

1 **Provenance of the Cretaceous–Eocene Rajang Group submarine fan, Sarawak, Malaysia**
2 **from light and heavy mineral assemblages and U-Pb zircon geochronology**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 The Rajang Group sediments in central Borneo form a very thick deep-water sequence which was
14 deposited in one of the world’s largest ancient submarine fans. In Sarawak, the Lupar and Belaga
15 Formations form the Rajang Group, characterised by turbidites and large debris flows, deposited in
16 an interval of at least 30 Ma between the Late Cretaceous (Maastrichtian) and late Middle Eocene.
17 Borneo is one of the few places in SE Asia where sediments of this age are preserved. Heavy mineral
18 assemblages and detrital zircon U-Pb dating permit the Rajang Group to be divided into three units.
19 The Schwaner Mountains area in SW Borneo, and West Borneo and the Malay Tin Belt were the
20 main source regions and the contribution from these source areas varied with time. Unit 1, of Late
21 Cretaceous to Early Eocene age, is characterised by zircon-tourmaline-dominated heavy mineral
22 assemblages derived from both source areas. Unit 2, of Early to Middle Eocene age, has zircon-
23 dominated heavy mineral assemblages, abundant Cretaceous zircons and few Precambrian zircons
24 derived primarily from the Schwaner Mountains. Unit 3, of Middle Eocene age, has zircon-
25 tourmaline-dominated heavy mineral assemblages derived from both sources and reworked
26 sedimentary rocks. There was limited contemporaneous magmatism during deposition of the Rajang
27 Group inconsistent with a subduction arc setting. We suggest the Rajang Group was deposited north
28 of the shelf edge formed by the Lupar Line which was a significant strike-slip fault.

29

30

31 1. Introduction

32 The central part of Borneo is a long arcuate mountain belt that forms the border between Sarawak
33 and Kalimantan and southern Sabah. It includes a very thick clastic sedimentary succession named
34 the Belaga Formation (Liechti et al., 1960) in Malaysia with equivalents in Kalimantan (Pieters et al.,
35 1987) assigned to the Rajang Group (Hutchison, 1996) (Fig. 1). This extends offshore beneath the
36 hydrocarbon-bearing basins of Sarawak (e.g. Madon, 1999; Mat-Zin, 2000).

37 Van Bemmelen (1949) and Milroy (1953) were the first to describe the sedimentary succession in
38 central Borneo, and were followed by memoirs and reports from geological survey geologists (Haile,
39 1957; Kirk, 1957; Wolfenden, 1960; Tan, 1979). These descriptions were summarised for Central
40 Sarawak by Liechti et al. (1960). Haile (1974) introduced the term Sibu Zone for the part of Sarawak
41 north of the Lupar Line composed predominantly of the Belaga Formation, which forms the major
42 part of the Rajang Group in Sarawak. The Sibu Zone (Central Sarawak) forms an approximately 200
43 km wide zone north of the Lupar Valley and south of the Bukit Mersing Line (Fig. 1). It comprises
44 highly deformed, steeply dipping sedimentary and low-grade metasedimentary rocks. Haile (1968)
45 introduced geosynclinal terminology to NW Borneo and interpreted the Rajang Group as flysch
46 deposits in a eugeosynclinal furrow. Later, the Rajang Group sediments were recognised as deep
47 marine turbiditic rocks (Tan, 1979; Hutchison, 1996, 2005; Bakar et al., 2007). With the emergence
48 of plate tectonics, a role for subduction and collision was inferred and the Rajang Group was
49 assumed to be related to an accretionary setting (e.g. Hamilton, 1979; Tan, 1979; Hutchison, 1996)
50 although Moss (1998) questioned this interpretation. Hutchison (2010) described the central Borneo
51 mountain belt as an orocline.

