the basin is narrower for the case of a broken plate. The distance to the crest of the forebulge is given by

\[ x_b = \frac{3 \pi \alpha}{4} \]  

(2.25)

showing that narrower forebulges are characteristic of broken plates. The deflection at the forebulge is given by

\[ \omega_b = \omega_0 e^{-3 \pi/4} \cos 3 \pi/4 = -0.0670 \omega_0 \]  

(2.26)

indicating a larger forebulge amplitude for a broken plate.

It is possible to match the theoretical deflection to the observed depth of basement in a region of continental lithospheric flexure such as the Appalachians (Fig. 2.15; Turcotte & Schubert, 1982; Allen & Allen, 1990) and the Gulf of Papua (Wang & Stein, 1992). By trial and error with the critical parameters (lithospheric/crustal thickness, stretching factor, half width of basin, height of forebulge, etc.) a ‘best-fit’ theoretical curve can be matched to the basement shape (Fig. 2.16). However it should be noted, that often due to lack of detailed geologic data the choice of parameters is neither unique or verifiable.

A number of significant interpretations can be made using knowledge of lithospheric flexure. The half-width (or wavelength) of the deflection caused by flexure is a function of the flexural rigidity (and/or equivalent elastic thickness), and is thought to reflect the
effective thermal age of the flexed lithosphere at time of loading (Karner et al., 1983). The effective thermal age is a measure of the time since the last major thermal or metamorphic event effecting the plate before the loading event. Figure 2.17 illustrates an empirical plot relating rigidity to effective thermal age produced by Karner et al. (1983).

**FIGURE 2.16:** Example of subsidence model comparison with observation. (a) Contours of basement (in km) in the Appalachian foreland basin, based on borehole and seismic reflection data. (b) Profile of basement depths from (a), heavy line is the theoretical deflection given by the general flexural equation with half width of basin = 122 km, and height of forebulge = 0.29 km. (Allen & Allen, 1990, Fig. 4.7)

**FIGURE 2.17:** A log-log plot of effective thermal age at time of loading (both oceanic and continental) versus the effective elastic rigidity (from Karner et al., 1983, Fig.1, note:10^7 dyne cm = 1 Nm)
The assumption that continental lithospheric rigidity is merely a function of the age of the lithosphere was updated by McNutt et al. (1988), who found a correlation between the rigidity (measured by the equivalent elastic thickness) and other parameters such as, age of flexed lithosphere at time of loading, radius of curvature of thrust belts, total length of the thrust segment and dip of the underthrust plate. The main conclusions of McNutt et al.'s (1988) study were:

• no evidence of viscoelastic relaxation (the application of viscoelasticity in foreland basins is further explained in Chapter 3).

• rigidities of some continental lithosphere sections are lower than their age would suggest. Possibly weakened by a decoupling of an elastic plate at some depth, allowing the upper and lower halves to flex independently. Such weakness may also reflect a plate with different rheologies at different depths.

• steep dip is responsible for weakening an otherwise strong plate, as it induces failure of significant sections of the plate by brittle and ductile mechanisms.

• stiff plates always form straight mountain belts, whereas weak plates can form either curved or straight mountain ranges.

• weaker, highly curved plates lack the lateral integrity to form long thrusts.

Another application of elastic flexure modelling is to look for a spatial relationship between major faults and the predicted location of maximum bending stress due to flexure (Stern, 1990). Watts & Talwani (1974) formulate the magnitude of the bending stress in relation to the deflection curve with

\[ S = \frac{Eh}{2} \cdot \frac{d^2\omega}{dx^2} \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.27)

where \( d^2\omega, dx^2 \) is the second derivative of the deflection curve given for a broken and unbroken plate by equations (2.17) and (2.22) respectively. The bending stresses are thus given by

\[ S = \frac{Eh}{2} \cdot \frac{2\omega_0}{\alpha^2} e^{-x/\alpha} (\sin x/\alpha - \cos x/\alpha) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.28)

for an unbroken plate, and

\[ S = \frac{Eh}{2} \cdot \frac{2\omega_0}{\alpha^2} e^{-x/\alpha} (\sin x/\alpha) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2.29)

for a broken plate.
If the implied bending stresses exceed the estimates for the maximum stress difference that the lithosphere can sustain (McNutt, 1980), this can be used to predict the location of major faulting systems. Stern (1990) uses such an approach in modelling the location of the Cape Egmont Fault Zone in relation to the bending stresses induced by flexing under the Taranaki Basin.
2.4 Seismic data handling and processing

2.4.0 Overview

There are a number of sources of information regarding the structure and evolution of a sedimentary basin:
  • seismic reflection sections
  • well-log data
  • outcrop observations
  • geophysical data (e.g. gravity surveys)

These sources have to be brought together and relevant information integrated to form a comprehensive interpretation of the sedimentary basin under study.

The most complex data handling and processing requirements are often those of the seismic reflection sections, as they frequently represent a vast amount of data. In this study the locations and interpretative data of the 1715 km of seismic reflection sections is 'captured', stored and processed by an engineering relational database management system: TECHBASE, running on an IBM-PC compatible computer. This system is exceptionally flexible, allowing the capture, loading, storage, manipulation, reporting and visualisation of data with a variety of TECHBASE application packages (TAPS) which provide specific capabilities required by various engineering disciplines (MINEsoft, 1991). In particular TECHBASE is used in this study to

  • store the location of the studied seismic reflection sections.
  • construct basemaps with various geographical & geological features.
  • store the two-way-travel-time (twt) to the interpreted horizon in each section.
  • convert the raw time data to depth using velocity information from well-logs.
  • construct and display palinspastic reconstructions along seismic sections, using the methodology of geohistory analysis given above.
  • model, contour and display a surface on the various horizons (either twt, implied depth or restored).

The database structures and calculation routines used in these tasks in the TECHBASE package are given in the Appendices of this volume.

2.4.1 TECHBASE routines

The routines used in the processing of the seismic information are summarised in a flow diagram form in Fig 2.18.
FIGURE 2.18: Flow diagram summarising the procedures undertaken in the processing of information from the seismic lines in this study.
2.4.1.1  Data capture

The first step in seismic section processing is to accurately locate the position of the sections in the study area. This is done using charts tracking the location of shot points of the seismic profiles and using the SDIGIT program in the TECHBASE package. Each seismic section is divided into linear segments to avoid too greater drift of shotpoint locations from a linear interpolation between the end points of the line. The end points of each segment are then entered into the database using a digitising tablet. All points are entered using the New Zealand National Grid system coordinates in metres, often converted from latitude and longitude coordinates of the track charts.

The seismic sections are interpreted and significant horizons traced in. These traces are then also digitised using the shotpoints and two way travel time as coordinates. Each line (or line segment) and horizon is uniquely identified. Given the line segment identifier, the database is able to convert shotpoint locations into metric grid coordinates using simple interpolation between the ‘known’ locations of the end points of the line segment.

2.4.1.2  Depth conversion

Before any further processing can occur the raw data for each horizon must be regularised so meaningful unit thickness can be calculated between horizons. The two way travel time to a horizon at each shotpoint is interpolated between known raw data points on either side. Regular points at either end of the seismic section are extrapolated from the slope of the two end points. The regularisation of the raw data is implemented by a small QBASIC routine operated by a TECHBASE project manager.

The conversion of two way travel time to depth in seismic sections is very complex. Here it has been simplified to using interval acoustic velocities of the layers between the identified horizons (Fig 2.19) and is implemented within the TECHBASE database by the use of calculated fields. The interval acoustic velocities are calculated from well-log information and are a function of lithology and porosity. Therefore, velocities tend to increase with depth. The two way travel time for the unit above a particular horizon is calculated and halved to get the interval time for that unit. The interval time is multiplied by the interval velocity of that unit to get the unit thickness in metres. The sum of the thicknesses of all overlying units gives the depth to a horizon.
FIGURE 2.19: Principles of simple depth conversion of horizons and unit seismic data measured in two way travel time. Note the interval time is half that of that recorded on a section, as the recorded data is the time it takes for a seismic wave to pass through the unit twice. Only the interval single way travel time is needed.

2.4.1.3 Backstripping and palinspastic reconstruction

It is possible to treat each shot point location as a separate sedimentary column and to undertake a backstripping procedure using the principles of geohistory analysis (in particular backstripping) given above. When recombined, these separate columns in effect provide a two dimensional 'reconstruction' (or restoration) of the depth converted seismic section at particular times. Corrections for paleodepth across a section are more difficult to implement, and in this study are simulated by interpolating paleodepth from two depths given at each end. Again, the numerical processing is carried out by a QBASIC routine using the required data extracted from the TECHBASE database.

It is carefully noted that the above process is a gross simplification, ignoring the often detailed methodologies of cross section restoration and balancing (e.g. Dahlstrom, 1969; Hossack, 1979; De Paor, 1988; Marshak & Woodward, 1988; Rowan & Kligfield, 1989; Woodward et al., 1989; Nunns, 1991). Although the area (and hence volume) are conserved during the two dimensional backstripping, the length of horizons between shot points is not. However, provided that a horizon has a dip of less than 25° this modification of length is within a ±10% error range. Faults also pose problems as they are fundamental
indicators of length reduction (reverse faults) or increase (normal faults). The study area largely consists of low angle to sub horizontal deposits with little or no faulting in the offshore region, with no significant signs of deformation within the units. Thus it is considered that further detailed processing to create balanced restored cross sections is not required.

The visualisation of this final product and process steps (e.g. depth converted seismic section) is accomplished by the POSTER application of TECHBASE.

**FIGURE 2.20:** The TECHBASE modelling grid used in the study of South Westland. Note position of sections extracted for flexural analysis in Chapter 5 and geographic locations discussed in text.

### 2.4.1.4 Two dimensional modelling

Once the data from the individual seismic lines has been entered, it can be modelled across a two dimensional grid to obtain the spatial distribution of a particular variable. In the South Westland database a grid comprising of 2 km square 'cells' was set up. The
dimensions of the grid is 256 km SW-NE by 128 km SW-NE, and is tilted to an azimuth of 57° to lie roughly parallel to the Alpine Fault (Fig. 2.20). The origin of the grid is located at NZMS coordinates 2150000E, 5650000N. The dimensions of the grid were dictated by the algorithms used in the MINQ surface modelling program used to determine the various surfaces mapped in this study. The values of each cell for a particular variable (e.g. basement depth) can be calculated from the inputted seismic data and displayed using contouring and presentation programs (GRIDCONT and POSTER). The entire grid can also be backstripped to obtain tectonic subsidence and decompacted thicknesses by assuming that each cell will behave as an exploration well section.
Chapter 3

Characteristics of Foreland Basins
3.0 Introduction

Foreland basins form as a direct result of the emplacement of a thrust load on a continental margin due to convergent tectonics. Loading causes the lithosphere to flex and create an asymmetric basin, bounded on the cratonic side by a peripheral bulge, with the deepest part of the basin, the proximal foredeep, adjacent to the thrust mass (Fig 3.1; Dickinson, 1974; Beaumont, 1981; Tankard, 1986; Pigram et al., 1989). Foreland basin size is determined by the flexural response of the lithosphere to the loading event and is a function of its rheology and the size of the imposed thrust mass (Stockmal et al., 1986). On a large scale, basin development is controlled principally by the propagation rate of the thrust mass onto the foreland craton which also controls the migration of the peripheral forebulge in front of the thrust front (Tankard, 1986; Sinclair et al., 1991). On a more localised scale stratigraphy is dominantly controlled by a variety of tectonic features (e.g. uplifted thrust fronts and transverse faults) rather than by eustacy as in other sedimentary basin settings (Allen et al., 1986; Swift et al., 1987). Foreland basin deposition is typically characterized by initial accumulation of deep-marine sediments in an early underfilled phase and is followed by the accumulation of shallow-marine to subaerial sediments in a steady-state or overfilled phase (Covey, 1986; Allen & Allen, 1990).

The term 'foreland basin' was formally introduced by Dickinson (1974a), who also proposed two genetic classes (Beaumont, 1981; Allen et al., 1986):

1. **Peripheral** foreland basins such as the Indo–Gangetic basin, situated against the outer arc of the orogen during continent–continent collision (Fig. 3.1a), and;

2. **Retroarc** foreland basins such as the late Mesozoic–Cenozoic Rocky Mountain basins situated behind a magmatic arc and linked with subduction of the oceanic lithosphere (Fig. 3.1b).

Foreland basins, both modern and ancient, are a common feature around the world. As foreland basins are formed as the result of fold-and-thrust orogenesis, a distribution of such fold-and-thrust belts will generally also display the distribution of foreland basins present on the overthrust craton (Fig 3.2; Rodgers, 1990; 1991).

The classical foreland basin is the North Alpine Foreland Basin (NAFB) of Western Europe. Although there is some debate over the use of the terms 'Molasse' and 'Flysch' to describe sediments in this and other similar basins (Allen et al., 1986), the NAFB remains the classical sedimentological type section for foreland basins. More recently in North America, the Palaeozoic Appalachian foreland basin (Tankard, 1986) and Mesozoic/Cenozoic basins associated with the formation of the Rockie Mountains (e.g.
Beaumont, 1981; Cross, 1986; Cant & Stockmal, 1989) have been intensively investigated, particularly in the use of models to simulate the development of these basins (e.g. Stockmal et al., 1986).

As stated by Molnar & Lyon-Caen (1988) the association in both space and time of foredeep basins with neighbouring ranges is inescapable and virtually ensures an origin that couples them. Not only are foreland basins valuable windows into the development of collisional orogens, but many of the major oil fields are found in foreland basin settings, e.g. the Persian Gulf basins (Dickinson, 1974b), the oil fields of the eastern and southeastern United States (Oliver, 1986) and smaller fields such as Taranaki Basin, New Zealand (Stern & Davey, 1990).
FIGURE 3.2: Generalised world-wide distribution of foreland basins. Red indicates Mesozoic/Cenozoic structures; blue indicates Paleozoic structures. European foreland basins: ① Betic; ② Ebro; ③ Aquitaine; ④ North Alpine; ⑤ Appenninic basins; ⑥ Carpathian. (Modified from Rodgers, 1991)
This chapter will outline the lithospheric mechanics, structural controls and deposition styles of foreland basins. An extensive review of current knowledge about foreland basins is included with numerous case studies and examples.

3.1 Geophysical characteristics

3.1.1 Lithospheric behaviour

There has been extensive investigation of the rheological behaviour of the lithosphere supporting a variety of sedimentary basins (e.g. Watts, Karner & Steckler, 1982). Foreland basins were often thought too complex for study in this regard, but recent investigations in this field have contributed to the overall knowledge of lithospheric behaviour.

The supporting lithosphere of a foreland basin can be modelled as a thin, elastic or viscoelastic plate (Fowler, 1990, p.382). In an elastic model the flexural response is a simple function of the emplaced load and rigidity of the lithosphere (Fig. 3.3a). In comparison, a viscoelastic lithosphere also has a similar initial flexure, but the lithosphere relaxes with time (Fig. 3.3b). Both models have been used to explain the features of some foreland basins. For instance, Jordan (1981) used an elastic lithosphere to model the foreland basin in the Rockies, western U.S.A., while Beaumont (1981) used a viscoelastic lithosphere to account for the features of the Alberta basin, Canada.

Kusznir & Karner (1985) emphasised the importance of lithospheric composition and thermal structure in determining its response to loading. An important factor is the thickness of the plate being flexed because this will control the large scale geometry of the foreland basin formed. Generally the characteristic flexural wavelength \( \lambda \) is proportional to the \( 3/4 \) power of the thickness of the plate. Thin plates will give rise to narrow, but deep foredeep basins and thick plates will support a wide, but shallow basin (Molnar & Lyon-Caen, 1988).

The rheological characteristics of the lithosphere are determined by the geological events that occur before collision and flexure. Commonly, foreland basins are superimposed on previously thinned continental margins. There are numerous examples and documentation for overthrust passive margins in such diverse locations as the Carboniferous Arkoma basin, south-central U.S.A. (Houseknecht, 1986); the evolution of the Helvetic passive margin of the Alpine Orogen, central Europe (Homewood, Allen & Williams, 1986; Pfiffner, 1986); the deposition of the western Taiwan foreland over the mainland China passive margin (Covey, 1986); and the Neogene evolution of the New Guinea foreland basin over the northern continental margin of Australia (Pigram et al.,
FIGURE 3.3: (a): Cross sections of sedimentary basins formed on an elastic lithosphere due to a 1 km high, 50 km wide two-dimensional load. Load and sediment density are $2.4 \times 10^3$ kg m$^{-3}$. The three curves show the difference in basin cross sections for lithosphere with flexural rigidity $D$, of $10^{24}$, $10^{25}$ and $10^{26}$ Nm. (From Beaumont, 1981; Fowler, 1990) (b): Deformation of the surface of a viscoelastic lithosphere by a surface load. The initial deformation is the same for an elastic lithosphere (a). However with time the viscoelastic lithosphere allows the stress to relax; so the deformation evolves to curves 2 and 3. If the load is left in place, the final stage would be local isostatic equilibrium. (From Fowler, 1990)

Foreland basins can also develop over lithosphere other than passive margins. Biddle, Uliana et al. (1986) and Wilson (1991) describe the evolution of a back-arc setting to a foreland basin in the Paleozoic Magallanes basin in southern South America. From this it can be seen that foreland basins vary greatly in the nature of the supporting lithosphere which is a result of previous geological events. Thus care needs to be taken in using broad classifications for describing the variety of foreland basins that occur.

3.1.2 Gravity anomalies

Bouguer anomalies over orogenic belts and associated foreland basins typically show a major gravity 'low' generally displaced towards the foreland from the greatest
topographic relief (Fig 3.4). In some cases an associated gravity 'high' displaced toward
the overriding plate is also seen (Karner & Watts, 1983; Allen et al., 1986). This gravity
field can be interpreted in terms of lithospheric flexure with the basin sediment mass
contributing to the negative Bouguer anomaly (Karner & Watts, 1983).

Often theoretical calculations have shown a discrepancy between the dimensions of the
foreland basin and the topographic loads. Karner and Watts (1983) postulated the
existence of hidden or subsurface loads, such as density variations in the lithosphere, as an
extra driving force for foreland flexure and subsidence. Stockmal et al. (1986) felt that if
the foreland plate had previously been extended (as is often the case with overthrusted
passive margins) and deep bathymetric conditions existed before collision, then the
development of thick overthrust wedges would make the existence of subsurface hidden
loads unnecessary.

FIGURE 3.4: Gravity profiles across Himalayas, Appalachians and Western Alps, after
Karner & Watts (1983). The Alps and Appalachians both show a large asymmetrical negative
Bouguer anomaly coupled with a symmetrical positive Bouguer anomaly. The Himalayas lack
the gravity 'high'. (From Allen et al., 1986)
3.2 Structural Control and Stratigraphy

3.2.1 Large scale geometry

On a large scale, foreland basin stratigraphy typically consists of wedge shaped units, thick near the thrust front and pinching out onto the foreland craton. This is a function of increasing subsidence toward the orogenic load. As the orogenic load is inherently mobile, stratigraphic units will tend to be laterally translated ahead of the thrust front. This causes the migration of depocentres and 'feather-edges', producing a characteristic onlap pattern of younger stratigraphic units onto the foreland (Fig 3.5).

Generally there appears to be a strong relationship between load mobility and depocentre migration in foreland basins. In the Molasse basin of western Switzerland, depocentres and pinch-outs of stratigraphic units migrated onto the European craton during the Oligocene-Miocene, corresponding to the main phase of the Alpine orogenesis. Detailed palinspastic restorations allowed the fault tip propagation and shortening rates to be estimated, illustrating a close correspondence between rates of depocentre and pinch-out migration and thrust-related shortening (Homewood, Allen and Williams, 1986).

The flexural or peripheral forebulge in front of the orogenic load migrates coevally with thrust front propagation. The passage of the peripheral forebulge can have a significant stratigraphic effect on basin sediments, as illustrated in a number of examples. Tankard (1986) illustrates the unconformities that formed in the Carboniferous Appalachian foreland basin due to forebulge migration. Sinclair et al. (1991) use a detailed elastic lithospheric model to demonstrate that formation of the prominent Burdigalian (22 Ma)
unconformity in the sediments of the North Alpine Foreland Basin of eastern Switzerland formed as a result of forebulge migration.

The exact details of the evolution of foreland basin stratigraphy with regard to depocentre and pinch-out migration are again dependent on lithospheric behaviour, and in particular whether the foreland plate acts in an elastic or viscoelastic manner. As the orogenic belt moves cratonward, it may be expected that it will load progressively stronger elastic lithosphere (i.e. lithosphere with decreasing passive margin stretching effects). This may result in the foreland basin becoming shallower and wider as the pinch-out migration rate exceeds the thrust-front propagation rate. Conversely, the pinch-out migration rate may slow relative to the mountain front, or the forebulge retreats toward the thrust front, resulting in a narrower basin. Tankard (1986) interprets such an offlapping pattern as a result of stress relaxation in a viscoelastic lithosphere (see Fig 3.3b). Other authors, for example Flemings & Jordan (1989) and Sinclair et al. (1991), have explained how such an effect can be produced by the thickening of the adjacent orogenic wedge loading an elastic plate. In particular Sinclair et al. (1991) used a diffusion equation to model the thrusting, erosion and subsequent sediment loading of the North Alpine foreland basin and concluded that all movement of the forebulge could be simulated by varying the rate of thrust belt propagation and wedge thickening. It was not even necessary to vary the flexural rigidity of the European lithosphere.

Swift et al. (1987) studied the depositional sequences of the Upper Cretaceous Mesaverde Group in Utah and developed a sequence architecture model of shelf sediment progradation in a foreland basin that formed in conjunction with the Late Cretaceous Sevier Orogeny in the western U.S.A. (see Fig 3.6). Although this model may only apply in detail to the area studied, it does clearly illustrate the differences between foreland basin sequences and those of passive margins (Table 3.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive Margins (Vail Model)</th>
<th>Foreland Basins (Swift Model)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dominant Variable Assumed by Investigators</td>
<td>Eustacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone of Most Rapid Shelf Subsidence</td>
<td>Seaward margin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bounding Surfaces</td>
<td>Subaerial erosional surface, transgressive surface, downlap surface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence Components</td>
<td>Early regressive deposits (low stand delta), Estuarine valley fills, transgressive (onlapping) deposits, late regressive (downlapping) deposits</td>
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</tbody>
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**TABLE 3.1:** Comparison of Depositional sequences between Passive Margins and foreland basins. (From Swift et al., 1987)
3.2.2 Foreland basin structures

As the foreland basin evolves and the thrust load moves further onto the craton, it is inevitable that the sediments of the foredeep itself will become involved in deformation. The extent of this deformation is controlled by a number of factors such as thrust tip propagation, presence of subsurface easy-slip horizons underlying the basin, and the angle of convergence.

![Diagram of Passive Margin Model and Foreland Basin Model](image)

**FIG 3.6:** Comparison of sequence architecture on passive margins with sequence architecture in the Cretaceous Western interior. (a) Passive margin model based on the Vail seismic sequence stratigraphy models. (b) Foreland Basin model based on the Utah study area. (From Swift et al., 1987)
From these, a variety of foreland basin structural styles may develop, with two particular common styles (Allen et al., 1986). A basin actively accumulating sediments in front of the thrust system can be described as a toe-trough or foredeep sensu stricto (Fig. 3.7a).

Where deformation has progressed under the basin so that it rests on moving thrust sheets it is termed a thrust-sheet-top or piggy-back basin (Ori & Friend, 1984) (Fig 3.7d). Such an example of the evolution of a thrust-top basin from a foredeep trough can be seen in the Hellenide thrust front of Western Greece (Clews, 1989). Homewood et al. (1986) describe the Molasse basin of Switzerland as containing both styles; the eastern section of the basin shows depocentre migration in front of the thrust belt. In comparison the western and central sections of the basin, a thick sequence of Triassic salt in the subsurface has made the décollement of the strata underlying the basin possible with the subsequent formation of a piggy-back basin. The two styles of basin may even be coupled with synchronised depositional events, such as in the Apenninic chain (Lucchi, 1986) where foredeep basins ahead of the thrust front are coupled with piggy-back basins on top of the thrust sheets. Lucchi (1986) also attempts to schematize the variety of foreland geometries (Fig 3.7).

FIGURE 3.7: Systematic diagrams illustrating different foredeep profiles as suggested by seismic records. (From Lucchi, 1986)
3.2.3 Tectonic controls

Tectonism is a major factor in sediment dispersal in any sedimentary basin. Allen et al. (1986) summarise the tectonic sedimentation controls and resultant depositional patterns found in foreland basins:

- uplifted thrust fronts;
- transverse faults, and;
- inversion of previous structures.

Uplifted thrust fronts may act as barriers to basinward sediment transport rather than provide sediment sources. This is clearly seen in the southern Pyrenees where large fluvial systems developed at structural lows in the uplifted basin margin, and smaller alluvial fans formed alongside the higher parts of the thrust front (Hirst & Nichols, 1986; Nichols, 1989; Zoetemeijer et al., 1990). In a subaqueous environment, the steepening of submarine slopes caused by the shortening of the orogenic wedge may encourage the inception of slides, slumps and other gravity flows (Allen et al., 1986). The tectonic mechanisms of uplift within the orogenic belt have also been studied as a contributing factor in the provenance of sediments, particularly distinguishable coarser deposits. Schmitt & Steidtmann (1990) discussed the exhumation and erosion of older units in interior ramp-supported uplifts. In this structure, an older, inactive thrust sheet is part of the upper plate of a younger, active thrust and is transported over a ramp in the younger thrust, thus uplifting it and establishing it as a sediment source area of particularly coarse 'syntectonic' detritus. Further details of the provenance of foreland basin sediments will be discussed below.

Transverse faults cutting across the thrust system and/or foreland basin can have a noted effect on localised sediment deposition. Striking obliquely to the thrust faults, a transverse fault may form a sediment conduit into the foreland basin. Massari, Grandesso et al. (1986) show a good example in the Venetian basin, north Italy (Fig 3.8) where a structural depression through a rising thrust sheet is created by transtensile motion on transverse faults. This then acted as a local connection between the piggy-back basin behind the thrust front and its associated foredeep in front. The evolution of the Venetian basin is also notable for the oblique convergence of the crustal blocks involved. It is regarded that the oblique convergence was accommodated by wrenching along a set of conjugate strike-slip faults (Massari et al., 1986, p.163)—thus forming the structures that act as sediment conduits.

Within the foreland basin itself, transverse faults may be responsible for the prominent localised variations of sediment thicknesses within the basin. Lucchi (1986) and
Homewood et al. (1986) both discuss the influence of these features in controlling sediment distribution in the Appeninic and Molasse foreland basins respectively. DeCelles (1986) describes the diversity of sedimentological and stratigraphic features that have formed as a result of the 'tectonic partitioning' by intra-foreland structures and plutonism in the Lower Cretaceous Kootenai Formation of the Sevier foreland basin in southwestern Montana. A similar theme of tectonic partitioning being a factor in sediment (particularly sand) deposition in a non-marine foredeep is also discussed for the Amazonian foreland basin, South America (DeCelles & Hertel, 1989).

FIGURE 3.8: Sedimentary model for the Vittorio Venato area, Venetian Basin, north Italy in Tortonian (11.2–6.5 Ma) and Messinian time (6.5–5.3 Ma). This model illustrates the local importance of transverse fault-controlled depressions acting as sediment conduits, in this example linking a piggy-back basin and foredeep basin. The structural depression formed as a result of transtensive movement along a conjugate couple of transverse faults. Subsequent Messinian deformation resulted in the gradual occlusion of this preferential pathway (From Massari et al., 1986).

The inversion or rejuvenation of pre-existing extensional faults in a compressional foreland basin setting is as yet a poorly documented field. One difficulty is determining the boundary between 'typical' inversion tectonics and the 'fold-and-thrust' tectonics within an orogenic belt (de Graciansky et al., 1989, p.101). The mild inversion of the Valensole foreland 'molasse' basin on the margin of the Western Alps, France, shows inverted structures that compare well with those observed in 'traditional' north European inverted basins, such as in the North Sea (de Graciansky et al., 1989). Butler (1989) discusses the influence of pre-existing extensional basin structure on thrust system evolution in the Western Alps, Europe. He draws the conclusion that although pre-existing normal faults may be reactivated as reverse thrust faults, not all reverse thrust faults are necessarily
reactivated normal faults. The nature of pre-existing basin structures may strongly influence the style of thrust deformation, e.g. the ease of cover/basement detachment and thrust front steepness, and thus indirectly affect the evolution of the foreland basin. Butler also briefly comments on the possibility of normal fault reactivation in response to uplift on the 'outer flexural high' or forebulge. This is another example of how the pre-existing structure of the supporting lithosphere will have a marked influence on the nature of lithospheric flexure.

3.3 Sedimentology

In an idealised foreland basin sequence, the oldest deposits are commonly dominated by fine-grained, often turbiditic sediments which were deposited over the cratonic passive margin classical 'miogeosyncline' sediments. As the thrust load encroaches upon the craton and the foreland basin evolves, the sediments tend to become shallow-water or continental coarser classical 'Molasse' sediments.

Allen & Allen (1990) give a lucid illustration of a typical foreland basin megasequence from the North Alpine Foreland Basin (NAFB):

© Upper Freshwater Molasse, the final choking of the NAFB by coarse continental clastics.

© Upper Marine Molasse, representing shallow marine and estuarine depositional systems.

© Lower Freshwater Molasse, the first fluviatile and lacustrine deposits of NAFB.

© Lower Marine Molasse, the transition from shelf to shoreline sedimentation.

© North Helvetic units representing turbiditic depositional systems shed from the active orogenic wedge.

© Nummulitic limestones and Globigerina shales representing foreland drowning.

© Basal unconformity due to regional uplift of the foreland lithosphere.

In summary, this stratigraphic section is comprised of a basal foreland collapse sequence (©), followed by two shallowing-upwards megasequences (©–© and ©–®). Cant & Stockmal (1989) provide a useful summary of an idealised foreland basin sequence using the Alberta Basin as a model in terms with terrane accretion that has wide application in the interpretation of other foreland basin megasequences (Fig 3.9). In this model as the allochthonous overthrust wedge is loaded upon the earlier passive margin a forebulge migrates ahead of the thrust front. As the predominantly shallow-water passive margin or miogeosynclinal sediments are uplifted over this bulge a basal unconformity is cut (Fig. 3.9a, NAFB stratigraphic unit ©). The topography created by the overthrust wedge is
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largely submarine at this stage due to the depth of water over the continental slope and the downwarping of the supporting and possibly previously weakened lithosphere. Combined with the flexural bulge having only a low amplitude of usually less than 350 m, little sediment is shed into the rapidly deepening foreland basin. Thus deep-water conditions prevail as in Fig 3.9b. In the classical Alpine foredeep, this corresponds to the Flysch, the syndeformational turbidite facies (NAFB stratigraphic units 2–3). As the collision continues, accretion and tectonic thickening of the overthrust wedge creates significant topography above sea level, resulting in an increased sedimentation rate and filling the foredeep to sea level and above (Fig 3.9c).

FIG. 3.9: Idealized model of terrane accretion and adjacent foreland basin development. Figure is schematic and not to scale. Forebulge amplitude greatly exaggerated for clarity. (a) Initial accretion onto the continental slope cause depression of the passive margin and migration of a flexural bulge. As passive margin sediments are uplifted across this bulge a basal unconformity is cut. Little sediment is shed into the basin due to low elevation of possible source areas. (b) Low sedimentation rates combined with rapid flexural subsidence results in early deep-water conditions in the basin. (c) Continued thrusting causes topographic uplift and subsequent high rates of sedimentation and the foredeep fills to or above sea level with shallow-water molasse. (d) With cessation of thrusting, erosion across the orogen reduces the lithospheric load and the basin 'rebounds' with epeirogenic uplift causing an upper regional unconformity. (From Cant & Stockmal, 1989)
This stage corresponds to the classical Molasse, the syn- to post-deformational shallow-marine to non-marine sediment facies (NAFB stratigraphic units ©–® and again at ®–®). The final stage in the idealised terrane accretion/foreland basin evolution is shown in Fig. 3.9d. As convergence ceases, the thrusting and loading of the foreland plate also ceases. In the viscoelastic model of the lithosphere, the peripheral bulge retreats as bending stresses relax. The orogenic belt is eroded and the load diminishes, resulting in a regional uplift or 'rebound'. This causes the formation of a regional unconformity at the top of the foredeep megasequence.

The deep to shallow progression of foredeep sediments can also be described in terms of amount of basin fill. The early deep-marine dominated phase may also be described as the underfilled stage of the foreland basin. As a mountain belt grows, it can reach a steady state where rapid erosion counterbalances the uplift and the basin is overfilled by detritus. Covey (1986) described such an evolution in the Plio–Pliocene western Taiwan foreland basin, and also demonstrated excess sediment may be removed by fluvial and/or shallow marine processes to maintain a steady-state basin profile. In some cases prograding sediments may even overwhelm the peripheral bulge as in the Appalachians (Tankard, 1986; Allen & Allen, 1990, p.155) or in the Sevier foreland basin where sediment input outran the creation of accommodation space in the subsiding basin (Swift et al., 1987).

As well as having significant stratigraphic effects the migration and possible retreat of the peripheral forebulge can also be seen in sedimentological evidence. One Paleozoic example is in the Oslo region of Norway, here a slowly migrating peripheral bulge in front of an early Silurian foreland basin was a major control, along with eustatic sea-level changes, on the bathymetry of deposited sediments and associated palaeocommunities (Baarli, 1990). In the Carboniferous Appalachians, the initial migration of the forebulge had sufficient amplitude to allow the subaerial formation of karst features in the uplifted passive margin sediments (Tankard, 1986; Allen & Allen, 1990).

Retroarc foreland basins such as the western North American foreland basins and a series of basins east of the Andes (e.g. the Magallanes basin of southern Argentina) do not fundamentally differ from the peripheral foreland basins. Their primary distinguishing characteristic is that have often evolved from areas of back-arc spreading, and the sediment fill composition reflects the large amounts of plutonic and volcanic rocks in the loading orogenic belt (Allen & Allen, 1990, p.250).
3.4 Subsidence History

The subsidence histories of foreland basins is not as well documented as those of other sedimentary basins where typically initial rapid fault-controlled subsidence is followed by gradually decreasing subsidence due to thermal cooling and sediment loading. Jordan (1981) studied the Idaho–Wyoming foreland basin and Beaumont (1981) modelled the Alberta foreland basin, Canada. Kominz & Bond (1986) analysed the Denver, Green River and Alberta basins to develop a thermal model of foreland basin subsidence.

The results from these and other studies indicate that foreland basins have some distinct subsidence characteristics as well as similarities with other sedimentary basins styles. Kominz & Bond (1986) concluded that the apparent viscosity of the lithosphere and thus magnitude of subsidence diminishes with distance from the load (the orogen). They also summarized the relatively gradual onset followed by increasing foreland basin subsidence giving a convex-up accelerating subsidence curve (Fig. 3.10a). This feature was further illustrated by Cross (1986) for the Hoback Basin of Montana (Fig. 3.10b). However, the rapid subsidence of the central Utah portion of the Sevier fold and thrust belt (Fig. 3.10c; Cross, 1986) indicates that this is not a universal feature of foreland basin subsidence.

Allen et al. (1986) compared the decompacted subsidence curves from the north Alpine Molasse basins with extensional fault-controlled subsidence curves from the North Sea. They found that there was an order of magnitude difference in subsidence rates between the two styles of basin formation. Further analysis suggested that some foreland basins may be confused with the initial extensional subsidence of highly attenuated continental lithosphere, but not with the longer period of thermal contraction that follows in an extensional regime.

3.5 Petrography

Sandstone framework mineralogy primarily reflects tectonic setting and provenance terranes (Schwab, 1986). In this context, numerous studies have been done to identify and petrographically describe the sedimentological suites of foreland basins in comparison to similar data in other depositional settings (e.g. Dickinson & Suczek, 1979; Dickinson et al., 1983). Consolidating on previous studies, Schwab (1986) discussed four main aspects of the sedimentary 'signatures' of foreland basin assemblages:

- The compositional distinctiveness of sand-sized detritus;
- Provenance mineral suite variations;
- Bulk chemical composition, and;
- Sediment accumulation rate.
FIGURE 3.10: Tectonic subsidence curves from three foreland basins of North America. (a) Alberta Basin (From Kominz & Bond, 1986); (b) Hoback Basin and; (c) Utah (From Cross, 1986)

Source terranes can be grouped into three fundamental provenance types of *Continental block*, *Magmatic arc* and *Recycled orogen* (Fig 3.8; Dickinson & Suczek, 1979). Foreland basin sand detritus almost invariably fall within the Recycled orogen provenance with
sediment sources mainly uplifted and deformed sedimentary and metasedimentary rocks. Due to the variety of convergent tectonic settings, the Recycled orogen provenance can be further divided into a variety of sediment sources. These variations include (Dickinson, 1984, in Schwab, 1986):

(I) **Backarc thrustbelt sources** — the classical provenance for foreland basins — composed predominantly of continental sedimentary and metasedimentary strata located immediately adjacent to the overridden foreland basin. These sands exhibit low feldspar and volcanic rock fragment percentages while being richer in quartz and sedimentary rock fragments.

(II) **Uplifted supracrustal sources** provide sand that varies in composition reflecting the nature of the source, e.g. chert-rich subduction complexes floored by oceanic crust.

(III) **Intercontinental collision orogens** or 'suture belts' are typically composed of uplifted and juxtaposed continental and oceanic sediments that are commonly drained by longitudinal dispersal systems that deposit sediments into remnant ocean basins. Some sediments may also be shed into flanking peripheral foreland basins.

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**FIGURE 3.11:** Triangular QFL (Quartz, Feldspar, Lithics) showing the three main provenance area fields (From Dickinson & Suzcek, 1979)
The provenance analysis of sands from rivers in the eastern Peruvian and Bolivian portions of the Amazonian Foreland Basin support the Recycled Orogen provenance model of Dickinson & Suzcek (1979) (DeCelles & Hertel, 1989)

Generally it can be seen that although the mineralogy framework of foreland basin sediments falls within the broad grouping of Recycled orogen, more detailed information reveals a great variety of sedimentary provenance within orogens. Schwab (1986) examined the detrital sandstone modes of a variety of foreland basins (Appalachian, Western Wyoming and French/Italian Alps) to broadly describe the provenance evolution of those basins. Such an analysis indicates a crude shift from initial continental block sources to recycled orogen sources. Attempts to refine this mineralogy technique to reveal greater details of provenance variations in the sedimentary record have failed to accurately indicate such events (Schwab, 1986).

Schwab (1986) briefly comments on the bulk chemistry of foreland basins as curiously most closely resembling the bulk chemistry of ancient eugeosynclines with moderately high amounts of SiO2. Finally, the 'average' sediment accumulation rate calculated from a number of sampled foreland basins reveals that those rates were among the highest for all sedimentary basin types at 0.186 m/1000 yr with foredeep flysch sedimentation rates reaching up to 0.927 m/1000 yr. (Schwab, 1986).

3.6 Discussion

Foreland basins are a distinctive sedimentary basin type, formed as a flexural response of a continental lithospheric plate to an overthrust emplaced load. The details of the flexural response is dependant on the thickness, rheology and thermal composition of the lithosphere. These characteristics are in turn determined by geological events that occurred prior to the collisional event. Foreland basins occur both in peripheral and retro-arc settings (Fig 3.1). Geophysically, foreland basins may have a distinctive gravity signature with a displaced gravity 'low' toward the foreland (Fig 3.4).

On a large scale the geometry of a foreland basin is an elongate wedge-shaped basin with the sequences thickest nearest the thrust front thinning out onto the peripheral bulge on the foreland. The stratigraphy of foreland basins is dominated by the mobility and size of the orogenic load. The initial loading of the foreland results in the outward migration of the peripheral bulge which cuts a prominent unconformity in the pre-existing passive margin or miogeosynclinal sediments. The initial rapid subsidence of the foredeep causes an underfilled phase of deep-marine sediments in the basin, typically turbiditic 'Flysch' deposits. As the thrust load moves cratonward and thickens the sediments progress
upward to shallow marine or even subaerial environments as the basin reaches an overfilled or steady state with 'Molasse' deposits (Fig 3.9)

Within the foreland basin structures are dominated by tectonism with such features as uplift thrust fronts and transverse faults controlling localised deposition (e.g. Fig 3.8). Overall deformation of the basin and the resulting distribution of depocentres is a function of thrust tip propagation rates, presence of easy-slip subsurface horizons and angle of convergence. The formation of piggy-back or thrust top basins above thrust sheets is a notable deformation phenomena in foreland basins (Fig 3.7).

The subsidence histories of foreland basins are distinctive for rapid, accelerating exponential growth curves that are only comparable to subsidence in highly attenuated rift situations.

The provenance studies of foreland basin sediments provide a useful, but broad guide to the origin and evolution of the basin sediment fill. Due to their tectonic setting, the sediments of foreland basins generally fall within the Recycled Orogen provenance of Dickinson & Suzcek (1979). Further analysis has revealed that sediment accumulation rates within foreland basins are among the highest of all sedimentary basin types.

Finally, the evidence from previous studies in South Westland resembles some of the stratigraphic and sedimentological characteristics of foreland basins discussed above, strongly suggesting the existence of a retro-arc foreland basin with an inverted southeastern margin in southern Westland.
Chapter 4

Application and Observations of Basin Analysis in South Westland
4.0 Introduction

The basin analysis techniques described in Chapter 2 are applied to the South Westland study area in this chapter. A number of data sources are available for the basin analysis procedures. Predominant among these is 1715 km of seismic reflection profiles. However the accurate interpretation of these lines is dependent upon information from the three petroleum exploration wells in the area, and in particular the more recent offshore well at Mikonui-1, which has been analysed in greater detail than the earlier onshore wells at Harihari-1 and Waiho-1.

This chapter will first look at the stratigraphy of the exploration wells and analyse this information through geohistory analysis. A link will then be made between the well data and seismic data with the use of a synthetic seismogram in Mikonui-1. Observations from the seismic data will be described in detail relating to mapped seismic horizons, faults and other features seen. Finally data from the exploration wells and seismic sections will be examined in a geodynamic modelling framework.

4.1 Well stratigraphy

4.1.1 Well locations

Three petroleum exploration wells have been drilled in the study area to follow up promising leads in seismic, geophysical and geological data. The location of these wells and other details are illustrated and listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Petroleum Report</th>
<th>NZMS Grid Coords.</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Elevation</th>
<th>Total Depth</th>
<th>Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harihari-1</td>
<td>New Zealand Petroleum Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>PR 528</td>
<td>2303985E, 5785272N</td>
<td>43° 06' 45.6&quot; S</td>
<td>170° 28' 19.3&quot; E</td>
<td>31 m</td>
<td>2528 m</td>
<td>Dry and abandoned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiho-1</td>
<td>New Zealand Petroleum Co. Ltd.</td>
<td>1972</td>
<td>PR 529</td>
<td>2269887E, 5762903N</td>
<td>43° 18' 16.68&quot; S</td>
<td>170° 02' 23.27&quot; E</td>
<td>3 m</td>
<td>3750 m</td>
<td>Dry and abandoned</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Two of these wells (Harihari-1 and Waiho-1) were drilled onshore to investigate a thick Tertiary sequence closing against a major sub-surface fault delineated from land seismic surveys. The third, Mikonui-1, was drilled offshore to investigate coal measures pinching out against a basement high. All three exploration wells in the study have been subject to
varying intensities of geophysical survey methods, e.g. dip-meter, resistivity, gamma ray-neutron, etc. However, the records of the two earlier wells (Harihari-1 and Waiho-1) appear undetailed in presentation.

4.1.2 Lithostratigraphy and biostratigraphy

The lithostratigraphy of the three wells is generally quite detailed in its well-site descriptions, and some limited lab analysis of core samples has been undertaken. Broadly speaking, all three wells are dominated by mudstone deposits, with varying amounts of coarser material, underlain by a basal limestone and thin coal measures unit. Reconnaissance biostratigraphic control with foraminifera and basement rock reports were undertaken by the New Zealand Geological Survey. The biostratigraphy has been used to constrain ages and depositional paleodepths of the sediments. These reports are included in the open file Petroleum Records and their records have been briefly checked with contemporary micropaleontology literature (e.g. Hornibrook et al., 1989). No significant changes (e.g. ages/depths) in the report conclusions have been required.

A regional correlation of the three wells is shown in Figure 4.2.

4.1.2.1 Mikonui-1

Mikonui-1 is the only exploration well in the offshore region of the South Westland basin drilled by Diamond Shamrock Oil Company (1981). As such it contains vital information about the lithostratigraphy and biostratigraphy of the basin. Dip meter measurements confirmed seismic predictions of low-dip regional trends. Extensive airgun surveying of the well was undertaken. The results of this are discussed and analysed below in Section 4.1.4.

The drilled section can be divided into six parts:

(1) 1841–1810 metres. A basement complex with thin detrital zone.

Basement rocks are tentatively identified as quartz-mica schists correlated with the Early Paleozoic Greenland Group. Overlying the basement was a rubble zone of reworked or highly weathered schists approximately 9 m in thickness.

(2) 1810–1675 metres. Paleogene "Coal Measures"

Deposited upon the basement complex are the Mata through Eocene (80.0–42.5 Ma) "Coal Measures". The Coal Measures consist of unconsolidated sands with minor traces of coal grading upwards to claystones. Biostratigraphic analysis suggests that the Kaiatan and Runangan stages are absent, as well as a basal section of the Landon Series (42 Ma–34? Ma).

Depositional environment: Marginal marine to non-marine. 0–20 m.
1675–1640 metres. Oligocene limestone.
Limestone is described as soft micritic to firm cryptocrystalline. Biostratigraphy indicates an Whaingaroan to Waitakian age (32 – 22 Ma), with the Duntroonian not being identified. The limestone is tentatively correlated to the regionally extensive Cobden Limestone to the north, and the Awarua Limestone to the south. Depositional environment: Outer shelf to upper bathyal depths. 200–500 m.

1640–1510 metres. Southland Series mudstone.
Unconformably overlying the limestone are Miocene-Pliocene blue-grey claystones with interbedded thin sand lenses near the base of the interval. Biostratigraphy indicates that the Southland series (16.5 Ma–10.5 Ma) is largely present, but this is bounded above and below by significant hiatuses. Below, no evidence is seen for the presence of the Altonian and Otaian stages (Pareora Series, 22.0–16.5 Ma). Above, a key taxon (Bolvinita) for the Tongaporutuan Stage (10.5–6.0 Ma) is absent. This absence suggests a hiatus of at least the mid to late Tongaporutuan and early Kapitean. Depositional environment: Benthic taxa indicate deep water deposition (500–1000 m).

1510–340 metres. Late Taranaki and Wanganui Series sediments.
Deposited upon the Southland Series mudstones are more blue-grey claystones, tentatively correlated with the Blue Bottom Group, followed by bioclastics with minor slits and clays. Biostratigraphy appears to indicate continuous deposition from the upper Kapitean through Wanganui Series (5.0 Ma onwards). The bioclastics near the top of the recovered section were determined to be of Castlecliffian age (1.2 Ma–0.4 Ma). No returns were recovered from the upper 165 m as drill cuttings went directly to the seafloor. Depositional environment: Open marine conditions at outer shelf to bathyal depths (200–500 m). A mixture of deep and shallow water Mollusca in the top bioclastic section suggests an alternation of water depth through this time interval.
FIGURE 4.2: Lithostratigraphy, chronostratigraphy and regional correlation of Mikonui-1, Harihari-1 and Waiho-1
(After Diamond Shamrock Oil Company, 1981, PR 836, Enclosure 6)
### Project: Mikonui-1

#### GeoHist+ INPUT SUMMARY.

**Water depth or elevation:** 158.00m

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<th>Plot Layer</th>
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<td>2: Early Castlecliffian</td>
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<td>6: Late Kapitean</td>
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<td>77.0</td>
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<td>7: Tk/Ts Hiatus</td>
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</tr>
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<td>8: Waiauan</td>
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<td>82.0</td>
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<td>9: Lillburnian &amp; Clifdenian</td>
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<td>10: PL &amp; Po Hiatus</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11: Landon</td>
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<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12: Arnold Series</td>
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<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13: Late Dannevirke</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14: Mata?E.Dannevirke</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>81.0</td>
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| Total Depth (m) | 1830.0 |
| Density (Mg/m3) | 2.01 |

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**TABLE 4.1: Geohistory analysis input and output results for Mikonui-1**
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<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td>6: 658.0</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7: 141.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8: 180.0</td>
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<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<td>16.5</td>
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<td>2.0</td>
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**GeoHist+ BACKSTRIPPING SUMMARY.**

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</tr>
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<td>1.5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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**TABLE 4.2: Geohistory analysis input data and output results for Harihari-1**
## GeoHist+, University of Waikato, Department of Earth Sciences


---

**Project: Waiho-1**

### GeoHist+ INPUT SUMMARY.

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<th>Lithology %</th>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>0.0</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>0.0</td>
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<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
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</table>

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| Total Depth (m) | 3630.0 | 3516.0 | 3322.4 | 2949.8 | 2003.1 | 1962.7 | 1705.8 | 651.6 | 198.1 | 198.1 |
| Density (Mg/m³) | 2.33    | 2.31   | 2.27   | 2.23   | 2.13   | 2.10   | 2.14   | 1.71  | 1.11  | 1.11  |
| Tectonic Sub. (m) | 1061.6 | 1040.1 | 1000.9 | 919.2  | 665.9  | 666.4  | 551.9  | 260.6 | 65.2  | 83.7  |

---

**TABLE 4.3:** Geohistory analysis input data and output results for Waiho-1.
4.1.2.2 Harihari-1

Harihari-1 was the first exploration well drilled in the study area by New Zealand Petroleum Co. Ltd. (1971). Its stratigraphy is dominated by a largely homogeneous sequence of mudstones compacting to soft shales at depth overlying a limestone sitting on basement rock.

The drilled section can be divided into four parts:

1. **2526–2508 metres**: *Pre-Cenozoic basement complex.*
   Basement consists of steeply dipping grey-green phyllite or low-grade schist derived from argillites of inferred Greenland Group. This is overlain by a thin layer (approx. 5 m) of sandstone and siltstone, inferred as a residual weathered zone.

2. **2508–2473 metres**: *Basal Limestone*
   The upper part of the limestone consists of a tan coloured, very silty, moderately argillaceous extremely fine grained limestone with traces of pyrite and abundant glauconite, which grades into a slightly argillaceous fine to very fine calcarenite with a cement of sparry calcite and extremely fine carbonate material. The calcarenite consists of fragments of bioclastic origin with probable bryozoan and foram remains. Biostratigraphy in this section is hampered by the dense nature of the samples, and the age is uncertain ranging from the Kaiatan to Altonian. However this limestone is again correlated with the Cobden Limestone.
   *Depositional environment:* The key taxon *Amphistegina* indicates an inner to mid-shelf locus of deposition (30–100 m).

3. **2473–280 metres**: *Marine Cenozoic section*
   The base of this unit comprises silty shales with thin interbeds of sandstone and siltstone. At 2380 m this grades upwards into soft shales to 1860 m. Above this a monotonous section of mudstone with slight decreases in compaction at 1647 m and 1467 m continues through to 702 m. A thin sandy interval at 690–702 m consisting of well rounded and unconsolidated coarse sand with chert grains. Biostratigraphy indicates that this thin interval is near the Pliocene-Pliocene boundary. Above this is a sandy gravel near the top of the sequence (313–552 m). The sandy gravel differs from the surface section with darker metamorphics and ultrabasic fragments.
   Biostratigraphy would again indicate the absence of Pareora Series sediments. The Southland Series is well represented as well as the Taranaki Series with the
appearance of the Tongaporutuan indicators. The top of Miocene is around 1375 m in depth. Higher in the section Opoitian through to Mangapanian Stage (Pliocene) and younger indicators are seen.

Depositional environment: The Taranaki and Southland Series appear to be the deepest part of the section with outer shelf to slope depths (300–1000 m). The remainder of the sequence is placed in a mid to outer shelf environment (100–300 m).

(4) 280–0 (31 m.s.l) metres: Glacial outwash and fluvial deposits
Unconsolidated very coarse sand to fine and pebble gravels with some boulders. Composition is mainly metamorphic with minor igneous.
Depositional environment: Given the fluvial nature of the sediments, these deposits are probably largely non-marine.

4.1.2.3 Waiho-1

Waiho-1 is the deepest of the three exploration wells and was drilled by New Zealand Petroleum Co. Ltd. (1972). Lithostratigraphy is again dominated by mudstone, but frequent sandstone and conglomerate units are also seen. The drilling of Waiho-1 also demonstrated that prominent reflectors seen on associated seismic lines were due to the presence of conglomerates in a mudstone background, rather than the 'reefal buildups' of McNaughton & Gibson (1970).

The drilled section can be divided into four parts:

(1) 3748–3629 metres: Basement complex
The basement rock is described as a light grey to grey phyllitic slate composed of quartz, white mica and pale green chlorite. The rock is tentatively classed as belonging to the Greenland Group. Low dips of 10° or less were recorded. Above the basement is a complex sequence of siliceous sandstones.

(2) 3629–3613 metres: Basal Limestone
The bottom half of the limestone interval is dominantly a white, bioclastic limestone from 3618 to 3629 m, consisting of foraminiferal remains. Above this is a transitional brown-grey argillaceous limestone.
Reconnaissance biostratigraphy suggests that this unit is Altonian in age (19.0 – 16.5 Ma), although this is unusual in comparison to the other basal limestones which belong to the Landon Series (36.5 – 24.0 Ma). Nathan et al., (1986) interpret this limestone has equivalent to the Awarua Limestone of South Westland, of Oligocene age.
**Application and Observations**

Depositional environment: The basal limestone is interpreted as being 'indicative of shallow water deposition' (30–100 m).

(3) 3613–3324 metres: *Middle Miocene*

Moderately hard shales overlie and grade into the basal limestone. The shales are generally slightly calcareous and slightly to moderately silty. Interbedded thin siltstones and sandstones are also present but all coarser clastic content decreases markedly below 3355 m.

Biostratigraphy indicates an age of Lillburnian to Waiauan (15.0–10.5 Ma), and also suggests that there is no evidence for pre Lillburnian (i.e. Clifdenian) in the siltstone overlying the limestone.

**Depositional environment:** Outer shelf or deeper. (300–1000 m)

(4) 3324–2107 metres: *Upper Miocene*

This section consists of numerous massive conglomerates and conglomeratic coarse and very coarse sandstones. The intervening mudstones present exhibit a gradual increase in compaction until around 2530 m where shales are present.

Biostratigraphic ages are between the Tongaporutuan and Kapitean (10.5–5.0 Ma). No indications of hiatuses are noted, although this may be confused by the numerous conglomeratic sequences seen.

**Depositional environment:** Deep water benthics are noted in the siltstones in this unit (300–1000). The top conglomeratic unit (2165–2318 m) has little or no fauna and may be non-marine. Deep water benthics are noted near the top of another conglomerate at 3100 m, but this may be due to contamination down the hole.

(5) 2107–242 metres: *Pliocene*

Soft silty mudstones dominate this section. A conglomerate and several gravel intervals are present. A core at 1900 m revealed the presence of shale clasts. A micropaleontological determination of these clasts indicates an Oligocene age. Weathered schist pebbles are noted at around 1200 m.

Biostratigraphic ages range from Opoitian at the base through to Mangapanian or higher at the top of the unit (5.0 Ma onwards). Recycled specimens derived from Arnold to lower Landon Series are also noted.

**Depositional environment:** Deep water at the base of the unit decreases to mid shelf depths (100 m) higher in the section with some indication of a gradual deepening again near the top.

(6) 242–0 (3 m.s.l.) metres: *Glacial outwash and fluvial deposits*

Gravels, boulders and sand occur at the top of the drilled section with a thin basal very fossiliferous gravel section being present, the fossil content mainly
fragmentary and well worn heavy shelled pelycepod remains. The entire unit is of inferred Pliestocene to Recent age.

**Depositional environment:** Given the fluvial nature of the sediments, these deposits are probably largely non-marine to marginal marine.

### 4.1.3 Geohistory analysis

Geohistory analysis was conducted on all three exploration wells based on stratigraphic data from their respective well reports using the GeoHist+ program discussed in Chapter 2. These data and the resulting decompacted thicknesses through time are given in Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3. The geohistory plots for each well are illustrated in Figures 4.3, 4.4, 4.5.

All three wells show rapid subsidence since around 10 Ma. This is particularly emphasised in Mikonui-1 where a long-term gradual subsidence since around 60 Ma is seen. This long term gradual subsidence is analysed in terms of post-rift thermal contraction below in Section 4.3. The two onshore wells do not illustrate an early-stage long-term gradual subsidence as their sedimentary records begin at a later time than that of Mikonui-1. The fluctuations of sea level appear to become increasingly insignificant beside the thick sedimentary deposits seen in the wells—over 3500 m in Waiho-1. The tectonic subsidence calculated in the wells is further discussed in Chapter 5.

### 4.1.4 Synthetic seismogram

As discussed above, the geophysical data reported for the two earlier wells in the completion reports is poor. In particular, the vital time-depth curves for relating a time on a seismic profile with a depth (and hence a known lithology) in the exploration wells seem to be generalised at best. The geophysical surveys in the more recent Mikonui-1 well were more intensive and better documented. The open-file Petroleum Record 836 contains a wealth of information submitted by Diamond Shamrock, the operators of Mikonui-1. Of specific importance is the Geophysical Airgun Report that provides detailed information about the velocity structure of the well stratigraphy. This report contains information relating two-way travel time with depth, thus allowing direct comparison of seismic profiles passing through the well-site (PS-19 and PS-21) and well stratigraphy. The interval velocity of a unit can also be calculated, and this in turn can be used to generate synthetic seismograms by calculating the acoustic impedance between 'measured' intervals.
Mikonui-1 geohistory plot

Age (Myr)

Depth (m)

KEY
Paleo Sea Level
Paleo Sea Floor
Unit subsidence
Total Subsidence
Tectonic Curve

FIGURE 4.3: Geohistory plot of Mikonui-1
FIGURE 4.4: Geohistory plot of Harihari-1
**FIGURE 4.5:** Geohistory plot of Waiho-1

**KEY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Layer/Event</th>
<th>Legend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Paleo Sea Level</td>
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<tr>
<td>Paleo Sea Floor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unit subsidence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Subsidence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tectonic Curve</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Using the interval velocity data from the Mikonui-1 report a synthetic seismogram was generated using SYN 2©, a PC-compatible application¹. The results of this analysis can be seen in Figure 4.6.

### File name: MIKONUI.001 SYN 2.33
Date: 01-09-1993

Well name: Mikonui-1
Operator: Offshore West Coast

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Velocity (x1000)</th>
<th>Normal Polarity</th>
<th>Reverse Polarity</th>
<th>Prop. Wave</th>
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<td>1.6</td>
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### FIGURE 4.6: Synthetic seismogram generated for velocity data from Mikonui-1. Note that velocity data is in feet/second.

In Fig 4.6, prominent reflectors are seen in the upper third of the column, presumably a result of bioclastic layers. In the middle third, no prominent reflectors are seen due to the largely homogeneous nature of the mudstone found in this section. In the lower third, reflectors again become conspicuous as sandstone layers increase in frequency toward the limestone (strong reflector at around 1.4 s), coal measures (weak reflectors) and basement (very strong reflector at 1.55 s). When compared to the seismic lines at the Mikonui-1 well-site the seismogram contains some good correlations.

¹ SYN 2 is © Jeffrey D. Prouty, 242 Pheasant Drive, Healdsburg, CA 95448, U.S.A. It is a shareware program obtained from the Computer Oriented Geological Society, P.O. Box 1317, Denver, CO 80201-1317, U.S.A., via the COGS directory at the anonymous FTP site, csn.org, [128.138.213.21].
4.2 Seismic stratigraphy

4.2.1 Location of seismic lines

Numerous seismic reflection profiling surveys of the South Westland basin have been undertaken in the search for potential petroleum resources. Copies of the seismic lines have been gathered by the New Zealand Geological Survey (now the Institute of Geological and Nuclear Sciences Ltd.) in the Open-file Petroleum Reports. These reports are the source of the seismic profiles used in this study. Not all the gathered information has been used here, but the data used attempts to give a broad regional spread. The Open-file Petroleum Reports used in this study are listed in Table 4.4. Further detail about individual lines is given in Appendix A of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PR</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Line series</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>Esso Exploration</td>
<td>EZD–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>523</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>N.Z. Petroleum</td>
<td>L–, OS–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>548</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>Shell B.P.</td>
<td>M–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>575</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>Magellan Petrol.</td>
<td>W–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>614</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>Australian Gulf</td>
<td>NZ–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>629</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>N.Z. Petroleum</td>
<td>PS–</td>
</tr>
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</table>

TABLE 4.4: List of Open-file Petroleum Reports and associated Line series titles used in this study (see Figure 4.7).

This study uses a total of 1715 km of seismic lines, of which 104 km is onshore. The location of the seismic lines is illustrated in Figure 4.7. The seismic coverage is generally broad, but is concentrated offshore the Waiho-1 drill-site. The southwestern corner is sparsely covered by NZ- series lines. The exploration drill-sites are well tied to seismic lines for correlation purposes. Lines PS-19 and PS-21 intersect at Mikonui-1, and OS-3 passes through Harihari-1. Waiho-1 is offset by around 2000 m from the ends of OS-8 and L-212.

The quality of recorded seismic reflection profiles used in this study vary greatly. Earlier lines are often of poor quality and/or reproduction. Indeed, the M– series lines were of such a low standard of reproduction that their use was limited to some correlation of closely spaced tie lines. Any interpretation beyond this would have been entirely arbitrary. It is fortunate in this regard that some of the mapped reflectors (as described below) are frequently prominently displayed, particularly in the basement sequence. This prominence is probably due to a marked increase in acoustic velocity and hence reflection coefficient in the lower layers.
Once the seismic lines have been interpreted the data is captured using the TECHBASE system (see Chapter 2 and Appendices for further explanation). The data can then be modelled to observe depths to horizons and thicknesses of sequences in a designated study area. The following isopach and contour maps are an example of that process.

### 4.2.2 Seismic sequence analysis

The application of the principles of seismic stratigraphy as discussed in Chapter 2 is limited by the poor resolution seen in a number of the seismic profiles examined. A number of lines show large scale sequences, particularly prograding foreset beds, but within these,
bordering on the edge of resolution are smaller order structures tentatively interpreted as low stand wedges and fans. A wealth of seismic stratigraphic information exists in the study area awaiting better resolution surveying. The importance of identifying and classifying reflector terminations remains an important method in gaining information about the stratigraphy and structure of the basin.

4.2.3 Seismic horizons and sequences

After a reconnaissance analysis of the seismic lines, a number of features were interpreted. A simplified diagram of the mapped horizons and sequences is illustrated in Fig. 4.8. The basal twin reflectors of the basement and basal Oligocene limestone are very prominent in seismic profiles, and thus easily lend themselves to interpretation and mapping. Above this the top Miocene was correlated from Mikonui-1 and although often difficult to trace, this horizon was mapped across the study area. Two prominent horizons were noted in the thick Pliocene-Pleistocene sequence. Both appear to be erosional surfaces subsequently overlain by sediments associated with a variety of transgressive and regressive events. The bottom horizon, named the Plio-Pleistocene Unconformity B (PPB) is loosely correlated with the Waipipian–Mangapanian boundary (3.1 Ma) in Mikonui-1. The PPB appears to be regionally extensive. The higher Plio-Pleistocene Unconformity A (PPA) appears to be of limited extent, but forms a very prominent arcuate horizon. This horizon is loosely correlated with the Nukumaruan–Castlecliffian boundary (1.2 Ma). Unfortunately the PPA horizon often occurs at the height of the first multiple 'ghost' of the seafloor in the seismic displays. This limits the interpretation of the horizon and overlying reflector associations and structures. Finally the seafloor horizon completes the list of mapped horizons and sequences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>Velocity (m/s)</th>
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<th>Φ</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>E</td>
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</table>

**FIGURE 4.8:** Schematic diagram of mapped horizons and sequences in the study area. Velocity, compaction coefficients (k) and original porosity (Φ) values calculated from geophysical and lithologic data in Mikonui-1.
The geophysical parameters of the mapped sequences, e.g. acoustic velocity, compaction coefficients and original porosity, to be used in later backstripping and decompaction exercises were calculated from data in the Mikonui-1 well (Diamond Shamrock, 1981).

4.2.3.1 Basement

The basement horizon is generally very prominent, in close association with the Oligocene horizon, although may occasionally become unclear underneath it. The basement horizon is often distinguished by its rugged appearance on seismic profiles and has frequent small dips and breaks (e.g. PS-21, Fig. 4.14). No coherent reflectors are seen below it.

The present basement structure, as illustrated in Fig. 4.16 clearly shows the plunging of the basement toward the southeastern margin of the basin to a depth of up to 4 km. Also seen on the contour map is the basement high upon which Mikonui-1 was drilled. The high appears to continue along strike to the southwest. The basement dips away to the northwest on the other side of these basement highs. The nature of the basement structure is further investigated using geodynamical modelling in Chapter 5.

4.2.3.2 Sequence E

Type sections:
Sequence E is a broad, thin sheet-like body. The Oligocene limestone is frequently seen directly overlying basement (e.g. Waiho-1 and Harihari-1). This is also seen in the closely paired nature of the seismic Oligocene and basement horizons, suggesting an absence of this sequence over much of the basin. The sequence thickens offshore and is therefore best represented in the distal sections of NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12), L-206 (Fig. 4.11) and PS-21 (Fig. 4.14).

Well stratigraphy:
Sequence E was the target of the Mikonui-1 exploration well. At Mikonui-1 the sequence lies between 1650 m and 1841 m (total depth) below sea level, and consists of sandstones with occasional coal traces grading upward into mudstones. The sequence is not seen in the onshore wells.

Upper boundary:
The upper boundary of Sequence E is the Oligocene horizon dated at around 30 Ma, but also represents a hiatus through the late Arnold Series (42.0–36.5 Ma). Some truncation of reflectors is seen in distal sections (e.g. NZ-102, Fig. 4.12) as the Oligocene horizon dips to the southeast.
Lower boundary:
The lower boundary of Sequence E is the basement horizon, dated as a Late Cretaceous surface. Distal reflectors in the thicker part of the sequence onlap against the basement surface (e.g. PS-21, Fig. 4.14; L-206, Fig. 4.11).

Internal configurations:
The thinness of this sequence is often below seismic resolution, thus making interpretation of any internal structures impossible. However, where resolution allows in the thicker parts of the sequence (e.g. NZ-102, Fig. 4.12; PS-21, Fig. 4.14), the reflectors seen are generally of moderate to high amplitude and continuity. The internal configuration appears to be generally flat lying and concordant, with reflectors truncating against the upper or lower boundaries.

External form:
Sequence E is generally a thin sheet-like unit over the entire study area, thickening noticeably offshore (Fig. 4.17). It onlaps onto the basement to the northwest of the basement high, and generally thins to absence to the southeast of the high. Locally the sequence may also fill shallow depressions in the basement relief (e.g. NZ-102, Fig. 4.12).

4.2.3.3 Oligocene Horizon

The Oligocene horizon is often the most prominent of all the seismic horizons mapped in the study area. Its prominence is due to a sharp acoustic velocity change between the post-Oligocene muds and shales, the Oligocene bioclastic limestone the horizon represents, and where present, the Late Cretaceous–Eocene sediments below. From well stratigraphy the limestone is very thin and thus the resolution of the seismic lines probably correspond to the thickness of the limestone unit. The strongly reflective horizon is closely associated with the basement horizon, sometimes even masking the prominence of that horizon.

The Oligocene horizon is a smooth, gently undulating and continuous horizon, gently dipping to the southeast. In well correlations the Oligocene limestone (variously the Awarua Limestone or Cobden Limestone) is dated between the Waitakian and Whaingaroan (=36.5–22.0 Ma). An 'average' age of 30 Ma has been adopted for the purposes of description. The horizon also represents a significant hiatus through the Pareora to early Southland Series (22.0–15.0 Ma). Evidence of this hiatus may be seen in the regional onlap of reflectors onto the Oligocene Horizon. Another hiatus, present below the Oligocene Horizon during the Arnold Series (42.5–36.5 Ma) is suggested by biostratigraphy from the wells. Seismic evidence of this hiatus is possibly represented by reflector truncation below the horizon.
4.2.3.4 Sequence D

Type sections:
Sequence D is a fairly uniform sheet of sediment overlying the Oligocene horizon. It occurs throughout the basement and is seen in all seismic lines, although detailed structure is best seen in sections EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10) and L-206 (Fig. 4.11).

Well stratigraphy:
The stratigraphy of this sequence in Mikonui-1 is again dominated by mudstone between the depths of 1400 m and 1650 m below sea level. Interbedded sandstones and conglomerates become a prominent feature of this sequence in Waiho-1, further towards the basin margin.

Upper boundary:
The upper boundary of Sequence D is the Top Miocene Horizon dated at 5 Ma. Reflectors are generally concordant with this horizon, although some truncation is suggested in L-206 (Fig. 4.11) and other lines.

Lower boundary:
The lower boundary of Sequence D is the Oligocene Horizon dated at around 30 Ma, but also representing a significant hiatus through the Pareora Series up to around 15 Ma. Section L-206 (Fig. 4.11) show a significant amount of onlapping onto this horizon from the southeast. This baselap probably grades toward downlap seen in the southeastern ends of NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12) and EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10).

Internal configurations:
The internal configuration of Sequence D comprises low amplitude reflectors and continuity in proximal sections grading and thinning distally to concordant and continuous reflectors. None of the prominent prograding features of higher sequences can be recognised. L-206 (Fig. 4.11) displays a few prominent reflectors in a low amplitude background toward the southeast, that have an undulose nature. Hummocky reflectors are also seen in NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12).

External form:
Sequence D has a broad sheet-like form. The sequence appears to thicken to the northwest in some sections (e.g. NZ-102, Fig. 4.12), but this may be the result of being less compacted by overlying sediments than closer to the modern shoreline. The sequence mainly thickens toward the coastline as seen in sections NZ-102 and L-206 (Fig. 4.11). The interpreted thickening of this sequence is responsible for the prominent bulls-eye seen in the eastern corner of the Sequence D isopach map (Figure 4.18).
4.2.3.5 **Top Miocene Horizon**

The Top Miocene Horizon was originally mapped as a chronostratigraphic guideline, correlating with the 5 Ma Miocene-Pliocene boundary at a depth of around 1225 m below the seafloor in Mikonui-1. However the horizon also displays some seismic stratigraphic features. The horizon is occasionally associated with proximal downlap (EZD-3, Fig. 4.10) and distal onlap (PS-21, Fig. 4.14), with some truncation of reflectors underneath suggested in some sections (L-206, Fig. 4.11) It is the most difficult horizon to trace through the region due to the low amplitude and incoherent nature of the seismic facies it often passes through. The horizon is associated with a group of prominent reflectors in the the synthetic seismogram (Fig. 4.6). This correlates well with some sections where the Top Miocene Horizon occurs among a group of prominent reflectors (e.g. EZD-1, Fig. 4.9)

Generally the horizon dips toward the southeast (PS-21, Fig. 4.14; EZD-3, Fig. 4.10), but it also appears to rise toward the coast in some sections (L-206, Fig. 4.11; NZ-102, Fig. 4.12).

4.2.3.6 **Sequence C**

*Type sections:*
The internal structure of Sequence C is relatively complex, especially in proximal areas. The complexities of this sequence are well illustrated in section EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10) in particular, with other features highlighted in sections L-206 (Fig. 4.11) and NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12).

*Well stratigraphy:*
The stratigraphy of this sequence in Mikonui-1 is dominantly mudstone with sandy sequences, between the depths of 1080 m and 1400 m below sea level, with the frequency and coarseness of the sandy sequences increasing shoreward. Exotic blocks and reworked foraminifera from the Arnold and Landon Series are found within sediments of early Opoitian age in Waiho-1.

*Upper boundary:*
The upper boundary of this sequence is the PPB horizon, dated at near 3.1 Ma. The reflectors are generally concordant with this horizon, although truncation has been noted (e.g. L-206).

*Lower boundary:*
The lower boundary of this sequence is the Top Miocene horizon, dated at 5 Ma. In EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10), the lower boundary has been interpreted to run below the prominent wedge with distinct downlapping occurring. However the horizon could be alternatively interpreted as being continuous with the top of the wedge rather than the base. Some
onalapping onto the bottom horizon is also seen in EZD-3 and in the southeast of Mikonui-1 in section PS-21 (Fig. 4.14). Elsewhere reflectors are mostly concordant with this horizon.

**Internal configuration:**

Internally the reflectors have moderate continuity and relatively high amplitude. Some areas have a generally chaotic appearance (e.g. EZD-3, Fig. 4.10). In more distal sections (e.g. PS-21, Fig. 4.14) the reflectors are generally more continuous and weakly hummocky. The amplitude and continuity of reflectors can vary laterally as seen in L-206 (Fig. 4.11) where a mixture of strong laterally continuous and weak chaotic reflectors occur. McNaughton & Gibson (1970), interpreted such configurations as reef and atoll structures. The logging of numerous horizons of sandstones and conglomerates in a mudstone background in the onshore exploration wells has been sited as a more plausible reason for these structures (Nathan et al., 1986). A number of reflectors terminate internally against each other as this sequence thins to the northwest.

The internal configuration is generally concordant, weakly undulose through to chaotic in structure. In proximal sections the internal configuration can be divided into two distinct groups. At the top are the weakly undulose through to chaotic reflectors, while the base has a prominent wedge of reflectors. This structure is well seen in EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10), but is also laterally continuous, and is clearly seen in other lines running perpendicular to the coastline. This group of reflectors has a particularly strong top boundary, with internal reflectors dipping to the northwest, downlapping onto a weakly continuous horizon at the base. The internal configuration of the wedge varies along strike in other lines. In EZD-2, to the north, the wedge is thinner and occurs stratigraphically higher in relation to EZD-3 with another group of concordant reflectors underneath it. Reflectors are generally concordant and gently dipping, but the prominence of the top reflector has decreased, replaced by a prominent and continuous basal reflector. To the south, in EZD-4, the wedge becomes difficult to recognise as reflectors become more rugged and apparently deformed.

A possible low stand fan is identified in L-206 (Fig. 4.11), suggesting that the complex depositional history of the sequence extends into distal areas also.

**External form:**

Basically, Sequence C forms a large wedge of sediment, thickest against the southeastern margin of the basin at over 1500 m, and thinning to the northwest (Figure 4.19).

### 4.2.3.7 PPB Horizon

The PPB Horizon is the more regionally extensive and prominent of the two mapped unconformities in the Plio-Pliocene sedimentary sequence. It is best displayed in sections perpendicular to the coastline such as L-206 (Fig. 4.11). The horizon is commonly
found in close association with a number of high amplitude, undulose and generally
discontinuous horizons. Together these horizons form a group that appears to dip to the
northwest in a series of shallow steps (L-206, Fig. 4.11) or twisted rope-like appearance
(EZD-3, Fig. 4.10). Horizons above are generally downlapping to concordant, those below
are mostly concordant with truncation suggested on some lines.

The correlation of this horizon with the Mikonui-1 well is near the Waipipian–
Mangapanian biostratigraphic boundary at around 3.1 Ma at a depth of about 900 m below
the seafloor. On the synthetic seismogram a reflector of moderate amplitude is seen near
this point (Figure 4.6).

4.2.3.8 Sequence B

Type sections:
Sequence B is weakly lensoidal through to wedge shaped in cross-section, rapidly
thickening toward the coastline. The structure of Sequence B is relatively complex,
especially in proximal near shore areas, and is best illustrated in seismic sections EZD-3
(Fig. 4.10) and NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12).

Well stratigraphy:
The stratigraphy of the sequence in Mikonui-1 is dominantly mudstone with sandy
sequences between the depths of 730 m and 1080 m below sea level. The frequency and
coarseness of the sandy sequences appears to increase toward shore in the Harihari-1 and
Waiho-1 exploration wells.

Upper boundary:
The upper boundary of this sequence is the PPA horizon, dated at near 1.2 Ma. The
reflectors are generally concordant with this horizon.

Lower boundary:
The lower boundary is the PPB horizon correlated with the Mangapanian–Waipipian
biostratigraphic boundary at around 3.1 Ma. The reflectors of Sequence B generally thin
and downlap onto this horizon.

Internal configuration:
Internally the reflectors have high continuity and relatively high amplitude and display
a number of the features associated with a prograding complex. This is particularly well
seen in seismic profiles such as EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10) where very distinct complex sigmoid-
oblique reflection patterns can be seen, complete with topset and foreset segments In more
distal sections (e.g. PS-21, Fig. 4.14) these horizons tend to thin out and may downlap
against the lower horizon as a bottomset segment. It is interesting to note that at the
distal margin in PS-21 some horizons bear a strong resemblance to the PPA horizon above them, although these horizons appear to be only locally significant.

The complexity of this sequence is revealed on detailed inspection of line EZD-3 (Fig. 4.10). The prograding complex exhibits a range of structures and numerous possible seismic sequence boundaries as defined by reflector terminations. This complexity is reinforced by the reflector configurations seen in EZD-1 (Fig. 4.9) and NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12) which run parallel and perpendicular to the coastline respectively. In EZD-3, the evolution of the sequence through time can be seen where the sequence can be broadly divided into two parts. The basal part of the sequence does not show the prograding configurations of the upper section. The reflectors are generally parallel, but undulose, thinning toward the northwest. Prograding clinoforms become increasingly prominent higher in the sequence, suggesting the basal sequence is the bottomset segment of an earlier prograding sequence now closer to the shore. The distal bottomset segments seen in PS-21 (Fig. 4.14) also display a hummocky and discontinuous nature. The prograding foresets display significant structure with some reflectors often truncated, and others laterally continuous as truncating surfaces. Unfortunately the resolution of the seismic profiles limits further investigation of these features, but a complex depositional history is inferred.

**External form:**
Sequence B is broadly lensoidal and elongate along the coast (Fig. 4.20), a form typical of prograding clinoforms. The thickest part of the sequence (around 1200 m) is closer to shore than that of Sequence A (Fig. 4.21). Figure 4.20 suggests that the sequence occurs in a number of distinct lobes, again a feature typical of a prograding facies.

### 4.2.3.9 PPA Horizon

The Plio-Pliocene Unconformity A Horizon is unusual as it is only significantly seen in seismic profiles. In typical sections perpendicular to the coastline (e.g. PS-21, Fig. 4.14), the horizon is a prominent arcuate reflector with a dip increasing in steepness toward the coastline. In the Mikonui-1 exploration well the correlation of the horizon with the stratigraphy of the well, at 550 m below the seafloor, does not reveal any significant changes in lithology or density to explain the prominence of the horizon. Neither is it seen in the synthetic seismogram (Figure 4.6). The horizon occurs just below the biostratigraphic Nukumaruan–Castlecliffian boundary, dated at around 1.2 Ma. There is some weak onlap at the proximal end of the horizon, with the distal margin showing weak downlap. This reflector association, along with the prominent arcuate shape would suggest that the horizon is an erosional feature, or at least represents the boundary between two differing depositional regimes. It is interesting to note that in distal sections,
such as PS-21, some horizons near the top of Sequence B also display the prominent arcuate reflection configuration of Horizon PPA.

4.2.3.10 Sequence A

Type sections:
Sequence A occurs as an areally restricted lenticular body, a typical section is seen in PS-21 which strikes along the narrow axis of the body as illustrated in Fig. 4.21. The sequence is also well displayed in NZ-102 (Fig. 4.12). This sequence may be analogous with the 'Hawera Series' rocks of the late Pliocene discussed by Norris (1978).

Well stratigraphy:
The well stratigraphy of Sequence A in Mikonui-1 (Fig. 4.2) occurs between the seafloor (182 metres below sea level) and 730 metres below sea level. The sequence consists of unconsolidated mudstones capped by a thick sequence of bioclasts derived from both shallow and deep water. Onshore, the sequence is not recognised in the exploration wells as a mudstone, but is probably represented by the upper sequences of fluvial and glacial deposits with occasional marine macrofossils seen in the upper parts of those wells.

Upper boundary:
The upper boundary of Sequence A is the seafloor, but due to low resolution and interference no clear interaction between the internal reflectors and the seafloor can be seen.

Lower boundary:
The lower boundary (PPA horizon) is a distinctive arcuate reflector with dip decreasing as it moves offshore. The age of the lower boundary is placed just below the Nukumaruan-Castlecliffian boundary in Mikonui-1 at around 1.2 Ma. Some onlap onto the lower boundary is suggested in the shoreward proximal section (PS-21, Fig.4.14; NZ-102, Fig. 4.12), with downlap and/or apparent truncation due to thinning in the distal section (NZ-102, Fig. 4.12).

Internal configuration:
The internal reflector associations and therefore the seismic structures of Sequence A are often difficult to see due to frequent interference from the primary multiple of the seafloor reflector. However, the internal structure has few laterally continuous reflectors and are of generally low amplitude, this contrasts strongly with the strong continuous reflectors immediately below the lower boundary. The amplitude of the internal reflectors appears to vary laterally in other lines, but can be described as generally hummocky/concordant in distal sections through to chaotic in proximal sections.

External form:
This sequence appears to be confined to a lens running along the present shelf break at between 20 km offshore near Paringa and 40 km offshore on the northern shelf bulge
(Fig. 4.21). Sequence A appears to be at its thickest (about 500 m) at or near the modern shelf break. Fig. 4.21 would suggest that there are two distinct lobes in this distribution, but the gap between these may just be the result of not recognising Sequence A in seismic lines between the two lobes. The shoreward margin of the lens is undefined as no clear truncation of the lower boundary with the seafloor could be seen, although both type sections show it approaching the seafloor. The 'Hawera' beds of Norris (1978) thin to an order of 10-20 m nearshore, so the sequence may simply thin to below the resolution of the seismic profiles used in this study. The seaward margin is again difficult to define, with the sequence thinning and downlapping as the seafloor dips down the continental slope onto the Challenger Plateau (NZ-102, Fig. 4.12). In some locations the sequence appears to have been eroded by the canyons cutting the shelf, and some reflectors in the sequence appear to terminate against the modern seafloor. In PS-15 the sequence abruptly terminates against a small scarp possibly cut by the Hokitika Canyon.

4.2.3.11 Seafloor

The seafloor horizon appears prominently on most seismic displays, although the overall physiography of the seafloor is better studied using bathymetry charts (Eade, 1972; Carter, 1981). The seafloor is generally flat lying over most of the study area, with a gentle slope offshore to the northwest. However a number of major canyon systems cut across the shelf in South Westland, especially in the southwest. In the northeast the Hokitika Canyon occurs as an extensive system of canyons and branching channels (Eade, 1972; Norris, 1978). In the southwest the major feature is the Cook Canyon which heads within 3 km of the mouth of the Cook River (Norris, 1978). It turns southwesterly about 40 km from shore and thereafter continues roughly southwesterly into the Puysegur Trench immediately offshore of Fiordland. Branching off the southwesterly extension of the Cook Canyon are a number of shorter canyons reaching into the shelf. The Moeraki Canyon heads about 3 km offshore of the mouth of the Moeraki River, and the Haast Canyon heads offshore the Haast River. A complex of three or more intertwining canyons form just off Jackson Head (Carter, 1981).