52 The extent, thickness, structure and tectonic setting of the Rajang Group remain uncertain and its
53 age is based on limited foraminifera data (Kirk, 1957; Liechti et al., 1960; Wolfenden, 1960; Tan,
54 1979). Various suggestions have been made for the source of the clastic sediments. They include a
55 southern (Tan, 1982) and potentially a northern (Pieters and Sanyoto, 1993; Pieters et al., 1993)
56 source, Indochina (Hamilton, 1979), proto-Mekong River (Hutchison, 1989), Thailand, Indochina and
57 Malay Peninsula (Moss, 1998), Sunda Shield (Hazebroek & Tan, 1993) and the Schwaner Mountains
58 of Kalimantan (Williams et al., 1988). There have been no provenance studies that can be used to
59 assess these suggestions.

60 This study presents new results based on field investigations, petrography, light and heavy mineral
61 analyses, and U-Pb dating of detrital zircons. It reconstructs the provenance of the Rajang Group and
62 discusses the tectonic setting of deposition.

63 2. Geological background

64 2.1. Rajang Group

65 The Belaga Formation and the Lupar Formation form the Rajang Group in Central Sarawak. The
66 Lupar Formation has been considered to underlie the Belaga Formation but is exposed only in a
67 narrow fault-bounded ridge at the northern margin of the Lupar Valley (Haile, 1957; Tan, 1979). It
68 differs slightly from the Belaga Formation in having overall a more arenaceous character than the
69 lower parts of the Belaga Formation (Liechti et al., 1960), some interbedded basic rocks (Haile et al.,
70 1994) and the occurrence of some boudinaged blocks (Tan, 1979). Both formations are discussed in
71 detail below. Other formations that have been assigned to the Rajang Group include the Kelalan
72 Formation and the Mulu Formation in North Sarawak, the Embaluh Group of Kalimantan, and the
73 Sapulut Formation in Sabah (Haile, 1962; Collenette, 1965; Tate, 1991; Hutchison, 1996; Moss,
74 1998). In NE Kalimantan the Lurah, Mentarang and Long Bawan Formations may be equivalents of
75 the deep marine Belaga Formation (B.R.G.M, 1982) and were interpreted as continuation of the
76 Rajang Group (Pieters et al., 1987; Hutchison, 2010). Here we are concerned only with the Belaga
77 Formation and the Lupar Formation.

78 The Rajang Group is described by Hutchison (1996) as “a monotonous flysch group of interbedded
79 sandstone and mudstone locally metamorphosed to lower greenschist facies phyllite and slate”.
80 Haile (1974) suggested a thickness of 15 km although Hutchison (1996) commented that the basis
81 for this estimate is unknown. Hutchison (2005) estimated 4.5 to 7.5 km for the Belaga Formation and
82 Tan (1979) estimated 500 m for the Lupar Formation. It is not certain what lies underneath the
83 Belaga Formation. Moss (1998) assumed ophiolitic basement, Hutchison (2010) inferred oceanic
84 crust, and Breitfeld et al. (2017) suggested a composite basement including some accreted
85 continental crust. Within the upper parts of the Rajang Group are some magmatic rocks interpreted
86 as Eocene (Kirk, 1957). These include Bukit Mersing basic rocks and acid magmatic rocks in the Arip-
87 Pelungau valley.

88 The formation is highly deformed. Hutchison (1996, 2005) referred to the Rajang Group sediments
89 as an Eocene accretionary complex and attributed deformation and uplift to a Late Eocene Sarawak
90 Orogeny caused by collision of a continental promontory of the Miri Zone-Central Luconia Province
91 of northern Sundaland. However, Wolfenden (1960) had noted the absence of a marked angular
92 unconformity in some areas and commented that the “stratigraphic evidence is difficult to reconcile
93 with the concept of an Upper Eocene orogeny that caused the entire... ..Rajang Group to be folded”
94 and that “deformation accompanied deposition”. In contrast, Moss (1998) interpreted the
95 sediments to represent parts of a remnant ocean basin. Hall (2012) and Hall and Sevastjanova (2012)

96 supported this interpretation and questioned the interpretation of deformation as the result of a
97 collisional Sarawak Orogeny. Instead they suggested there was deep-water syn-depositional
98 deformation between the Late Cretaceous and the Late Eocene, as originally proposed by
99 Wolfenden (1960). The major unconformity that terminates Rajang Group sedimentation and the
100 change to little deformed shallow and marginal marine sediments was suggested to mark a regional
101 plate reorganisation that occurred when Australia began to move north at about 45 Ma, initiating
102 subduction beneath Sabah of the proto-South China Sea and renewed subduction south of Java (e.g.
103 Hall, 2002, 2012; Hall et al., 2008, 2009). Hall and Breitfeld (2017) termed this the Rajang
104 Unconformity (Fig. 2).

105 *2.2. Post-Rajang Group in Sarawak*

106 Hutchison (1975) presumed the upper contact of the Belaga Formation to be a fault zone
107 characterised by ophiolite and related rocks and named it the Bukit Mersing Line, although he later
108 doubted this interpretation (Hutchison, 2005). This is the boundary between Central and North
109 Sarawak (Liechti et al., 1960) and between the Sibü and Miri Zones (Haile, 1974). The Belaga
110 Formation is unconformably overlain by Paleogene to Neogene sediments in the Miri Zone. These
111 include the Tatau and the Nyalau Formations (Kirk, 1957; Liechti et al., 1960), sediments of the
112 Mukah-Balingian province (Wolfenden, 1960; de Silva, 1986) and the ambiguous Tunggul-Rangsi
113 conglomerate (Liechti et al., 1960; Mat-Zin, 2000). Some inliers of Nyalau Formation are reported
114 from the Sibü Zone (Kirk, 1957).

115 There was Plio-Pleistocene volcanism (Kirk, 1957; Cullen et al., 2013) in the Sibü Zone in the upper
116 Rajang River and adjacent areas (Fig. 1 and 2) including the Usun Apau and Linau-Balui Plateaux, the
117 Hose Mountains and the Nieuwenhuis Mountains.

118 **3. Stratigraphy of the Rajang Group in Sarawak**

119 *3.1. Lupar Formation*

120 The Lupar Formation includes the oldest rocks of the Rajang Group. It contains foraminifera in shales
121 indicating an age not older than Cenomanian, with Turonian to Maastrichtian foraminifera in coarser
122 samples (W.E. Crews in Milroy, 1953). Tan (1979) considered some of these samples to represent the
123 Lubok Antu Melange and parts to be Lupar Formation and reported foraminifera of probable
124 Santonian to Maastrichtian age. Tan (1979) concluded the Lupar Formation rocks were turbiditic
125 deposits from graded bedding, sole marks and rhythmically interbedded shales and sandstones.

126 The base of the formation is not exposed, but is assumed to be in fault contact with the Lubok Antu
127 Melange. The northern top of the formation was considered a transition into the Layar Member of

128 the Belaga Formation by Liechti et al. (1960) or in parts a fault contact by Tan (1979). The formation
129 is intruded by and interbedded with rocks of the Pakong Mafic Complex (Tan, 1979; Haile et al.,
130 1994).

131 *3.2. Belaga Formation*

132 The Belaga Formation has been described as a low grade metamorphic shale succession with
133 intercalations of greywacke and sub-greywacke sandstone (Liechti et al., 1960). It is now considered
134 to be largely turbidite sequences that were deposited in a deep marine environment (e.g. Tan, 1979,
135 1982; Tongkul, 1997; Honza et al., 2000; Hutchison, 2005; Bakar et al., 2007). Thick bedded
136 sandstones in the Pelagus, Metah and Bawang Members were interpreted as debrites by Bakar et al.
137 (2007).