In the seismic sections, the southwestern canyon complexes are revealed as steep sided scarps. The most southerly line, NZ-96, shows the shelf edge immediately off Cascade Point with the seafloor plunging around 1500 m in the space of 10 km. Nearby NZ- lines cross the Haast and Moeraki Canyons. NZ-98 does not appear to cross any significant canyons, even though it lies south of the Cook River. Bathymetry would suggest the Cook Canyon becomes broad and flat in the area northwest of Paringa River. The upper reaches of the Cook Canyon are seen crossing the middle of EZD-1. Lines W-14 and W-12 clearly
show the upper reaches of the Moeraki Canyon. In the northeast the PS- lines often show
the transition from the shelf into the Hokitika Canyon.

Another notable topographic feature of the shelf is a seaward bulge of the shelf offshore
from Ross and immediately south of the Hokitika Canyon. Other studies (e.g. Norris,
1978) have revealed the general form of the canyons, but they await further detailed
study, especially in regard to currents and sediments moving through them. Norris (1978)
speculates that the Hokitika Canyon may have formed as a result of the combined actions
of land streams (Hokitika, Mikonui and Waitaha), or southward drifting littoral currents
being deflected seaward by the shelf bulge during a sea level low stand.

4.2.3.12 Summary of seismic facies

Using the nomenclature of Sangree & Widmier (1979) the attributes of the sequences are
summarised below in Table 4.5:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>Proximal facies</th>
<th>Distal facies</th>
<th>External form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>C – Dwn Ob/Sig</td>
<td>C – Dwn P</td>
<td>Lens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>C/Er? – Dwn Ch</td>
<td>C/Er? – On W</td>
<td>Wedge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>C/Er? – On P</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Er – On P</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sheet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*TABLE 4.5:* Summary of seismic facies observed in the mapped sequences. Nomenclature after Sangree & Widmier (1979):

  upper boundary – lower boundary

  internal configuration
  
  C=concordant; Ch=Chaotic; Dwn=Downlap; Er= Erosional truncation;
  Ob/Sig=Oblique/Sigmoidal progradation; On=Onlap; P=parallel;
  W=wavy;
  see Section 2.1.4.3 for further explanation.

4.2.4 Faulting

The offshore basin exhibits a marked lack of significant faulting, although some of the
steeper features in the rugged basement reflector may be or have been fault controlled. The
main faulting feature seen in the study area is the poorly understood South Westland
Fault Zone.
McNaughton & Gibson (1970) used the Magellan data to identify the presence of an offshore basin separated from coastal outcrops by a large fault zone running parallel to the coastline. Norris (1978) discussed possible links between the South Westland Fault Zone and other faults further north, in particular the Cape Foulwind Fault which also runs parallel to the coast in northern Westland. Nathan et al. (1986) noted that the fault zone marks a distinct break between an apparently continuous offshore sequence and an onshore sequence cut by unconformities during the early Cretaceous and late Miocene, suggesting that the block immediately east of the South Westland Fault Zone has been intermittently uplifted during deposition.

The seismic expression of the fault is indicated by a sharp break in the continuity of reflectors, especially the otherwise prominent basal reflectors. An illustration of this can be seen in seismic line W-13 (Fig. 4.15). Here the prominent basal reflectors between 2.5 and 2.8 twt appear to abruptly end toward the southeastern end of the profile. Reflectors associated with the Top Miocene between 1.8 and 2.0 twt also appear to be truncated at this point. Higher reflectors appear to rise up and over the fault zone, although due to near-surface noise, this interpretation is not clear. The fault appears to be uplifted to the east. The dip direction or angle is not clear from any the seismic profiles that it cuts and further study may be necessary to ascertain this. However given the oblique strike-slip compressive nature of the region the fault zone would be unlikely to be a normally faulted extensional feature. To the east of the fault there are no coherent and laterally continuous reflectors, except for the possible presence of weak diffraction patterns. The lack of reflectors is an indication of either a homogeneous sediment, a strongly deformed zone and/or 'basement' rock (see section 2.1.5.1). The sudden appearance of a homogeneous sediment in a basin dominated by mixed sand and mud deposits is unlikely, and the no reflector zone probably represents an uplifted and probably deformed basement block. Deformation of this zone may be linked to the sheared strata and possible thrust structures seen immediately onshore in the Paringa section (Adams, 1987).

The zone may continue southwards, and faults have been mapped onshore in the Jackson Head area. The coastward end of seismic lines NZ-96, NZ-122 and NZ-123 all show signs of reflector termination similar to the W-13 section (Fig. 4.15). Apparent truncation may also be a result of interference from the rugged seafloor topography found in the southern end of the study area. To ease contouring and mapping difficulties the uplifted block has been continued seaward in the southern corner of the modelled area.

In the north, interference in otherwise prominent basal reflectors is seen in line L-102. Also the top of the uplifted block appears to lie lower in the section with older reflectors around the Top Miocene rising from the basin onto the block. Further north the fault comes
onshore near Waiho-1. The nearby seismic line OS-8 displays weak reflectors in higher levels, but no clear basal reflectors. This may indicate that this line sits entirely on top of the eastern uplifted block. In which case it is interesting to note that higher reflectors appear to have a shallow dip to the northwest.

Other onshore seismic lines in the Abut Head area all display prominent, mostly flat lying and continuous basal reflectors that tie well with nearby offshore reflectors. OS-10 again displays an apparent truncation of basal reflectors, suggesting that the South Westland Fault in the Abut Head area bends inland towards the Alpine Fault in a wide U-bend. Another subsurface fault, possibly a reverse fault, in the basal reflectors is seen in this U-bend on lines OS-2 and OS-3 (Fig. 4.13) immediately northwest of Harihari-1 effectively uplifting the block the well is located in. Further north the South Westland Fault may merge with the Hohonu Fault. The location of the fault in the Abut Head/Harihari area would also seem to closely correspond to the inferred boundary of outcropping Paleozoic basement rocks (Warren, 1967; Nathan et al., 1986).

There is a gap of around 900 metres between the shoreward ends of line L-208 and OS-3A near the mouth of the Poerua River. The ends match well with respect to twt depth of the basal reflectors suggesting that no significant near coastal fault occurs in the area and the main zone of deformation exists inland with the continuation of the South Westland Fault Zone. Further north, in L-206 (Fig. 4.11), a near coast fault may account for the sudden thickening of older sequences. Such a fault may be the southern continuation of the Cape Foulwind Fault as postulated by Norris (1978).

In summary, the South Westland Fault Zone is uplifted to the southeast and is seen in seismic reflection profiles by the abrupt truncation of otherwise clearly prominent and continuous reflectors. The uplifted block displays no coherent and continuous reflectors suggesting that it is a deformed basement unit. Surface geology generally describes undifferentiated Greenland Group rocks, in which Adams (1987) postulated localised depocentres. The uplifted block appears to dip toward the north as older reflectors are seen rising from the basin and onto the block. The bounding South Westland Fault Zone evidently comes onshore near Waiho-1 and bends inland toward the Alpine Fault in the vicinity of Harihari.
FIGURE 4.9: EZD-1 seismic profile and interpretation.
FIGURE 4.10: EZD-3 seismic profile and interpretation.
FIGURE 4.11: L-206 seismic profile and interpretation.
FIGURE 4.12: NZ-102 seismic profile and interpretation.
FIGURE 4.13: OS-3 seismic profile and interpretation.
FIGURE 4.15: W-13 seismic profile and interpretation.
FIGURE 4.16: Basement structure contour map.
FIGURE 4.17: Isopach map of Sequence E.
FIGURE 4.18: Isopach map of Sequence D.
FIGURE 4.19: Isopach map of Sequence C.
FIGURE 4.20: Isopach map of Sequence B.
FIGURE 4.21: Isopach map of Sequence A.
4.2.5 Other seismic features

*Volcanic intrusions*
Two basaltic units have been studied in South Westland. The Arnott Basalt is of Late Cretaceous to Paleocene age and thought to be associated with the Tasman Sea rifting event at that time. The younger Otitia Basalt and associated volcanic derived sediment is of late Eocene age and possibly related to renewed rifting in the area (Nathan et al., 1986; Sewell & Nathan, 1987).

McNaughton and Gibson (1970) outlined the possibility of observed seismic and high amplitude magnetic anomalies being caused by near surface basic volcanic rocks related to the outcrops seen onland. Volcanic intrusions inferred from seismic profiles are mapped by Nathan et al. (Map 8, 1986). Possible volcanic mounds are seen in the southwestern half of line EZD-1. The basal reflectors are truncated by these features and higher reflectors appear to be folded upwards by the feature. Unfortunately seismic resolution in this line prevents a clear outline and interaction with adjoining reflectors of the inferred volcanic intrusion being interpreted.

*Onshore basins*
Some of the onshore seismic profiles (e.g. OS-3) display a prominent near surface convex downward horizon that defines a wide depression. The reflectors in this depression or basin are undulose and exhibit some onlap onto the lower boundary. The fill is most likely glacial-fluvial outwash as seen at the top of the Harihari-1 well further to the west along the same profile.

4.3 Further geologic observations

4.3.1 Sedimentation volumes and rates
The decompacted volumes of the mapped sedimentary sequences can be calculated using the TECHBASE database and totalling the values for each sequence in each cell. All figures exclude sediments to the east of the South Westland Fault Zone, and thus cover an area of 23464 km². Note that due to the areally restricted nature of Sequence A, the rate of deposition given here has probably been underestimated. All rates of deposition compare well with those calculated for the well sections (Tables 4.2, 4.3, 4.4).

These volumes and rates are given in Table 4.6 and graphically illustrated in Fig. 4.15. The younger sequences, A, B, and C have the highest sediment volumes and sedimentation rates, and together account for 65% of the total sedimentary volume. Tippett (1992) estimates that around 120000 km³ of material has been removed from the Southern Alps.
during their uplift. From these estimates it can be said that about a quarter of that amount has been deposited in the South Westland Basin.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>Decompacted volume (km³)</th>
<th>Average volume deposition rate (km³ / Ma)</th>
<th>Average sedimentation rate (m / Ma)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>2359</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>10684</td>
<td>5623</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>15233</td>
<td>7617</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>10905</td>
<td>1091</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>4524</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43705</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 4.6**: Estimated decompacted sediment volumes and rates in the South Westland Basin for each mapped sequence.

**FIGURE 4.22**: Sedimentation rates for each sequence estimated from the model of the South Westland Basin.

4.3.2 Petrography

No petrographic analysis were undertaken in this thesis. Instead, petrographic data from other studies (Nathan, 1977, 1978; Adams, 1987) have been incorporated here for further interpretation. Modal analyses (details given in the Appendices) for samples from various Late Cretaceous–Miocene sediments have been used to compile a triangular QFL
Application and Observations

The comparative provenence types given by Dickinson & Suczek (1979) are outlined in Section 3.5 and Fig. 3.11.

![QFL diagram](image)

**FIGURE 4.23:** QFL diagram of Late Cretaceous–Eocene sediments studied in onshore South Westland (data from Nathan, 1977, 1978; Adams, 1987).

### 4.3.3 Geophysical observations

Completing the broad survey of geologic information in the study of the South Westland Basin is geophysical data from gravity and magnetic studies. A number of gravity and magnetic anomaly maps covering the study area have been compiled (e.g. Woodward, 1975; Davy & Davey, 1985; Rose & Davey, 1985). The gravity anomalies across the study area are fairly complex, dominated by two large negative anomalies. To the southwest is a large regional anomaly of around -900 µN/kg (-90 mgal), believed to be associated with the formation of a root of continental crust underneath the Southern Alps (Allis, 1981, 1986). To the southwest is another regional scale anomaly in the order of -2000 µN/kg (-200 mgal) which is associated with the ocean-continent convergent Puysegur margin, although complicated by inherited tectonic structures in the Fiordland block (Kamp & Hegarty, 1989). The anomaly associated with the Puysegur margin appears to run northeast into the southwestern corner of the study area (Fig. 4.17). To the northeast and around 60 km offshore, a gravity high of +200 µN/kg (+20 mgal) is seen in the vicinity of the Mikonui-1 well and basement high.

Aeromagnetic surveys have been used to delineate a NE-trending belt of high amplitude (100–300 nT) positive magnetic anomalies immediately offshore between the Cook River
This anomaly is correlated with outcrops of Arnott Basalt at Arnott Point, and thought to represent a linear volcanic centre (McNaughton & Gibson, 1970; Nathan, 1977; Sewell & Nathan, 1987). It is interesting to note that the magnetic anomalies appear to be orientated along the 'Coastal Monoclne', suggesting that the eruptive centres were structurally controlled (Nathan, 1977).

FIGURE 4.17: Schematic diagram of gravity anomalies across the study area and surrounding regions in the South Island. Free Air Anomalies over sea, Bouguer Anomalies over land. Contour units in µN/kg. Note 10 µN/kg = 1 mgal.
Chapter 5

Interpretation and Discussion of Basin Analysis in South Westland
5.0 Introduction

In Chapter 4 the various methodologies of basin analysis were applied to geological, geophysical and industry acquired seismic data from the South Westland Basin. The objective of this chapter is to interpret the observations of Chapter 4, in particular in the terms of features that may be associated with foreland basins.

5.1 Exploration well stratigraphy

The stratigraphy of the three exploration wells drilled in the basin are dominated by thick Miocene-Pliocene mudstones with occasional interbedded sand and conglomeratic layers (Fig. 4.2). The basement has been correlated with the Greenland Group, overlain, where present, by a thin, possibly marginal marine, coal measures sequence. Above this is a regionally extensive shallow to upper bathyal marine bioclastic limestone. Overlying the limestone unit are the thick mudstone sequences deposited in bathyal through to shelf marine environments. A comparison of the well and outcrop stratigraphy in South Westland with the 'classical' foreland basin sequence from the North Alpine Foreland Basin (NAFB) (Allen & Allen, 1990) is given below in Table 5.1.

From this comparison, a number of similarities and differences are highlighted between South Westland and the classical model. In both basins there is a similar overall sedimentation pattern or megasequence, involving rapid basin subsidence followed by a gradual shallowing upwards of sediment as the basin is filled. However, the successions underlying the Molasse deposits formed in different differing tectonic settings. In the classical model, the inception of a foreland basin was the result of lithospheric loading and associated rapid subsidence. In South Westland, the possible inception of a foreland basin occurred after long term gradual subsidence phase. This difference in early stage basin formation is reflected in the sediments deposited.

The two basins have similar sequences of thick turbiditic deposits derived from active denudation of uplifted crust in the hinterland of the collision zone. In the NAFB these turbidites gradual grade upwards into shallow and marginal marine sedimentation and continental 'Molasse'. In South Westland such deposits are restricted to the uplifted inner margin, although the prograding Foreset beds noted in the seismic sections (see Chapter 4 and interpretation below) may represent the overall shallowing of the basin. The restricted nature of the Molasse equivalent sediments may indicate that the South Westland Basin has not fully evolved to a completely filled basin as in the NAFB.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>North Alpine Foreland Basin</th>
<th>South Westland Basin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>① Upper Freshwater Molasse:</td>
<td>① Recent 'Molasse'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the final choking of the NAFB</td>
<td>coarse glacial derived clastics with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by coarse continental clastics.</td>
<td>occasional marine fossils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>② Upper Marine Molasse:</td>
<td>Restricted to uplifted inner margin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>represent shallow marine and estuarine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depositional systems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>③ Lower Freshwater Molasse:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first fluvial and lacustrine deposits of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAFB.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>④ Lower Marine Molasse:</td>
<td>④ Foreset beds*:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transition from shelf to shoreline</td>
<td>the transition from deep marine to shelf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedimentation.</td>
<td>depth sedimentation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⑤ North Helvetic:</td>
<td>⑥ Tittiria Formation:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>represent turbiditic depositional systems</td>
<td>represent turbiditic depositional systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shed from the active orogenic wedge.</td>
<td>shed from active oblique collisional zone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⑦ Nummulitic limestones and</td>
<td>⑧ Bioclastic limestone:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globigerina shales:</td>
<td>represent marine transgression across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>represent foreland drowning.</td>
<td>thermally subsiding continental block.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No equivalent?</td>
<td>⑨ Coal Measures:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>represent marginal marine conditions in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>localised rift depressions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⑩ Basal unconformity:</td>
<td>⑪ Basal unconformity:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due to regional uplift of the foreland</td>
<td>due to orogenic uplift of lithosphere and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lithosphere.</td>
<td>subsequent thermal contraction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 5.1:** Comparison and interpretation of 'classical' foreland basin megasequences from the North Alpine Foreland Basin (Allen & Allen, 1990) and broad sequences in the South Westland Basin (this study). * Foreset beds are described and interpreted below.

The loss of sediment accommodation potential invokes the evolution of foreland basins from an underfilled stage, through overfilled to a steady-state as described by Covey (1986) for the western Taiwan foreland basin. Similar descriptions can be applied to the NAFB, and the South Westland Basin. The earlier deposits (① in Table 5.1) represent the underfilled stage of foreland basin evolution where subsidence is faster than the rate of deposition. As the uplift of the Southern Alps continued and increased sediment sources become available, the South Westland Basin has gradually filled, shallowing through a prograding sequence (⑤ in Table 5.1) to Molasse-type deposits presently at the top of the sequence. This overall sequence implies that the basin may have reached or is near a steady state profile where sediment bypasses deposition in the basin. This simple pattern of basin evolution is probably complicated by glacially driven sea level fluctuations during the Pliocene.
5.2 Seismic stratigraphy

5.2.1 Seismic horizons and sequences

5.2.1.1 Basement Horizon

The basement horizon is very prominent in most of the seismic sections. The frequent absence of this reflector near shore may be due to the effects of the South Westland Fault Zone, discussed elsewhere. The basement reflector is often closely associated with the Oligocene horizon. The overall structure of the basement reveals a steep dip toward the present coastline and the inferred location of the South Westland Fault Zone to a depth of up to 4 km. About 60 km offshore is an elongate basement high running parallel with the coast rising to around 1600 m below sea level (Fig. 4.16). The Mikonui-1 exploration well was deliberately sited over this basement high. Hereinafter this notable basement high is entitled the Mikonui High. Westward of the Mikonui High, the basement begins to dip to the west, but seemingly at a shallower angle than to the east. Reconstructions of the plate boundaries during the Late Cretaceous through to the Oligocene (e.g. Walcott, 1984a, 1987) and stratigraphic evidence onshore (Nathan, 1977, 1978; Adams, 1987) suggests that the present basement high was already present at this time, forming a possibly uplifted dome between two obliquely orientated extensional zones (Fig. 1.5). The nature and geometry of this basement structure will be further explored using flexural models of the lithosphere below.

5.2.1.2 Sequence E: Post rifting marine transgression

Sequence E is often too thin to display any internal configuration in seismic sections. The sequence thickens offshore toward the west, where seismic reflectors are seen onlapping onto the basement toward the east (e.g. PS-21, Fig. 4.14; L-206, Fig. 4.11). This onlap is an indication of the regional marine transgression across the area after the rifting of the New Zealand continental block from eastern Gondwanaland. The thickening toward the west is probably toward the loci of subsidence along the margins of the Tasman Sea rifting centre, now the present margins of the Challenger Plateau (Fig. 4.17; Fig. 5.3). Onshore, outcrop evidence suggests that, at least locally, Late Cretaceous–Eocene sediments thicken eastward also (Adams, 1987). This may indicate the deposition of sediments on essentially passive margins on either side of a basement high.

5.2.1.3 Oligocene Horizon: Maximum flooding surface

The Oligocene horizon represents a time of major change within the basin. Significant hiatuses are noted above and below it in most areas. The horizon itself is the seismic
expression of the regionally extensive Awarua limestone which covers most of the area. The Awarua Limestone has a bioclastic origin with depositional depths varying from inner shelf in the onshore wells to outer shelf–upper bathyal depths in Mikonui-1. The Awarua Limestone, along with numerous other Oligocene limestones in New Zealand is interpreted as marking the height of a marine transgression across continental New Zealand due to thermal subsidence after the rifting of the Tasman Sea. In broad seismic stratigraphic terms, this horizon may be thought of as a maximum flooding surface.

5.2.1.4 Sequence D: Early turbiditic filling

A major factor in the interpretation of this sequence is the correlation with sediments onshore. The Tititira Formation consists of a deep-water sequence passing upwards from hemipelagic mudstone through distal and proximal turbidites into a mass-flow conglomerate-sandstone complex (Nathan, 1978). Sequence D has an overall sheet-line form (e.g. EZD-3, Fig. 4.10), with possible localised thickenings. Sediment volumes and rates suggest that deposition was slower during Sequence D than in the overlying Sequence C (Table 4.6). This may be due to a lack of an erosional source area and/or sediment starvation in a deep basin. The sequence onlaps onto the Oligocene Horizon toward the basement high (L-206, Fig. 4.11), indicating that it is filling a basin that subsided rapidly sometime after the Oligocene. This subsidence must have been, at least initially, more rapid than the rate of deposition (Sequence D average = 46 m/Ma) to create a basin where Sequence D could infill and gradually onlap toward the basement high in the west.

5.2.1.5 Top Miocene Horizon: Early uplift event

Due to the generally low amplitude nature of the reflector, the Top Miocene Horizon only weakly displays some seismic features, mostly in proximal sections associated with the wedge seen in Sequence C (EZD-3, Fig. 4.10). Some truncation against the lower boundary is suggested by distal sections (L-206, Fig. 4.11). The horizon appears to indicate a change in depositional regimes between the sequences above and below it. This horizon may therefore represent a regional erosional event. Indeed, the Tongaporutuan series (Late Miocene) is inferred to be absent from the Mikonui-1 well section (Diamond Shamrock, 1981), although completely present in Harihari-1 and Waiho-1 (Fig. 4.2). This may indicate that erosion was limited to an emergent basement high during the Late Miocene. No significant eustatic sea level fall is noted in the Haq curve (Bally, 1987) at around the 5 Ma point. This seismic structure may be associated with the increased convergence across the Alpine Fault. Geohistory analysis of the exploration wells indicates that the Late Miocene was a time of rapid subsidence, but this does not appear to have caused a significant change in the styles of deposition within the basin.
5.2.1.6 Sequence C : Further turbidite infilling and reworking

The interpretation of Sequence C is also closely linked with the interpretation of the Tititira Formation. The formation covers an age range from the Lillburnian through to the Tongaporutuan. Onshore, this formation is bounded above and below by extensive unconformities, which do not appear to continue into the wells at Harihari-1 and Waiho-1. In the exploration wells, the Tititira Formation only represents the lowest part of a continuous upper Cenozoic sequence. Exotic blocks and reworked foraminifera from the Arnold and Landon Series are found within sediments of early Opoitian age in Waiho-1. Nathan (1978) interprets this as a result of rapid uplift and deformation along the 'Coastal Monocline'. The sediments at the base of Sequence C are correlated with well sediments of Opoitian age in Mikonui-1. Thus the prominent wedge that occurs in proximal sections is probably related to the inferred uplift of the 'Coastal Monocline' (EZD-3, Fig. 4.10). It may represent a fan of detritus eroded from the uplifted sediments.

If this is the case, then a number of inferences may be drawn from the nature of the wedge along the basin margin where it occurs. The wedge is deformed in the south, and appears to thin and occur at higher stratigraphic levels further north. This infers that uplift and associated deformation began earlier in the south and migrated northwards. The amount and/or duration of uplift has also decreased northward. This interpretation is inconsistent with the findings of Kamp et al. (1992) which find the inversion of the basin margin beginning in the north and migrating southward.

There are also alternative interpretations for the wedge structure. At first appearance it may resemble a thrust structure. However, the top of the wedge is not a basement surface as numerous coherent reflectors can be seen below it. The wedge may then represent a thin-skinned thrust of older Miocene sediments as purported by Adams (1987), but a repeating sequence of Miocene sediments is not seen in the nearby exploration at Waiho-1 as would be expected if this were the case. Although it cannot be confirmed either way until directly sampled, the wedge is probably not tectonic in origin.

The reflectors above the wedge represent the continuation of moderately rapid deposition into the basin. The reflectors are parallel with the top of the wedge, and the prominence of the wedge may simply be a result of a brief erosional interval that highlighted the reflector at the top of the group. The discontinuous and undulose nature of the reflectors suggests a degree of mixing of the sediments and depositional structures. These may represent the fan and channel systems associated with the deep-water turbidite deposition in the offshore continuation of the Tititira Formation.
5.2.1.7 **Horizon PPB: retrogradational transgression**

This horizon is probably better described as a relatively thin transitional sequence. The stepping upwards and shorewards of the reflectors suggests a retrogradational transgressive systems tract formed during a rapid relative rise of sea level. The prominent reflectors in a background of low-amplitude reflectors may represent a coastal and near shore lithofacies of coarser sands in a background of mudstones above and below. The often undulose nature of the horizon and occasional truncation of underlying reflectors suggest that it is an erosional feature, probably associated with the fall of relative sea level before the transgression.

5.2.1.8 **Sequence B: Foreset beds**

Sequence B contains a seismic stratigraphic record of a complex history of deposition. The basal sections of this unit appear to be generally flat-lying, but undulose, dipping and thinning to the northwest. They grade upwards into increasingly prominent prograding configurations. This suggests that the basal sections are the distal bottomset segments of prograding clinoforms that occur to the southeast (onshore direction) of the seismic profiles. As the sequence continued to prograde outwards the clinoforms began to build over the older bottomset segments. These bottomset reflectors are also notably undulose and discontinuous in nature, as are the younger bottomset segments in the distal sections. These features may represent slumping of the prograding clinoforms and/or distal fans deposited during times of sediment bypassing on the shelf to the southeast. Such seismic features are also evident in the Plio-Pliocene Giant Foreset Beds in Taranaki Basin (Beggs, 1990).

The topset segments of the prograding clinoforms seen in the section show some reflectors as mostly continuous from foreset to topset, while others are truncated. This variability infers topset strata with a depositional history of alternating aggradation and sediment bypassing within a high energy depositional environment (Mitchum, Vail & Sangree, 1977; Section 2.1.5.1). Such a high energy environment would be found in the near shore, with sediment being supplied in high volumes by rivers. If the modern situation is an analog for this depositional environment, then the rivers carried high volumes of sediment and could rapidly change course during large floods which were frequent. This presumably would have a corresponding effect on the sediment distribution and deposition on the shelf. Eustatic controls on the topset segment depositional environment could also be significant.
5.2.1.9  **Horizon PPA: Change in depositional regimes**

The prominent arcuate shape of this horizon suggests that it represents a significant change in depositional regime between the sediments above and below. Such a change is also suggested by the change in the internal configuration of seismic reflectors across this horizon. The horizon may represent an erosional surface, possibly the top boundary of a sequence overlapped by a rapidly prograding complex. However, the erosional interpretation is inconsistent with the lack of truncated reflectors below the horizon. This infers that no significant erosion occurred at this level. The similarity of this horizon with reflectors immediately below in the top of Sequence B would suggest that it is a depositional feature that marks the rapid transition between depositional environments. The sequence below is generally progradational, while the sequence above has been interpreted as a rapidly deposited and frequently slumped unit.

5.2.1.10  **Sequence A: Eustatically dominated progradational complex**

Some evidence of onlap onto the lower boundary of this unit (Horizon PPA) suggests that at least the lower part of this sequence may be retrogradational. Above the base the reflectors become discontinuous, although this may also reflect interference from the seawater-sediment interface. The lower boundary is dated at near 1.2 Ma, thus the sediment deposited should presumably represent the huge volumes of material eroded off the Southern Alps during that time which includes numerous glacial periods. Presumably the depositional environment would have also been effected by sea level changes associated with glacial periods during the Pliostocene glaciations. The lithology of the sequence comprises unconsolidated mudstones capped with a thick unit of bioclasts derived from both shallow and deep waters. The alternation of depth of deposition may reflect sea level changes during glacial-interglacial cycles. The bioclasts are well preserved, indicating little or no transportation. The presence of such a thick sequence of bioclasts immediately offshore from a zone of high terrestrial deposition suggests that the sediments were actively bypassing the shelf and/or being actively scoured from the area. It may be that the bioclast deposits are confined to the shelf bulge and are the result of ocean currents scouring the seafloor over the bulge. Only further in-situ investigations of the near surface sediments in the area will reveal the extent and nature of the bioclastic deposits.

Sequence A may represent a very rapidly constructed progradational complex. Some sections show onlap in the shoreward section of the lower boundary with either erosional truncation or downlapping in the distal margins of the sequence. This is typical of a prograding configuration (see Section 2.1.5.1, Figure 2.6), but may also occur in lowstand
wedges (Section 2.1.6, Figure 2.10c) if deposition occurs beyond the shelf break. The undulose nature of reflectors in PS-19 may be interpreted as channel structures associated with the progradational complex. Muddy sediments were deposited at outer shelf to upper bathyal depths, with rapid deposition causing frequent collapses of the prograding foresets. This would cause any reflectors to become discontinuous, confusing what was probably an already seismically homogeneous sequence. The bioclasts may indicate the point at which muddy sediments bypassed deposition at the shelf break (e.g. channelled away by the canyon systems) and/or were scoured by strong ocean currents.

5.2.1.11 Seafloor: Present surface

The seafloor bathymetric record shows that two broad zones of seafloor physiography in South Westland, roughly divided north and south at the mouth of the Cook River. In the northern sector, the seafloor is generally flat lying with the shelf sloping to the northwest. Directly offshore from Hokitika the extensive Hokitika Canyon marks the northern edge of a shelf bulge.

To the south of the Cook River the seafloor is more rugged, cut by numerous canyons branching off the laterally continuous Cook Canyon as it runs down into the Puysegur Trench off Fiordland. The seismic lines in the southwest cross these canyons and often illustrate how steeply walled they are, suggesting glacial or associated fluvial erosion and/or some form of fault control. Unfortunately the resolution of the seismic lines prevents the determination of any fault structures, although the South Westland Fault Zone may extend through this area. The seafloor in the region awaits further study, especially in concern to the flow of currents and sediments. However, the Cook Canyon system broadly resembles the Hikurangi trough system on the eastern seaboard of the North and South Islands with active canyons reaching into the shelf and close to the modern shoreline. The southwesterly extension of the Cook Canyon is probably better thought of as a northeasterly extension of the Puysegur Trench acting as a sink for sediments derived from the Southern Alps south of the Cook River and channelled into it by a number of canyon systems.

5.2.2 Faulting

Overall, the offshore sediment sequences in the South Westland Basin appear to be remarkably undeformed by faulting, assuming the wedge structure in Sequence C is not a tectonic feature. The only major fault present is the South Westland Fault Zone, marking the southeastern margin of the basin, presumably uplifting the southeastern block. The pre-Miocene horizons are notably truncated by this fault zone, but higher horizons may be continuous onto the block. There is some evidence to suggest that the block dips toward the
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north, as older reflectors appear to be continuous onto the block further north. The South Westland Fault Zone appears to come onshore somewhere near, but to the southeast of Waiho-1. Onshore the fault is more easily traced as the boundary of uplifted Paleozoic basement rocks to the southeast. Near Harihari-1 the fault appears to form a large U-shaped bend, with another, much smaller thrust being present within this U-bend. The fault is inferred to continue into the Hohonu Fault further north (Kamp et al., 1992). The most northerly lines in the study area exhibit noticeable thickening toward the coastline, and although not directly seen, these may imply the presence of a southerly extension of the Cape Foulwind Fault as proposed by Norris (1978), this fault being upthrown on its eastern side.

Onshore, numerous faults have been invoked by various workers (Mutch & McKellar, 1964; Nathan, 1977; Adams, 1987) to explain the complex relationships between sedimentary sequences seen in the Paringa area. Adams (1987) went further and described these features as a possible thrust structure, implying that similar structures may be seen offshore. Apart from a possible structure dated at near the Top Miocene in Sequence C, no thrust structures have been recognised. However it may be possible that such structures exist immediately offshore in the small gap in geological coverage between onshore outcrop and offshore seismic lines.

5.2.3 Other seismic features

Onshore basins

Adams (1980) described the river valleys in South Westland as 'overfilled fiords' which were formed by glacial action, and then completely filled by sediment when the glaciers retreated. The features seen in onshore seismic lines (OS-3, Fig. 4.13) exhibit a wide U-shaped depression often associated with a glacial valley. The onlapping of the horizons in the basin are probably the glacial outwash and fluvial deposits infilling the valley left by the retreating glacier.

5.3 Further geological interpretations

5.3.1 Sedimentation rates

The sedimentation rates discussed here are summarised in Table 4.6. The low accumulation rate of Sequence E is reminiscent of rates in cratonic basins (Schwab, 1986). Sequence D resembles the depositional rate on a continental shelf, although biostratigraphy indicates that this sequence was deposited at greater depths than on the shelf and the low rate may be an indication of sediment starvation in a deep basin. 5 million years before present appears to mark a point of rapid transition, with a huge increase in sedimentation rates
than in the previous two sequences. The calculated sedimentation rates for the Sequences B and C are particularly high at 0.240 and 0.325 m/1000 yr respectively. These compare well with the mean accumulation rate for foreland basins of 0.186 m/1000 yr and flysch deposits in foreland basins of 0.345 m/1000 yr (Schwab, 1986). The last three sequences make up the bulk of the total sediment body in the basin and clearly indicate that vast amounts of sediment were deposited comparatively recently in the basin.

Unfortunately, no errors have been calculated for the estimation of sediment volumes, so it is unclear if the difference in rates between the last three sequences, particularly C and B, is statistically valid. The rate of deposition for Sequence A has probably been underestimated due to its restricted area of deposition. Any difference may indicate a reduction of sediment supply and/or accommodation for deposition. A decrease in sediment supply is unlikely as fission track dating evidence indicates that uplift in the Southern Alps continued to increase through the Plio-Pliocene to the present (Tippett & Kamp, in press). The thick and extensive deposits of Sequence C have probably filled most of the available space in the basin formed after the Oligocene, causing sediment bypassing in the higher sequences, particularly to the north and south within the nearshore zone.

5.3.2 Petrography

The petrography of the onshore sedimentary units, displayed in Fig. 4.16, all dominantly plot within the Recycled Orogen provenance of Dickinson & Suczek (1979; Fig. 3.11). Unfortunately the petrography is not detailed or extensive enough to differentiate between the provenances of a variety of convergent tectonic settings as suggested by Dickinson (1984, in Schwab, 1986). So, although foreland basin detritus invariably plots within the Recycled Orogen provenance, the fact that sediments in the South Westland Basin do also, is not conclusive proof of their deposition in a foreland basin.

5.3.3 Geophysical observations

Karner & Watts (1983) studied the gravity anomaly profiles of three major collisional zones with their associated foreland basins: the Himalayas, Appalachians and Western Alps (Fig. 3.4). All exhibited a gravity low displaced toward the foreland, presumably a result of lower density sediment infilling a flexurally formed basin. An outer gravity high was also noted. The last two examples also displayed gravity highs toward the highest topography. In the South Westland case an outer gravity high (+200 μN/kg; +20 mgal) can be seen to the northwest of the deepest part of the basin, coinciding with the Mikonui basement high (Fig. 4.17). This gravity high appears to be isolated to the area around the Mikonui-1 well-site, even though the basement high continues to the southwest. This may just reflect the less pronounced nature of the basement high further south and/or
interference from the large negative gravity anomaly caused by the ocean-continent collision across the Puysegur margin further to the southwest.

Alternatively, the positive gravity anomaly may be an inherited feature from an earlier tectonic regime. A similar situation is suggested in the western margin of Fiordland (Kamp & Hegarty, 1989). As discussed above, the Mikonui High appears to have been an elevated area since the inception of rifting in the Tasman Sea, and was for some time flanked by rift margins on two sides. Although subsidence is noted in the Mikonui-1 wellsite, it is possible that the high was formed as an uplifted rift shoulder, emphasised by the proximity of two rift margins. The present gravity anomaly structure over this feature may be inherited from this tectonic regime.

A possible corresponding gravity low over the deepest part of the basin is difficult to recognise due to the large regional field associated with the crustal thickening in the Southern Alps (-900 μN/kg; -90 mgal; Allis, 1981). The gravity anomalies associated with the examples of Karner and Watts (1983) are in the order of 200 mgal (2000 μN/kg), seemingly twice the size of the gravity anomaly gradient across South Westland and the Southern Alps. This may reflect the smaller scale of the South Island collision in comparison with the examples used by Karner & Watts (1983), especially in comparison with the Himalayas. Further analysis of the gravity field, not undertaken in this study, would help to delineate the structures responsible for the mapped gravity anomalies.
5.4 Geodynamical modelling

5.4.1 Subsidence modelling

5.4.1.1 Exploration well subsidence

The long term tectonic subsidence calculated in the geohistory plot of Mikonui-1 (Fig. 4.3) lends itself to subsidence modelling using the McKenzie model. Mikonui-1 is sited on the continental shelf approximately 50 km offshore. The region was marginal to rifting between eastern Gondwanaland and New Zealand during the Late Cretaceous (see Chapter 1). After the opening of the Tasman Sea about 80 Ma ago, the New Zealand micro-continent drifted away from the active spreading ridges. During this time the thinned lithosphere cooled and gradually subsided. This caused a marine transgression to occur, which is recorded in the Eocene–Oligocene succession. The Late Cretaceous–Oligocene sediments in Mikonui-1 are an example of such a record. When extracted from the geohistory results, the tectonic subsidence can be compared directly to various models of tectonic subsidence driven by thermal contraction after a rifting event, as discussed in Section 2.3.1. The models were calculated using equation 2.10, with a standard lithospheric thickness of 125 km. The results of the modelling for $\beta$-values of 1.20, 1.25 and 1.30 are shown in Fig. 5.1.

![FIGURE 5.1: Plot of calculated tectonic subsidence in Mikonui-1 compared with modelled tectonic subsidence for a lithosphere of original thickness 125 km and stretched by a factor of 1.20, 1.25 and 1.30 at 60 Ma.](image)
For the 60–35 Ma (Paleogene) section of the tectonic curve a visually estimated best-fit line would be $\beta=1.20$. Overall, up to around 5 Ma, the visually estimated best-fit line would appear to be that of $\beta=1.25$. This means the assumed original lithospheric thickness of 125 km was thinned to 100 km.

Of interest is that the tectonic subsidence calculated in Mikonui-1 continues to fit the model quite well even after the inception of the Alpine Fault during the Miocene about 23 Ma. It is not until about 5 Ma, that tectonic subsidence is displaced from the model.

In Harihari-1 and Waiho-1 the Late Cretaceous–Oligocene marine transgressive sediments are absent, so no record exists for comparison with theoretical models. Both onshore wells instead show a rapid overall subsidence from the start of their sedimentary records (Figure 5.B). To model such subsidence using the McKenzie model would require a $\beta$-factor in the order of 10 and larger. Such stretching factors are associated with major rifting evolving into seafloor spreading (Allen & Allen, 1990). This clearly did not happen in South Westland. The area is not or has not recently been subject to volcanic activity, and the seismic profiles do not show the rift structures that would be expected if such an event had occurred. Another driving force for the recent and rapid subsidence in the three wells must be found.

**FIGURE 5.2:** Plot of calculated tectonic subsidence in Harihari-1 and Waiho-1 compared with modelled tectonic subsidence for a lithosphere of original thickness 125 km and stretched by a factor of 1.25 at 60 Ma.
The overall shape of all three tectonic subsidence curves is similar to those found in
foreland basins studied in North America (see Figure 3.10) and Taranaki (Stern, 1991).
The early stage exponential-decay curve represents subsidence in rifted margins which
develops into an exponential-increase curve that represents the loading and compression in
a foreland basin. The small upward kinks at the end of the subsidence curves in the
onshore exploration wells represent the uplift of thrust blocks.

If foreland basin formation is assumed to be the explanation, then onset of foreland basin
subsidence appears to begin in the onshore wells around 20-15 Ma. Similar subsidence in
Mikonui-1 doesn't begin until around 5 Ma, although subsidence appears to accelerate
around this time in the onshore wells. This may mean the 'front' of subsidence migrated
westward at a rate of around 5 km per million years. Assuming that this rate has
continued constantly, the subsidence front would now lie a further 25 km beyond Mikonui-1.
However, a cautionary note should be made that without the older sediments in the
onshore wells a definite onset of rapid subsidence cannot be exactly defined. Also, both
onshore wells occur near a major fault zone. At least a part of their subsidence may be fault
controlled, indeed the faulting itself may be associated with the formation of the foreland
basin, or subsequent basement inversion and loading (Kamp et al., 1992). At this level it
would be impossible to differentiate between the two controls in the sedimentary record.
No significant faulting occurs near Mikonui-1, thus the rapid subsidence that has occurred
there since 5 Ma may be entirely due to the loading of the Australia Plate, forming a
foreland basin in South Westland.

5.4.1.2 Regional tectonic subsidence

The tectonic subsidence of the entire South Westland Basin has been calculated by treating
each cell in the TECHBASE model as a well section, and thus backstripping it and
calculating the tectonic subsidence using the same principles from geohistory analysis.
The tectonic subsidence through time effectively gives the evolution of the external
tectonic controls on basin formation. The tectonic subsidence was calculated using
geohistory techniques at each horizon mapped in the study area and the results are
illustrated in Figures 5.3 to 5.7. One of the most difficult parameters to calculate is the
paleodepth across the basin at each time interval. As there is only limited information
available from the exploration wells and surface outcrops, a simple uniform paleodepth
for each time interval has been assumed. It is acknowledged that is oversimplifies the
situation, but such problems will remain until further information about the paleodepth
conditions in the basin can be obtained. The paleodepths derived from the
micropaleontology of each sequence is discussed in Section 4.1.2 and is summarised below in
Table 5.2:
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Horizon</th>
<th>Age (Ma)</th>
<th>Paleodepth (m)</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Seafloor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPA</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPB</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top Miocene</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oligocene</td>
<td>=30</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 5.2: Simplified summary of paleodepths at each time interval represented by the mapped seismic horizons.

The five diagrams clearly show the migration of the depocentre of basin tectonic subsidence from the northwestern side of the study area in the Oligocene, (Fig 5.3) to the south eastern margin from the late Miocene through to the present day (Figs. 5.4 to 5.7). Such depocentre migration would be consistent with the evolution of the basin from a passive margin/post rift setting in the Oligocene through to a possible loading event in the late Miocene and the subsequent rapid subsidence of the southeastern margin of the basin.

5.4.2 Flexural modelling

5.4.2.1 Flexure

Flexural modelling in the South Westland Basin can be done using cross-section basement profiles from both actual (and depth converted) seismic profiles and sections derived from the structural model. Three sections have been modelled, one actual line (L-206), and two section from the grid model of the study area at 96 and 150 km from the origin of the model grid, thus they are titled 96K and 150K (Fig. 2.20).

The flexural equations discussed in Chapter 2 model a continuous lithospheric plate to the edge that it is loaded on and/or broken. In South Westland, the South Westland Fault is inferred as the edge of the Australia Plate for flexural modelling purposes for a number of reasons:

- The South Westland Fault has been the site of around 4 km of uplift since the end of the Miocene (Kamp et al., 1992), thus the Australia Plate at that point may be significantly broken ib terms of flexural modelling.
- The uplift of the block to the east of the South Westland Fault would now presumably contribute to the load upon the Australia Plate to the west.
- No seismic lines penetrate with enough resolution to delineate the structure of the South Westland Fault and the associated uplifted block, especially the nature and depth of any underthrust lithosphere.
• Although fission track data (Kamp et al., 1992) gives a measurement of depth to basement, this is a paleodepth at a previous time, and unsuitable for use in modelling the present profile.

All three sections, and the basement structural map (Figure 4.16), show the basement dipping toward the modern coastline from a structural high about 60 km offshore from the inferred load point at the South Westland Fault Zone. This is a very short wavelength for such a feature in continental lithosphere. Using the equations discussed in Section 2.3.2 the lithospheric parameters of the Australia Plate underneath the basin can be calculated.

In the instance of an unbroken lithosphere, the flexural parameter is found with equation (2.20):

\[ x_b = \pi \alpha \]

\[ \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{60}{\pi} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \alpha = 19.10 \text{ km} \]

Using equation (2.16) the flexural rigidity can be calculated:

\[ \alpha = \left( \frac{4D}{g (\rho_m - \rho_s)} \right)^{1/4} \]

\[ \Rightarrow D = \frac{\alpha^4 g (\rho_m - \rho_s)}{4} \]

\[ \Rightarrow D = \frac{(19.10^4) \times 9.8 \times (3300 - 2350)}{4} \]

\[ \Rightarrow D = 3.10 \times 10^{20} \text{ Nm} \]

The effective elastic thickness can then be derived from equation (2.14):

\[ D = \frac{E h^3}{12(1 - \nu^2)} \]

\[ \Rightarrow h = \sqrt[3]{\frac{D 12(1 - \nu^2)}{E}} \]

\[ \Rightarrow h = \sqrt[3]{\frac{(3.10 \times 10^{20}) 12(1 - (0.25)^2)}{70 \times 10^9}} \]

\[ \Rightarrow h = 3680 \text{ m} \]
FIGURE 5.3: Calculated tectonic subsidence at the Oligocene (=30 Ma).
FIGURE 5.4: Calculated tectonic subsidence at the Top Miocene (5 Ma).
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FIGURE 5.5: Calculated tectonic subsidence at the Waipipian–Mangapanian boundary (3.1 Ma).
FIGURE 5.6: Calculated tectonic subsidence at the Nukumaruan-Castlecliffian boundary (1.2 Ma).
FIGURE 5.7: Calculated tectonic subsidence at the present.
An estimation of the line load (in N.m\(^{-1}\)) required to produce the flexure can be derived from equation (2.18):

\[ \omega_0 = \frac{V_0 \alpha^3}{8D} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad V_0 = \frac{\omega_0 8D}{\alpha^3} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad V_0 = \frac{1400 \times 8 \times 3.1 \times 10^{20}}{19100^3} \]

\[ \Rightarrow \quad V_0 = 4.98 \times 10^{11} \text{ N.m}^{-1} \]

For comparison, the topographic load represented by the Southern Alps may be roughly modelled by a block 240 km in length by 100 km in width at an average height of 1.25 km (Tippett, pers. com.). Assuming a density for schist at 2730 kg.m\(^{-3}\), and a gravity constant of 9.8 m.s\(^{-2}\), this gives a line load in the order of 8.0 \(\times\) 10\(^{12}\) N.m\(^{-1}\).

The process is repeated for a model of broken lithosphere using the relevant equations. The comparison of the observed sections and flexural models are illustrated in Figure 5.8, with the observed and derived parameters listed in Table 5.2.

These results show that, assuming the basement structure is completely the result of flexure, the lithosphere of the Australia Plate under the South Westland Basin is extremely weak at 3.10 and 9.79 \(\times\) 10\(^{20}\) Nm, occurring at the low end of studied lithospheric rigidities (Karner et al., 1983). Holt & Stern (1991) calculated the rigidity of the lithosphere under the Western Platform off Taranaki in the region of 5.6 \(\times\) 10\(^{22}\)–1.5 \(\times\) 10\(^{23}\) Nm, roughly two orders of magnitude greater than the calculated values for South Westland.

When the calculated values are plotted on the age versus flexural rigidity graph of Karner et al. (1983; Fig. 2.17), a thermal age of around 1.5–2.0 Ma is suggested. Given that the tectonic subsidence curves suggest that loading probably occurred around 15-10 Ma, the inferred thermal event would have occurred during the Southland Series.
FIGURE 5.8: Flexural models of the 96K, 150K and L206 basement sections. Model curves derived using parameters given in Table 5.3.
Interpretations and Discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed parameters:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Distance to forebulge</td>
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<td>Maximum deflection</td>
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<th>Calculated Parameters:</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Unbroken Lithosphere</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexural parameter</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flexural rigidity</td>
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<td>Elastic thickness</td>
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<td>Line load</td>
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| Broken Lithosphere     |
| Flexural parameter     | \( \alpha \) | 25.46 km |
| Flexural rigidity      | \( D \)    | \( 9.79 \times 10^{20} \) Nm |
| Elastic thickness      | \( T_e \)  | 5.35 km |
| Line load              | \( V_0 \)  | 3.32 \times 10^{11} \) Nm\(^{-1}\) (96K section) |
|                       |           | 2.61 \times 10^{11} \) Nm\(^{-1}\) (150K section) |
|                       |           | 1.90 \times 10^{11} \) Nm\(^{-1}\) (L-206 section) |

TABLE 5.3: Lithospheric parameters observed and calculated in the flexural models.

5.4.2.2 Bending stress

Using the bending stress equations (2.28 & 2.29) derived from Watts & Talwani (1974) and the calculated configuration of the lithosphere discussed above, the bending stresses induced by flexure have been calculated. These are displayed in Fig. 5.9. The maximum amount of stress appears to occur at around 20 km from the endload, and increase southwards from section L-206 at around 130 MPa to section 96K at around 210 MPa. These bending stresses are in excess of those that the lithosphere can sustain as outlined by the yield strength envelopes of McNutt (1980) and McNutt et al. (1988). This suggests that some faulting may occur at and/or around the 20 km point from the endload. No obvious structures are noted in the basement or overlying sediments at this point. However, it is interesting to note, that the basement profiles illustrated in Fig. 5.8 all show a 'stepped' geometry, with a step seen at or near the 20 km point. In sections 96K and 150K the stepping may be a side-effect of the contouring algorithm used to create the basement.
surface they represent, although the stepping can also be seen in section L-206 which has been taken directly from a depth converted seismic profile. Possible stepping in the basement reflector in the seismic profile of L-206 (Fig. 4.11) is weak. Assuming that the steps are a real feature of the basement surface, what is their origin and their relationship with the bending stresses of the flexed lithosphere?

**Bending stress**

![Bending stress graph](image)

**FIGURE 5.9:** Bending stress models for broken lithosphere of the 96K, 150K and L206 basement sections. Positive stress is extensional, although does not necessarily imply extensional features in reality. Model curves derived using parameters given in Table 5.3.

5.4.3 Discussion of geodynamical results

5.4.3.1 Early stage subsidence

The early stage thermal subsidence seen in Mikonui-1 is typical for passive margins formed after a rifting and drifting event. The estimated amount of lithospheric stretching is in the order of $\beta=1.25$. Such a relatively low stretching factor could be expected for the Mikonui-1 well-site which is about 150–200 km from the margin of the Challenger Plateau, which is underlain by continental crust. Low stretching factors result in the formation of ‘sags’—basins experiencing regional subsidence but lacking major extensional faulting (Allen & Allen, 1990). No significant faulting is recognised in the basement underlying the sedimentary sequence at Mikonui-1.

5.4.3.2 Late stage subsidence

The late stage rapid subsidence bears many similarities with subsidence curves in foreland basins. However, rapid subsidence is not a characteristic unique to foreland basins alone.
Attempting to model the rapid subsidence in the terms of the McKenzie model would require an unrealistically high $\beta$ factor. The geological implications of this would see the presence of rift structures and associated volcanism in the modern basin. These clearly do not occur, thus renewed rifting may be dismissed as a cause of the subsidence. Fault controlled subsidence cannot be as easily dismissed. The two onshore wells are near a major fault zone that bounds the margin of the basin. A directly extensional regime across this fault zone is unlikely as the the nearby Alpine Fault has been to some degree compressional through its existence, especially in the last 10 Myr. The Alpine Fault has also been responsible for a massive displacement of major tectonic units on either side by the means of a strike-slip movement. Although no evidence exists to confirm or deny the fact, the South Westland Fault Zone may also have had and/or have some degree of a strike-slip component in its movement. Basins associated with strike-slip deformation are generally small and complex compared to other basin types (Allen & Allen, 1990).

If this is this the case, then part of the subsidence seen in the three wells from around 15 Ma onwards may be due to strike-slip movement. Some foreland basins, particularly in the European collisional belt, exhibit features associated with strike-slip deformation. For example, the Venetian Basin in northern Italy (Massari et al., 1986) has a number of transpressional faults cutting across the basin, oblique to the strike of the main thrust fault. These faults are responsible for the tectonic control of sediment deformation and deposition within the basin. However, these faults have a distinct surface expression. No synthetic or antithetic faulting associated with strike-slip deformation along the Alpine Fault have been recognised in South Westland. Such structures are generally associated with thin-skinned tectonics in cover sediments, controlled by shallow faults steepening and converging at depth. Apart from possible thrust structures in the Paringa area, no thin-skinned style tectonics are easily recognised in South Westland as presumably the cover rocks that might have contained such structures have been removed by the uplift of the Southern Alps, and the onshore part of South Westland.

5.4.3.3 Basement flexure models

The flexural models of the three sections across the basement surface in the South Westland Basin have a peculiar result. If the basement surface is assumed to be entirely derived from the flexure of the Australia Plate, then the geodynamical equations suggest very weak flexural rigidities of the underlying lithosphere. The calculated rigidities are largely dependent on the distance to the forebulge in the basin, which appears to be around 60 km offshore from the South Westland Fault Zone, taken as the site of the endload in the flexural equations. The equations suggest a flexural rigidity in the order of $3.10^{-9.79} \times 10^{20}$ Nm for unbroken and broken lithosphere respectively. Given that the
model is assuming that the Pacific plate has been loaded onto the edge of the Australia plate, the broken lithosphere model is probably a better mathematical representation of the physical structure of the collision zone. There are a number of possible explanations for this low lithospheric rigidity, and these option will be explored below.

Initial setting

There are a number of unusual aspects of the geological setting of the South Westland basin that may make the normal assumptions about foreland basin formation invalid and/or inapplicable. The continental crust under the Challenger Plateau is notably thin, possibly around 20 km. This in turn resulted in the region being well below sea level before any loading event at the Alpine Fault could occur. This low profile may have contributed to the rapid nature of the loading event and resulting subsidence. The presumed forebulge has a transitional margin with oceanic crust at the edge of the Challenger Plateau to the southwest. The Puysegur ocean-continent convergence zone represents the southern continuation of the Pacific Plate thrusting over the Australia Plate in the central South Island. The transition between continental and oceanic crust in the South Westland situation may have a weakening effect on the flexed continental lithosphere. It is interesting to note that within 'pure' continental settings that significant lateral variation in flexural rigidity is postulated postulated in the Himalayan collision zone (Lyon-Caen & Molnar, 1985) and the Ebro basin (Zoetemeijer et al., 1990).

Karner and Watts (1983) postulated the existence of hidden or subsurface loads, such as density variations in the lithosphere, as an extra driving force for foreland flexure and subsidence in the Alps and Appalachians (Karner & Watts, 1983). A similar situation exists in the Appennines and Carpathians (Royden & Karner, 1984). Further study of gravity anomalies and basement structure may help to delineate possible subsurface loads. One fundamental assumption of the general flexural equation is that no horizontal forces act on the flexed lithosphere (Equation 2.15). Given the tremendous rates of uplift and convergence occurring across the Alpine Fault this assumption may not be valid in the South Westland basin. Studies of shear strain rate across the Alpine Fault (Walcott, 1979) suggests that a large part of the strain is accommodated at and immediately southeast of the Alpine Fault. The inferred low rates of strain to the west of the Alpine Fault may be further complicated by the presence of the South Westland Fault Zone. No attempt has been made in this study to relate the strain with possible horizontal stresses acting on the Australia Plate. Recent work in the Appalachians has developed a conceptual framework for linking vertical movements in a foreland basin with intraplate stress fluctuations (Peper et al., 1992). Again, no such analysis in the South Westland basin has been undertaken by this study.
Interpretations and Discussion

High heat flow
Low lithospheric flexural rigidities are frequently associated with high heat flows through the lithosphere, e.g. Western United States (Turcotte & Schubert, 1982, p.222) and the Ebro Basin, northern Spain (Zoetemeijer et al., 1990). This reflects the weakening effect of elevated temperatures on the mechanical properties of the lithosphere. Zoetemeijer et al. (1990) discuss the correlation of flexural models of the lithosphere below the Ebro basin with laboratory experiments of the dependence of lithospheric yield strength on temperature. They find an elastic thickness of 8 km ($D = 3.2 \times 10^{21} \text{ Nm}$), is comparable with the cumulative strength of the yield envelope calculated for a heat flow of 100 mW.m$^{-2}$. An elastic thickness of 30 km ($D = 1.68 \times 10^{23} \text{ Nm}$) is consistent with a lithospheric strength profile corresponding to a heat flow between 60 and 80 mW.m$^{-2}$. The high heat flow in the Ebro basin is attributed to the previous formation of an aulacogen immediately to the south of the basin. If the analog is valid in the case of South Westland, then a heat flow of over 100 mW.m$^{-2}$ could be expected. Unfortunately, no direct heat flow measurements in the South Westland basin have been undertaken. A relatively high geothermal gradient, averaging around 35°C/km have been noted in oil exploration wells in other parts of the West Coast Region (Matthews, 1984). The rapid uplift of the Southern Alps has brought high temperature geotherms closer to the surface, with temperatures between 140° and 350°C predicted within 2 km of the surface (Allis et al., 1979). The effect of this heating on the nearby Australia plate is unknown, and the thermal model of Allis et al. (1979) is restricted to a zone $15 \pm 10$ km from the Alpine Fault.

Viscoelasticity
A possible viscoelastic relaxation of the lithosphere with time after an initial loading event has been used to model the features noted in the Alberta Basin, Canada by Beaumont (1981). Essentially, a viscoelastic lithosphere relaxes with time after the emplacement of a load, causing the basin to become deeper and narrower (Fig. 3.3b). The narrowness of the basin in South Westland may reflect such relaxation. However, relaxation may occur a significant time after the loading event, for example Beaumont (1981) estimated a viscoelastic relaxation time of 27.5 Myr. Also, relaxation presumably occurs after any new loading and thus renewed elastic subsidence has ceased. In both instances the South Westland basin may not comply. Initial loading possibly occurred around 15-10 Ma, and convergence across the Alpine Fault has only increased since then, making any possible long-term tectonic quiescence periods unlikely in which viscoelastic relaxation could occur. Viscoelastic relaxation could also be possibly interpreted from stratigraphic features in the basin, as in the case of the Alberta Basin. However, the stratigraphy of the basin has not been studied in enough detail to provide the evidence for or against such a hypothesis.
Recent formation

The weak rigidity of the lithosphere suggests that it may have formed or at least significantly heated around 2 Myr before the loading event. As discussed above, this would imply a large heating event in the basin occurred during the Southland series sediments. This in turn would suggest either renewed rifting and/or volcanism. No evidence has been recognised for either instance in the sediments of this age (Sequence D). Structures generally associated with rifting, e.g. normal extensional faults, cannot be seen in seismic profiles. Volcanism in the South Westland basin appears limited to around and immediately offshore the Paringa section, and no later than Eocene in age.

Inherited structures

The narrow nature of the basin may be the result of an inherited structure from a previous tectonic regime that has continued to have a significant control on the present geometry of the basin. Two such structures may have existed, and in combination may contribute to the basement profile seen. The Mikonui basement high marks the position of the forebulge of the basin, assuming flexure of the Australia Plate. The basement high appears to have existed since at least the Late Cretaceous where it formed a ridge between two extensional centres that were oblique to each other. Although since overwhelmed by thermal subsidence and outward building of sediments, the basement high appears to have remained in place. As discussed above from the geohistory analysis results, a linear migration of the apparent subsidence front from the onshore wells to Mikonui-1, would suggest that the front would now lie a further 25 km or so beyond the basement high. Together these two notes may suggest that the Mikonui basement high is some sort of structural flaw in the lithosphere, presently acting as a hinge zone for the flexure of the Australia Plate, and not allowing further migration of the forebulge. If this were the case then the entire flexure model of the plate may be invalid.

As discussed above, there is the possibility that some deformation occurred as the result of strike-slip movement along the Alpine Fault before it became significantly convergent. Similar polyhistory basins occur in the European collision zone with complex tectonics causing foreland basins to contain strike-slip structures and vice versa (e.g. Massari et al., 1986). Although no surface record of such deformation is now recognised, it is intuitively unreasonable to assume that around 300 km of lateral movement could occur on the Alpine Fault without some deformation in nearby regions, especially the South Westland Basin which is particularly close. The steps noted in the basement profiles in the flexural models (Fig. 5.8) may be related to such deformation as they appear to mark the point where the basement dips at a steeper angle toward the basin margin. The stepped basement profiles, possibly in combination with a hinge zone along the Mikonui basement
high, may represent an inherited structure from previous tectonic regimes that have contributed to an apparently weak lithosphere.

**Crust decoupling**

In the review and update of contributing factors to lithospheric rigidity, McNutt et al. (1988) develop a flexure model in which the rigidity of the lithosphere is dependent on the stress associated with flexure. In particular a decoupling zone is placed at half the 'normal' elastic plate thickness, effectively reducing the elastic thickness of the entire plate by 63%. This decoupling zone is associated with the effect of a ductile zone in the lower crust, and become significant when the bending stress induced by the flexing of the plate exceed the yield strength of this zone. As illustrated in Fig. 5.9, the bending stresses associated with the flexure of the Australia Plate are relatively large, exceeding the yield strength of the crust for a considerable depth. Even though these bending stresses may be a function of flexure after decoupling it is probably reasonable to assume that large enough bending stresses may have existed to induce possible decoupling at depth. Assuming that this is the case, then the calculated elastic thickness of the lithosphere for a broken plate model is only 63% of the pre-decoupling thickness. Thus a pre-decoupling elastic thickness would be 8.5 km, giving a lithospheric rigidity of $3.8 \times 10^{21}$ Nm. This is nearly 4 times greater than the modelled decoupled rigidity at $9.79 \times 10^{20}$ Nm for South Westland, but still 15 times smaller than values calculated for the Western Platform in the Taranaki Basin (Holt & Stern, 1991).

In summary, the basement profile of the Australia Plate appears to be well matched by a flexural model. However, this flexure implies that the lithosphere is particularly weak. As discussed above there are numerous possible explanations for this feature. It is reasonable to assume that any cause for the low rigidity of the lithosphere may be a combination of these. Only further measurement (e.g. heat flow) and models encompassing more variables (e.g. oceanic crust transition) will provide better constraints on the rheological/mechanical nature of the lithosphere and its flexural behaviour.
Chapter 6

Summary and Conclusions
6.0 Introduction

It has previously been proposed that the elongate basin immediately offshore in South Westland, South Island, New Zealand, is a foreland basin, formed in response to the loading of the Australia Plate by the Pacific Plate across the obliquely convergent Alpine Fault (Kamp et al., 1992). The objective of this thesis has been to study the South Westland sedimentary basin and test the hypothesis that it is a foreland basin, by basin analysis methods. Basin analysis draws techniques from a number of disciplines within Earth Sciences. The two principle study tools used here have been seismic stratigraphy, using industry seismic reflection data sources, and geodynamical modelling, using data from both the seismic reflections and exploration wells.

Chapter 1 outlined the evidence for the foreland basin hypothesis, and the location, nature and geological setting of the study area. Chapter 2 outlined the broad range of disciplines used collectively in basin analysis for the study and interpretation of information from sedimentary basins. Chapter 3 described the geophysical and lithostratigraphic features associated with foreland basins studied elsewhere in the world. Chapter 4 applied the techniques of basin analysis, in particular the observation of the seismic profiles and exploration wells. Chapter 5 drew interpretations from those observations and used the data in geodynamical models of the basin structure and evolution. This chapter will summary these observations and interpretations in a regional synthesis of basin evolution in South Westland.

6.1 Seismic stratigraphy

Five seismic horizons plus the seafloor/ground surface were identified within the 1715 km of seismic reflection profiles studied in this project. Between these horizons, five sequences were studied in detail and their depositional history interpreted from reflection configurations.

The seismic reflection profiles were interpreted using a general application of the principles of seismic stratigraphy. Most of the profiles were of insufficient quality for further detailed analysis. With well and outcrop stratigraphy and models of plate tectonic reconstructions the depositional environments of each sequence and interrelated horizons have been interpreted. The stratigraphy of the South Westland basin bears some similarity with 'classical' foreland basin stratigraphies, although the pre-foreland basin histories are different. In this framework the mapped horizons and sequences are summarised in Table 6.1.
### TABLE 6.1: Simplified summary of horizons and stratigraphy mapped and interpreted in the South Westland Basin.

#### Geodynamical modelling

Two principal areas of geodynamical analysis were undertaken in this study using data derived from the South Westland Basin: thermal subsidence and flexural modelling. The long-term gradual subsidence noted in the tectonic curve of Mikonui-1 was well suited for modelling of thermal subsidence of continental lithosphere after a stretching event. The simple McKenzie (1978) stretching model was used for this analysis. By a visual comparison, a modelled thermal subsidence curve following a stretching event of \( \beta = 1.25 \) was found to be the best fit for the tectonic subsidence between 60–10 Ma. Using the McKenzie model to explain the rapid subsidence from 10 Ma onwards is invalid, as \( \beta \)-factors of around 10 are predicted, normally associated with sea floor spreading centres. Obviously no such features are recognised.

Assuming flexure of the Australia Plate, the basement profiles derived from the seismic profiles were modelled with general flexural equations. The results have shown that the
lithosphere of the Australia Plate is particularly weak with rigidities in a modelled broken lithospheric plate around $9.79 \times 10^{20}$ Nm (effective elastic thickness = 5.35 km). This is at the low end of observed lithospheric rigidities. A number of explanations for this feature have been discussed. The setting of the basin is unusual. The Australia Plate was already low lying before any possible loading event across the Alpine Fault. The lithosphere also has a transitional zone with oceanic crust nearby at the margins of the Challenger Plateau. The large amount of flexure of the lithosphere may be a result of a mechanical weakness caused by a high heat flow, or recent heating event. No direct heat flow measurement have been undertaken in the basin, and there is no stratigraphic evidence of a comparatively recent heating event in the region. The crust may be decoupled at depth causing a decrease in the effective rigidity of the plate. Even accounting for this possibility the lithosphere still seems to be particularly weak. A number of inherited structures from previous tectonic regimes may have effected the lithosphere, constraining and/or enhancing the response of the lithosphere. A basement high now seemingly acting as a forebulge appears to be inherited from rifting during the Late Cretaceous. Although no evidence is recognised, possible strike-slip deformation associated with the early stages of movement along the Alpine Fault may have effected the lithosphere under the basin and provided an edge to the plate for later loading.
6.3 Synthesis

Using the discussions in Chapter 5 and above, a geological history of the South Westland Basin, in terms of it evolving from a rift margin in the Late Cretaceous through to a comparatively recent foreland basin, can be synthesised. This synthesis is presented below, combining regional paleogeography with total basement subsidence at each mapped time interval.

![Paleogeography of Sequence E (Late Cretaceous–Eocene). Note location of a postulated basement high between two rift zones.](image)

6.3.1 Late Cretaceous–Eocene

Deposition in the South Westland Basin began during the Late Cretaceous where localised rift margin basins formed in response to the rifting of the Tasman Sea, and a postulated rift transform zone through the New Zealand continental block (Fig. 6.1, Fig. 6.10A). The sediments are marginal marine and reflect the continuing thermal subsidence of the continental block and subsequent marine transgression. Some rift associated volcanism is
also noted. A basement high (herein titled the Mikonui High) is thought to have formed between the rifting centres (Fig. 6.2) with an overall lithospheric stretching factor of around $\beta=1.25$.

### 6.3.2 Oligocene

The thermal subsidence induced marine transgression reached its maximum during the Oligocene when a regionally extensive limestone, the Awarua Limestone, was deposited in a terrigenous sediment starved basin. Subsidence even overwhelmed the Mikonui basement high. The limestone appears to shallow toward the east, suggesting that this margin of the basin was slightly uplifted, possibly in response to nearby spreading in the Emerald Basin (Fig. 6.10A).
6.3.3 Miocene

The marine transgression was halted by the inception of the Alpine Fault through the New Zealand block at around 23 Ma. Initially movement was principally strike-slip, causing the prominent displacement of the Fiordland block from its counterpart in Nelson (Fig. 6.3).

At least some localised form of strike-slip deformation may have occurred (Fig. 6.10B). Rapid subsidence in the South Westland Basin is noted in stratigraphic records and geohistory analyses of the onshore wells at around 15-10 Ma. A deep basin began forming adjacent to the Alpine Fault (Fig. 6.4), and the first, relatively thin, sequence of turbiditic systems were deposited at bathyal depths. The formation of a new basin overwriting the old rift margin basins may have been fault controlled at this point. The 15-10 Ma time
interval is also coincident with increasing convergence across the Alpine Fault, and may indicate the early stages of loading on the Australia Plate and the inception of the foreland basin. Topographic expression and hence sediment supply may have been limited at this stage.

FIGURE 6.4: Total subsidence / basement surface at the Top Miocene (5 Ma).
6.3.4 Early Pliocene–Mid Pliocene (Opoitian–Walipiplian Stages)

A major tectonic event appears to have occurred at the Top Miocene around 5 Ma as shown by the tectonic subsidence in the three exploration wells. From other studies this time coincides with accelerating convergence and resulting uplift across the hitherto transform Alpine Fault. Recycled sediments from older successions have been noted in the Waiho-1 well during the Opoitian (Early Pliocene), and in combination with fission track data,

![Figure 6.5: Paleogeography of Sequence C (Opoitian–Walipiplian). Note postulated southward migration of inversion and deformation of the inner margin of the basin.](image)

suggests that the inner basin margin was rapidly uplifted at around 5 Ma (Fig. 6.5; Fig. 6.10C).

This is postulated to have formed the Coastal Monocline, although this may also be alternatively interpreted as a thrust system (Fig. 6.10D). The rapid subsidence phase began in the distal Mikonui-1 well at 5 Ma. This point may mark the inception of uplifting along the South Westland Fault Zone bounding the uplifted inner margin, further
loading the Australia Plate. The sedimentation of the sequence immediately after this point is particularly thick and deposited rapidly at a rate of around 325 m/Myr, consisting of further turbiditic systems (Fig. 6.5; Fig. 6.10C). The sediments of this time interval (Sequence C) thicken to around 1500 m against the uplifted southwestern margin of the basin. Such a sediment load would enhance the flexure of the Australia Plate (Fig. 6.6).

The rapid flysch-like sedimentation of this period also reflects the underfilled nature of

FIGURE 6.6: Total subsidence / basement surface at the Waipipian–Mangapanian boundary (3.1 Ma).
6.3.5 Late Pliocene–Early Plleistocene (Mangapanian–Nukumaruan Stages)

After the creation of the foreland basin around 10–15 Ma and the rapid and thick deposition of turbidite systems, the sedimentation in the basin continued to remain high during the mid-Wanganui Series (Late Pliocene–Early Plleistocene), but the character of the depositional regime changed. The sediments of this time interval (Sequence B) are dominantly progradational, exhibiting prominent sigmoid-oblique complex foreset patterns. This suggests a measure of stability in the basin, and a shallowing of the depositional depths to around mid shelf depths. The sedimentation rates appear to decrease slightly from the previous period (to around 240 m/Myr), perhaps indicating the early signs of the basin sediments evolving toward an equilibrium profile. The maximum thickness of the sequence deposited during this period is around 1200 m.

FIGURE 6.7: Paleogeography of Sequence B (Mangapanian–Nukumaruan). Note extensive prograding facies, and increased topography of the uplifting Southern Alps.
In foreland basin terms, the prograding facies may represent the later stages of basin underfill as the basin begins to fill and sediment accommodation potential decreases. Deposition also began to overwhelm the forebulge during this time (Fig 6.7; Fig. 6.10D). The thick sediment fill continued to emphasise the deep flexure basin forming adjacent to the uplifted inner margin (Fig. 6.8).

**FIGURE 6.8**: Total subsidence / basement surface at the Nukumaruan–Castlecliffian boundary (1.2 Ma).
6.3.6 Middle–Late Pliocene (Castlecliffian–Hawera Series)

Another change in the depositional regime appears to have occurred at the Nukumaruan–Castlecliffian boundary (early Pliocene). The prograding facies abruptly cease and deposition becomes more restricted to predominantly around the shelf break, with little or no recognisable sedimentation patterns visible. This may reflect rapid deposition and/or strong eustatic control during the glacial cycles of the Pliocene.

Bioclasts in a predominantly terrigenous depositional environment also suggest a change in sedimentation regimes. In foreland basin terms, the basin may have reached an overfilled state and a steady-state profile began to form with sediment bypassing occurring (Fig. 6.10E). The basement structure of the South Westland basin at present is illustrated in Fig. 4.16.
FIGURE 6.10: Schematic reconstructed cross-sections across the South Westland Basin through time. Basin fill to northwest of the South Westland Fault is extracted from the database at the 96K section. Southeastern structures are largely speculative. Vertical exaggeration 4x.

**A. Late Cretaceous—Oligocene**
- Awarua Limestone
- Arnott/Otilia Basalts
- Basement High
- West Coast Rift Transform?

**B. Top Miocene**
- Turbidites

**C. Early—Mid Pliocene**
- Turbidites

**D. Late Pliocene—Early Pleistocene**
- Prograding shelf
- Deformed Block?

**E. Mid—Late Pleistocene**
- Prograding?
- Fluctuating sea-level
- Peripheral Bulge

Discussions and Conclusions
6.4 South Westland—a Foreland Basin?

The hypothesis of this thesis is that the sedimentary basin observed in South Westland is a foreland basin formed as a result of the Australia Plate being loaded by continental convergence across the Alpine Fault during the late Cenozoic. Previous studies (Kamp et al., 1992) combined broad scale evidence of the structure and location of the South Westland basin with fission track data delineating the timing and amount of uplift on the inner margin of the basin in proposing that the basin formed as a foreland basin. This study has undertaken analysis of the industry seismic reflection data and stratigraphic information gathered in the basin, both directly in the nature of the seismic units mapped, and indirectly by modelling the lithospheric subsidence and flexure that these units inferred. The subsidence history of the three exploration wells shows the rapid subsidence curves considered typical of subsidence in a foreland basin. The stratigraphy of both the exploration wells and surface outcrops suggests the rapid filling of an initially deep, underfilled basin, to the early stages of a relatively shallow overfilled basin. This basin fill evolution corresponds well with depositional models of other foreland basins. The basement structure appears to match flexural models reasonably well, albeit describing a very weak lithosphere. These features combined with the broad scale and thermochronological evidence of previous workers would strongly suggest that the basin adjacent to the Southern Alps in South Westland, South Island, New Zealand, is indeed a foreland basin formed by the flexing of the Australia Plate.

As the convergence across the Alpine fault is between two continental plates, the South Westland basin can be described as peripheral foreland basin in the sense of Dickinson (1974a; Fig. 3.1). For comparison, the nearby Taranaki Basin, now termed a foreland basin also, is described as a retroarc foreland basin (Stern & Davey, 1990). Other features associated in the literature with foreland basins, particularly thrust fronts and subdivided depocentres may await further investigation.

6.5 Conclusions

The South Westland Basin is a polyhistory basin. The basin was initially formed on the margins of rifting centres during the Late Cretaceous. After the inception of the Alpine Fault during the Miocene, the basin was probably fault controlled in response to strike-slip movement and deformation. Subsidence may have occurred near the fault zones during this time. The Alpine Fault became increasing convergent over time during the Miocene (15–10 Ma), loading and causing flexure of the Australia Plate. Sedimentation was relatively slow, reflecting the depth of the basin and lack of uplifted source areas. At the end of the Miocene, around 5 Ma, the inner margin of the basin was rapidly uplifted from a depth around 4 km and deformed. In response, the subsidence rate of the Australia Plate
quickened. Sedimentation in the foreland basin became more rapid as source areas were uplifted, passing from an underfilled stage to a recent overfilled stage with possible sediment bypassing.

This multiple history of the basin appears to have a significant effect on the mechanical strength of the Australia Plate, as geodynamical models indicate that the margin of this plate now under the foreland basin is particularly weak at around $9.79 \times 10^{20}$ Nm (effective elastic thickness $= 5.35$ km). A number of scenarios explaining the weakness of the lithosphere have been proposed, but until these can be tested by various means, it is reasonable to assume that structures inherited during the complex history of the basin has weakened the lithosphere.

More questions than answers have been revealed by this study. A number of interesting avenues for further research have been noted. The implications of a weak Australia Plate on the models of the collisional zone in the South Island may be of particular importance. Renewed study and possible reinterpretation of the well sections in conjunction with the reprocessing of the seismic profiles may reveal greater detail about the sedimentation history of the basin. More precise models of the flexural response of the Australia Plate could be compiled, accounting for such parameters as the nearby oceanic crust transition and possible horizontal stresses across the Alpine Fault. Further study could also explore the links between the recent mountain building processes in the Southern Alps and corresponding deposition patterns in the South Westland Foreland Basin.
Appendix A: Seismic Line details

The details of the seismic lines used in this study are listed below. 58 'complete' lines have been subdivided into 124 line segments to aid the accuracy of shotpoint locations on meandering lines. The location of the lines are illustrated in Figure 4.7.

The Line_id titles highlighted in bold type are 'typical' sections illustrated in Chapter 4. The PR/encl. numbers are the Open File Petroleum Reports and enclosure numbers of each seismic reflection profile (see Table 4.4 for further details).

The start shot points are taken from the left hand end of the profile.

Coordinates of the start and end shotpoints of the seismic lines are given in the NZMS metric standard. These coordinates were digitized from track charts in the Open File Petroleum Reports, in particular:

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Each set of lines listed below is described by:

*Petroleum exploration licence holder*

*Geophysical exploration contractor*

*Date of recording (accuracy varies)*

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New Zealand Petroleum Co. Ltd.
M.L. Randall Exploration
September 1971

(These lines are marked ‘OS-’ for OnShore, and are the only seismic lines recorded onshore in the project area)

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New Zealand Petroleum Co. Ltd.
Teledyne
June 1971

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Bataafse Internationale Petroleum Maatschappij N.V.
June 1967

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Magellan Petroleum N.Z., Ltd
United Geophysical Corp.
1970

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### Appendix A

**Gulfrex**  
**New Zealand Recon**  
**January 1973**

(The shot points of these lines are actually displayed in days, hours and minutes. They have been converted here into 'total' minutes.)

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**New Zealand Petroleum Company**  
**Prakla-Selsmos**  
**16 Feb - 19 Feb 1974**

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Appendix B: TECHBASE database

For the purposes of this study, the TECHBASE package was installed on a Mitac MPC-3060E PC-compatible computer, using a 386 processor, with 60 Mb hard drive and 1 Mb RAM memory. The digitiser used was a Graphtec KD4600. To aid the handling of the numerous files produced during the processing of seismic lines and data a number of directories within the 'parent' project directory were established:

C:\TECHBASE\WCOAST
   \LINEDIGI
      \raw digitised data of the seismic lines.
   \MAPSETUP
      \saved map set ups from SDIGIT.
   \PICTURES
      \metafiles from various sources.
   \TECHNIC
      \TECHNICN and TASK files.
   \MACROS
      \runlogs and associated files.
   \POLYGONS
      \various polygons files used in displays.
   \BASIC
      \Q-BASIC number crunching programs.
   \SWLANDTA
      \The Database

This appendix lists the TECHBASE database used in this thesis and a brief explanation of each field and its purpose in the processing of seismic information.

The following listing is based on a TECHBASE print-out. Definitions of the terms used are given below (from the TECHBASE Manual, MINESoft Ltd., 1990).

Table: A file within a database that contains a set of records, each with a value for a set of related fields.

Field: A variable. Can be considered a "column" in a database table.

TABLE TYPES:

Flat table store lists of discrete data, similar to a spreadsheet layout.

Cell tables provide storage for raw data or models best represented as a two-dimensional array, or grid of records.

Polygon tables provide storage for the boundary points and any attribute information associated with a two-dimensional polygon.

Join tables allow two tables to be combined. Records are related according to a common field in the two tables.
FIELD TYPES:

Text fields contain values made up of a fixed number of printable characters.

Integer fields contain whole-number values.

Real fields contain real-number values.

FIELD CLASSES:

Actual fields contain values supplied by the user, and modifiable by the user or TECHBASE programs.

Calculated fields contain values calculated from other fields. Equations are defined using Reverse Polish Notation.

Automatic fields are automatically generated by TECHBASE to uniquely identify records in a table.

A Key field defines a record as being unique to the value in the keyed field.
DATABASE definition for database = swland
Title: South Westland, NZ, Foreland Basin modelling KNS June '92
Created: 1992/06/03;19:58 Modified: 1993/01/10;23:18
With 15 tables and 266 fields

TABLES:

**Lines** is a FLAT table with 29 fields and 124 records

Table Keys:
- line_id

Fields:
- Lines_rec
- Lines_nul
- *line_id
- start_sp
- end_sp
- start_north
- +east_diff
- +north_diff
- +line_length
- +alpha_x
- +alpha_y
- start_hour
- start_min
- end_day
- pr_encl
- start_dayrn
- end_dayrn
- +line_lenrnd

Lines contains information about the attributes of each of the lines studied.

**Lines_rec** is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 1
- Maximum = 1125
- 0 bytes stored per value

**Lines_nul** is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 0
- Maximum = 1
- 0 bytes stored per value

**line_id** is an ACTUAL TEXT field
- Length = 12 characters, LEFT justified.
- 12 bytes stored per value
- Identifies the line segment an individual point came from. Keyed.

**start_sp** is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 4 bytes stored per value
- The number of the shotpoint on the profile at the start of the line segment.

**end_sp** is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 4 bytes stored per value
- The number of the shotpoint on the profile at the end of the line segment.

**start_east** is an ACTUAL REAL field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
- The NZMS east coordinates of the start point of the line segment.

**end_east** is an ACTUAL REAL field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
- The NZMS east coordinates of the end point of the line segment.

**end_north** is an ACTUAL REAL field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
- The NZMS north coordinates of the end point of the line segment.
start_north is an ACTUAL REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The NZMS north coordinates of the start point of the line segment.

east_diff is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: end_east start_east -
Calculates the east coordinate difference between the start and end points.

north_diff is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: end_north start_north -
Calculates the north coordinate difference between the start and end points.

line_length is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: east_diff2 north_diff2 + sqrt
Calculates the metric length of the line using Pythagoras formula on the east and north differences.

sp_diff is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: end_sp start_sp - abs
Calculates the difference in shot points between the start and end of the line.

east_diff2 is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: start_east end_east - abs 2 ^
Calculates the square of the east difference for length calculations.

north_diff2 is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: start_north end_north - abs 2 ^
Calculates the square of the north difference for length calculations.

alpha_y is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: north_diff line_length / asin
Calculates the angle opposite the north difference of the line.

alpha_x is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: east_diff line_length / acos
Calculates the angle opposite the east difference of the line.

title_line is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
1 bytes stored per value
Indicates if line is the first of a series of line segments and therefore should bear
the proper title of that line.
pr_encl is an ACTUAL TEXT field
   Length = 10 characters, LEFT justified.
   10 bytes stored per value
   Contains the Petroleum Report and enclosure number where the line is found.

start_day is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   Day value at start point of lines using time to number shotpoints.

start_hour is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 23
   1 bytes stored per value
   Hour value at start point of lines using time to number shotpoints.

start_min is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 59
   1 bytes stored per value
   Minute value at start point of lines using time to number shotpoints.

end_day is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   Day value at start point of lines using time to number shotpoints.

end_hour is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 23
   1 bytes stored per value
   Hour value at end point of lines using time to number shotpoints.

end_min is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 59
   1 bytes stored per value
   Minute value at end point of lines using time to number shotpoints.

miscell is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 6
   Equation: start_daym start_hourm + start_min +

start_daym is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 6
   Equation: start_day 1440 *

start_hourm is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 6
   Equation: start_hour 60 *

line_lenrnd is a CALCULATED INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value
   Equation: line_length 49 + 100 / int 100 *
   Calculated rounding of line to nearest 100 m for display purposes.
**Profiles** is a FLAT table with 6 fields and 18762 records

Table has no Keys

Fields:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Storage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Profiles_rec</td>
<td>profiles nul</td>
<td>shot_point</td>
<td>twt_time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>line_id</td>
<td>horizon_name</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Profiles contains the 'raw' seismic data that is entered from the digitiser with minimal editing.