138 Four subdivisions of the Belaga Formation called stages were recognised by Crews and John (in
139 Milroy, 1953) in Central Sarawak with proposed ages based on paleontological evidence: Turonian to
140 Maastrichtian Stage I, Paleocene to Early Eocene Stage II, Middle to Late Eocene Stage III and Late
141 Eocene Stage IV. The ages were later supplemented by data from Haile (1957), Kirk (1957) and
142 Wolfenden (1960). The stages were the basis for mapping of the Belaga Formation by Haile (1957) in
143 the Lupar and Saribas valleys, Kirk (1957) in the Upper Rajang area, and Wolfenden (1960) in the
144 Lower Rajang area. Attempts were made to map the Belaga Formation based on lithology and the
145 Belaga Formation was later divided into members (Liechti et al., 1960) and each was assigned a type
146 section or type area. Liechti et al. (1960) observed that “it has to be admitted that they are not pure
147 rock-stratigraphic units. Not only has paleontological distinction preceded their creation, but their
148 identification on lithology is only approximately possible”. The members (Fig. 2) from south to north
149 (i.e. oldest to youngest) are: Upper Cretaceous (Turonian-Maastrichtian) Layar Member (previously
150 Stage I), Paleocene to Lower Eocene Kapit Member (previously Stage II), Middle Eocene to Upper
151 Eocene Pelagus Member (previously Stage III), Upper Eocene Metah Member (previously Stage IV)
152 and Bawang Member of suggested Eocene age which occurs within the Miri Zone (previously
153 Bawang Formation). Hutchison (2005) suggested the Layar Member was Cenomanian-Turonian, the
154 Pelagus Member to be Early to Middle Eocene and the Metah Member to be Middle to Late Eocene.

155 **4. Sampling and methodology**

156 For this study fieldwork was carried out in the Sibu Zone. In the western part of the study area
157 sampling was undertaken mainly along the Pan-Borneo Highway from the Lupar valley to Tatau and
158 on minor roads and small logging tracks in the interior. The upper reaches of the Rajang River from
159 the town of Kapit to the Pelagus and Mikai Rapids were traversed by boat.

160 *4.1. Sampling*

161 Sandstones and siltstones from the Lupar Formation and all members of the Belaga Formation were
162 sampled for light and heavy mineral analysis, and zircon dating. The geological map of the Sibul Zone
163 (Fig. 2) shows the location of samples.

164 Detrital modes for light minerals were determined using the Gazzi-Dickinson method (Gazzi, 1966;
165 Dickinson, 1970; Gazzi et al., 1973) and the Glagolev-Cheyes method (Galehouse, 1971) on stained
166 thin sections. Sodium cobaltinitrite was used for staining alkali feldspar and barium chloride and
167 amaranth solution was used for staining plagioclase.

168 *4.2. Sample preparation for mineral analysis*

169 Sample preparation for heavy mineral analyses was carried out at Royal Holloway University of
170 London. The samples were crushed and a 63-250 μm fraction was separated by sieving. Heavy
171 minerals from this fraction were separated using standard heavy liquid Lithium heteropolytungstate
172 (LST) at a density of 2.89 g/cm^3 . The heavy mineral separates were further processed by a FRANTZ
173 magnetic barrier separator and by standard heavy liquid Di-iodomethane (DIM) at 3.3 g/cm^3 to
174 concentrate zircons. Zircon grains between 63 and 250 μm were hand-picked or poured and
175 mounted in epoxy resin blocks and polished to expose mid-grain sections. The mounted zircons were
176 imaged in transmitted light and with cathodoluminescence secondary electron microscope (CL-SEM)
177 to select analysis spots for each grain and to detect cracks and inclusions, and zoning of zircons prior
178 to the LA-ICP-MS age analysis.

179 *4.3. LA-ICP-MS U-Pb geochronology*

180 LA-ICP-MS (laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry) dating of zircons from 12
181 samples was carried out at Birkbeck College, University of London. Zircon U-Pb dating was
182 performed on a New Wave NWR 193 and NWR213 nm laser ablation system coupled to an Agilent
183 7700 quadrupole-based plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) with a two-cell sample chamber. A
184 spot size of 25 μm for the NWR 193 nm and of 30 μm for the NWR 213 nm system was used. The
185 Plešovice zircon standard (337.13 ± 0.37 Ma; Sláma et al., 2008) and a NIST 612 silicate glass bead
186 (Pearce et al., 1997) were used to correct for instrumental mass bias and depth-dependent inter-
187 element fractionation of Pb, Th and U.