Profiles_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 20841
0 bytes stored per value

Profiles_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

shot_point is an ACTUAL REAL field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The shot point value as for an individual digitised point from the line.

twt_time is an ACTUAL REAL field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The two-way travel time as for an individual digitised point from the line.

line_id is an ACTUAL TEXT field

Length = 12 characters, LEFT justified. 12 bytes stored per value
Identifies the line segment an individual point come from. Not keyed.

horizon_name is an ACTUAL TEXT field

Length = 15 characters, LEFT justified. 15 bytes stored per value
The name of the horizon as recorded by the 'marker' value in the digitising process.

---

**Joined** is a JOIN table with 5 fields

Table 1: Profiles to Table 2: Lines

Fields:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Storage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joined_rec</td>
<td>Joined_nul</td>
<td>+sp_reqlength</td>
<td>+sp_east</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+sp_north</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Joined is a join table, combining the attributes of the line segments in the Lines table with raw data in the Profiles table via the common field, line_id.

Joined_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value

Joined_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value
sp_reqlength is a **CALCULATED** REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: shot_point start_sp - abs sp_diff / line_length *
Finds the metric length along the line from the start point to a given point from
the raw data by multiplying the length of the line by the ratio of the raw
shotpoint over the shot point difference.

sp_east is a **CALCULATED** REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: alpha x cos sp_reqlength * start_east +
Calculates the east coordinates of the raw shotpoint.

sp_north is a **CALCULATED** REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: alpha_y sin sp_reqlength * start_north +
Calculates the north coordinates of the raw shotpoint.

---

Bathymetry is a **FLAT** table with 5 fields and 5498 records
Table has no Keys
Fields:
- Bathymetry_rec
- Bathymetry_nul
- x_bathy
- y_bathy
- z_bathy

Bathymetry contains the raw bathymetry data digitised from various hydrographic charts.

Bathymetry_rec is an **AUTOMATIC** INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 18134
0 bytes stored per value

Bathymetry_nul is an **AUTOMATIC** INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

x_bathy is an **ACTUAL** REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
x-coordinate (east) of digitised data point.

y_bathy is an **ACTUAL** REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
y-coordinate (north) of digitised data point.

z_bathy is an **ACTUAL** REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
z-coordinate (depth) of digitised data point.
Sea_Floor is a CELL table with 9 fields and 23000 records

- Lower-left X coord: 2160000
- Y coord: 5660000
- Baseline azimuth: 34.00

Fields:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Expected Minimum</th>
<th>Expected Maximum</th>
<th>Stored per value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_rec</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24000</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_nul</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_row</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_col</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_xc</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>2160000</td>
<td>2205980</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_csz</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_yC</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>5660000</td>
<td>5905210</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea_Floor_rsz</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>0 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seafloor_q</td>
<td>ACTUAL</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>8 bytes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of the seafloor bathymetry modelled for each cell by MINQ is stored in this field.
Polygons is a POLYGON table with 18 fields and 664 records

Fields:
- Polygons_rec
- Polygons_nul
- Polygons_npt
- Polygons_xc
- Polygons_yc
- Polygons_are
- Polygons_xmn
- Polygons_xmx
- Polygons_ymn
- Polygons_ymx
- poly_y
- poly_owner
- poly_style
- poly_type
- line_id

Polygons contains the polygons used in various parts of processing of the seismic lines and other functions.

- Polygons_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
  - Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 1664
  - 0 bytes stored per value

- Polygons_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
  - Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
  - 0 bytes stored per value

- Polygons_npt is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
  - Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value

- Polygons_xc is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_yc is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_are is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_per is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_xmn is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_ymn is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_xmx is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- Polygons_ymx is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

- poly_x is an ACTUAL REAL field
  - Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  - 8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  - This field nominally contains the x-coordinate of a polygon for loading purposes.
poly_y is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
This field nominally contains the y-coordinate of a polygon for loading purposes.

poly_owner is an ACTUAL TEXT field
Length = 35 characters, LEFT justified.
35 bytes stored per value
Text field used for describing 'owner' of line, e.g. PS-21_seafloor.

poly_style is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Style attribute of polygon, e.g. solid, wide, fill, hollow, etc.

poly_colour is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Colour attribute of polygon, e.g. red, black, brown etc.

poly_type is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
This field contains the 'code' of each polygon, expressing its purpose, e.g.:
1: cartographic, polygons for basemaps, coastlines, roads etc.
2: seismic lines, polygons of the actual location of the digitised seismic lines.
3: raw horizons, polygons of the digitized raw horizons for display if needed.
4: regularised horizons, polygons of the horizons once regularised at each shot point, for display if needed.
5: restored horizons, polygons of horizons for the restoration process if needed.

line_id is an ACTUAL TEXT field
Length = 12 characters, LEFT justified.
12 bytes stored per value
a field that identifies a polygon belonging to a line segment, if applicable. Not keyed.

Locations is a FLAT table with 7 fields and 19 records
Table has no Keys

Fields:
Locations_rec Locations_nul loc_name1 loc_name2
loc_north loc_id loc_east

Locations contains the coordinates and attributes of 'locations' for inclusion on maps produced from this database.

Locations_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 1019
0 bytes stored per value

Locations_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

loc_name1 is an ACTUAL TEXT field
Length = 25 characters, LEFT justified.
25 bytes stored per value
Name of location, e.g. Mt. Cook, Mikonui-1, 170°E.
loc\_east is an ACTUAL REAL field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
NZMS east coordinates of location.

loc\_north is an ACTUAL REAL field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
NZMS north coordinates of location.

loc\_id is an ACTUAL INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Identification number of the location for filtering purposes:
1: wells site, e.g. Mikonui-1
2: township, e.g. Hokitika.
3: geographic, e.g. Haast Pass.
4: latitude/longitude point.

loc\_name2 is an ACTUAL TEXT field

Length = 25 characters, LEFT justified.
25 bytes stored per value
Second accessory name of location, e.g. for lat/long points.

Regular is a FLAT table with 30 fields and 12678 records
Table has no Keys

Fields:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular_rec</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ppa_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basement_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqa_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqd_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqb_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqc_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqb_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqc_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>line_id</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>topmio_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baseoligo_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqc_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqc_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqb_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seqa_twt</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqc_twt</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqb_thick2</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqa_twt</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqb_twt</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_skel</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqc_skel</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqd_skel</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqa_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_twt</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqb_twt</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_skel</td>
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<td>seqc_skel</td>
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<td>seqd_skel</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqc_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqd_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqa_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqc_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqd_skel</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqd_thick2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_skel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_twt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regular contains information about the seismic lines once they have been 'regularised', and
data is calculated for each shot point along the seismic line.

Regular\_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 16118
0 bytes stored per value

Regular\_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field

Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

sp\_reg is an ACTUAL REAL field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Regularised shot point number.

seafloor\_twt is an ACTUAL REAL field

Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Two-way travel time to seafloor horizon at regularised shot point.
ppa_twt is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Two-way travel time to ppa horizon at regularised shot point.

ppb_twt is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Two-way travel time to ppb horizon at regularised shot point.

topmio_twt is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Two-way travel time to top miocene horizon at regularised shot point.

baseoligo_twt is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Two-way travel time to oligocene horizon at regularised shot point.

basement_twt is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Two-way travel time to basement horizon at regularised shot point.

seqa_twt is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: ppa_twt seafloor_twt -
   Calculated two way travel time thickness of Sequence A.

seqb_twt is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: ppb_twt ppa_twt -
   Calculated two way travel time thickness of Sequence B.

seqc_twt is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: topmio_twt ppb_twt -
   Calculated two way travel time thickness of Sequence C.

seqd_twt is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: baseoligo_twt topmio_twt -
   Calculated two way travel time thickness of Sequence D.

seqe_twt is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: basement_twt baseoligo_twt -
   Calculated two way travel time thickness of Sequence E.

seqa_skel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Skeletal thickness of Seq. A at regularised shot point. Calculated in processing.
seqb_skel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Skeletal thickness of Seq. B at regularised shot point. Calculated in processing.

seqc_skel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Skeletal thickness of Seq. C at regularised shot point. Calculated in processing.

seqd_skel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Skeletal thickness of Seq. D at regularised shot point. Calculated in processing.

seqe_skel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Skeletal thickness of Seq. E at regularised shot point. Calculated in processing.

len_reg is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
   Length along line to regularised shot point.

basement_dep2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Basement depth, copied from calculated field in Convert.

spreg_east2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   East coordinates of regularised point, copied from calculated field in Convert.

spreg_north2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   North coordinates of regularised point, copied from calculated field in Convert.

seqe_thick2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Sequence E thickness, copied from calculated field in Convert.

seqd_thick2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Sequence D thickness, copied from calculated field in Convert.

seqc_thick2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Sequence C thickness, copied from calculated field in Convert.

seqb_thick2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Sequence B thickness, copied from calculated field in Convert.
seqa_thick2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Sequence A thickness, copied from calculated field in Convert.

base_locate is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Field acts as a flag for filtering processes. Indicates if shot point is in basin or on uplifted block.

Sequences is a FLAT table with 24 fields and 124 records
Table Keys:
  line_id

Fields:
  Sequences_rec  Sequences_nul  *line_id  seqa_kk
  seqb_kk  seqc_kk  seqd_kk  seqc_kk
  seqa_pphi  seqb_pphi  seqc_pphi  seqd_pphi
  seqe_pphi  seqo_vel  seqb_vel  seqc_vel
  seqd_vel  seqc_vel  seafloor_code  ppa_code
  ppb_code  topmlo_code  baseoligo_code  basement_code

Sequences contains information about the mapped sequences in each line, e.g. original porosity and compaction coefficients for decompaction processing and seismic velocity for depth conversion. Although all the lines are presently treated identically, there is scope for altering the values in individual lines as suits.

Sequences_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 1124
0 bytes stored per value

Sequences_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

seqa_kk is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Compaction coefficient of Sequence A.

seqb_kk is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Compaction coefficient of Sequence B.

seqc_kk is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Compaction coefficient of Sequence C.

seqd_kk is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Compaction coefficient of Sequence D.
seqe_kk is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Compaction coefficient of Sequence E.

seqa_pphi is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Original porosity of Sequence A.

seqb_pphi is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Original porosity of Sequence B.

seqc_pphi is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Original porosity of Sequence C.

seqd_pphi is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Original porosity of Sequence D.

seqe_pphi is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Original porosity of Sequence E.

seqa_vel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Seismic velocity of Sequence A.

seqb_vel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Seismic velocity of Sequence A.

seqc_vel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Seismic velocity of Sequence A.

seqd_vel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Seismic velocity of Sequence A.

seqe_vel is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Seismic velocity of Sequence A.

seafloor_code is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   The integer code of the seafloor horizon if needed for colouring etc.
ppa_code is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   The integer code of the ppa horizon if needed for colouring etc.

ppb_code is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   The integer code of the ppb horizon if needed for colouring etc.

topmio_code is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   The integer code of the top Miocene horizon if needed for colouring etc.

baseoligo_code is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   The integer code of the Oligocene horizon if needed for colouring etc.

basement_code is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   The integer code of the basement horizon if needed for colouring etc.

line_id is an ACTUAL TEXT field
   Length = 12 characters, LEFT justified.
   12 bytes stored per value
   Identifies the line segment relating to the attributes. Not keyed.

Convert is a JOIN table with 13 fields
   Table 1: Regular to Table 2: Sequences

Fields:
   Convert_rec  Convert_nul  +seqa_thick  +seqb_thick
               +seqc_thick  +seqd_thick  +seqe_thick  +seafloor_dep
               +ppa_dep    +ppb_dep    +topmio_dep    +baseoligo_dep
               +basement_dep

Convert is a join table combining the regularised seismic data in Regular with the attributes of each sequence in Sequences, to produce depth converted information for each horizon in each line.

Convert_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value

Convert_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
   0 bytes stored per value

seqa_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
   Equation: seqa_twt 2.00 / seqa_vel *
   Calculates the thickness of Seq. A as a product of the twt thickness and velocity.
seqb_thick is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
Equation: seqb_twt 2.00 / seqb_vel *
Calculates the thickness of Seq. B as a product of the twt thickness and velocity.

seqc_thick is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
Equation: seqc_twt 2.00 / seqc_vel *
Calculates the thickness of Seq. C as a product of the twt thickness and velocity.

seqd_thick is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
Equation: seqd_twt 2.00 / seqd_vel *
Calculates the thickness of Seq. D as a product of the twt thickness and velocity.

seqe_thick is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
Equation: seqe_twt 2.00 / seqe_vel *
Calculates the thickness of Seq. E as a product of the twt thickness and velocity.

seafloor_dep is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: seafloor_twt 2 / 1400 *
Calculates the seafloor depth as a product of the twt thickness and velocity.

ppa_dep is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: ppa_dep seqa_thick +
Calculates the depth of PPA Horizon.

ppb_dep is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: ppb_dep seqb_thick +
Calculates the depth of PPB Horizon.

topmio_dep is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: topmio_dep seqc_thick +
Calculates the depth of Top Miocene Horizon.

baseoligo_dep is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: baseoligo_dep seqe_thick +
Calculates the depth of the Oligocene Horizon.

basement_dep is a CALCIULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: basement_dep seque_thick +
Calculates the depth of the Basement Horizon.
Regloc is a JOIN table with 5 fields

Table 1: Regular to Table 2: Lines

Fields:
- Regloc_rec
- Regloc_nul
- spreg_len
- spreg_north

Regloc is a join table combining the regularised information of Regular with attributes of individual lines in Lines to provide the coordinates of the regularised shotpoints.

Regloc_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 1
- Maximum = *
- 0 bytes stored per value

Regloc_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 0
- Maximum = 1
- 0 bytes stored per value

spreg_len is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
- Equation: \( \text{sp\_reg} \times \text{start\_sp} - \text{abs\_sp\_diff} / \text{line\_length} \)
  Calculates the metric length to the regularised shotpoint.

spreg_east is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
- Equation: \( \alpha_x \times \cos \text{sp\_reg\_len} \times \text{start\_east} + \)
  Calculates the east coordinate of the regularised shotpoint.

spreg_north is a CALCULATED REAL field
- Expected Minimum = *
- Maximum = *
- 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
- Equation: \( \alpha_y \times \sin \text{sp\_reg\_len} \times \text{start\_north} + \)
  Calculates the north coordinate of the regularised shotpoint.
Appendix B

Recon is a FLAT table with 38 fields and 1068 records
Table has no Keys

Fields:

Recon_rec  Recon_nul  line_id  len_reg
+bsl_seafloor  +bs2_seafloor  +bs3_seafloor  +bs4_seafloor  
bsl_ppa  +bs2_ppa  +bs3_ppa  +bs4_ppa  
bsl_ppb  bs2_ppb  +bs3_ppb  +bs4_ppb  
bsl_topmio  bs2_topmio  bs3_topmio  +bs4_topmio  
bsl_baseoligo  bs2_baseoligo  bs3_baseoligo  bs4_baseoligo  
bsl_baseament  bs2_baseament  bs3_baseament  bs4_baseament  
+bsl_seqb_thick  +bsl_seqc_thick  +bsl_seqd_thick  +bsl_seqe_thick  
+bs2_seqb_thick  +bs2_seqc_thick  +bs2_seqd_thick  +bs2_seqe_thick  
+bs3_seqb_thick  +bs3_seqc_thick  +bs3_seqd_thick  +bs3_seqe_thick  
+bs4_seqb_thick  +bs4_seqc_thick  +bs4_seqd_thick  +bs4_seqe_thick  

Recon contains information about the depths of horizons in a particular section at different backstripped and decompacted stages. Information comes from the reconstruction routines in the TECHNICN files.

Recon_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 2068
0 bytes stored per value

Recon_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

line_id is an ACTUAL TEXT field
Length = 12 characters, LEFT justified.
12 bytes stored per value
Identifies the line segment an individual point came from. Not keyed.

len_reg is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 4
Length along line to regularised shot point.

bsl_seafloor is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: NULL
Depth of the seafloor at Stage 1.

bsl_ppa is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the PPA at Stage 1.

bsl_ppb is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the PPB at Stage 1.

bsl_topmio is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the Top Miocene at Stage 1.
bsl_baseoligo is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the Oligocene at Stage 1.

bsl_basement is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the basement at Stage 1.

bs2_seafloor is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: NULL
Depth of the seafloor at Stage 2.

bs2_ppa is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: NULL
Depth of the PPA at Stage 2.

bs2_ppb is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the PPB at Stage 2.

bs2_topmio is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the Top Miocene at Stage 2.

bs2_baseoligo is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the Oligocene at Stage 2.

bs2_basement is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Depth of the Basement at Stage 2.

bs3_seafloor is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: NULL
Depth of the seafloor at Stage 3.

bs3_ppa is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: NULL
Depth of the PPA at Stage 3.

bs3_ppb is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: NULL
Depth of the PPB at Stage 3.
bs3_topmio is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Depth of the Top Miocene at Stage 3.

bs3_baseoligo is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Depth of the Oligocene at Stage 3.

bs3_basement is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Depth of the Basement at Stage 3.

bs4_seafloor is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: NULL
   Depth of the seafloor at Stage 4.

bs4_ppa is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: NULL
   Depth of the PPA at Stage 4.

bs4_ppb is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: NULL
   Depth of the PPB at Stage 4.

bs4_topmio is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: NULL
   Depth of the Top Miocene at Stage 4.

bs4_baseoligo is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Depth of the Oligocene at Stage 4.

bs4_basement is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Depth of the Basement at Stage 4.

bsl_seqb_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: bsl_ppb bsl_ppa -
   Thickness of Sequence B at Stage 1.

bsl_seqc_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
   Equation: bsl_topmio bsl_ppb -
   Thickness of Sequence C at Stage 1.
bs1_seqd_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl_baseoligo bsl_topmio - Thickness of Sequence D at Stage 1.

bs1_seqe_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl_baseoligo bsl_baseoligo - Thickness of Sequence E at Stage 1.

bs2_seqc_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl2_baseoligo bsl2_topmio - Thickness of Sequence C at Stage 2.

bs2_seqd_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl2_baseoligo bsl2_topmio - Thickness of Sequence D at Stage 2.

bs2_seqe_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl2_baseoligo bsl2_baseoligo - Thickness of Sequence E at Stage 2.

bs3_seqd_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl3_baseoligo bsl3_topmio - Thickness of Sequence D at Stage 3.

bs3_seqe_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl3_baseoligo bsl3_baseoligo - Thickness of Sequence E at Stage 3.

bs4_seqe_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: bsl4_baseoligo bsl4_baseoligo - Thickness of Sequence E at Stage 4.

Paleo is a FLAT table with 12 fields and 17 records

Table Keys:
line_id

Fields:
Paleo_rec  Paleo_nul  *line_id  bs1_start_dep
bs1_end_dep  bs2_start_dep  bs2_end_dep  bs3_start_dep
bs3_end_dep  bs4_start_dep  bs4_end_dep  +zero_depth

Paleo contains paleodepth information for each line at each stage of reconstruction backstripping. Note paleodepth is given at each end of the line, and interpolated between. Potential exists for digitizing a paleodepth curve for a seismic line to be included at this point.
Paleo_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = 1017
0 bytes stored per value

Paleo_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

line_id is an ACTUAL TEXT field
   Length = 12 characters, LEFT justified.
   12 bytes stored per value
   Identifies the line segment. Not keyed.

bs1_start_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 1 at the start of the line.

bs1_end_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 1 at the end of the line.

bs2_start_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 2 at the start of the line.

bs2_end_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 2 at the end of the line.

bs3_start_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 3 at the start of the line.

bs3_end_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 3 at the end of the line.

bs4_start_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 4 at the start of the line.

bs4_end_dep is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Paleodepth at Stage 4 at the end of the line.

zero_depth is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Equation: 0
   Field containing the zero_depth value for calculation purposes.
Mikonui is a FLAT table with 6 fields and 773 records

Table has no Keys

Fields:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Expected Minimum</th>
<th>Expected Maximum</th>
<th>Stored per value</th>
<th>Precision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mikonui_rec</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mikonui_nul</td>
<td>INTEGER</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horz_depth(m)</td>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velocity(ms)</td>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velocity(fts)</td>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mikonui contains interval velocity data from the geophysical airgun report in Mikonui-1. The depths and velocities are converted to Imperial units for use in generating a synthetic seismogram.

Mikonui_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 1 Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value

Mikonui_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = 0 Maximum = 1
0 bytes stored per value

horz_depth(m) is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Interval depth recorded in airgun report, in metres.

horz_depth(ft) is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: horz_depth(m) 0.305 /
Calculated interval depth in feet.

velocity(ms) is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Interval velocity recorded in airgun report, in metres per second.

velocity(fts) is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: velocity(ms) 0.305 /
Calculated interval velocity in feet per second.
Maps is a CELL table with 72 fields and 8192 records

Table attributes:
- Lower-left X coord: 2150000
- Column size: 2000
- Number: 128
- Y coord: 5650000
- Row size: 2000
- Number: 64
- Baseline azimuth: 57.00

Fields:

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<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Expected Minimum</th>
<th>Expected Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>9192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps_nul</td>
<td>INTEGER</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps_row</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maps_col</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maps_xc</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps_csz</td>
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<td>4000</td>
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<td>basement_q</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqe_thick_q</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqc_thick_q</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+total_thick</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+total_volume</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+paleodepth_2</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+paleodepth_3</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+paleodepth_4</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqq_skel_q</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqb_skel_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seqa_skel_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ppa_dep_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ppb_dep_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+topmio_dep_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+baseoligo_dep_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pbb_dep_1</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basement_dep_1</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>topmio_dep_2</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boligo_dep_1</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boligo_dep_2</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basement_dep_2</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boligo_dep_3</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basement_dep_3</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basement_dep_4</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea_floor_q</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tectonic_sub_0</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tectonic_sub_1</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tectonic_sub_2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>density_1</td>
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<tr>
<td>density_2</td>
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<tr>
<td>density_3</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_1_adj</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_2_adj</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_3_adj</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_4_adj</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_a_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_b_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_c_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>+seq_d_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_e_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_l_adj</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_3_adj</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_a_volurne</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_b_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_c_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_d_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_e_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+seq_volume</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+basement_q(km)</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+row_dist(km)</td>
<td>AUTOMATIC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maps contains the fields that model the various sequence thicknesses, basement structures, tectonic subsidence etc. that are mapped in the various diagrams in this study.

Maps_rec is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 1
- Maximum = 9192
- 0 bytes stored per value

Maps_nul is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 0
- Maximum = 1
- 0 bytes stored per value

Maps_row is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 1
- Maximum = 32
- 0 bytes stored per value

Maps_col is an AUTOMATIC INTEGER field
- Expected Minimum = 1
- Maximum = 64
- 0 bytes stored per value

Maps_xc is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
- Expected Minimum = 2150000
- Maximum = 2293810
- 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

Maps_csz is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
- Expected Minimum = 4000
- Maximum = 4000
- 0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Maps_yc is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
   Expected Minimum = 5650000 Maximum = 5891244
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

Maps_rsz is an AUTOMATIC REAL field
   Expected Minimum = 4000 Maximum = 4000
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0

basement_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   This field contains the basement surface modelled from the basement_dep field (in Convert) using MINQ.

map_locate is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   4 bytes stored per value
   This field acts as a flag for filtering purposes, indicating which cells are within the basin (=0) and those which are over the uplifted block (=1).

basement_twt_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 1

sege_thick_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   This field contains the Sequence E isopach modelled from the sege_thick field (in Convert) using MINQ.

seqd_thick_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   This field contains the Sequence D isopach modelled from the seqd_thick field (in Convert) using MINQ.

seqc_thick_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   This field contains the Sequence C isopach modelled from the seqc_thick field (in Convert) using MINQ.

seqb_thick_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   This field contains the Sequence B isopach modelled from the seqb_thick field (in Convert) using MINQ.

seqa_thick_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   This field contains the Sequence A isopach modelled from the seqa_thick field (in Convert) using MINQ.

total_thick is a CALCULATED REAL field
   Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
   0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
   Equation: sege_thick_q seqd_thick_q + seqc_thick_q + seqb_thick_q + seqa_thick_q
   Calculated total thickness of sediments in cell.
total_volume is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  Equation: total_thick 2000 * 2000 *
  Calculated total volume of sediments in cell.

paleodepth_0 is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  Equation: 150
  Simple paleodepth adjustment for Stage 0 of backstripping.

paleodepth_1 is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  Equation: 150
  Simple paleodepth adjustment for Stage 1 of backstripping.

paleodepth_2 is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  Equation: 300
  Simple paleodepth adjustment for Stage 2 of backstripping.

paleodepth_3 is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  Equation: 300
  Simple paleodepth adjustment for Stage 3 of backstripping.

paleodepth_4 is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
  Equation: 500
  Simple paleodepth adjustment for Stage 4 of backstripping.

seqa_skel_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  This field contains the Sequence A skeletal thickness modelled from the seqa_skel field (in Regular) using MINQ.

seqb_skel_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  This field contains the Sequence B skeletal thickness modelled from the seqb_skel field (in Regular) using MINQ.

seqc_skel_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  This field contains the Sequence C skeletal thickness modelled from the seqc_skel field (in Regular) using MINQ.

seqd_skel_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  This field contains the Sequence D skeletal thickness modelled from the seqd_skel field (in Regular) using MINQ.
seqe_skel_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  This field contains the Sequence E skeletal thickness modelled from the seqe_skel field (in Regular) using MINQ.

ppa_dep_q is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  Equation: seqa_thick_q
  Depth to PPA horizon calculated as total of sequence thicknesses above.

ppb_dep_q is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  Equation: seqa_thick_q seqb_thick_q +
  Depth to PPB horizon calculated as total of sequence thicknesses above.

topmio_dep_q is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  Equation: seqa_thick_q seqb_thick_q + seqc_thick_q +
  Depth to Top Miocene horizon calculated as total of sequence thicknesses above.

baseoligo_dep_q is a CALCULATED REAL field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
  Equation: seqa_thick_q seqb_thick_q + seqc_thick_q + seqd_thick_q +
  Depth to Oligocene horizon calculated as total of sequence thicknesses above.

ppb_dep_1 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  4 bytes stored per value
  Depth to PPB Horizon at Stage 1 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

top_mio_dep_1 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  4 bytes stored per value
  Depth to Top Miocene Horizon at Stage 1 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

boligo_dep_1 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  4 bytes stored per value
  Depth to Oligocene Horizon at Stage 1 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

basement_dep_1 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  4 bytes stored per value
  Depth to Basement Horizon at Stage 1 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

top_mio_dep_2 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  4 bytes stored per value
  Depth to Top Miocene Horizon at Stage 2 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

boligo_dep_2 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
  Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
  4 bytes stored per value
  Depth to Oligocene Horizon at Stage 2 backstripping. Calculated in processing.
basement_dep_2 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Depth to Basement Horizon at Stage 2 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

boligo_dep_3 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Depth to Oligocene Horizon at Stage 3 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

basement_dep_3 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Depth to Basement Horizon at Stage 3 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

basement_dep_4 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
Depth to Basement Horizon at Stage 4 backstripping. Calculated in processing.

sea_floor_q is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
This field contains the seafloor surface modelled from the seafloor_dep field (in Convert) using MINQ.

tectonic_sub_1 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
The tectonic subsidence of the cell at Stage 1. Calculated in processing.

tectonic_sub_2 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
The tectonic subsidence of the cell at Stage 2. Calculated in processing.

tectonic_sub_3 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
The tectonic subsidence of the cell at Stage 3. Calculated in processing.

tectonic_sub_4 is an ACTUAL INTEGER field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
4 bytes stored per value
The tectonic subsidence of the cell at Stage 4. Calculated in processing.

density_1 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The density of sediments in the cell at Stage 1. Calculated in processing.

density_2 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The density of sediments in the cell at Stage 2. Calculated in processing.

density_3 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The density of sediments in the cell at Stage 3. Calculated in processing.
density_4 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The density of sediments in the cell at Stage 4. Calculated in processing.

density_0 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
The density of sediments in the cell at Stage 0 (present). Calculated in processing.

tectonic_sub_0 is an ACTUAL REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
8 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
The tectonic subsidence of the cell at Stage 0 (present). Calculated in processing.

basement_1_adj is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: basement_dep_1 paleodepth_1 + Depth to basement at Stage 1 adjusted for paleodepth.

basement_2_adj is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: basement_dep_2 paleodepth_2 + Depth to basement at Stage 2 adjusted for paleodepth.

basement_3_adj is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: basement_dep_3 paleodepth_3 + Depth to basement at Stage 3 adjusted for paleodepth.

basement_4_adj is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: basement_dep_4 paleodepth_4 + Depth to basement at Stage 4 adjusted for paleodepth.

seq_a_volume is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: seqa_thick_q 2000 * 2000 * Decompacted volume of Sequence A. (m³)

seq_b_volume is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: ppb_dep_1 2000 * 2000 * Decompacted volume of Sequence B. (m³)

seq_c_volume is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: top_mio_dep_2 2000 * 2000 * Decompacted volume of Sequence C. (m³)

seq_d_volume is a CALCULATED REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: boligo_dep_3 2000 * 2000 * Decompacted volume of Sequence D. (m³)
seq_e_volume is a calculated REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: basement_dep_4 2000 * 2000 *
Decompacted volume of Sequence E. (m³)

seq_volume is a calculated REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: seq_a_volume seq_b_volume + seq_c_volume +
        seq_d_volume + seq_e_volume +
Total volume of decompacted sediment in each cell. (m³)

basement_q(km) is a calculated REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 2
Equation: basement_q 1000 /
Basement depth expressed in km for display purposes.

row_dist(km) is a calculated REAL field
Expected Minimum = * Maximum = *
0 bytes stored per value. Precision 0
Equation: Maps_row 2 *
Distance of row from origin in km for display purposes.
Appendix C: TECHBASE macros

C.1: TECHNICN and TASK files

TECHBASE has built in productivity aids to handle repetitive tasks, those used in this study have been collectively termed 'macros' and gathered in this Appendix.

Runlogs contain the exact record of key-strokes used when a TECHBASE program is run. These are recorded during a session of the program and can be reproduced by using the runlog as input into the program. A standard word processor may be used to edit the runlogs, but care must be taken to ensure tabs, spaces, escapes and control keys are not altered.

In the following listings, a number of symbols have been used to represent special characters that are included as part of the runlog sequence. Any spaces in the listings are true representations of spaces in the runlogs.

\( \Delta = \text{tab} \)
\( \$ = \text{Control-U, clears the entire field before entering a new value} \)
\( \rightarrow \text{h} = \text{Home key} \)
\( \rightarrow \text{c} = \text{Comment (does not affect function of runlog)} \)
\( \rightarrow \text{r} = \text{indicates that the line is continuous from the one immediately above.} \)

TECHNICN allows TECHBASE procedures to be subdivided into a series of easily managed projects. A PROJECT is a set of procedures, called TASKS. In turn the tasks consist of various commands controlling data flow and program execution. Tasks may include runlogs.

A TECHNICN project was created for this study to aid the input and processing of seismic lines. Other runlogs were created for the processing of seismic information and the generation of diagrams resulting from the processing of this data.
This TECHNICN file is for running
the Geohistory Analysis Package
Keith Sircombe, September 1992

PROJECT "Seismic data" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
"Enter data from interpreted section"

TASK "Digitize interprtn" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
digit.tsk "Digitize interpreted seismic and load into database"

TASK "Input data" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
indig.tsk "Load digitized data"

PROJECT "Depth conversion" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
"Depth convert interpreted section"

TASK "Depth conversion" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
procdat.tsk "Process data from interpreted seismic line"

TASK "create Graphic" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
dcgrh.tsk "Create graphic file of interpreted section"

TASK "View conversion" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
dcview.tsk "View interpreted seismic line"

PROJECT "Reconstruct section" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
"Restore depth converted section"

TASK "Reconstruct section" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
recon.tsk "Process data to get reconstructed sections"

TASK "create Graphic" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
rsgrh.tsk "Create graphic file of interpreted section"

TASK "View restoration" c:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
rsview.tsk "View interpreted seismic line"
digitz.tsk
# for Geohistory Analysis package
# starts digitizer...
# All digitising should be done from the start shotpoint to the
# end shot point, seafloor to basement.
# The data from the digitiser should be the format expected by
# the database, e.g. shot_point twt_time line_id horizon_name
# the line_id and horizon_name are derived from the marker in
# sdigit. A space between the two will separate them in the
# loading process.
RUN sdigit <<-iDONE
  oucx
DONE

indig.tsk
# for Geohistory Analysis package
# loads data
# The data from the digitiser may be edited between sdigit and
# here if required, e.g. to patch together long lines etc.
PARAMETER Section= "xx-nn" CT 32
REQUIRE {Section}.dig
RUN load <<-iDONE
  ouxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  xsv d{Section}.dig
  fshot_point twt_time line_id horizon_name
  papp
  xl x
DONE

procdat.tsk
# for South Westland Geohistory Analysis package
# task creates details and data report of requested section
# for regularising using a QBASIC program "reg.bas"
# regularised data is loaded into the database
# skeletal thicknesses of each sequence is calculated
# polygons are extracted from the data and tabled in a polygon
# file

# Enter line_id for processing
PARAMETER Section= "xx-nn" CT 32

-----------------------------------------------
# Output details of requested section
# line_id, start shot point and end shot point are extracted via
# a REPORT runlog.
RUN report <<DONE
  ouxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  aline_idA=A{Section}
Output digitized information for requested section
shotpoints, two way travel time, line id and horizon name are extracted via a REPORT runlog.

# Check if report outputs completed
# Run QBASIC routine "reg.bas" to regularise data
# Check completion of reg.bas
#
REQUIRE {Section}.det
REQUIRE {Section}.rep
ECHO > message.tmp {Section}
RUN qbasic /run reg.bas
ERASE message.tmp
REQUIRE {Section}.reg

# Load regularised data into database
#
RUN load <<DONE
>Load regularised data
ouxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
   aline_id=\{Section\}
   xsd\{Section\}.reg
f line_id sp_reg seafloor_twt ppa_twt ppb_twt topmio_twt
   baseoligo_twt\{basement_twt
   pover
xl x
DONE

# Calculate section length to each regular shotpoint
#
RUN tbcalc <<DONE
>Calculate section lengths
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
RUN report <<DONE
»cOutput horizons into polygon format
oxoucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
    aline_idΔ=Δ{Section}\DΔ
    xsr{Section}.polΔno»h
p  ΔΔnΔnΔnΔnΔnAy
»cOutput horizons into polygon format: seafloor
flen_reg seafloor_dep "{Section}_seafloor" "1" seafloor_code "4" "/" "{Section}"
  xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons into polygon format: ppa
xdmΔ$seqb_thickΔ!=Δ$0Δs$eqa_thickΔ!=Δ$0»h
    xsf$len_reg ppa_dep "{Section}_ppa" "1" ppa_code "4" "{Section}"
  xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons into polygon format: ppb
xdmΔ$seqc_thickΔ!=Δ$0»h
    xsf$len_reg ppb_dep "{Section}_ppb" "1" ppb_code "4" "{Section}"
  xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons into polygon format: topmio
xdmΔ$seqd_thickΔ!=Δ$0»h
    xsf$len_reg topmio_dep "{Section}_topmio" "1" topmio_code "4"
    ""{Section}"
  xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons into polygon format: baseoligo
xdmΔ$seqe_thickΔ!=Δ$0»h
    xsf$len_reg baseoligo_dep "{Section}_baseoligo" "1" baseoligo_code "4" "{Section}"
  xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons into polygon format: basement
xdmΔ$seqf_thickΔ!=Δ$0»h
    xsf$len_reg basement_dep "{Section}_basement" "1" basement_code "4" "{Section}"
  xr x
DONE

RUN load <<DONE
»cLoad Polygons into table
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
    aline_idΔ=Δ{Section}\Dpoly_typeΔ=Δ4
    xsr{Section}.pol
fnull null poly_owner poly_style poly_colour poly_type line_id
  (poly)
pover
  x1 x
DONE
ERASE {Section}.pol
# dcgrh.tsk
#
# for Geohistory Analysis package
# task creates metafile of depth converted seismic horizons for
# the requested section
#
PARAMETER Section = "xx-nn" CT 32
PARAMETER X-scale = "10000" CI 8
PARAMETER Y-scale = "10000" CI 8
PARAMETER Max-dep = "3000" CI 8

RUN report <<DONE
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
aline_id=\A{Section}\nxm\D{Section}.dc.met
p\A{x_length}line_lenrnd
xr x
DONE

REQUIRE endbit.rep
INCLUDE endbit.rep
ERASE endbit.rep

RUN poster <<-iDONE
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
aline_id=\A{Section}\npoly_type=\A4
xgm\D{Section}.dc.met
xs{x_length}y\A{Max-dep}\Axr
b g\A{x_length}0.25A\Ax50A10A0A1
s\A{Max-dep}0.5A1A1.0A
xcfPolygons_nul
spoly_colourApoly_style
d xaut\D{Section} Depth ConversionA0A-700A2.00A90AblackA
xx
DONE

# sdview.tsk
#
# for Geohistory Analysis package
# for viewing interpreted digitized line
#
PARAMETER Section = "xx-nn" CT 32

REQUIRE {Section}.dc.met

RUN mftr -i -ze {Section}.dc.met

# RECON.TSK
#
# task file for outputing section details for a qbasic program
# to restore and decompact
#
PARAMETER Section = "xx-nn" CT 32
Calculate skeletal thicknesses of the sequences
Uses "skelcalc.clc" TBCALC file.

RUN tbcalc <<DONE
  cCalculate skeletal thicknesses
  ouxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  aline_id=\Section
  xse(f, skelcalc.clc)
  xC x
  DONE

# Report paleodepth details

RUN report <<DONE
  cReport paleodepth details
  oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  aline_id=\Section
  xsrpaleo.rep
  p\Paleo
  f(f, paleo.fmt)
  XR x
  DONE

# Report section details

RUN report <<DONE
  cOutput section details
  oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  aline_id=\Section
  xsrrecon.rep
  p\Recon
  f(f, recon.fmt)
  XR x
  DONE

# Run restoration and decompaction QBASIC routine

RUN qbasic /run recon.bas
  REQUIRE recon.prc

# Load restored and decompacted data

RUN load <<DONE
  cLoad restored and decompacted data
  ouxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  aline_id=\Section
  xsdrecon.prc
  fline_id len_reg\bsl_ppa bsl_ppb bsl_topmio bsl_baseoligo
  bs1_baseoligo\bs2_ppb bsl_baseoligo
  bs2_baseoligo\bs3_topmio bs3_baseoligo bs3_baseoligo
  bs4_baseoligo
  over\n  XL x
  DONE
# Extract data for polygon tabling of depth converted horizons

RUN report <<DONE
»cOutput restored horizons into polygon format
oxouxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
  aline_id={Section}»h
  xsr{Section}.polAno»h
p  ΔnΔnΔnΔn
»cOutput horizons: Stage 4 ppa
  xdmAAA$bs1_seqb_thickΔ$!Δ$0$bs1_seqa_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs1_ppa "{Section}_bs1_ppa" "1ΔΔ5" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 4 ppb
  xdmAAA$bs1_seqc_thickΔ$!Δ$0$Δ$Δ$Δ$Δ»h
  xsf$len_reg bs1_ppb "{Section}_bs1_ppb" "1ΔΔ5" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 4 topmio
  xdmAAA$bs1_seqd_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs1_topmio "{Section}_bs1_topmio" "1Δ6Δ5" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 4 baseoligo
  xdmAAA$bs1_seqe_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs1_baseoligo "{Section}_bs1_baseoligo" "1Δ4Δ5"
" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 4 basement
  xdmAAA$ΔΔ$Δ»h
  xsf$len_reg bs1_baseoligo "{Section}_bs1_baseoligo" "1Δ2Δ5"
" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 3 ppb
  xdmAAA$bs2_seqc_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs2_ppb "{Section}_bs2_ppb" "1Δ5Δ5" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 3 topmio
  xdmAAA$bs2_seqd_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs2_topmio "{Section}_bs2_topmio" "1Δ6Δ5" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 3 baseoligo
  xdmAAA$bs2_seqe_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs2_baseoligo "{Section}_bs2_baseoligo" "1Δ4Δ5"
" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 3 basement
  xdmAAA$ΔΔ$Δ»h
  xsf$len_reg bs2_baseoligo "{Section}_bs2_baseoligo" "1Δ2Δ5"
" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 2 topmio
  xdmAAA$bs3_seqd_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs3_topmio "{Section}_bs3_topmio" "1Δ6Δ5" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 2 baseoligo
  xdmAAA$bs3_seqe_thickΔ$!Δ$0»h
  xsf$len_reg bs3_baseoligo "{Section}_bs3_baseoligo" "1Δ4Δ5"
" "{Section}"
xr srΔ$yes»h
»cOutput horizons: Stage 2 basement
  xdmAAA$ΔΔ$Δ»h
  xsf$len_reg bs3_baseoligo "{Section}_bs3_baseoligo" "1Δ2Δ5"
"{Section}"

jr srÅ$yesjh
>:cOuTun horizons: Stage 1 baseoligo
xdmÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅå

"{Section}"

jr srÅ$yesjh
>:cOuTun horizons: Stage 1 basement
xdmÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅÅå

"{Section}"

jr x
DONE

# Load data in to polygon table of depth converted horizons
#

RUN load <<DONE
>Load Polygons into table
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
   aline_idÅt=Å{Section}poly_typeÅt=Å5
   xsr{Section}.pol
fnulnull poly_owner poly_style poly_colour poly_type line_id
(pry)
power
x1 x
DONE

ERASE {Section}.pol

# rsgrh.tsk
# for GeoHistory Analysis package
# task creates metafile of restored horizons for the
# requested section
#
PARAMETER Section = "xx-nn" CT 32
PARAMETER X-scale = "50000" CI 8
PARAMETER Y-scale = "50000" CI 8

RUN report <<DONE
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
   aline_idÅt=Å{Section}poly_typeÅt=Å5
   xsrendbit.repÅt=Å
f"SET x_length = " line_lenrnd
jr x
DONE

REQUIRE endbit.rep
INCLUDE endbit.rep
ERASE endbit.rep

SET axis-len = [x-length] [X-scale] / 100

RUN poster <<DONE
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland
>Restoration Stage 4
   aline_idÅt=Å{Section}poly_typeÅt=Å5poly_ownerÅt=Åbsl
   xgm{Section}4.met
PARAMETER Section = "xx-nn" CT 32

REQUIRE {Section}0.met
REQUIRE {Section}1.met
REQUIRE {Section}2.met
REQUIRE {Section}3.met
REQUIRE {Section}4.met

RUN gview {Section}0 {Section}1 {Section}2 {Section}3 {Section}4.met
C.2 TECHBASE Runlogs

Other runlogs were also used to generate maps and diagrams, or processing of data within the study area grid. These situations were generally non-repetitive, but required frequent reprocessing to account for errors and minor modifications.