188 GLITTER data reduction software (Griffin et al., 2008) and the common lead correction method by
189 Andersen (2002), which is used as a ^{204}Pb common lead-independent procedure, were used. The age
190 obtained from the $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratio is given for grains older 1000 Ma. Because ^{207}Pb cannot be
191 measured with sufficient precision in grains which are younger than 1000 Ma and thus results in

192 large analytical errors (Nemchin and Cawood, 2005), the age obtained from the $^{238}\text{U}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ ratio is
193 given. Concordance was tested by using a 10% threshold. For ages greater than 1000 Ma the
194 $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages were used to assess concordance, and for ages below 1000 Ma the
195 $^{207}\text{Pb}/^{235}\text{U}$ and $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{238}\text{U}$ ages. Age histograms and probability density plots were created using an R
196 script that adapts the approach of Sircombe (2004) for calculating probability density. All analyses
197 data are compiled in the Supplementary Tables 1 to 12.

198 **5. Field observations**

199 *5.1. Lupar Formation*

200 The Lupar Formation is composed of sandstone beds rhythmically interbedded with shale, siltstone
201 and mudstone (Fig. 3A). The sandstone beds are generally graded, and slumping (Fig. 3B) is common.
202 Sandstone beds are rarely thicker than a few centimetres and usually scour into the mud/shale
203 layers. The sedimentological characteristics indicate deposition as a turbidite with common
204 occurrence of Bouma A and B units. The sedimentological and lithological features of the Lupar
205 Formation are very similar to the overlying Layar Member of the Belaga Formation except for an
206 overall more arenaceous character (Liechti et al., 1960).

207 *5.2. Layar Member*

208 The Layar Member is a moderate to steeply dipping (44-71°) folded succession of metamorphosed
209 shales, siltstones and sandstones (Fig. 3C). The predominant lithology is metamorphosed shales that
210 occur as thick beds or alternations with thin siltstones or sandstones. Typical successions within the
211 Layar Member include: 1) thick beds (up to a few metres) of shale. The shale is generally grey to dark
212 grey and is variably metamorphosed into slate and phyllites. 2) Shale and siltstones interbedded with
213 sandstones of uniform thickness between a few centimetres to a few tens of centimetres. 3) Thicker
214 sandstones from tens of centimetres to a metre in thickness (Fig 3E). The sandstones are massive,
215 and typically have scoured bases. 4) Conglomerate beds usually composed of syn-sedimentary
216 deformed shale clasts within a matrix of fine to coarse sand (Fig. 3E and F). The beds usually have
217 erosive bases and flat tops.

218 The sandstones of the Layar Member generally vary from fine to coarse grained, and the thinner
219 beds are usually of finer grain size. Slumping is quite common within the successions with chaotically
220 deformed beds found between undisturbed beds (Fig. 3D). The undisturbed sandstones occur as
221 beds showing ripples, parallel laminations or normal grading (Fig. 3G and H). Thick beds occur
222 sporadically and are commonly cut by quartz veins. The sandstones towards the Sarawak interior in
223 the east are generally much thicker bedded than in the west. There are also some locations in the
224 interior that expose slates to low-grade schists (Fig. 3I).

225 The Layar Member is interpreted as distal turbidites based on the predominance of shale
226 interbedded with thin sandstone and siltstone beds, and the usually thin character of the
227 sandstones. Bouma units D and E are dominant. The sandstones represent episodes of turbidite
228 (Bouma A and B) input that scour into the shale beds. Occasionally, there were debris flows
229 represented by conglomerate beds containing shale clasts eroded from the earlier deposited shales
230 (mudflake conglomerates). Slumping is quite common and is represented by chaotically deformed
231 beds.

232 *5.3. Kapit Member*

233 The Kapit Member is composed of metamorphosed shale interbedded with sandstone and siltstone
234 with dips of 60° to 90°. Overturned sections were also observed. Typical successions are composed
235 of: 1) thick shales that are variably metamorphosed to slate (a few metres thick). 2) Shales
236 interbedded with siltstones and sandstones which are a few centimetres to tens of centimetres in
237 thickness. 3) Thickly bedded sandstones (up to two metres).

238 Sandstones up to 60 centimetres thickness were deposited sporadically within the succession (Fig.
239 4A and B). Load structures are usually present at the base of the sandstone beds. In the Bukit
240 Sebangkoi area, representing stratigraphically the lower part, the Kapit Member is dominated by
241 sandstone. Towards Sibul, the middle part of the Kapit Member becomes progressively dominated by
242 grey shale and siltstones and sandstones a few centimetres to tens of centimetres thick. Some thick
243 beds of sandstone do occur and are sometimes composed of sub-rounded and elongate clasts of
244 finer grained material within a coarse sandstone matrix. Large scale slumping is also seen within the
245 succession (Fig. 4C).

246 In the interior in the Rajang River and near Sibul, where the stratigraphically higher part of the Kapit
247 Member is exposed, a typical succession is represented by alternation of thin sandstones and shales
248 or siltstones (2 cm-10 cm) passing up into thicker beds (a few tens of centimetres) followed by
249 thickly interbedded, often amalgamated, sandstones. The fresh sandstone in the Upper Rajang area
250 is grey in colour and is very hard. The thinner sandstones are usually finer grained and the thicker
251 sandstone is usually coarser grained. Load structures are quite common on the lower bed surfaces of
252 the sandstones (Fig. 4D) and the bases are erosive. Upright tight folding was observed (Fig. 4E).

253 The Kapit Member samples are turbidites. The lower part of the Kapit Member is similar to the
254 underlying Layar Member whereas the upper part resembles the overlying Pelagus Member.

255 *5.4. Pelagus Member*

256 The Pelagus Member is the most arenaceous member of the Belaga Formation. The predominance
257 of sandstone beds is the main characteristic of the Pelagus Member. Typical successions within the
258 Pelagus Member include: 1) interbedded thin (5-10 cm) shale and siltstone or sandstone. 2)
259 Interbedded sandstones of variable thickness (10 cm-2 metres) with minor shale.

260 South of Sibu, the lower part of the Pelagus Member is composed of interbedded shale and siltstone
261 and sandstone overlain by thick sandstones with erosive bases (Fig. 5A and B). Slumping was
262 observed (Fig. 5C). Generally two types of sandstones can be identified. The first is grey coloured
263 and poorly sorted sandstone, with turbiditic character. The other is the lighter coloured and is
264 usually thickly bedded (60 cm to 1 metre) amalgamated sandstone interpreted as a debris flow
265 deposit. The sandstones in the Pelagus Member show rippled surfaces (Fig. 5D), minor bioturbation
266 (Fig. 5E) and parallel lamination (Fig. 5F). Load structures are commonly found at the base of thicker
267 sandstone beds (Fig. 5G). In the interior (Rajang River, Bukit Tanggi quarry), the Pelagus Member
268 consists of thickly bedded sandstones interbedded with minor shales (Fig. 5H) cut by thin calcite
269 veins.

270 Convolute bedding (Fig. 6A) and polygonal faulting resulting from soft-sediment deformation was
271 observed (Fig. 6B). Beds containing mud clasts similar to the lower members are also found within
272 the succession (Fig. 6C). Displacement of mud-silt-sandstone alternations (heterolithics) in thick
273 amalgamated sandstone packages (Fig. 6D) is also attributed to soft-sediment deformation. The
274 shale is grey in colour and shows cleavage, while sandstones have often a reddish-pinkish colour.

275 The Pelagus Member represents proximal turbidites with abundant Bouma A and B units. The
276 Pelagus Member is dominated throughout the succession by thick amalgamated sandstone beds
277 that represent debrites.

278 *5.5. Metah Member*

279 The Metah Member consists of interbedded shale, siltstones and sandstones. In contrast to the
280 Pelagus Member the abundance of thick sandstone beds decreases and shale and mudstone
281 dominate. The Metah Member is tightly folded and dips steeply to the south and north (Fig. 6E). The
282 member is almost unmetamorphosed or metamorphosed at a lower grade compared to the other
283 members of the Belaga Formation.