The following runlog, map.rlg, was used to generate the geological base map in Figure 1.4 using POSTER. The numerous .pol files used are drawn onto the base map as filled and coloured polygons, with some drawn or redrawn as hollow outlines to create borders.

```
oucxdoc:\tbase\wcoast\swlandta\swland

xgmmap.net
sAAAA2AAAAAAA
xs10000000Δ10000000
rf210000000000Δ5650000Δ87500000Δ1
xf$bath250.pol$C10$Δ$blankΔ$yΔ$3AAA
  f$bath500.pol$C11$Δ$blankΔ$yΔ$3AAA
  f$bath100.pol$C12$Δ$blankΔ$yΔ$3AAA
  f$bath150.pol$C13$Δ$blankΔ$yΔ$3AAA
  f$bath200.pol$C14$Δ$blankΔ$yΔ$3AAA
  f$bath300.pol$C15$Δ$blankΔ$yΔ$3AAA
  f$metamor.pol$green$Δ$blankΔ$yes$Δ$0.0000$0$Δ$6000
  f$tertiary.pol$yellow$Δ$blankΔ$yes$Δ$0.5Δ$90
  f$tertiary.pol$black$Δ$solidΔ$yes$Δ$hollowΔΔ
  f$creta.pol$orange$Δ$blankΔ$yes$Δ$0.5Δ$90
  f$creta.pol$black$Δ$solidΔ$yes$Δ$hollowΔΔ
f..\polygons\wcoast1.pol$Δ$blueΔ$wide$Δ$yes$ Δ$Δ
f..\polygons\afault.pol$Δ$C2Δ$wideΔ$yes$ΔΔΔ
f..\polygons\ffault.pol$Δ$C2Δ$wideΔ$yes$ΔΔΔ
f..\polygons\mfault.pol$Δ$C2Δ$wideΔ$yes$ΔΔΔ
f..\polygons\rivers.pol$Δ$blueΔ$solidΔ$yΔ$Δ$Δ$Δ

>cf$bathy.pol$Δ$blueΔ$solidΔ$yΔ$Δ$Δ$Δ
  aupmapleg.pic$Δ$2290000Δ$65000000Δ$Δ$900
  p$scale.pic$Δ$22300000Δ$56500000Δ$Δ$900
  p$north.pic$Δ$21479000Δ$58253000Δ$Δ$870
  p$depth.pic$Δ$21080000Δ$58210000Δ$Δ$900
  p$monogram.pic$Δ$21000000Δ$56500000Δ$0.5Δ$900
  p$crest.pic$Δ$23300000Δ$58630000Δ$0.025Δ$900
  xsAAAA3AAAAAAA

>xd$loc_id$=Δ$4
xp$loc_east$Δ$loc_north$Δ$loc_name
m$2Δ$black$Δ$0.0Δ$87AAA
vb$black$Δ$0.30Δ$right$Δ$87

d
f\h$loc_east$Δ$loc_north$Δ$loc_name2$=h
m$2Δ$black$Δ$0.0Δ$87AAA
vb$black$Δ$0.0Δ$Stop$Δ$177

d
xd$loc_id$=Δ$2
xp$loc_east$Δ$loc_north$Δ$=h
m$13$Δ$black$=0.25Δ$90AAA
vb$black$Δ$0.5Δ$sleft$Δ$90

d
at$Tasman$Sea$Δ$2140704$Δ$5762737$Δ$0.50Δ$90$Δ$blackΔ
t$Alpine$Fault$Δ$23000003$Δ$5757050$Δ$0.50Δ$55$Δ$blackΔ
t$Paringa$Section$Δ$2196150$Δ$57115555$Δ$0.25Δ$57$Δ$blackΔ
t$Jackson$Head$Section$Δ$2130278$Δ$5679804$Δ$0.25Δ$72$Δ$blackΔ
t$Jackson$Canyon$Δ$2132647$Δ$5693546$Δ$0.25Δ$73$Δ$blueΔ
t$Haast$Canyon$Δ$2163347$Δ$5711333$Δ$0.25Δ$90$Δ$blueΔ
t$Moeraki$Canyon$Δ$2169138$Δ$5736198$Δ$0.25Δ$120$Δ$blueΔ
```
The following runlog, map.rig, was used to generate the structure contour map in Figure 4.14 using POSTER. The numerous .pol files were generated from the polygon option in GRIDCONT and edited in POLYEDIT to conform with the outline of the study area. Other outlines and picture files were produced as standard with minor alterations as needed. The other isopach diagrams displayed in this study used runlogs with a similar format.
C.3 TECHBASE Picture files

During the compilation of metafiles or graphics displaying various aspects of the study area (e.g. geological base map, basement structure contours etc.) some annotations, such as scales, compass directions are used repeatedly. These images are generated using picture files, which are listed below.

*Depth.pic* produces an image of the bathymetric depth scale seen in Figure 1.4.

```
# bathymetric scale
U cm
S blank 3
C C0
A 4 -0.80 -0.20
1.80 -0.20
1.80 5.40
-0.80 5.40
C C15
A 3 0.00 0.00
0.50 1.00
0.00 1.00
C C14
A 4 0.00 1.00
0.50 1.00
0.50 2.00
0.00 2.00
C C13
A 4 0.00 2.00
0.50 2.00
0.50 3.00
0.00 3.00
C C12
A 4 0.00 3.00
0.50 3.00
0.50 4.00
0.00 4.00
C C11
A 4 0.00 4.00
0.50 4.00
0.50 4.50
0.00 4.50
C C10
A 4 0.00 4.50
0.50 4.50
0.50 5.00
0.00 5.00
S solid 1
C black
P 4 0.00 0.00
0.50 1.00
0.00 1.00
0.00 0.00
R 0.00 1.00 0.50 2.00
R 0.00 2.00 0.50 3.00
R 0.00 3.00 0.50 4.00
R 0.00 4.00 0.50 4.50
R 0.00 4.50 0.50 5.00
F 3 1
T 0.60 0.90 0.25 90
2000
T 0.60 1.90 0.25 90
1500
```

*Scale.pic* produces the key and title of the plot. Amendments to each metafile may be made as required.

```
# scale bar for basemap
U cm
C BACKGR
S solid 3
A 4 0.00 0.00
6.00 0.00
6.00 3.00
0.00 3.00
C black
S solid
R 0.00 0.00 6.00 3.00
S solid 3
A 4 0.50 1.00
1.50 1.00
1.50 1.20
0.50 1.20
A 4 2.50 1.00
3.50 1.00
3.50 1.20
2.50 1.20
A 4 4.50 1.00
5.50 1.00
5.50 1.20
4.50 1.20
S solid 1
R 0.50 1.00 5.50 1.20
L 1.50 1.10 2.50 1.10
L 3.50 1.10 4.50 1.10
S wide 1
L 0.50 1.00 0.50 1.50
L 5.50 1.00 5.50 1.50
F 3 c
T 0.50 1.60 0.25
0
T 5.50 1.60 0.25
50
T 3.00 1.60 0.20
kilometres
```
C.4 TBCALC files

The calculation steps used in a TBCALC program or runlog can often be better implemented as a separate file called from the TBCALC program as (f, filename) as required.

These TBCALC files are listed below. Calculation equations are in Reverse Polish Notation.

`density.clc` calculates the average density of the sediments in a cell. The density is used to help calculate tectonic subsidence.

```plaintext
seqa_skel_q seqb_skel_q + seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
seqb_skel_q seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
basement_dep_1 paleodepth_1 + temp2
temp2 temp1 - = temp3
temp3 2.70 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 + temp2 / = density_0

seqa_skel_q seqb_skel_q + seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
seqb_skel_q seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
basement_dep_2 paleodepth_2 + temp2
temp2 temp1 - = temp3
temp3 2.70 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 + temp2 / = density_1

seqa_skel_q seqb_skel_q + seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
seqb_skel_q seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
basement_dep_3 paleodepth_3 + temp2
temp2 temp1 - = temp3
temp3 2.70 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 + temp2 / = density_2

seqa_skel_q seqb_skel_q + seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
seqa_skel_q seqb_skel_q + seqc_skel_q + seqd_skel_q + seqe_skel_q + temp1
basement_dep_4 paleodepth_4 + temp2
temp2 temp1 - = temp3
temp3 2.70 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 + temp2 / = density_3
```

`tectonic.clc` calculates the tectonic subsidence of a cell at each backstripped stage through the sediment column (i.e. as if each horizon was individually back at the surface).

```plaintext
3.30 density_0 - - temp1
3.30 1.00 - - temp2
temp2 temp1 / = temp3
basement_q sea_floor_q + = temp4
temp4 temp3 * = temp5
temp4 temp5 - = tectonic_sub_0

3.30 density_1 - - temp1
3.30 1.00 - - temp2
temp2 temp1 / = temp3
basement_dep_1 paleodepth_1 + = temp
```

```plaintext
temp4 temp3 * = temp5
temp4 temp5 - = tectonic_sub_1
```
skelcalc.clc calculates the skeletal thickness of a sequence at a given point along a seismic line. Used in procdat.tsk task file.

# calculate skeletal thickness of sequence a
#
1 seqa_pphi / = temp1
1 seqa_kk / = temp2
ppa_dep 1000 / = temp6
seafloor_dep 1000 / = temp7
seqa_thick 1000 / = temp8
seqa_kk temp6 * = temp3
seqa_kk temp7 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 / ln temp2 * = temp5
temp8 temp5 - 1000 * = seqa_skel
#
# calculate skeletal thickness of sequence b
#
1 seqb_pphi / = temp1
1 seqb_kk / = temp2
ppb_dep 1000 / = temp6
ppa_dep 1000 / = temp7
seqb_thick 1000 / = temp8
seqb_kk temp6 * = temp3
seqb_kk temp7 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 / ln temp2 * = temp5
temp8 temp5 - 1000 * = seqb_skel
#
# calculate skeletal thickness of sequence c
#
1 seqc_pphi / = temp1
1 seqc_kk / = temp2
topmio_dep 1000 / = temp6
ppb_dep 1000 / = temp7
seqc_thick 1000 / = temp8
seqc_kk temp6 * = temp3
seqc_kk temp7 * = temp4
temp3 temp4 / ln temp2 * = temp5
temp8 temp5 - 1000 * = seqc_skel
# calculate skeletal thickness of sequence d
#
1 seqd_pphi     = temp1
1 seqd_kk       = temp2
baseoligo_dep  1000 / = temp6
topmio_dep     1000 / = temp7
seqd_thick     1000 / = temp8
seqd_kk temp6 * temp1 + = temp3
seqd_kk temp7 * temp1 + = temp4
temp3 temp4 / ln temp2 * = temp5
temp8 temp5 - 1000 * = seqd_skel
#
# calculate skeletal thickness of sequence e
#
1 sege_pphi     = temp1
1 sege_kk       = temp2
basement_dep    1000 / = temp6
baseoligo_dep  1000 / = temp7
seqe_thick     1000 / = temp8
seqe_kk temp6 * temp1 + = temp3
seqe_kk temp7 * temp1 + = temp4
temp3 temp4 / ln temp2 * = temp5
temp8 temp5 - 1000 * = sege_skel
C.5: Q-BASIC programs

Not all processing of the seismic data can be easily done within the TECHBASE system. A number of small Q-BASIC programs were created to undertake various 'number-crunching' routines that were difficult to implement in TECHBASE. For further information about the Q-BASIC programming language, refer to the appropriate manuals and on-line help files.

Three Q-BASIC programs used during various aspects of the processing are listed here:

REG.BAS: regularises 'raw' digitised seismic data into data points at regular intervals
RECON.BAS: takes data from a section and proceeds to backstrip and decompact at regular intervals along the section, therefore undertaking a very simple palinspastic reconstruction of the section.
RECONQ.BAS: similar to above, but works across the entire study area array.

```
' REG.BAS
' for Geohistory Analysis package
' for regularising an interpreted section
'
' $DYNAMIC

DECLARE SUB Datain ()
DECLARE SUB Standard ()

COMMON SHARED section$ 'section id from TECHBASE
COMMON SHARED filename$ 'filename of report file from TECHBASE
COMMON SHARED detfile$ 'filename of details file from TECHBASE
COMMON SHARED regfile$ 'filename of regularised input for section
COMMON SHARED numline 'number of lines in report file
COMMON SHARED horzcount 'number of horizons in section
COMMON SHARED lloc 'left value of location in report file
COMMON SHARED rloc 'right value of location in report file
COMMON SHARED ltor 'digitizing from left to right = 1
COMMON SHARED spinterval 'distance os shotpoint intervals (m)

DIM SHARED inlocation(l) 'array for location values read in from report file
DIM SHARED location(10, 250) 'array for location values sorted by horizons
DIM SHARED indepth(1) 'array for depth values read in from report file
DIM SHARED depth(10, 250) 'array for depth values sorted by horizons
DIM SHARED horizonname$(1) 'array for horizon names from report file
DIM SHARED horizonid(1)
DIM SHARED horzname$(20) 'array for horizon names
DIM SHARED horzbreaks(40) 'array for location of horizon changes within report file
DIM SHARED horzlen(20) 'array for length of horizon data in report file
```

1 Q-BASIC (Quick-Beginners All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code) is © Microsoft Corporation 1987–1991. It is a general purpose computer language, implemented with a simple compiler in as 'standard' within some installed operating systems.
TECHBASE macros

file
DIM SHARED seqvel(20) 'array for sequence velocity information
DIM SHARED seqkk(20) 'array for sequence k-value info
DIM SHARED seqphi(20) 'array for sequence phi-value info
DIM SHARED condepth(horizcount, 1)
DIM SHARED conloc(1)
DIM $HARED $tartloc(20)
DIM SHARED hstartdep(20)
DIM SHARED hendloc(20)
DIM SHARED henddep(20)

Begin:
CLS

Getsectionid:
    OPEN "message.tmp" FOR INPUT AS #1
    INPUT #1, section$
    CLOSE #1

Getnumberoflines:
    filename$ = section$ + ".rep"
    OPEN filename$ FOR INPUT AS #2

    numline = 0
    DO
        LINE INPUT #2, line$
        numline = numline + 1
        LOOP UNTIL EOF(2)
    CLOSE #2

    ' redimension arrays
    REDIM SHARED inlocation(numline + 1)
    REDIM SHARED indepth(numline + 1)
    REDIM SHARED horizonname$(numline + 1)
    REDIM SHARED horizonid(numline + 1)

    CALL Datain
    CALL Standard
    SYSTEM

REM $STATIC
SUB Datain

'   Subroutine for inputing and checking datafile from TECHBASE
PRINT "Inputting data from file "; filename$
VIEW PRINT 3 TO 3

OPEN filename$ FOR INPUT AS #2
linept = 0
DO
    linept = linept + 1
    INPUT #2, inlocation(linept), indepth(linept), dummy$, horizonname$(linept)
    PRINT "•";
    LOOP UNTIL (EOF(2))
CLOSE #2
PRINT ""

'-------------------------------------------------------------
'
detfiles = section$ + ".det"

OPEN detfiles FOR INPUT AS #3
   INPUT #3, dummy$, lloc, rloc
CLOSE #3

'-------------------------------------------------------------
'
Check for direction of data
'
IF lloc < rloc THEN ltor = 1 ELSE lt0r = 0

'-------------------------------------------------------------
'
Look for number of "main" horizons
'
horzcount = 0
hb = 1
FOR iloop = 1 TO numline
   oldid$ = id$
   id$ = horizonname$(iloop)
   IF id$ <> oldid$ THEN
      horzcount = horzcount + 1
      horizonname$(horzcount) = id$
      horzbreaks(hb) = iloop
      hb = hb + 1
   END IF
   horizonid(iloop) = horzcount
NEXT iloop
horzbreaks(hb) = numline + 1

'-------------------------------------------------------------
'
Separate individual horizons into arrays
'
arraycount = 1
horzcount = 0
FOR iloop = 1 TO numline
   depth(horizonid(iloop), arraycount) = indepth(iloop)
   location(horizonid(iloop), arraycount) = inlocation(iloop)
   arraycount = arraycount + 1
   IF (horizonname$(iloop + 1) <> horizonname$(iloop)) THEN
      horzcount = horzcount + 1
      horzlen(horzcount) = arraycount - 1
      arraycount = 1
   END IF
NEXT iloop

'-------------------------------------------------------------
'
END SUB

SUB Standard

' subroutine for standardising input from TECHBASE report file into
' regular intervals for further processing

IF lt0r = 1 THEN interval = 1 ELSE interval = -1
regfiles = section$ + ".reg"
VIEW PRINT 2 TO 3
CLS
PRINT "Standardising input into regular intervals."
VIEW PRINT 3 TO 3
OPEN regfile$ FOR OUTPUT AS #6
FOR iloop = lloc TO rloc STEP interval
  dist = ABS(lloc - rloc)
  PRINT #6, section$; iloop;
  FOR hloop = 1 TO horzcount
    ' find end and start of horizon
    hstart = location(hloop, 1)
    hend = location(hloop, horzlen(hloop))
    ' if iloop before start of horizon
    '   if horizon first part
    '   extrapolate before horizon
    '   print depth
    SELECT CASE ltor
      CASE IS = 1
        IF iloop < hstart THEN
          extrapolate before horizon
          PRINT #6, ABS(CINT((depth(hloop, 1) - slope * (iloop - hstart)) * 1000) / 1000);
        END IF
      CASE IS = 0
        IF iloop < hstart THEN
          extrapolate before horizon
          PRINT #6, ABS(CINT((depth(hloop, 1) - slope * (iloop - hstart)) * 1000) / 1000);
        END IF
    END SELECT
    ' if iloop after the end of horizon
    '   if horizon last part
    '   extrapolate after horizon
    '   print depth
    SELECT CASE ltor
      CASE IS = 1
        IF iloop > hend THEN
          extrapolate after horizon
          PRINT #6, ABS(CINT((lastdepth + (slope * (iloop - lastloc)) - penudepth) / (lastloc - penuloc)) * 1000) / 1000);
        END IF
      CASE IS = 0
        IF iloop < hend THEN
          extrapolate after horizon
          PRINT #6, ABS(CINT((lastdepth + (slope * (iloop - lastloc)) - penudepth) / (lastloc - penuloc)) * 1000) / 1000);
        END IF
    END SELECT
  END FOR
END FOR
IF ((iloop >= hstart) AND (iloop <= hend)) OR
((iloop <= hstart) AND (iloop >= hend)) THEN
icount = 0
DO
icount = icount + 1
LOOP UNTIL ((iloop >= location(hloop, icount)) AND
((iloop <= location(hloop, icount + 1)))
slope = (depth(hloop, icount) - depth(hloop, icount + 1)) /
(location(hloop, icount) - location(hloop, icount + 1))
PRINT #6, ABS(CINT((depth(hloop, icount) - (slope *
(location(hloop, icount) - iloop))) * 1000) / 1000);
END IF
NEXT hloop
PRINT #6, ""
IF CINT(((ABS(lloc - iloop) / dist) * 80)) > oldpt THEN
PRINT TAB(CINT(((ABS(lloc - iloop) / dist) * 80))); "#";
oldpt = CINT(((ABS(lloc - iloop) / dist) * 80))
END IF
NEXT iloop
PRINT ""
CLOSE #6
END SUB

' RECON.BAS
' program for inputting a report file from TECHBASE and
' decompacting sediment thicknesses of a section.
'
DECLARE FUNCTION ZFUNC! (zt, pt, kt)
DECLARE FUNCTION COMPFAC (zsk#, ztop#, phi#, k#)
DECLARE FUNCTION PALEOSEA! (aget)

CONST reportfile$ = "recon.rep"
CONST paleofile$ = "paleo.rep"
CONST procfile$ = "recon.prc"

TYPE Sequenceinfo
  skel AS DOUBLE
  pphi AS DOUBLE
  kk AS DOUBLE
END TYPE

TYPE Pdepth
left AS DOUBLE
right AS DOUBLE
END TYPE

DIM SHARED sequence(1 TO 5) AS Sequenceinfo
DIM SHARED paleodepth(1 TO 4) AS Pdepth
DIM SHARED depths$(1 TO 6)
DIM SHARED pseaU(154)

' ***** setup paleo sea level array *****
DATA 100., 93., 91.

' FOR iloop% = 0 TO 154
' READ pseaU(iloop%)
' NEXT iloop%

CLS
PRINT "Reconstruction and decompaction program"
VIEW PRINT 2 TO 2

' open report file to count number of lines
OPEN reportfile$ FOR INPUT AS #1
numline = 0
DO
  LINE INPUT #1, dummy$
  numline = numline + 1
LOOP UNTIL EOF(1)
CLOSE #1

' OPEN "message.tmp" FOR INPUT AS #4
' INPUT #4, section$
' CLOSE #4

OPEN paleofile$ FOR INPUT AS #5
INPUT #5, section$
FOR ploop = 1 TO 4
  INPUT #5, paleodepth(ploop).left, paleodepth(ploop).right
NEXT ploop
CLOSE #5

OPEN reportfile$ FOR INPUT AS #1
OPEN procfile$ FOR OUTPUT AS #2
FOR iloop = 1 TO numline
  PRINT "#1";
  INPUT #1, length$
  FOR dloop = 1 TO 6
    INPUT #1, depths$(dloop)
    depths$(dloop) = ABS(depths$(dloop) / 1000)
  NEXT dloop
NEXT iloop
depths#(1) = 0
FOR sloop = 1 TO 5
INPUT #1, sequence(sloop).skel, sequence(sloop).pphi,
sequence(sloop).kk
sequence(sloop).skel = sequence(sloop).skel / 1000
NEXT sloop
PRINT #2, section$, length$;
FOR stage = 1 TO 4
PRINT ". ";
plodepth = ((paleodepth(stage).left -
paleodepth(stage).right) / numline) * iloop
plodepth = paleodepth(stage).left - plodepth
PRINT #2, plodepth; ' work out paleodepth and eustatic correction
FOR depalt = (stage + 1) TO 6
depths#(depalt) = depths#(depalt) - depths#(stage + 1)
NEXT depalt
FOR unit = (stage + 1) TO 5
decompac = COMPFAC(sequence(unit).skel, depths#(unit),
sequence(unit).pphi, sequence(unit).kk)
PRINT #2, (decompac * 1000) + plodepth;
depths#(unit + 1) = decompac
NEXT unit
NEXT stage
PRINT #2, ""
NEXT iloop
CLOSE #2
CLOSE #1
SYSTEM
FUNCTION COMPFAC (zsk#, ztop#, phi#, k#)
errmax# = .0001
zset# = zsk# + ZFUNC(ztop#, phi#, k#)
zbot# = ztop# + ABS(zsk#)
DO WHILE (ABS(zbot# - oldzbot#) > errmax#)
oldzbot# = zbot#
IF k# = 0 THEN
zbot# = zset#
ELSE
zbot# = ((1 / k#) * LOG((1 / phi#) + (k# * oldzbot#))) + zset#
END IF
LOOP
COMPFAC = zbot#
END FUNCTION
FUNCTION PALEOSEA (age#)
agep# = age# * 10
IF (ABS(agep#) < .1) THEN
PALEOSEA = 0
ELSE
i% = 2
DO WHILE (((agep# > i%) AND (i% < 153))
i% = i% + 1
LOOP
IF (agep# = i% - 1) THEN
  ' agep = exact value in sea level array
  PALEOSEA = pseal#(i% - 1) / 1000
ELSE
  IF (agep# > 153) THEN ' agep > than maximum array value
    PALEOSEA = pseal#(154) / 1000
  ELSE ' interpolate agep from levels on either side
    slopef = pseal#(i%) - pseal#(i% - 1)
    PALEOSEA = (pseal#(i% - 1) + (slopef * (agepf - (i% - 1)))) / 1000
  END IF
END IF
END IF
END IF
END FUNCTION

FUNCTION ZFUNC (zf, pf, kf)
IF (kf <> 0) THEN
  ZFUNC = zf - (LOG((1 / pf) + (kf * zf)) / kf)
ELSE
  ZFUNC = zf
END IF
END FUNCTION

' RECONQ.BAS
' program for inputting a report file from TECHBASE and
decompaing sediment thicknesses across the study area
array.

DECLARE FUNCTION ZFUNC! (zf, pf, kf)
DECLARE FUNCTION COMPFAC (zsk#, ztopf, phi#, kt)
DECLARE FUNCTION PALEOSEA! (age#)

CONST reportfile$ = "reconq.rpt"
CONST procfile$ = "reconq.prc"

TYPE Sequenceinfo
  skel AS DOUBLE
  pphi AS DOUBLE
  kk AS DOUBLE
  pdepth AS DOUBLE
END TYPE

DIM SHARED sequence(1 TO 5) AS Sequenceinfo
DIM SHARED depths#(1 TO 6)
DIM SHARED pseal#(154)

' ***** set up paleo sea level array *****
DATA 110., 118., 118., 112., 112., 113., 118., 125.
DATA 100., 93., 91.

'FOR iloop% = 0 TO 154
  READ psealf((iloop%)

'NEXT iloop%

CLS
PRINT "Reconstruction and decompack program"
VIEW PRINT 2 TO 2

' open report file to count number of lines
OPEN reportfile$ FOR INPUT AS #1
numline = 0
DO
  LINE INPUT #1, dummy$
  numline = numline + 1
LOOP UNTIL EOF(1)
CLOSE #1

'OPEN "message.tmp" FOR INPUT AS #4
'  INPUT #4, section$
'CLOSE #4

OPEN reportfile$ FOR INPUT AS #1
OPEN procfile$ FOR OUTPUT AS #2
FOR iloop = 1 TO numline
  PRINT ";
  FOR dloop = 1 TO 6
    INPUT #1, depthsf(dloop)
    depthst(dloop) = ABS(depsf(dloop) / 1000)
  NEXT dloop
  depthsf(1) = 0
  FOR sloop = 1 TO 5
    INPUT #1, sequence(sloop).skel, sequence(sloop).pphi,
    sequence(sloop).kk, sequence(sloop).pdepth
    sequence(sloop).skel = sequence(sloop).skel / 1000
  NEXT sloop
  PRINT #2, section$, length#;
  FOR stage = 1 TO 4
    PRINT ";
    FOR depalt = (stage + 1) TO 6
      depthsf(depalt) = depthsf(stage + 1) - depthsf(stage + 1)
    NEXT depalt
  NEXT stage
  PRINT #2, ""
NEXT iloop
CLOSE #2
CLOSE $1

SYSTEM

FUNCTION COMPFAC (zsk#, ztop#, phi#, k#)
errmax# = .0001
zset# = zsk# + ZFUNC(ztop#, phi#, k#)
zbot# = ztop# + ABS(zsk#)

DO WHILE (ABS(zbot# - oldzbott) > errmax#)

oldzbott# = zbot#
IF k# = 0 THEN
  zbot# = zset#
ELSE
  zbot# = ((1 / k#) * LOG((1 / phi#) + (k# * oldzbott#))) + zset#
END IF

LOOP

COMPFAC = zbot#

END FUNCTION

FUNCTION PALEOSEA (age#)

agep# = age# * 10
IF (ABS(agep#) < .1) THEN
  PALEOSEA = 0
ELSE
  i% = 2
  DO WHILE ((agep# > i%) AND (i% < 153))
    i% = i% + 1
  LOOP
  IF (agep# = i% - 1) THEN
    'agep = exact value in sea level array
    PALEOSEA = psealt(i% - 1) / 1000
  ELSE
    IF (agep# > 153) THEN ' agep > than maximum array value
      PALEOSEA = psealt(154) / 1000
    ELSE ' interpolate agep from levels on either side
      slope# = psealt(i%) - psealt(i% - 1)
      PALEOSEA = (psealt(i% - 1) + (slope# * (agep# - (i% - 1)))) / 1000
    END IF
  END IF
END IF
END IF
END IF

END FUNCTION

FUNCTION ZFUNC (z#, p#, k#)

IF (k# <> 0) THEN
  ZFUNC = z# - (LOG((1 / p#) + (k# * z#)) / k#)
ELSE
  ZFUNC = z#
END IF

END FUNCTION
Appendix D: Pascal source code listing for GeoHist+

The program GeoHist+ was adapted from GEO_HIST, a geohistory program for the VAX/VMS system programmed by Wood (1989). GeoHist+ was programmed on a Macintosh™ Plus computer using Lightspeed Pascal™ for the Macintosh™. For further information about Pascal and the Macintosh programming environment the reader is directed towards:


The program is subdivided into 8 units, in association with 'standard' libraries. These units are built together in order such that procedures and functions in each unit can be called by units below it. The units and their build order used in GeoHist+ is as follows:

- Calculations
- DataParams
- DataHandlers
- Decompaction
- GraphicsHandlers
- ResultHandlers
- PlotDriver
- Geodcomp

Longer descriptions of the routines in each unit is given below in the source code listings. GeoHist+ also makes extensive use of resources in the Macintosh environment for dialog, alert, text and graphic display windows. These are found in the file GeoHist.Rsrc, and can be 'viewed' and/or edited with a utility like ResEdit.

\*\* = indicates that the line is continuous from the one immediately above.

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1 Macintosh is a trademark of McIntosh Laboratory, Inc. and used by Apple Computer, Inc.
2 Lightspeed Pascal is a trademark of THINK Technologies, Inc.
UNIT Calculations;

(This unit interfaces and implements the calculations required by the program for decompaction.)

Programmer: Keith Sircombe

Date: August 1992

Number 2 in build order (after SANE and before DataParams)

INTERFACE

CONST

maxlayr = 30;    (maximum number of layers permitted by program - nominal)
maxlayrl = 31;

TYPE

lithology = (sandstone,
             siltstone,
             mudstone,
             opshales,
             limestone,
             volcanics);

lithdata = ARRAY[sandstone..volcanics] OF real;

str = STRING;

unitrec = RECORD

layernum: integer;    (unit number)
water : real;        (paleowater depth)
age : real;            (age of *top* of unit, *base* of previous)
top : real;           (depth of top of unit)
base : real;         (depth of base of unit)
z : real;           (thickness of unit)
zsum : real;           (cumulative thickness of sequence)
lith : lithdata;   (array to carry lithology data)
zk : real;         (skeletal thickness of unit)
rate : real;       (sedimentation rate of unit)
kk : real;          (compaction coeff. of unit)
pphi : real;       (original porosity of unit)
dens : real;       (bulk density of unit)
unitname : str;     (name of unit)
plotcurve : boolean;  (plot unit on plot)

END;

resultsrec = RECORD

tect : ARRAY[0..maxlayr] OF real;    (tectonic curve array)
totalz : ARRAY[0..maxlayr] OF real;    (total thickness of sediments after decompaction)
curve : ARRAY[0..maxlayr, 0..maxlayrl] OF real;

p2 : ARRAY[0..maxlayr] OF real;

zsum : ARRAY[0..maxlayr] OF real;    (totalled thickness of sedimentary. column)
zp : ARRAY[0..maxlayr, 0..maxlayrl] OF real;

listz : ARRAY[0..maxlayr] OF real;

list : ARRAY[0..maxlayrl] OF unitrec;

END; {record}

nztimescale = RECORD

age : real;

stage : char;

END;

column = ARRAY[0..maxlayrl] OF unitrec;
VAR
  k : ARRAY[sandstone .. volcanics] OF real;
  phi : ARRAY[sandstone .. volcanics] OF real;
  bulkdens : ARRAY[sandstone .. volcanics] OF real;
  pseafile : text; {pointer to Paleosealevel.data file}
  paleosealevel : ARRAY[0 .. 153] OF real; {data array of sea levels, from Haq et al.}
  nz : ARRAY[0 .. 12] OF nztimescale;
  nlayr : integer;
  projectname : STRING;
  dataIn : boolean;
  AlertInt : integer;
  CallByEdit : boolean;

FUNCTION datestring (VAR dt : DateTimeRec) : STRING;
{This function returns a string of the date record passed to it in the form of)
{ hh:mm dayname daynumber month year }

PROCEDURECalcSetup;
{ This procedure loads the k, phi & bulkdens arrays with constant values for
each lithology type }

FUNCTION Zfunc (z real;
  p real;
  k real) : real;
{This function calculates a often recurring part of the decompaction equation
given the input of z, p & k }

FUNCTION Skelthick (z2 : real;
  zl : real;
  k : real;
  phi : real) : real;
{This function calculates the skeletal thickness of a unit given:
  ( z2 - depth to base of unit
  ( zl - depth to top of unit
  ( k - compaction coefficient of unit
  ( phi - original porosity of unit }

FUNCTION Paleosea (age: real) : real;
{This function returns the paleo sea level at a given age (in Myr)
taken from the long term Haq eustatic curve (Haq et al., 1987) }

FUNCTION Compfac (zsk real;
  ztop real;
  phi real;
  k real) : real;
{This function calculates the decompacted thickness of a unit
given:
  ( zsk - skeletal thickness of the unit
  ( ztop - depth to the top of the unit
  ( phi - original porosity of the unit
  ( k - compaction coefficient of the unit }
IMPLEMENTATION

FUNCTION datestring;

VAR
dayname : STRING;
monthname : STRING;
minutestr : STRING;
BEGIN

WITH dt DO
BEGIN

CASE dayofweek OF
1:
   dayname := 'Sunday';
2:
   dayname := 'Monday';
3:
   dayname := 'Tuesday';
4:
   dayname := 'Wednesday';
5:
   dayname := 'Thursday';
6:
   dayname := 'Friday';
7:
   dayname := 'Saturday';
END;

CASE month OF
1:
   monthname := 'January';
2:
   monthname := 'February';
3:
   monthname := 'March';
4:
   monthname := 'April';
5:
   monthname := 'May';
6:
   monthname := 'June';
7:
   monthname := 'July';
8:
   monthname := 'August';
9:
   monthname := 'September';
10:
   monthname := 'October';
11:
   monthname := 'November';
12:
   monthname := 'December';
END;

IF minute < 10 THEN
   minutestr := StringOf('0', minute : 1)
ELSE
   minutestr := StringOf(minute : 2);

datestring := StringOf(dt.hour : 2, ':', minutestr : 2, ',', ',', dayname,
PROCEDURE CalcSetup;

VAR
iloop : integer;
BEGIN

k[sandstone] := 1.2;  
phi[sandstone] := 0.4;  
bulkdens[sandstone] := 2.65;  

k[siltstone] := 2.18;  
phi[siltstone] := 0.53;  
bulkdens[siltstone] := 2.72;  

k[mudstone] := 2.43;  
phi[mudstone] := 0.70;  
bulkdens[mudstone] := 2.72;  

k[opshales] := 1.15;  
phi[opshales] := 0.45;  
bulkdens[opshales] := 2.72;  

k[limestone] := 1.3;  
phi[limestone] := 0.74;  
bulkdens[limestone] := 2.71;  

k[volcanics] := 0;  
phi[volcanics] := 0.1;  
bulkdens[volcanics] := 3.0;  

reset(pseafile, 'Paleosealevel.data');
FOR iloop := 0 TO 153 DO
  read(pseafile, pseal[iloop]);

nz[0].age := 0.0;
nz[1].age := 0.0;
.nz[2].stage := 'W'; {Wangauni}
.nz[2].age := 5.0;
.nz[3].stage := 'T'; {Taranaki}
.nz[3].age := 10.5;
.nz[4].stage := 'S'; {Southland}
.nz[4].age := 16.0;
.nz[5].stage := 'P'; {Pareora}
.nz[5].age := 22.0;
.nz[6].stage := 'L'; {Landon}
.nz[6].age := 36.5;
.nz[7].stage := 'A'; {Arnold}
.nz[7].age := 48.0;
.nz[8].stage := 'D'; {Dannevirke}
.nz[8].age := 66.5;
.nz[9].stage := 'M'; {Mata}
.nz[9].age := 85.0;
.nz[10].stage := 'R'; {Raukumara}
.nz[10].age := 95.0;
.nz[11].stage := 'C'; {Clarence}
.nz[12].age := 136.0;
FUNCTION Zfunc;
  VAR
    zfn : real;
  BEGIN
    IF (k <> 0) THEN
      zfn := z - (ln((1 / p) + (k * z)) / k)
    ELSE
      zfn := z;
    END;
    Zfunc := zfn;
  END; {Function Zfunc}

FUNCTION Skelthick;
  VAR
    za, zb : real;
  BEGIN
    IF ((z₁ < 0) AND (k > 0.01)) THEN
      BEGIN
        za := 0;
        zb := z₂ - z₁;
      END {assume deposition of non-volcanics}
      BEGIN
        (at or below sea level)
      END {if}
    ELSE {assume erosion at sea level}
      BEGIN
        IF (z₂ < z₁) THEN
          BEGIN
            za := z₁ - z₂;
            zb := 0;
          END {if}
        ELSE
          BEGIN
            za := z₁;
            zb := z₂;
          END {else}
        END {else}
    END; {else}
    Skelthick := Zfunc(zb, phi, k) - Zfunc(za, phi, k);
  END; {Function Skelthick}
FUNCTION PaleoSea;

VAR
  agep : real; {exact value in sea level array }
  psl : real; {paleosealevel variable}
  slope : real; {slope variable for interpolation}
  iloop : integer; {counter}
BEGIN
  agep := age * 10;
  IF (ABS(agep) < 0.1) THEN
    psl := 0
  ELSE BEGIN
    iloop := 2;
    WHILE ((agep > iloop) AND (iloop < 153)) DO
      iloop := iloop + 1;
    IF (agep = iloop - 1) THEN
      psl := pseal[iloop - 1] / 1000
    ELSE BEGIN
      IF (agep > 153) THEN
        psl := pseal[153] / 1000
      ELSE BEGIN
        slope := 0;
        slope := pseal[iloop] - pseal[iloop - 1];
        psl := (pseal[iloop - 1] + (slope * (agep - (iloop - 1)))) / 1000;
      END
    END
  END
  PaleoSea := psl;
END; {Function PaleoSea}

FUNCTION Compfac;

CONST
  errmax = 0.0001; {iterative margin of error}
VAR
  zset, zbot, oldzbot : real;
BEGIN
  zset := zsk + Zfunc(ztop, phi, k);
  zbot := ztop + abs(zsk);
  oldzbot := ztop;
  WHILE (abs(zbot - oldzbot) > errmax) DO
    BEGIN
      oldzbot := zbot;
      IF k = 0 THEN
        zbot := zset
      ELSE BEGIN
        zbot := ((1 / k) * ln((1 / phi) + (k * oldzbot))) + zset;
      END
    END
  Compfac := zbot;
END; {Function Compfac}

END; {of unit Calculations}
UNIT DataParams;

(This unit interfaces and implements the procedures that control the entry of)
(data into the program via the dialog windows)
{ Programmer: Keith Sircombe)
{ Date: August 1992)
{ Number 3 in build order (after Calculations and before DataHandlers)

INTERFACE
USES
SANE, Calculations;

CONST
ReturnKey = $0000240D;
EnterKey = $00004C03;

VAR
numberlayers : integer;
presentelevation : real;
layer : unitrec;
projname : STRING;

FUNCTION EnterDataParams VAR numlayr : integer;
{ This function opens a dialog window to ask for the base parameters of the
{ data to be entered manually. It returns TRUE if completed with the number
{ of layers to be processed. }

FUNCTION EnterUnitData (VAR layer : unitrec) : boolean;
{ This function opens dialog windows to enter stratigraphic and
{lithostratigraphic data about each layer. It returns TRUE if completed, along
{ with the record of entered data. }

IMPLEMENTATION

FUNCTION EnterDataParams;

LABEL
1799;

CONST
DataParamDLOG = 23904;
NoDataALRT = 31866;
numlayrBox = 3;

VAR
(dialogdone : boolean;

dStorage : DialogRecord;
dia : DialogPtr;
theEvent : EventRecord;
itemHit : integer;
itemtype : integer;
itemhandle : Handle;
itemrect : rect;
item3str, item5str, itemstr : Str255;
item3int : integer;
item5real : real;
AlertInt : integer;

BEGIN

dia := GetNewDialog(DataParamDLOG, @dStorage, pointer(-1));
{resource ID of Data Parameters Dialog Resource}
REPEAT
EnterDataParams := false;
REPEAT
  ModalDialog(NIL, itemHit);
UNTIL (itemHit = OK) OR (itemHit = 6);

dialogdone := true;

IF itemHit = OK THEN
  BEGIN
    GetDItem(dia, 3, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect); {get and check item 3}
    item3str := ''; {define variable}
    GetIText(itemhandle, item3str);
    IF item3str = '' THEN {check to see if string present}
      BEGIN
        dialogdone := false;
        AlertInt := StopAlert(NoDataALRT, NIL);
      END {alert for no data entered}
    ELSE
      BEGIN
        item3int := Num2Integer(Str2Num(item3str)); {convert to integer}
        IF item3int < 2 THEN {too few layers!}
          BEGIN
            dialogdone := false;
            AlertInt := StopAlert(NoDataALRT, NIL);
          END; {alert for too few layers}
        END; {check on item 3}
  END {if itemHit = 1}
ELSE
  GOTO 1799; {cancel button pressed}
UNTIL dialogdone;

DisposDialog(dia);

numlayr := item3int;
numberlayers := item3int;
preslevel := item5real;

1799 :
END;

*******************************************************************************
FUNCTION EnterUnitData;

CONST
  DataUnitDLOG = 12248;

  OK = 1;
  Cancel = 2;
  Previous = 3;
  Next = 4;
  NameofUnit = 5;
  Basedepth = 6;
  AgeofBase = 7;
  Paleodepth = 8;
  Plotcurve = 9;
  sstone = 10;
  zstone = 11;
  mstone = 12;
  opstone = 13;
  vstone = 14;
  projname = 16;

VAR
  dialogdone : boolean;
  dStorage : DialogRecord;
  dia : DialogPtr;
  theEvent : EventRecord;
  itemHit : integer;
  layernumstr, nlayrstr, topdepthstr, prevagestr, editstr : str255;
  itemtype, itemint : integer;
  itemstr : Str255;
  itemreal, lithsum : real;
  itemrect : rect;
  itemhandle : Handle;
  Alertint : integer;
  loop : lithology;
  tempage : real;

BEGIN
  layernumstr := StringOf(layer.layernum : 2);
  nlayrstr := StringOf(numberlayers : 2);
  topdepthstr := StringOf(layer.top : 5 : 1);
  prevagestr := StringOf(layer.age : 5 : 1);

  ParamText(layernumstr, nlayrstr, topdepthstr, prevagestr);
  dia := GetNewDialog(DataUnitDLOG, #dStorage, pointer(-1));
  (resource ID of Data Parameters Dialog Resource)
  GetDItem(dia, projname, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  SetIText(itemhandle, projectname);
  EnterUnitData := false;

  REPEAT
    dialogdone := false;
    REPEAT
      ModalDialog(NIL, itemHit);
      UNTIL (itemHit = OK) OR (itemHit = Cancel);
      dialogdone := true;
    IF itemHit = 1 THEN
      BEGIN
        (Get unitname: item 5)
        GetDItem(dia, NameofUnit, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      END
    ELSE
      BEGIN
        (Get unit ID: item 6)
        GetDItem(dia, Basedepth, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      END
    END
  END

END;
itemstr := ''; (define variable)
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
layer.unitname := '';
layer.unitname := itemstr;

(Get Depth of base : item 6)
GetDItem(dia, Basedepth, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = '' THEN
itemstr := '0';
layer.base := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));
layer.z := layer.base - layer.top;

(Get Paleodepth : item 8)
GetDItem(dia, Paleodepth, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '11';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = '11' THEN
itemstr := '01';
layer.water := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));

(Get Plot Curve: item 9)
GetDItem(dia, Plotcurve, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '11';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = '11' THEN
itemstr := 'N';
IF (itemstr = 'Y') OR (itemstr = 'y') THEN
layer.plotcurve := true
ELSE
layer.plotcurve := false;

(Get Age : item 7)
GetDItem(dia, AgeofBase, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '11';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = '11' THEN
itemstr := '0';
itemreal := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));
IF itemreal <= layer.age THEN
BEGIN
dialogdone := false;
AlertInt := StopAlert(31867, NIL); (Alert! age must decrease)
END
ELSE
tempage := itemreal;

Checking Lithology %
lithsum := 0;
FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
BEGIN
GetDItem(dia, ord(lloop) + sstone, itemtype, itemhandle,
itemrect);
itemstr := '1';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = '1' THEN
itemstr := '0';
itemreal := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));
lithsum := lithsum + itemreal;
layer.lith[lloop] := itemreal;
END;
IF lithsum <> 100 THEN
BEGIN
dialogdone := false;

AlertInt := StopAlert(31868, NIL); {ALERT! total litho.% <> 100%}
END;
IF dialogdone = true THEN
  EnterUnitData := true;
END; {itemHit = 1 not cancel}
UNTIL dialogdone;
layer.age := tempage;
DisposDialog(dia);
END;

***********************************************************************************

END. {of DataParams}
UNIT DataHandlers;
{This unit interfaces and implements routines for handling the data once it has } 
{been entered or is retrieved from file. }
{Programmer: Keith Sircombe } 
{Date: August 1992 } 
{Number 4 in build order (after DataParams and before Decompaction) }

INTERFACE
USES 
SANE, Calculations, DataParams;

VAR 
layers : column; 
inputfilename : str;

PROCEDURE DataInit; 
{This procedure initialises various variables and arrays to 'null' as this is } 
{not done automatically when they are created. }

FUNCTION FileIn ( VAR layers : column; 
VAR inputfilename : str ) : boolean; 
{This function opens a requested data file and assuming compatibility loads } 
{the data into internal arrays. }

PROCEDURE FileOut ( VAR layers : column; 
inputfilename: str); 
{This function opens/creates a data file and writes the section data to it } 
{in the standard format. }

FUNCTION ManualData {VAR layers : column) : boolean; 
{This function calls the data entry routines of DataParams and does some } 
{minor checking and modifications of the returned data. }

FUNCTION EditData (VAR layers : column) : boolean; 
{This function takes pre-existing data for a section and allows the user to } 
{edit it through a series of dialog windows. It returns TRUE if editing is } 
{completed gracefully along with the altered data. }

IMPLEMENTATION

PROCEDURE DataInit;

BEGIN 
layers[0].z := 0; 
{initial thickness} 
layers[0].zsum := 0; 
{initial total thickness } 
layers[0].age := 0; 
{initial age, i.e. of present surface } 
layers[1].age := 0; 
inputfilename := ''; 
END; {Procedure DataInit}

FUNCTION EditData; 
LABEL 
599; 
CONST 
EditDataParamDLOG = 31157; 
EditDataDLOG 19976; 
NotValidALRT = 25796; 
OK = 1; 
{These are the 'id' numbers of the items in the editing dialog} 
Cancel = 2;
Previous = 3;
whichlayer = 3;
Next = 4;
NameofUnit = 5;
Thickness = 6;
AgeofBase = 7;
Paleodepth = 8;
Plotcurve = 9;
sstone = 10;
zstone = 11;
mstone = 12;
opstone = 13;
lstone = 14;
vstone = 15;
projname = 16;

VAR {these are mainly variables required by the dialog management}
dialogdone, unitdone, EditDatatemp : boolean;
dStorage : DialogRecord;
dia : DialogPtr;
itemHit : integer;
itemtype : integer;
itemhandle : Handle;
itemrect : rect;
itemstr : str255;
itemreal : real;
edittint, neweditint : integer;
AlertInt : integer;
layer : unitrec;
lireal : lithology;
layernumstr, nlayrstr, zstr, prevagestr, editstr : str255;
lithsum : real;
iloop : integer;

BEGIN
  dia := GetNewDialog(EditDataParamDLOG, &dStorage, pointer(-1));
  (resource ID of Data Parameters Dialog Resource)
REPEAT
  REPEAT
    ModalDialog(NIL, itemHit);
    UNTIL (itemHit = OK);
  dialogdone := true;
  IF itemHit = OK THEN
    BEGIN
      {get and check item 3}
      GetDItem(dia, whichlayer, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      itemstr := ''; {define variable}
      GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
      IF itemstr = '' THEN {check to see if string present }
        BEGIN
          dialogdone := false;
          AlertInt := StopAlert(NotValidALRT, NIL);
        END {alert for no data entered }
      ELSE
        BEGIN
          editint := Num2Integer(Str2Num(itemstr)); {convert to integer}
          IF (editint < 1) OR (editint > nlayr) THEN
            BEGIN
              dialogdone := false;
              AlertInt := StopAlert(NotValidALRT, NIL);
            END; {alert for too few layers } 
          END; {else}
        END; {if itemHit = OK}
UNTIL dialogdone;
DispositionDialog(dia);  {gracefully dispose the dialog window}
dialogdone := false;
REPEAT (until dialogdone)
BEGIN
EditDatatemp := true;
(set up edit dialog with previous values)
layer.unitname := layers[editint].unitname;
layer.layernum := editint;
layer.age := layers[editint + 1].age * 10;
layer.plotcurve := layers[editint].plotcurve;
layer.z := layers[editint].z * 1000;
layer.water := layers[editint + 1].water * 1000;
FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
  layer.lith[lloop] := layers[editint].lith[lloop];
  layernumstr := StringOf(layer.layernum : 2);
  nlayrstr := StringOf(nlayr : 2);
  prevagestr := StringOf(layers[editint].age * 10 : 5 : 1);
  ParamText(layernumstr, nlayrstr, ' ', prevagestr);
  (resource ID of Data Parameters Dialog Resource )
  dia := GetNewDialog(EditDataDLOG, &dStorage, pointer(-1));
  {projectname = 16}
  GetDItem(dia, projname, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  SetIText(itemhandle, projectname);
  
  {unitname = 5}
  GetDItem(dia, NameofUnit, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  SetIText(itemhandle, layer.unitname);

  {plotcurve = 9}
  GetDItem(dia, Plotcurve, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  IF layer.plotcurve THEN
    SetIText(itemhandle, 'Y')
  ELSE
    SetIText(itemhandle, 'N');

  {paleowater = 8}
  editstr := StringOf(layer.water : 5 : 1);
  GetDItem(dia, Paleodepth, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  SetIText(itemhandle, editstr);

  {thickness = 6}
  editstr := StringOf(layer.z : 5 : 1);
  GetDItem(dia, Thickness, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  SetIText(itemhandle, editstr);

  {age = 7}
  editstr := StringOf(layer.age : 5 : 1);
  GetDItem(dia, AgeofBase, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
  SetIText(itemhandle, editstr);
  FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
    BEGIN
      editstr := StringOf(layer.lith[lloop] : 5 : 1);
      GetDItem(dia, ord(lloop) + sstone, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      SetIText(itemhandle, editstr);
    END;
(finish set up of edit dialog)

unitdone := true;

REPEAT (until unitdone)

REPEAT

ModalDialog(NIL, itemHit);
UNTIL (itemHit = OK) OR (itemHit = Previous) OR (itemHit = Next) OR

ITEMHit = Cancel);

CASE itemHit OF

OK, Previous, Next :
BEGIN (OK, Prev, Next)
    dialogdone := true;

{Get unitname: item 5}
GetDItem(dia, NameofUnit, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := ''; {define variable}
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
layer.unitname := itemstr;

{Get thickness: item 6}
GetDItem(dia, Thickness, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = ' ' THEN
    itemstr := '0';
    layer.z := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));

{Get Paleodepth: item 8}
GetDItem(dia, Paleodepth, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = ' ' THEN
    itemstr := '0';
    layer.water := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));

{Get Plot Curve: item 9}
GetDItem(dia, Plotcurve, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = ' ' THEN
    itemstr := 'N';
    IF (itemstr = 'Y') OR (itemstr = 'y') THEN
        layer.plotcurve := true
    ELSE
        layer.plotcurve := false;

{ Get Age : item 7 }
GetDItem(dia, AgeofBase, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
itemstr := '';
GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
IF itemstr = ' ' THEN
    itemstr := '0';
    itemreal := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));
    IF itemreal <= (layers[editint].age * 10) THEN
        BEGIN
            dialogdone := false;
            unitdone := false;
            AlertInt := StopAlert(31867, NIL); { age must decrease }
        END
    ELSE

layer.age := itemreal;

{ Checking Lithology % }
lithsum := 0;
FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
BEGIN
  GetDitem(dia, ord(lloop) + sstone, itemtype, itemhandle,
  itemrect);
  itemstr := '';
  GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
  IF itemstr = '' THEN
    itemstr := '0';
  itemreal := Num2Real(Str2Num(itemstr));
  lithsum := lithsum + itemreal;
  layer.lith[lloop] := itemreal;
END;

IF lithsum <> 100 THEN
BEGIN
  dialogdone := false;
  unitdone := false;
  AlertInt := StopAlert(31868, NIL);
END;

IF itemHit = Previous THEN
BEGIN
  unitdone := true;
  dialogdone := false;
  IF editint - 1 > 0 THEN
    neweditint := editint - 1
  ELSE
    BEGIN
      FlashMenuBar(0);
      FlashMenuBar(0);
    END;
ELSE
    BEGIN
      FlashMenuBar(0);
      FlashMenuBar(0);
    END;
END;

IF itemHit = Next THEN
BEGIN
  unitdone := true;
  dialogdone := false;
  IF editint + 1 < nlayr + 1 THEN
    neweditint := editint + 1
  ELSE
    BEGIN
      FlashMenuBar(0);
      FlashMenuBar(0);
    END;
END;

END; {case of ::OK, Prev, Next ::)

2 :
BEGIN
  EditDatatemp := false;
  unitdone := true;
  dialogdone := true;
  GOTO 599;
END;

END; {case of itemHit)
UNTIL unitdone;
IF EditDatatemp THEN
BEGIN
    layers[editint].layernum := layer.layernum;
    layers[editint].unitname := layer.unitname;
    layers[editint + 1].water := layer.water / 1000;
    layers[editint + 1].age := layer.age / 10;
    layers[editint].z := layer.z / 1000;
    FOR lloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
        layers[lloop].zsum := layers[lloop - 1].zsum + (layers[lloop].z);
    layers[editint].kk := 0;
    layers[editint].pphi := 0;
    FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
        BEGIN
            layers[editint].lith[lloop] := layer.lith[lloop];
            layers[editint].kk := layers[editint].kk + ((k[lloop] *
            layer.lith[lloop]) / 100);)
            layers[editint].pphi := layers[editint].pphi + ((phi[lloop] *
            layer.lith[lloop]) / 100);)
        END;
    layers[editint].plotcurve := layer.plotcurve;
END;
editint := neweditint;
DisposDialog(dia);
END; { begin repeat until dialogdone }

UNTIL dialogdone;

599 :
IF Editdatatemp = false THEN
    DisposDialog(dia);
    EditData := EditDatatemp;
END;

FUNCTION FileIn;
LABEL 999;
VAR
    lloop : lithology;
    lithsum : real;
    inputfileptr : text;
    dummyline : STRING;
    plotchar : char;
    dia : DialogPtr;
    itemtype : integer;
    itemhandle : Handle;
    itembox : rect;
    nlayrstr : str255;
BEGIN
    FileIn := true;
    inputfilename := OldFileName('Open datafile');
    IF inputfilename = '' THEN
        GOTO 999;
    reset(inputfileptr, inputfilename);

IF eof(inputfileptr) THEN
BEGIN
  AlertInt := StopAlert(31384, NIL);
  FileIn := false;
END;

nlayr := 1;

readln(inputfileptr, dummyline);{header 1}
readln(inputfileptr, dummyline);{header 2}
readln(inputfileptr, projectname);{project name}
readln(inputfileptr, layers[l].water);{header of data file = present water depth}
layers[l].water := layers[l].water / 1000.0; {reduce to km}
readln(inputfileptr, dummyline);{separator}
dia := GetNewDialog(30189, NIL, pointer(-1));
GetDItem(dia, 1, itemtype, itemhandle, itembox);

WHILE NOT eof(inputfileptr) DO
BEGIN
  nlayrstr := 'Layer ';
  nlayrstr := concat(nlayrstr, StringOf(nlayr + 2));
  SetIText(itemhandle, nlayrstr);
  DrawDialog(dia);

  readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr].layernum);{read layer #}
  readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr].unitname);{read unit name}
  readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr].z);{read unit thickness}
  readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr + 1].age);{read unit base age}

  FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
    readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr].lith[lloop]);{read lith #}
    readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr].kk);{read unit kk}
    readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr].pphi);{read unit pphi}
    readln(inputfileptr, layers[nlayr + 1].water);{read paleowater depth}
    readln(inputfileptr, plotchar);{read plotcurve (Y/N)}

  IF plotchar = 'Y' THEN
    layers[nlayr].plotcurve := true
  ELSE
    layers[nlayr].plotcurve := false;

  readln(inputfileptr, dummyline);{read in separator}

  lithsum := 0;{check if lithologies = 100}
  FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
    lithsum := lithsum + layers[nlayr].lith[lloop];
  IF lithsum <> 100 THEN
    BEGIN
      AlertInt := StopAlert(31385, NIL);{improper data}
      FileIn := false;
      GOTO 999;
    END;{if lithsum}
  layers[nlayr + 1].water := layers[nlayr + 1].water / 1000;{reduce to km}
  layers[nlayr].z := layers[nlayr].z / 1000;{reduce to km}
  layers[nlayr + 1].age := layers[nlayr + 1].age / 10;{reduce to 100,000 yr}
  layers[nlayr].zsum := layers[nlayr].z + layers[nlayr - 1].zsum;
  nlayr := nlayr + 1;
END;{while not eof}
DisposDialog(dia); {gracefully dispose of dialog window}
nlayr := nlayr - 1;
close(inputfileptr); {close input file}

END;

END; {******************************************************************************}

PROCEDURE FileOut;
LABEL
899;
VAR
lloop : lithology;
outputfilename : str;
outputfileptr : text;
iloop : integer; {loop counter}
dummy : STRING;
date : DateTimeRec;
BEGIN
outputfilename := NewFileName('Name of output file:•, inputfilename);
IF outputfilename = •• THEN
GOTO 899;
rewrite(outputfileptr, outputfilename); { creates and opens new file }
writeln(outputfileptr, "University of Waikato, Department of Earth Sciences,
GeoHist+"');
GetTime(date);
writeln(outputfileptr, datestring(date));
writeln(outputfileptr, 'Input Data File for:•);
writeln(outputfileptr, projectname);
writeln(outputfileptr, layers[l].water * 1000 : 5 l); writeln(outputfileptr, "----------"); FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
BEGIN
writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].layernum : 5);
writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].unitname);
writeln(outputfileptr, (layers[iloop].z * 1000) : 6 : 2);
writeln(outputfileptr, (layers[iloop + 1].age * 10) : 5 : 2);
FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].lith(lloop) : 5 : 2);
writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].kk : 6 : 4);
writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].pphi : 6 : 4);
writeln(outputfileptr, (layers[iloop + 1].water * 1000) : 5 : 2);
CASE layers[iloop].plotcurve OF
true :
writeln(outputfileptr, 'Y');
false :
writeln(outputfileptr, 'N');
END; {case}
END; {iloop}
writeln(outputfileptr, "="");
close(outputfileptr); {close output file}
899 :
END; {Procedure FileOut }

{******************************************************************************}
FUNCTION ManualData; { Subroutine to input data from user }

LABEL
  111, 112, 199;

VAR
  ans : char;
  dummy : char;
  iloop : integer;
  lithsum : real;
  lloop : lithology;
  dataUnitsOK : boolean;
  loopstart, loopend : integer;

BEGIN
  ManualData := false;

  111:
  {call routine to enter data parameters}
  IF NOT EnterDataParams(nlayr, layers[1].water) THEN
    GOTO 199; {cancel button pressed}

  layers[1].top := layers[1].water;
  layers[1].water := layers[1].water / 1000;
  layers[0].base := layers[1].water;
  layers[1].age := 0;

  FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
    BEGIN
      WITH layer DO
        BEGIN
          unitname := layers[iloop].unitname;
          layernum := iloop;
          age := layers[iloop].age * 10;
          plotcurve := false;
          top := layers[iloop - 1].base * 1000;
          base := layers[iloop + 1].top;
          FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
            BEGIN
              layers[iloop].lith[lloop] := lith[lloop];
            END;
        END;
      {call routine to enter data information}
      IF NOT EnterUnitData(layer) THEN
        GOTO 199; {cancel button pressed }
      WITH layer DO
        BEGIN
          layers[iloop].layernum := layernum;
          layers[iloop].unitname := unitname;
          layers[iloop + 1].water := water / 1000;
          layers[iloop + 1].age := age / 10;
          layers[iloop + 1].top := base;
          layers[iloop].base := base / 1000;
          layers[iloop].z := z / 1000;
          layers[iloop].zsum := layers[iloop - 1].zsum + z / 1000;
          layers[iloop].kk := 0;
          layers[iloop].phi := 0;
          FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
            BEGIN
              layers[iloop].lith[lloop] := lith[lloop];
              layers[iloop].kk := layers[iloop].kk + ((k[lloop] * $lith[iloop]) / 100);
              layers[iloop].phi := layers[iloop].phi + ((phi[lloop] * $lith[iloop]) / 100);
            END;
        END;
    END;

  END;
layers[iloop].plotcurve := plotcurve;

END;

END; {for iloop}
ManualData := true;
199 :
END; (Procedure ManualData)

END. {of DataHandlers}
UNIT Decompaction;
(This unit interfaces and implements the routine that actually does the 'guts'
of the program and progressively removes layers, decompacts remaining layers
and adjusts for paleobathymetry and eustatic sea level changes)
(Programmer: Keith Sircombe)
(Date: August 1992)
(Number 5 in build order (after DataHandlers and before GraphicHandlers))

INTERFACE
USES
  Calculations, DataParams, DataHandlers;

FUNCTION Solution (VAR layers: column;
  VAR results: resultsrec) : boolean;
(This function takes a column of stratigraphic information and produces a
list of decompacted and adjusted thicknesses through time)
(This is the real guts of the program.
The rest is merely fancy 'window' dressing.)

IMPLEMENTATION

FUNCTION Solution:

LABEL 499; {end of procedure)

CONST
  ps = 2.7;     { density of sediments }
  pm = 3.3;     { density of mantle }
  wload = 'Y';  {water load assumed for the calculation of tectonic subsidence}

VAR
  zskp: ARRAY[0..maxlayr] OF real;
  zlimit, zmax, zskmin, ztop, zt : real;
  zskt : real;
  eroded : boolean;
  iloop, jloop, kloop : integer; { loop counters }
  pl : real;       { density of displaced material }
  dummy : char;
  erodedlayerstr, progressstr : str255;
  dia : DialogPtr;
  itemtype : integer;
  itemhandle : Handle;
  itembox : rect;

BEGIN
  Solution := true;
  progressstr := ' ';
  dia := GetNewDialog(24910, NIL, pointer(-1));
  GetDitem(dia, 2, itemtype, itemhandle, itembox);

  progressstr := 'Checking...';
  SetIText(itemhandle, progressstr);
  DrawDialog(dia);

  progressstr := ' ';

  FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
  BEGIN
    IF layers[iloop].z <= 0 THEN
      BEGIN
        IF layers[iloop].kk > 0 THEN
          \[code continues\]
zlimit := -1 / (layers[iloop].pphi * layers[iloop].kk)
ELSE
    zlimit := -999999;
ENDIF (layers[iloop].z < zlimit) THEN
    BEGIN
        NumToString(iloop, erodedlayerstr);
        ParamText(erodedlayerstr, ' ', ' ', ' ', ' ');
        AlertInt := StopAlert(32505, NIL); {too much erosion in layer }
        Solution := false;
        GOTO 499;
    END; {if}
ENDIF (layers[iloop].plotcurve) THEN
BEGIN
    NumToString(iloop, erodedlayerstr);
    ParamText(erodedlayerstr, ' ', ' ', ' ', ' ');
    AlertInt := StopAlert(32505, NIL); {too much erosion in layer }
    Solution := false;
    GOTO 499;
END; {if}
END; {if }
eroded := false; /* check for erosion */
zskmin := 0;
ztop := 0;

FOR jloop := iloop TO nlayr DO
    BEGIN /* layer index for curve */
        IF (layers[jloop].zsum >= zmax) THEN
            BEGIN /* if eroded */
                IF (eroded) THEN
                    BEGIN
                        zskp[jloop] := zskmin + layers[jloop].zsk;
                        kloop := jloop - l; /* avoid uplift decompaction */
                        WHILE ((layers[kloop].zsum < zmax) AND (kloop > 1)) DO
                            kloop := kloop - l;
                        END; /* proper depth for compaction */
                        ztop := results.zp[kloop, iloop]
                    END; /* if */
                ELSE
                    BEGIN
                        zskp[jloop] := layers[jloop].zsk;
                        ztop := results.zp[jloop - 1, iloop];
                    END; /* else */
                zskmin := 0;
                zmax := layers[jloop].zsum
            END; /* else */
        ELSE /* eroded */
            BEGIN
                zskp[jloop] := 0;
                ztop := results.zp[jloop - 1, iloop];
                eroded := true;
                zskmin := zskmin + layers[jloop].zsk;
            END; /* else */
    END; /* if */

/* given skeletal thickness and depth of top of unit calculate depth */
results.zp[jloop, iloop] := Compfac(zskp[jloop], ztop,
    layers[jloop].pphi, layers[jloop].kk);
    results.zp[jloop - 1, iloop]; /* find proper depth */

FOR kloop := (iloop - 1) DOWNTO 1 DO
    IF (results.zp[jloop, iloop] - results.zp[jloop - 1, iloop]) <
        (results.zp[jloop, kloop] - results.zp[jloop - 1, kloop]) THEN
        results.zp[jloop, iloop] := results.zp[jloop - 1, iloop] +
        results.zp[jloop, kloop] - results.zp[jloop - 1, kloop];
    IF (jloop = iloop) THEN
        layers[iloop].rate := (results.zp[jloop, iloop] * 1000) /
        (layers[iloop + 1].age - layers[iloop].age);
        results.curve[iloop, jloop] := results.zp[jloop, iloop] +
        results.curve[iloop, iloop - 1];

    END; /* jloop */
results.totalz[iloop] := results.zp[nlayr, iloop]; /* sediment thickness */
eroded := false;
progressstr := concat(progressstr, '.');
SetText(itemhandle, progressstr);
DrawDialog(dia);

END; /* jloop */
results.curve[nlayr + 1, nlayr] := layers[nlayr + 1].water |  
PaleoSea(layers[nlayr + 1].age);

(now compute tectonic curve, allowing for subsidence due to sediment loading, )  
(water loading and changes in sea level )  
(assumes water density = 1.0, sediment density = 2.5, mantle density = 3.3 )

(draw progress dialog to remind the user that it hasn't crashed -- yet )
progressstr := 'Tectonic Curve...';
SetText(itemhandle, progressstr);
DrawDialog(dia);

IF (wload = 'Y') THEN
  pl := 0  { assume air in hole}
ELSE
  pl := 1;  { assume water in hole}
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
  zt := results.totalz[iloop] + layers[iloop].water;
  zskt := 0;
  FOR jloop := iloop TO nlayr DO
    zskt := zskt + layers[jloop].zsk;
  ( effective p = skeletal z*sed dens + porosity+water z / total z )
  IF (zt > 0) THEN
    results.p2[iloop] := ((zskt * ps) + zt - zskt) / zt
  ELSE
    results.p2[iloop] := 0;
    results.tect[iloop] := (zt * ((pm - results.p2[iloop]) / (pm - pl))) |  
PaleoSea(layers[iloop].age);
END; {iloop}
results.tect[nlayr + 1] := results.curve[nlayr + 1, nlayr];

DisposDialog(dia);

END; {Procedure Solution}

END. {Decompaction}
UNIT GraphicsHandlers;

{This unit interfaces and implements routines for constructing a graphic representation of the decompacted section, i.e. a geohistory plot!}
{Programmer: Keith Sircombe}
{Date: August 1992}
{Number 5 in build order (after Decompaction and before ResultHandlers)}

INTERFACE
USES
   Calculations;

FUNCTION EnterPlotParams VAR Plottitle : STRING;
   VAR Ref : boolean;
   VAR AgeScale : real;
   VAR DepthScale : real;
   DefAgeScale : real;
   DefDepthScale : real) : boolean;

{This function opens a dialog window to get information from the user about desired size/scale and title of the geohistory plot seen on the screen.}

PROCEDURE Graphics ( layers : column;
   results : resultsrec);
{This procedure creates the graphic display of the geohistory plot of the processed section.}

IMPLEMENTATION

FUNCTION EnterPlotParams;

LABEL 2399;

CONST {These are the id # of dialog items}
   PlotParamsDLOG = 30998;
   OK = 1;
   Cancel = 2;
   PlotTitleBox = 3;
   RefYNBox = 4;
   AgeScaleBox = 5;
   DepthScaleBox = 6;

VAR {these variables are mainly required by the dialog manager}
   dialogdone : boolean;
   dStorage : DialogRecord;
   dia : DialogPtr;
   itemHit : integer;
   itemtype : integer;
   itemhandle : Handle;
   itemrect : rect;
   itemstr : str255;
   itemint : integer;
   itemchar : char;
   itemreal : real;

BEGIN
   EnterPlotParams := false;

   dia := GetNewDialog(PlotParamsDLOG, dStorage, pointer(-1));
   GetDItem(dia, PlotTitleBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
   SetIText(itemHandle, projectname);
   GetDItem(dia, AgeScaleBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
   SetIText(itemHandle, StringOf(DefAgeScale : 4 : 2));
   GetDItem(dia, DepthScaleBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
SetIText(itemHandle, StringOf(DefDepthScale : 4 : 2));

REPEAT
  dialogdone := false;
  REPEAT
    ModalDialog(NIL, itemHit);
    UNTIL (itemHit = OK) OR (itemHit = Cancel);

  IF itemHit = OK THEN
    BEGIN
      GetDitem(dia, PlotTitleBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      itemstr := ''; 
      GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
      Plottitle := itemstr;

      GetDitem(dia, RefYNBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      itemstr := ''; 
      GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
      IF itemstr = 'Y' THEN
        ref := true
      ELSE
        ref := false;

      GetDitem(dia, AgeScaleBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      itemstr := '';
      GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
      ReadString(itemstr, AgeScale);

      GetDitem(dia, DepthScaleBox, itemtype, itemhandle, itemrect);
      itemstr := ''; 
      GetIText(itemhandle, itemstr);
      ReadString(itemstr, DepthScale);
    
    dialogdone := true;
  END
ELSE
  GOTO 2399;
UNTIL dialogdone;

EnterPlotParams := true;

2399 :
  DisposDialog(dia);
END; {EnterPlotParams}

{*******************************************************************************}
{*******************************************************************************}
PROCEDURE Graphics;

LABEL
  1999;

CONST
  leftW = 5;
  topW = 40;
  rightW = 600;
  bottomW = 500;
  lmargin = 20;
  tmargin = 30;
  rmargin = 50;
  bmargin = 20;
  topaxismargin = 35;
  (global coordinates of text display window)
Appendix D

VAR (these variables are required by the window manager and inbuilt graphics)

wRecord : WindowRecord;
myWindow : WindowPtr;
whichWindow : WindowPtr;
windowrect : rect;
bounds : rect;
instr : STRING;
instrlen, instrheight : integer;
instrinfo : FontInfo;
penloc : Point;
displaydone : boolean;
anEvent : EventRecord;
where : integer;

xmin, xmax, ymin, ymax : real;    { outer coordinates of the plot }
rage, slope : real;    { } 
x, oldx, y : real;    { plot coordinates }
plottitle : str;
iloop, jloop, ploop : integer;    { loop counters }
dummy : char;
xscale, yscale : real;
tstr : STRING;
tlen : integer;
finfo : FontInfo;
theight, cwidth : integer;
stripes : Pattern;
pseabot : Pattern;
xorigin, yorigin : integer;
pictrec : Picture;
pictptr : PicPtr;
pichand : PicHandle;
scraplong : longint;

BEGIN

IF NOT EnterPlotParams(Plottitle, ref, AgeScale, DepthScale, 5.0, 0.5) THEN
GOTO 1999;

SetRect(windowrect, leftW, topW, rightW, bottomW);
myWindow := NewWindow(@wRecord, windowrect, 'GeoHist+ Graphic Display', true,
0, pointer(-1), true, 999);
SetPort(myWindow);
SetOrigin(0, 0);

TextFont(CourierFont);    { sets up font for window display }
TextSize(Fsize);    { sets up font size for window display }
GetFontInfo(finfo);
theight := info.ascent + info.descent;

StuffHex(@stripes, 'E4E4E4E4E4E4E4E4');    { sets up stipes for a line type }
StuffHex(@pseabot, 'FCFCFCFCFCFCFC');    { set up pattern for paleobathymetry }

xmin := 0;
xmax := -99999;
ymax := -99999;
ymin := 99999;
FOR iloop := 1 TO (nlayr + 1) DO
BEGIN  
    { find extremes }
    IF (layers[iloop].age > xmax) THEN
        xmax := layers[iloop].age;
    FOR jloop := l TO nlayr DO
        BEGIN
            IF (results.curve[iloop, jloop] > ymax) THEN
                ymax := results.curve[iloop, jloop];
            IF (results.curve[iloop, jloop] < ymin) THEN
                ymin := results.curve[iloop, jloop];
        END; {jloop}
    END; {iloop}

FOR iloop := 1 TO (nlayr + 1) DO
BEGIN
    IF (results.tect[iloop] > ymax) THEN
        ymax := results.tect[iloop];
    IF (results.tect[iloop] < ymin) THEN
        ymin := results.tect[iloop];
    END; {iloop}
xmin := round(xmin);
xmax := round(xmax + 0.51);
ymin := round(ymin);
yscale := round(ymax + 0.51);
xscale := (rightW - leftW - (lmargin + rmargin)) / (15.4 * AgeScale) * 10;
yscale := (bottomW - topW - (tmargin + bmargin) - topaxismargin) / (7.6 * DepthScale);
picthand := OpenPicture(windowrect);
ShowPen;

{Plot X-axis}
MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin);
Line(-round(xmax * xscale), 0);

{Plot X-axis ticks}
FOR iloop := 0 TO round(xmax) DO
BEGIN
    Move(-round(iloop * xscale), 0);
    Line(0, -5);
tstr := StringOf(iloop * 10: 3);
tlen := StringWidth(tstr);
    Move(-round(tlen / 2), -1);
    DrawString(tstr);
    MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin);
    iloop := iloop + 1;
END;

{Plot NZ stages}
iloop := 1;
WHILE (nz[iloop + 1].age / 10) <= xmax DO
BEGIN
    x := nz[iloop + 1].age / 10;
    oldx := nz[iloop].age / 10;
    Move(round((x - oldx) * xscale) / 2), 5);
    TextSize(Fsize - 2);
    DrawChar(nz[iloop].stage);
    MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin);
    iloop := iloop + 1;
END;
{Plot X-axis label}
  TextSize(Fsize);
  tstr := StringOf('Age (Myr)' : 9);
  tlen := StringWidth(tstr);
  Move(-round(((xmax / 2) * xscale) + (tlen / 2)), -(6 + theight));
  DrawString(tstr);
  MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin);

{Plot Y-axis}
  MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin);
  Line(O, round((ymax - ymin) * yscale) + topaxismargin);
  MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin + topaxismargin);

{Plot Y-ticks}
  MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin + topaxismargin);
  FOR iloop := 0 TO round(ymax * 2) DO BEGIN
    Move(O, round((iloop / 2) * yscale));
    Line(5, 0);
    tstr := StringOf(iloop / 2 : 3 : l);
    tlen := StringWidth(tstr);
    Move(l, round(theight / 2)1;
    DrawString(tstr);
    MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin + topaxismargin);
  END;

{Plot Y-label}
  cwidth := CharWidth('D');
  MoveTo(rightW - leftW - cwidth - 2, tmargin + round((((ymax - ymin) * yscale) + topaxismargin) / 2));
  Move(0, round((iloop / 2) * yscale));
  Line(5, 0);
  tstr := StringOf(iloop / 2 : 3 : l);
  tlen := StringWidth(tstr);
  Move(1, round((theight / 2)));
  DrawString(tstr);
  MoveTo(rightW - rmargin, tmargin + topaxismargin);
END;

{Plot Layers}
  FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO BEGIN
    PenSize(1, 1);
    SetOrigin(-3, O);
    FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO BEGIN
        PenSize(1, 1);
        SetOrigin(-3, O);
GeoHist+ program listing

ForeColor(magentaColor);
IF iloop = nlayr THEN
BEGIN
  layers[iloop].plotcurve := true;
  PenPat(black);
  PenSize(2, 2);
END;
IF layers[iloop].plotcurve THEN
BEGIN
  x := layers[1].age;
  y := results.curve[1, iloop] - ymin;
  MoveTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
  round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
  FOR jloop := 2 TO (iloop + 1) DO
    BEGIN
      x := layers[jloop].age;
      y := results.curve[jloop, iloop] - ymin;
      LineTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
      round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
    END; (jloop)
  END; (if)
END; (iloop)
PenSize(1, 1);

PlotPaleoSeaBottom
PenPat(pseabot);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(greenColor);
  x := layers[l].age;
  y := layers[l].water;
  MoveTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
  round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
  FOR iloop := 2 TO 101 DO
    BEGIN
      rage := (layers[nlayr + 1].age / 100) * (iloop - 1);
      x := rage;
      jloop := 1;
      WHILE ((rage > layers[jloop].age) AND (jloop < nlayr + 1)) DO
        BEGIN
          jloop := jloop + 1;
        END;
      slope := (layers[jloop].water - layers[jloop - 1].water) /
      (layers[jloop].age - layers[jloop - 1].age);
      y := layers[jloop - 1].water + (slope * (rage - layers[jloop - 1].age));
      y := y - PaleoSea(rage);
      LineTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
      round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
    END; (jloop)
  END; (if)

PlotPaleoSeaLevel
PenPat(dkGray);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(redColor);
  x := layers[l].age;
  y := -PaleoSea(layers[l].age);
  MoveTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
  round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
  FOR iloop := 1 TO 101 DO
    BEGIN
      rage := (layers[nlayr + 1].age / 100) * (iloop - 1);
      x := rage;
      y := (-PaleoSea(rage) - ymin);
      LineTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
      round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
    END; (jloop)
(PlotTectonic)
PenPat(stripes);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(blueColor);
x := layers[1].age;
y := results.tect[1];
MoveTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
FOR iloop := 2 TO (nlayr + 1) DO
BEGIN
x := layers[iloop].age;
y := results.tect[iloop];
LineTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - (x * xscale)),
round(tmargin + topaxismargin + (y * yscale)));
END;

(PlotReference)
ForeColor(blackColor);
IF ref THEN
BEGIN
IF AgeScale >= 1 THEN
  xorigin := lmargin
ELSE
  xorigin := round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - round(xmax * xscale));
IF DepthScale >= 1 THEN
  yorigin := bottomW - topW - bmargin
ELSE
  yorigin := tmargin + topaxismargin + round(ymax * yscale);
TextSize(12);
MoveTo(xorigin, yorigin);
DrawString('Tectonic Curve :');
PenPat(stripes);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(blueColor);
Move(2, -round(theight / 2));
Line(20, 0);

ForeColor(blackColor);
MoveTo(xorigin, yorigin);
Move(0, -(theight + 1) * 1);
DrawString('Total Subsidence:');
PenPat(black);
PenSize(2, 2);
ForeColor(magentaColor);
Move(2, -round(theight / 2));
Line(20, 0);

ForeColor(blackColor);
MoveTo(xorigin, yorigin);
Move(0, -(theight + 1) * 2);
DrawString('Unit Subsidence :');
PenPat(black);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(magentaColor);
Move(2, -round(theight / 2));
Line(20, 0);

ForeColor(blackColor);
MoveTo(xorigin, yorigin);
Move(0, -(theight + 1) * 3);
DrawString('Paleo Sea Bottom:');
PenPat(pseabot);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(greenColor);
Move(2, -round(theight / 2));
Line(20, 0);

ForeColor(blackColor);
MoveTo(xorigin, yorigin);
Move(0, -(theight + 1) * 4);
DrawString('Paleo Sea Level :');
PenPat(dkGray);
PenSize(1, 1);
ForeColor(redColor);
Move(2, -round(theight / 2));
Line(20, 0);

(Plot Title)
ForeColor(blackColor);
IF AgeScale >- 1 THEN
  MoveTo(lmargin, 0)
ELSE
  MoveTo(round(rightW - leftW - rmargin - round(xmax * xscale)), 0);
  IF DepthScale >= 1 THEN
    Move(0, bottomW - topW - bmargin)
  ELSE
    Move(0, tmargin + topaxismargin + round((ymax - ymin) * yscale));
  END;
Move(160, 0);
TextSize(14);
DrawString(PlotTitle);

{place a PICT copy of the geohistory plot in the clipboard}
ClosePicture;
scraplong := ZeroScrap;
scraplong := PutScrap(picthandAA.picsize, 'PICT', pointer(picthandA));
scraplong := UnloadScrap;
displaydone := false;

REPEAT
  IF GetNextEvent(mDownMask, anEvent) THEN
    CASE anEvent.what OF
      mouseDown :
        BEGIN
          mwhere := FindWindow(anEvent.where, myWindow);
          CASE mwhere OF
            {mwhere)
              {mwhere}
              {mwhere}
              {mwhere}
              {mwhere}
            OTHERWISE
              REPEAT
              UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
          END;
        END;
      OTHERWISE
        REPEAT
        UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
    END;
  END;
UNTIL displaydone • true;
CloseWindow(myWindow); { close window AND controls }

1999 :

END; { procedure Graphics}

******************************************************************************
END. {GraphicHandlers}
UNIT ResultHandlers;
{This unit interfaces and implements the procedures to handle and display the }
{processed data.}
{Programmer: Keith Sircombe}
{Date: August 1992}
{Number 7 in build order (after GraphicsHandlers and before Plot)}

INTERFACE
USES
Calculations;

CONST {constant 'headers' are set up for the display of the processed data}
header1 = 'GeoHist+, University of Waikato, Department of Earth Sciences';
(header2 = 'Date goes here');
(header3 = 'separator goes here');
(header4 = 'Project: ');
(header5 = 'Empty line here');
(header6 = 'GeoHist+ INPUT SUMMARY.');
(header7 = 'Water depth or elevation : ');
(header8 = 'Empty line here');
(header9 = 'Thickness of Age of Unit Paleodepth');
(header10 = 'Unit (m) base (My) SS ZS MS OP LS Vo KK ø of Unit (m) Plot Layer');
(header11 = 'Empty line here');
(header12 = 'Empty line here');
(header13 = 'separator goes here');
(header14 = 'GeoHist+ BACKSTRIPPING SUMMARY.');
(header15 = 'Empty line here');
(header16a = 'Time (Myr)');
(header16b = 'Zsk Sed.');
(header16c = 'Rate');
(header17 = 'Water Depth (m)');
(header17b = '(m/My)');
(header18 = 'separator goes here');
(header19 = 'separator goes here');
(header20 = 'Total Depth (m)');
(header21 = 'Density (Mg/m3)');
(header22 = 'Tectonic Sub. (m)');
(header24 = 'separator goes here');

VAR
CallbyCurrentDisplay : boolean;

PROCEDURE DisplayData (CallByCurrentDisplay : boolean);
{This procedure displays the processed data in a text window. The data can }
{then be moved with scroll bars.}

PROCEDURE SaveResultsProc ( layers : column;
results : resultsrec);
{This procedure saves the currently processed results in a text file for later }
{use. Unprocessed data is also stored.}

FUNCTION LoadResultsProc ( VAR layers : column;
VAR results : resultsrec) : boolean;
{This function loads a data and results file as required.}
IMPLEMENTATION

FUNCTION makespacer ( spacer : char; 
numpacers : integer) : STRING;
{This function is internal to ResultHandlers and returns a string of spacer 
{characters as specified by the requesting code. }

VAR 
t : integer;
tempstr : STRING;
BEGIN
makespacer := ' ';
tempstr := ' ';
FOR t := 1 TO numspacers DO
  tempstr := concat(tempstr, spacer);
makespacer := tempstr;
END;

FUNCTION LoadResultsProc;

LABEL
1099;
VAR 
resfilename : STRING;
resfileptr : text;
fillerstr, linestr, lithstr, namestr : STRING;
erodedlayerstr : str255;
iloop, jloop : integer;
dummychar : char;
dummystr : STRING;
dummyint, namelen, cutpos, plotpos : integer;
zmax, zlimit : real;
dia : DialogPtr;
itemtype : integer;
itemHandle : Handle;
itembox : rect;
progress : str255;

BEGIN
LoadResultsProc := false;
linestr := ''; 
resfilename := OldFileName('Results file to be loaded:');
IF resfilename = '' THEN 
  GOTO 1099;
reset(resfileptr, resfilename);
dia := GetNewDialog(30189, NIL, pointer(-1));
GetDitem(dia, 1, itemtype, itemhandle, itembox);
progress := 'Input Summary';
SetText(itemhandle, progress);
DrawDialog(dia);
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  (1)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  (2)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  (3)
readln(resfileptr, linestr);    (4)
projectname := omit(linestr, 1, length(header4));  (remove "Project:" )
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  (5)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  (6)
readln(resfileptr, linestr);    (7)
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, length(header7));  {get present water depth } 
ReadString(linestr, layers[1].water);
layers[1].water := layers[1].water / 1000;
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (8)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (9)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (10)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (11)
nlayr := 0;
readln(resfileptr, linestr);
REPEAT
BEGIN
  nlayr := nlayr + 1;
  lithstr := copy(linestr, 25, 45);
  linestr := omit(linestr, 25, 45);
  ReadString(linestr, layers[nlayr].layernum, dummychar, layers[nlayr].z,
            layers[nlayr + 1].age, layers[nlayr].kk, layers[nlayr].phi,
            layers[nlayr + 1].water);
  ReadString(lithstr, layers[nlayr].lith[sandstone],
            layers[nlayr].lith[siltstone], layers[nlayr].lith[mudstone],
            layers[nlayr].lith[opshales], layers[nlayr].lith[limestone],
            layers[nlayr].lith[volcanics]);
  layers[nlayr].z := layers[nlayr].z / 1000;
  layers[nlayr].zsum := layers[nlayr].z + layers[nlayr - 1].zsum;
  layers[nlayr + 1].age := layers[nlayr + 1].age / 10;
  layers[nlayr + 1].water := layers[nlayr + 1].water / 1000;
  plotpos := pos('Y', linestr);
  IF plotpos = 0 THEN
    plotpos := pos('N', linestr);
    dummystr := copy(linestr, plotpos, 1);  // (19)
    IF dummystr = 'Y' THEN
      layers[nlayr].plotcurve := true
    ELSE
      layers[nlayr].plotcurve := false;
    END;  // if
  END;  // if
readln(resfileptr, linestr);
END;
progress := concat(progress, '.');
SetText(itemhandle, progress);
DrawDialog(dia);
UNTIL length(linestr) = 0;
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (13')
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (14')
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (15')
readln(resfileptr, linestr);  // (16')
readln(resfileptr, linestr);  // (ages)
name1en := pos('.', linestr) - 6;  // (find length of names)
readln(resfileptr, linestr);  // (paleowater)
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr);  // (18')
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
BEGIN
  IF layers[iloop].z <= 0 THEN
    BEGIN
      IF layers[iloop].kk > 0 THEN
        zlimit := -1 / (layers[iloop].phi * layers[iloop].kk)
      ELSE
        zlimit := -999999;
      END;  // if
      IF (layers[iloop].z < zlimit) THEN
        BEGIN
          NumToString(iloop, erodedlayerstr);
          ParamText(erodedlayerstr, ' ', ' ', ' ', ' ');
          AlertInt := StopAlert(32505, NIL);  // too much erosion in layer
          GOTO 1099;
        END;  // if
      END;  // if
    END;  // if
END;  // if
results.totalz[l] := layers[nlayr].zsum; (total thickness of present sequence)

if ((layers[nlayr].z < 0) OR (results.totalz[l] < 0)) THEN {} BEGIN
AlertInt := StopAlert(32504, NIL); { too overall erosion}
GOTO 1099;
END; {if}

zmax := 0;
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
BEGIN
IF (layers[iloop].zsum >= zmax) THEN
BEGIN (deposition occurred)
zmax := layers[iloop].zsum; (raise zmax to new total thickness value)
results.zp[iloop, 1] := layers[iloop].zsum; { save for plotting }
results.curve[l, iloop] := layers[iloop].zsum + layers[il].water;
END; {if}
ELSE BEGIN
END; {else}
ELSE BEGIN
results.curve[l, iloop] := layers[iloop].zsum +
results.zp[iloop, 1] := layers[iloop].zsum;
END; {if}
ELSE BEGIN
results.curve[l, iloop] := zmax + layers[1].water;
results.zp[iloop, 1] := zmax;
END; {else}
END; {iloop}

progress := 'Backstripping Summary';
SetIText(itemhandle, progress);
DrawDialog(dia);

FOR jloop := 1 TO nlayr DO (layer loop)
BEGIN
readln(resfileptr, linestr);
namestr := copy(linestr, 1, namelen);
namestr := omit(namestr, 1, 5);
layers[jloop].unitname := namestr;
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, namelen);

FOR iloop := 1 TO jloop DO
BEGIN
cutpos := pos('.', linestr) + 2;
ReadString(linestr, results.listz[iloop]);
IF jloop = 1 THEN
results.curve[jloop, jloop] := ((results.listz[jloop] / 1000) +
layers[jloop].water - PaleoSea(layers[jloop].age))
ELSE
results.curve[jloop, jloop] := (results.listz[jloop] / 1000) +
results.curve[jloop, jloop - 1];
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, cutpos);
END; {iloop}

ReadString(linestr, layers[jloop].zsk, layers[jloop].rate);
layers[jloop].zsk := layers[jloop].zsk / 1000;
layers[jloop].rate := layers[jloop].rate * 10;
progress := concat(progress, ".");
SetIText(itemhandle, progress);
DrawDialog(dia);
END; {jloop}
results.curve[nlayr + 1, nlayr] := layers[nlayr + 1].water -
\text{PaleoSea}(layers[nlayr + 1].age);
results.tect[nlayr + 1] := results.curve[nlayr + 1, nlayr];
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr); {'19'}
progress := 'Final Results...';
SetIText(itemhandle, progress);
DrawDialog(dia);
END; {jloop}
results.curve[nlayr + 1, nlayr] := layers[nlayr + 1].water -
\text{PaleoSea}(layers[nlayr + 1].age) / 1000;
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, cutpos);
END;
readln(resfileptr, linestr); { Total Depth }
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, namelen);
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
BEGIN
    cutpos := pos('.', linestr) + 2;
    ReadString(linestr, results.curve[iloop, nlayr]);
    results.curve[iloop, nlayr] := (results.curve[iloop, nlayr] -
\text{PaleoSea}(layers[iloop].age)) / 1000;
    linestr := omit(linestr, 1, cutpos);
END;
readln(resfileptr, linestr); { Density }
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, namelen);
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
BEGIN
    cutpos := pos('.', linestr) + 2;
    ReadString(linestr, results.p2[iloop]);
    linestr := omit(linestr, 1, cutpos);
END;
readln(resfileptr, linestr); { Tectonic sub }
linestr := omit(linestr, 1, namelen);
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
BEGIN
    cutpos := pos('.', linestr) + 2;
    ReadString(linestr, results.tect[iloop]);
    results.tect[iloop] := results.tect[iloop] / 1000;
    linestr := omit(linestr, 1, cutpos);
END;
readln(resfileptr, fillerstr); {'24'}
close(resfileptr);
LoadResultsProc := true;
DisposDialog(dia);
1099 :
END;
*******************************************************************************
*******************************************************************************
PROCEDURE DisplayData;
CONST
leftW = 5;
topW = 40;
rightW = 495;
bottomW = 320;
VAR
{these variables are mostly required by the text window manager}
BEGIN
  IF CallByCurrentDisplay THEN
    resultfilename := 'display.temp'
  ELSE
    resultfilename := OldFileName('Enter name of results file');
  END;

  reset(resultfileptr, resultfilename);

  (Set up text display window)
  SetRect(windowrect, leftW, topW, rightW, bottomW);
  SetRect(displayrect, 5, 5, 3000, 3000);
  myWindow := NewWindow(@wRecord, windowrect, 'GeoHist+ Summary', true, 0,
    pointer(-1), true, 999);
  SetPort(myWindow);
  SetRect(txRect, 5, 5, rightW - leftW - 20, bottomW - topW - 20);
  textH := TENew(displayrect, txRect);
  textH^.txFont := 22;  { Courier font }
  textH^.txSize := 12;  { Size 12 }
  numlines := 0;
  maxwidth := 0;

  REPEAT
    BEGIN
      numlines := numlines + 1;
      instr := '';
      readln(resultfileptr, instr);
      instr := concat(' ', instr, ' ', chr(13));
      instrlen := StringWidth(instr);
      IF instrlen > maxwidth THEN
        maxwidth := instrlen;
      TEInsert(pointer(ord(@instr) + 1), length(instr), textH);
    END;
    UNTIL eof(resultfileptr);

  close(resultfileptr);

  visheight := (bottomW - topW - 20) / textH^.lineheight;
  viswidth := rightW - leftW - 20;
  displaydone := false;
SetRect(vscrollrect, (rightW - leftW - 16), 0, (rightW - leftW),
(bottomW - topW - 16));
vscrollhandle := NewControl(myWindow, vscrollrect, '', true, 0, 0,
round(numlines - visheight + 2), 16, 99);
SetRect(hscrollrect, 0, (bottomW - topW - 16), (rightW - leftW - 16),
(bottomW - topW));
hscrollhandle := NewControl(myWindow, hscrollrect, '', true,
round(viswidth / 5), round(viswidth / 5), round(maxwidth / 5), 16, 998);

REPEAT
  IF GetNextEvent(mDownMask + updateMask, anEvent) THEN
    CASE anEvent.what OF
      mouseDown:
        BEGIN
          mwhere := FindWindow(anEvent.where, myWindow);
          CASE mwhere OF
            {MouseDown) inGoAway:
              BEGIN
                IF TrackGoAway(myWindow, anEvent.where) THEN
                  displaydone := true;
              END; {inGoAway)
            {MouseDown) inContent:
              BEGIN
                GlobalToLocal(anEvent.where);
                voldloc := GetCtlValue(vscrollhandle);
                holdloc := GetCtlValue(hscrollhandle);
                controlpart := FindControl(anEvent.where, myWindow,
wnscrollhandle);
                IF controlpart > 0 THEN
                  BEGIN
                    controlpart := TrackControl(wscrollhandle,
awEvent.where, NIL);
                    IF controlpart > 0 THEN
                      BEGIN
                        CASE controlpart OF
                          inUpbutton: GetCtlValue(wscrollhandle) - 1);
                          inDownButton: GetCtlValue(wscrollhandle) + 1);
                          inPageUp: GetCtlValue(wscrollhandle) - 5);
                          inPageDown: GetCtlValue(wscrollhandle) + 5);
                          OTHERWISE
                            REPEAT
                              UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
                          END; {case controlpart of)
                      END (if controlpart after TrackControl)
                      ELSE
                        REPEAT
                          UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
                      END (if controlpart before TrackControl )
                      ELSE
                        REPEAT
                          UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
                      END
                      IF wscrollhandle = vscrollhandle THEN
                        BEGIN
                          SetCtlValue(wscrollhandle,

scrolldist := voldloc - GetCtlValue(vscrollhandle); 
TEScroll(0, round(scrolldist * textH\^'.lineheight));

voldloc := GetCtlValue(vscrollhandle);
END {wscrollhandle = vscrollhandle}
ELSE
BEGIN
scrolldist := holdloc - GetCtlValue(hscrollhandle);
TEScroll(round(scrolldist * 5), 0, textH);
holdloc := GetCtlValue(hscrollhandle);
END; { wscrollhandle = hscrollhandle}
END; {inContent}
OTHERWISE
REPEAT
UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
END; {case mwhere}
END;{mouseDown}

updateEvt :
BEGIN
BeginUpdate(WindowPtr(anEvent.message));
EraseRect(thePortA.portrect);
TEUpdate(thePortA.portRect, textH);
DrawControls(myWindow);
EndUpdate(WindowPtr(anEvent.message));
END; {updateEvt}
END;{case Event.what}
UNTIL displaydone = true;
TEXTDispose(textH); { close and dispose text } 
CloseWindow(myWindow); { close window AND controls }

END;
{***********************************************************************************}
{***********************************************************************************)
PROCEDURE SaveResultsProc;
LABEL
2299;
VAR
iloop, jloop : integer;
lloop : lithology;
dummy : char;
bounds : rect;
outputfilename : str;
outputfileptr : text;
maxlen : integer;
date : DateTimeRec;
seplen : integer;

dia : DialogPtr;
itemtype : integer;
itemHandle : Handle;
itembox : rect;
progress : str255;

BEGIN
IF CallByCurrentDisplay THEN
  outputfilename := 'display.temp'
ELSE
  outputfilename := NewFileName('Name of output file:', '');
IF outputfilename = '' THEN
  GOTO 2299;
END;
maxlen := 15;
FOR jloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
  IF length(layers[jloop].unitname) > maxlen THEN
    maxlen := length(layers[jloop].unitname);
  IF (6 + maxlen + ((nlayr + 1) * 8) + 15) > 112 THEN
    seplen := (6 + maxlen + ((nlayr + 1) * 8) + 15)
  ELSE
    seplen := 112;
  dia := GetNewDialog(30189, NIL, pointer(-1));
  GetDitem(dia, 2, itemtype, itemhandle, itembox);
  IF CallByCurrentTDisplay THEN
    SetIText(itemhandle, 'Working')
  ELSE
    SetIText(itemhandle, 'Saving');
  GetDitem(dia, 1, itemtype, itemhandle, itembox);
  progress := 'Input Summary';
  SetIText(itemhandle, progress);
  DrawDialog(dia);
  writeln(outputfileptr, header1);
  GetTime(date);
  writeln(outputfileptr, datestring(date));
  writeln(outputfileptr, makespacer('-', seplen));
  writeln(outputfileptr, header4, projectname);
  writeln(outputfileptr, '');
  writeln(outputfileptr, header6);
  writeln(outputfileptr, header?, layers[l].water * 1000: 6: 2, 'm');
  writeln(outputfileptr, '');
  writeln(outputfileptr, header9);
  writeln(outputfileptr, headerlO);
  writeln(outputfileptr, '');
  FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
    BEGIN
      writeln(outputfileptr, iloop: 3, ': ');
      writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].z * 1000: 6: 1);
      writeln(outputfileptr, layers[iloop].z * 1000: 6: 1,
      layers[iloop + 1].age * 10: 5: 1,
      layers[iloop + 1].water * 1000: 6: 2, 'm');
      writeln(outputfileptr, '');
      IF layers[iloop].plotcurve THEN
        write(outputfileptr, ' Y')
      ELSE
        write(outputfileptr, ' N');
      writeln(outputfileptr, '');
      progress := concat(progress, '.');
      SetIText(itemhandle, progress);
      DrawDialog(dia);
      writeln(outputfileptr, ' ');
      writeln(outputfileptr, makespacer(=', seplen));
      progress := 'Backstripping Summary';
      SetIText(itemhandle, progress);
      DrawDialog(dia);
      writeln(outputfileptr, header14);
      writeln(outputfileptr, '');
      writeln(outputfileptr, makespacer(' ', trunc(((nlayr * 8) -
          length(header16a)) / 2 + maxlen + 6)), header16a);
      write(outputfileptr, makespacer(' ', trunc(((nlayr * 8) -
          length(header16a)) / 2 + 2), header16b);
    writeln(outputfileptr, ' ');
    write(outputfileptr, makespacer(' ', maxlen + 5));
FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
  write(outputfileptr, ' ', layers[iloop].age * 10 : 6 : 1);
  write(outputfileptr, makespacer(' ', 10), header16c);
  writeln(outputfileptr, ' ');
  write(outputfileptr, makespacer('+', (maxlen + 5) - 15));
END; {iloop}

FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
  write(outputfileptr, ' ', layers[iloop].water * 1000 : 6 : 1);
  write(outputfileptr, makespacer(' ', 9), header17b);
  writeln(outputfileptr, ' ');
  write(outputfileptr, makespacer('=', 6 + maxlen + (nlayr * 8) + 15));
END; {iloop}
UNIT PlotDriver;

(This unit interfaces and implements the procedure that controls the output of
results graphic to a hardcopy pen plotter, in particular a Graphtec MP4200 in
HP-GL Emulation mode.
(Consult relevant instruction and command reference manuals for further info
(on the use of the Graphtec MP4200 plotter.
(Programmer: Keith Sircombe
(Date: August 1992
(Number 8 in build order (after ResultHanders and before Geodecomp)

INTERFACE
USES
Calculations, DataHandlers, GraphicsHandlers;

PROCEDURE Plot ( layers : column;
results : resultsrec);

(This procedure conducts simple serial communication with the plotter and
plots a geohistory plot of the current results in a similar fashion to the
(screen graphic display of the ResultHandlers.
(Note: the communication between computer and plotter is *very* simple.
The computer merely 'dumps' all the instructions and required data to the
(presumably listening (& functioning) plotter via the serial port.
(No error checking or correction is attempted.

IMPLEMENTATION
*************************************************************
PROCEDURE Plot;

LABEL
701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 799;

{InitPlotter}
{PlotXaxis}
{PlotXlabel}
{PlotYaxis}
{PlotYlabel}
{PlotLayers}
{PlotPaleoSeaLevel}
{Pausing}
{PlotPaleoSeaBottom}
{PlotTect}
{PlotRef}
{PlotTitle}
{EndPlotting}

CONST
PausingALRT = 22407;
Lplot = 2000.0;
Bplot = 2000.0;
Pplot = 14000.0;
Tplot = 9000.0;
DefAgeScale = 2.50;
DefDepthScale = 0.50;
loopdelay = 10000;

VAR
xmin, xmax, ymin, ymax : real;  { outer coordinates of the plot }
rage, slope : real;  { } x, y, oldx : real;  { plot coordinates }
plottitle : str;
iloop, jloop, ploop : integer;  { loop counters }
dummy : char;
plotterptr : text;
AgeScale, DepthScale, xlen, ylen : real;
ref : boolean;
topaxismargin : real;
BEGIN
  ref := true;
  IF NOT EnterPlotParams(Plottitle, ref, AgeScale, DepthScale, DefAgeScale, DefDepthScale) THEN
    GOTO 799;
  xmin := 0;
  xmax := -99999;
  ymax := -99999;
  ymin := 99999;
  FOR iloop := 1 TO (nlayr + 1) DO
    BEGIN { find extremes }
      IF (layers[iloop].age > xmax) THEN
        xmax := layers[iloop].age;
      FOR jloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
        BEGIN
          IF (results.curve[iloop, jloop] > ymax) THEN
            ymax := results.curve[iloop, jloop];
          IF (results.curve[iloop, jloop] < ymin) THEN
            ymin := results.curve[iloop, jloop];
        END; { jloop}
    END; {iloop}
  xmin := round(xmin);
  xmax := round(xmax + 0.5) * 10;
  ymin := round(ymin);
  ymax := round(ymax + 0.5);
  xlen := (30.0 * AgeScale);
  ylen := 17.5 * DepthScale;
  topaxismargin := (ylen - ymin) * 0.1;
 701 {InitPlotter}
  rewrite(plotterptr, 'Printer:'); { opens line to plotter }
  write(plotterptr, 'IN;'); { initialises plotter to default settings }
  write(plotterptr, 'IP2000,2000,14000,9000;'); { sets out P1, P2 points on plotter in plotter units }
  write(plotterptr, 'SC', xmin : 6 : 2, xlen : 7 : 3, (ymin - 0) : 6 : 2, ylen : 7 : 3, chr(3)); { sets P1, P2 in user coordinates }
  FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
    ploop := iloop;
    write(plotterptr, 'SI.2, .3;DI-l.O,O.O;VS5;'); { sets width of character size TO l of (p2-pl) AND height TO outputfileptr (p2-pl) }
    write(plotterptr, 'SP1;PU;PA', xmin : 6: 2, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 6 : 2, chr(3)); { select pen; pen up; plot absolute TO "origin "of axes }
  FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
    ploop := iloop;
    write(plotterptr, 'PD;PA', xmax: 7 : 4, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4, chr(3)); { pen down; plot absolute "age" axis; pen up }
    write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4, chr(3)); { return to origin of axes }
    write(plotterptr, 'TL0,2;105;'); { set length of graduation ticks to -2% of |P2y - Ply| }
  FOR ploop := 0 TO round(xmax / 10) DO
    BEGIN
      write(plotterptr, 'PA', (ploop * 10) : 5, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4, chr(3)); { plot tick on axis }

END; {ploop}
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
  ploop := iloop;
  (Plot NZ Series)
  iloop := 1;
  write(plotterptr, 'TL0,-2;LO5;');
  { set length of graduation ticks to -2% of |P2y - Ply| }
  WHILE (nz[iloop + 1].age) <= xmax DO
    BEGIN
      x := nz[iloop + 1].age;
      oldx := nz[iloop].age;
      write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 5 : 1, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
            chr(3)); { return to origin of axes }
      write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
            ';CP0,-0.5;');
      write(plotterptr, 'LB', nz[iloop].stage, chr(3), ';PU;');
      iloop := iloop + 1;
    MNDO;
  FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
    ploop := iloop;
  (PlotXlabel)
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', (xmax - xmin) / 2 : 7 : 4, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
        ';XT;');
  write(plotterptr, 'PR', -((x - oldx) / 2) : 7 : 4, 0, ';CP0,-0.5;');
  write(plotterptr, 'LB', nz[iloop].stage, chr(3), ';PU;');
  iloop := iloop + 1;
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymy - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
        ';CP0,-0.5;');
  write(plotterptr, 'LB', nz[iloop].stage, chr(3), ';PU;');
  iloop := iloop + 1;
  (PlotYaxis)
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymax - ymin) / 2 : 7 : 4, chr(3));
  move to axis label POINT
  write(plotterptr, 'CPB,0;LOS;DII, l;LBDepth (km)', chr(3));
  plot axis label
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymy - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
        ';CP0,2;L3', (iloop / 2): 5: 1, chr(3));
  plot label
END; {iloop}
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
  ploop := iloop;
  (PlotLayers)
  FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
    BEGIN
      layers[iloop].plotcurve := true;
      write(plotterptr, 'SP6;');
      { select colour for total subsidence }
    IF iloop = nlayr THEN
      BEGIN
        plotcurve := true;
      END
    END
  END
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
  ploop := iloop;
  (PlotNZ Series)
  iloop := 1;
  write(plotterptr, 'TL0,-2;LO5;');
  { set length of graduation ticks to -2% of |P2y - Ply| }
  WHILE (nz[iloop + 1].age) <= xmax DO
    BEGIN
      x := nz[iloop + 1].age;
      oldx := nz[iloop].age;
      write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 5 : 1, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
            chr(3)); { return to origin of axes }
      write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
            ';CP0,-0.5;');
      write(plotterptr, 'LB', nz[iloop].stage, chr(3), ';PU;');
      iloop := iloop + 1;
    MNDO;
  FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
    ploop := iloop;
  (PlotXlabel)
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', (xmax - xmin) / 2 : 7 : 4, (ymin - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
        ';XT;');
  write(plotterptr, 'PR', -((x - oldx) / 2) : 7 : 4, 0, ';CP0,-0.5;');
  write(plotterptr, 'LB', nz[iloop].stage, chr(3), ';PU;');
  iloop := iloop + 1;
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymy - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
        ';CP0,-0.5;');
  write(plotterptr, 'LB', nz[iloop].stage, chr(3), ';PU;');
  iloop := iloop + 1;
  (PlotYaxis)
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymax - ymin) / 2 : 7 : 4, chr(3));
  move to axis label POINT
  write(plotterptr, 'CPB,0;LOS;DII, l;LBDepth (km)', chr(3));
  plot axis label
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmin : 7 : 4, (ymy - topaxismargin) : 7 : 4,
        ';CP0,2;L3', (iloop / 2): 5: 1, chr(3));
  plot label
END; {iloop}
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
  ploop := iloop;
  (PlotLayers)
  FOR iloop := 1 TO nlayr DO
    BEGIN
      layers[iloop].plotcurve := true;
      write(plotterptr, 'SP6;');
      { select colour for total subsidence }
GeoHist+ program listing

END; {if}
IF (layers[iloop].plotcurve = true) OR (iloop = nlayr) THEN
BEGIN
x := layers[1].age * 10;
y := (results.curve[1, iloop] - ymin);
write(plotterptr, 'PU;PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, 'PD;');
FOR jloop := 2 TO (iloop + 1) DO
BEGIN
x := layers[jloop].age * 10;
y := results.curve[jloop, iloop] - ymin;
write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, chr(3));
END; {jloop}
END; {iloop}
END; {if}
END; {iloop}
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
ploop := iloop;
707 : (PlotPaleoSeaLevel)
write(plotterptr, 'PU;PA0,0;SP4;');
x := layers[1].age * 10;
y := -PaleoSea(layers[1].age) - ymin;
write(plotterptr, 'PA', x, y, chr(3));
FOR iloop := 1 TO 101 DO
BEGIN
rage := (layers[nlayr + 1].age / 100) * (iloop - 1);
x := rage * 10;
y := (-PaleoSea(rage) - ymin);
write(plotterptr, 'PD;PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, chr(3));
END; {iloop}
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
ploop := iloop;
708 : (Pausing, so computer doesn't overfill the plotters buffer)
AlertInt := StopAlert(PausingALRT, NIL);
709 : (PlotPaleoSeaBottom)
write(plotterptr, 'PU;PA0,0;SP2;'); (select pen 2 for Paleo Sea Bottom colour)
x := layers[1].age * 10;
y := layers[1].water - ymin;
write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, 'PD;');
FOR iloop := 2 TO 101 DO
BEGIN
rage := (layers[nlayr + 1].age / 100) * (iloop - 1);
x := rage * 10;
BEGIN
jloop := 1;
WHILE ((rage > layers[jloop].age) AND (jloop < nlayr + 1)) DO
BEGIN
jloop := jloop + 1
END; {while}
slope := (layers[jloop].water - layers[jloop - 1].water) / (layers[jloop].age - layers[jloop - 1].age);
y := layers[jloop - 1].water + (slope * (rage - layers[jloop - 1].age));
y := y - PaleoSea(rage) - ymin;
write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, chr(3));
END; {iloop}
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
ploop := iloop;
710 : (PlotTect)
write(plotterptr, 'PU;SP5;PA0,0;'); { pen up; select pen 5; return to origin }
write(plotterptr, 'LT2;1;'); { set line to broken pattern }
x := layers[1].age * 10;
y := results.tect[1] - ymin;
write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, 'PD;');
FOR iloop := 2 TO (nlayr + 1) DO
BEGIN
  x := layers[iloop].age * 10;
  y := results.tect[iloop] - ymin;
  write(plotterptr, 'PA', x : 7 : 4, y : 7 : 4, chr(3));
END; {iloop)
write(plotterptr, 'PU;PAO, 0;'};
FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
  ploop := iloop;

711: {PlotRef)
  IF ref THEN
    BEGIN
      write(plotterptr, 'PA', xmax : 5 : 1, ymax : 5 : 1, chr(3));
      write(plotterptr, 'LO2;DI-1.0;LT;');
      { sets width of character size }
      write(plotterptr, 'SP1;CP0,10;LPaleo Sea Level : ', chr(3),
            ymax : 7 : 4, chr(3));
      write(plotterptr, 'SP2;PR-.01,0;PD;PR', -(0.05 * xmax) : 6 : 3, ',0;PU;PA',
            xmax : 7 : 4, chr(3),
            ymax : 7 : 4, chr(3));
      write(plotterptr, 'SP3;PR-.01,0;PD;PR', -(0.05 * xmax) : 6 : 3, ',0;PU;PA',
            xmax : 7 : 4, chr(3),
            ymax : 7 : 4, chr(3));
      write(plotterptr, 'SP4;PR-.01,0;PD;PR', -(0.05 * xmax) : 6 : 3, ',0;PU;PA',
            xmax : 7 : 4, chr(3),
            ymax : 7 : 4, chr(3));
      write(plotterptr, 'SP5;LT2,1;PR-.01,0;PD;PR', -(0.05 * xmax) : 6 : 3, ',0;PU;PA',
            xmax : 7 : 4, chr(3),
            ymax : 7 : 4, chr(3));
      FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
        ploop := iloop;
      END;
      GOTO 712;
  END;

712: {PlotTitle)
  FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
    ploop := iloop;
    plottitle := concat(plottitle, chr(3), 'PU;');
    write(plotterptr, 'SI0.3,0.6;SPl;PA', (xmax - xmin) / 2 : 7 : 4, ymax : 7 : 4,
          chr(3), ',LO5;DI-1.0;0.0;LB', plottitle);
  END; {iloop)
  write(plotterptr, 'SP;PA', xlen : 7 : 4, ylen : 7 : 4, chr(3));
  GOTO 713;

713: {EndPlotting)
  FOR iloop := 1 TO loopdelay DO
    ploop := iloop;
    write(plotterptr, 'SP;PA', xlen : 7 : 4, ylen : 7 : 4, chr(3));
  END; {iloop)
  close(plotterptr);

799: {Procedure Plot)
********************************************************************************w**}
END. {Plot)
PROGRAM Geodcomp;
{This program is largely based on the GEO_HIST program for a VAX/VMS system}
{written by Ray Wood of the then Geophysics division of DSIR Geology and}
{Geophysics, now the Crown Research Institute of Geological and Nuclear Sciences}
{This is the main part of the whole program. From here the calls to the}
{procedures and functions outlined in the above units are made.}
{The menus are set up here and managed during the running of the program.}
{This program is designed to input stratigraphic data from exploration well or}
{outcrop section sites. The sedimentary units are then progressively removed}
{to build a plot of the depths and decompacted thicknesses of those units}
{backwards through time. The amount of tectonic subsidence is also calculated.}
{Programmer: Keith Sircombe}
{Date: August 1992}
{Number 9 in build order (after PlotDriver)}

USES
Calculations, DataHandlers, Decompaction, GraphicsHandlers, ResultHandlers,
PlotDriver;

CONST {these are menu id numbers for menu items appearing in the menus}
appleId = 1;
geohistId = 22768;

appleM = 1;
geohistM = 2;
projectM = 3;

menuCount = 3;

AboutGeoHist = 1;
EnterDataManually = 2;
EditDataId = 3;
RestoreDataFromFile = 3;
OutputDataToFile = 4;
ProcessData = 6;
SaveResults = 8;
LoadResults = 9;
ResultGraphics = 10;
PlotResults = 11;
DisplayCurrentResults = 13;
DisplaySavedResults = 14;
Quit = 16;

VAR
myMenus : ARRAY[1..menuCount] OF MenuHandle; {array of handles to menus}
bounds : rect;
results : resultsrec;
iloop, jloop : integer; { loop counters}
lloop : lithology;
dummy : char;
menuId : integer;
anEvent : EventRecord;
ev : boolean;
where : integer;
whichWindow : WindowPtr;
menuchoice : longint;
keyInt : integer;
continue, doneFlag : boolean;
dragRect : rect;
extended : boolean;
textH : TEHandle;
theChar : char;
oldprojname : STRING;
memsize, growsize : Size;
PROCEDURE About;
{This procedure simply calls up a alert dialog window with information 'about')
{the GeoHist+ program.}

VAR
Alertint : integer;
BEGIN
Alertint := Alert(31200, NIL);
END;

PROCEDURE SetUpMenus;
{This procedure sets up the menus and menu bar used during the program.}

VAR
i : integer;
BEGIN
myMenus[appleM] := GetMenu(appleId);  {read Apple menu}
AddResMenu(myMenus[appleM], 'DVR'); {add desk acc}
myMenus[geohistM] := GetMenu(geohistId); {read geohist menu}
myMenus[projectM] := NewMenu(707, 'None');
FOR i := 1 TO menuCount DO
  InsertMenu(myMenus[i], 0);
DrawMenuBar;
END;  {SetUpMenus}

FUNCTION QuitApp: boolean;
{This function gives a second chance when quitting the application to prevent un-intentional quitting (& data loss). If quitting is the desired option, then the menus are gracefully disposed of.}

CONST
QuitDLOG = 31234;
No = 1;
Yes = 2;

VAR
dStorage : DialogRecord;
dia : DialogPtr;
itemHit : integer;
i : integer;
BEGIN
QuitApp := false;
dia := GetNewDialog(QuitDLOG, @dStorage, pointer(-1));
REPEAT
  ModalDialog(NIL, itemHit);
UNTIL (itemHit = No) OR (itemHit = Yes);

IF itemHit = Yes THEN
  BEGIN
    QuitApp := true;
    FOR i := 1 TO menuCount DO
      BEGIN
        DeleteMenu(myMenus[i]^.menuID);
      END;
  END;
END;  {QuitApp}
DisposeMenu(myMenus[i]);
   END; { for i }
ELSE
   QuitApp := false;
   DisposeDialog(dia);
END;

{***********************************************************************************}
{***********************************************************************************}
PROCEDURE DoCommand (mResult : longint);
   {This procedure, given the result of a request from the menu will action that request and alter the menu appearance accordingly.}
VAR
   theItem: integer;
   theMenu: integer;
   name: str255;
   temp: integer;
   ManualDataOK: boolean;
BEGIN
   theItem := LoWord(mResult);
   theMenu := HiWord(mResult);
   CASE theMenu OF
      appleid:
      BEGIN
         IF theItem = AboutGeoHist THEN
            About
         ELSE
            BEGIN
               GetItem(myMenus[appleM], theItem, name);
               temp := OpenDeskAcc(name); {open a desk accessory if requested}
            END;
         END; {appleid}
      geohistid:
      BEGIN
         CASE theItem OF
            EnterDataManually:
            BEGIN
               IF ManualData(layers) THEN
                  BEGIN
                     EnableItem(myMenus[geohistM], EditDataid);
                     EnableItem(myMenus[geohistM], ProcessData);
                     EnableItem(myMenus[geohistM], OutputDataToFile);
                     DisableItem(myMenus[geohistM], SaveResults);
                     DisableItem(myMenus[geohistM], DisplayCurrentResults);
                     DisableItem(myMenus[geohistM], PlotResults);
                     DisableItem(myMenus[geohistM], ResultGraphics);
                  END;
            END;
            EditDataid:
            BEGIN
               IF EditData(layers) THEN
                  BEGIN
                     END;
            END;
            RestoreDataFromFile:
            BEGIN
               IF Filein(layers, inputfilename) THEN
                  BEGIN
                     EnableItem(myMenus[geohistM], EditDataid);
                     EnableItem(myMenus[geohistM], ProcessData);
                     EnableItem(myMenus[geohistM], OutputDataToFile);
                     DisableItem(myMenus[geohistM], SaveResults);
                  END;
            END;
   END;
DISABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], DisplayCurrentResults);
DISABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], PlotResults);
DISABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], ResultGraphics);
END;
END;

OUTPUTDATATOFILE : FileOut(layers, inputfilename);
PROCESSDATA :
BEGIN
  IF Solution(layers, results) THEN
    BEGIN
      ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], SaveResults);
      ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], DisplayCurrentResults);
      ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], PlotResults);
      ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], ResultGraphics);
      DISABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], ProcessData);
    END;
  END;
END;

SavelResults :
BEGIN
  CallByCurrentDisplay := false;
  SaveResultsProc(layers, results);
END;

LoadResults :
BEGIN
  IF LoadResultsProc(layers, results) THEN
    END;
  BEGIN
    ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], SaveResults);
    ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], DisplayCurrentResults);
    ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], PlotResults);
    ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], EditDataid);
    ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], ResultGraphics);
    ENABLEITEM(myMenus[geohistM], ProcessData);
  END;
END;

ResultGraphics :
Graphics(layers, results);
PlotResults :
Plot(layers, results);
DisplayCurrentResults :
BEGIN
  CallByCurrentDisplay := true;
  SaveResultsProc(layers, results);
  DisplayData(CallByCurrentDisplay);
END;

DisplaySavedResults :
BEGIN
  CallByCurrentDisplay := false;
  DisplayData(CallByCurrentDisplay);
END;

Quit :
BEGIN
  doneFlag := QuitApp;
END;
END; {case theItem}
END; {case geohistId}
OTHERWISE
BEGIN
  END; {otherwise}
END; {case theMenu}
HiliteMenu(0);
END; {Procedure}

***************************************************************************
BEGIN
MaxApplZone;
FOR iloop := 1 TO 10 DO
  MoreMasters;
InitCursor;
CallByEdit := false;
projectname := "";
FOR iloop := 0 TO maxlayr DO
  BEGIN {initialise data arrays to 'null'}
    WITH layers[iloop] DO
      BEGIN
        layernum := 0;
        water := 0;
        age := 0;
        top := 0;
        base := 0;
        z := 0;
        zsum := 0;
        zsk := 0;
        rate := 0;
        kk := 0;
        pphi := 0;
        dens := 0;
        plotcurve := true;
        unitname := "";
        FOR lloop := sandstone TO volcanics DO
          lith[lloop] := 0;
      END;
    WITH results DO
      BEGIN
        tect[iloop] := 0;
        totalz[iloop] := 0;
        p2[iloop] := 0;
        zsum[iloop] := 0;
        listz[iloop] := 0;
        FOR jloop := 0 TO maxlayr DO
          BEGIN
            curve[iloop, jloop] := 0;
            zp[iloop, jloop] := 0;
          END;
      END;
    END;
END;
SetUpMenus;  {assemble and display menus}
CalcSetup;  {more data initialisation}
DataInit;
doneFlag := false;
REPEAT
  SystemTask;
  oldprojname := projectname;
  IF GetNextEvent(everyEvent, anEvent) THEN
    CASE anEvent.what OF
mouseDown:
  CASE FindWindow(anEvent.where, whichWindow) OF
    inSysWindow :
      SystemClick(anEvent, whichWindow);
    inMenuBar :
      DoCommand(MenuSelect(anEvent.where));
    OTHERWISE
      REPEAT
        UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
  END; {mouseDown}

keyDown, autoKey:
  BEGIN
    theChar := chr(BitAnd(anEvent.message, charCodeMask));
    IF BitAnd(anEvent.modifiers, cmdKey) <> 0 THEN
      DoCommand(MenuKey(theChar))
    ELSE
      BEGIN
        END;
    END;
  END;

activateEvt:
  REPEAT
    UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;

updateEvt:
  BEGIN
    BeginUpdate(WindowPtr(anEvent.message));
    EndUpdate(WindowPtr(anEvent.message));
  END;

OTHERWISE
  REPEAT
    UNTIL NOT WaitMouseUp;
END; {of event case}

IF oldprojname <> projectname THEN
  BEGIN
    DeleteMenu(707);
    myMenus[projectM] := NewMenu(707, projectname);
    InsertMenu(myMenus[projectM], 0);
    DrawMenuBar;
    END;

  UNTIL doneFlag;

END. {Geodecomp}
Appendix E: Petrographic details

No petrographic analysis of samples was undertaken in this study. For the compilation of the QFL diagram in Fig. 4.16, modal analyses from other studies were used. These analyses and their literature sources are listed here.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Feld. %</th>
<th>Lithic %</th>
<th>Quartz %</th>
<th>Literature source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>22.06</td>
<td>73.53</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>57.38</td>
<td>40.98</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>48.61</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>11.76</td>
<td>39.22</td>
<td>49.02</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>19.61</td>
<td>78.43</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otumotu Formation</td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>17.86</td>
<td>71.43</td>
<td>Table 5.1, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butler Formation</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>23.81</td>
<td>51.19</td>
<td>Table 5.2, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butler Formation</td>
<td>18.89</td>
<td>27.78</td>
<td>53.33</td>
<td>Table 5.2, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butler Formation</td>
<td>27.42</td>
<td>32.26</td>
<td>40.32</td>
<td>Table 5.2, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>9.09</td>
<td>34.09</td>
<td>56.82</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>69.23</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>44.44</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>8.05</td>
<td>22.99</td>
<td>68.97</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>27.78</td>
<td>55.56</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>53.33</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moeraki Mem, Tauperikaka</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>19.48</td>
<td>77.92</td>
<td>Table 5.3, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paringa Mem, Taupenaka</td>
<td>24.53</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>69.18</td>
<td>Table 5.4, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paringa Mem, Taupenaka</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>86.67</td>
<td>Table 5.4, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paringa Mem, Taupenaka</td>
<td>24.39</td>
<td>12.20</td>
<td>63.41</td>
<td>Table 5.4, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rasselas M., Taupenaka</td>
<td>17.20</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>76.43</td>
<td>Table 5.5, Adams, 1987.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Reef M., Titiria Fm.</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>Table 3, Nathan, 1978.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Reef M., Titiria Fm.</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>Table 3, Nathan, 1978.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Reef M., Titiria Fm.</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>Table 3, Nathan, 1978.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Reef M., Titiria Fm.</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>Table 3, Nathan, 1978.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Reef M., Titiria Fm.</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>Table 3, Nathan, 1978.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


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