284 Typical successions are composed of: 1) Thick beds of grey shale (a few metres thick) (Fig. 6F), 2)
285 interbedded shales and siltstones with variable thickness. The shale is commonly interbedded with
286 thin (2-3 cm) layers of siltstones and sandstones. The sandstones are variable in thickness (20-40 cm)

287 and generally show variable thickening and thinning across the succession and 3) thickly interbedded
288 sandstones (up to 2 metres) with minor shale.

289 The thicker beds are usually coarse grained lighter coloured amalgamated sandstones with scoured
290 bases (Fig. 6G). Occasionally clast-supported conglomerates, consisting of clasts of mudstone within
291 a matrix of sand, were also deposited (mudflake conglomerates). In the Upper Rajang River area, the
292 Metah Member is represented by fine to medium grained sandstone (up to 30 cm thick) interbedded
293 with 15 cm thick shales.

294 The Metah Member represents return to a quieter environment with deposition of distal turbidites
295 with Bouma C, D and E units, similar to those of the Layar and lower Kapit Members of the Belaga
296 Formation. However, thick amalgamated sandstone beds indicate deposition of debrites between
297 intervals of distal turbidites.

298 *5.6. Bawang Member*

299 The Bawang Member is exposed in deeply weathered sections in the Tatau area, separated from
300 other Rajang Group members. The top appears to be an unconformity and is overlain by the
301 Tunggal-Rangsi Conglomerate (Fig. 6I). The Bawang Member consists predominantly of shale that is
302 commonly interbedded with siltstones and sandstones (Fig. 6H). Calcareous shales were also
303 observed. The sandstones contain laminations of dark coloured mudstone. However, thicker (up to
304 30 cm) sandstones were also observed that are interpreted as amalgamated beds. The shales of the
305 Bawang Member are usually metamorphosed and bedding is cut by cleavage. The sandstones have
306 commonly scoured bases, indicating erosion into the underlying beds.

307 The predominance of shale shows the Bawang Member represents a quiet environment with
308 deposition of distal turbidites; amalgamated sandstone beds indicate input of debrites between
309 quieter intervals.

310 **6. Petrography**

311 *6.1. Light mineral detrital modes*

312 Light mineral compositions for all samples are displayed in Table 1. Most samples are quartz-
313 dominated with abundant lithic fragments of various origins and both feldspar varieties. Samples
314 with matrix proportions of 0-15% are mainly classed as sublitharenite or subarkose in the QFL
315 diagram of Pettijohn et al. (1987) and samples with 15-75% as lithic or feldspathic greywacke (Fig. 7).
316 Samples from the Lupar Formation and Layar Member are predominantly lithic greywackes or
317 sublitharenites characterised by high matrix content and an abundance of lithic fragments. Samples
318 from the lower Kapit Member are sublitharenites to subarkoses with abundant lithic fragments. In

319 contrast, the Pelagus and upper Kapit Member samples are predominantly subarkoses with feldspar
320 more abundant than lithic fragments and low proportions of matrix. The Metah Member samples
321 are sublitharenites or lithic arenites characterised by low proportions of matrix similar to the Pelagus
322 Member, but with lithic fragments more abundant than feldspar. The two samples from the Bawang
323 Member are a lithic arkose and feldspathic greywacke and are the most feldspathic of the data set.

324 Provenance from the light mineral assemblage is displayed on the QFL and QmFLt diagrams of
325 Dickinson et al. (1983). The samples cluster in the recycled orogenic field in the QFL diagram (Fig. 7).
326 Provenance of the samples in the QmFLt diagram cluster around the mixed field, with some samples
327 fall into the dissected arc and transitional recycled field (Fig. 7). Polycrystalline quartz and
328 metamorphic lithic fragments indicate a metamorphic source. Volcanic quartz and lithic fragments
329 show input of volcanic material. Sedimentary lithic fragments reveal recycling of previous
330 sedimentary cover including cherts which may be deep marine or diagenetic.

331 *6.2. Textures*

332 Sandstones from the Rajang Group generally contain sub-angular to sub-rounded grains with a few
333 angular and rounded grains. Their high quartz contents and the low abundance of feldspars and
334 lithic grains indicates compositional maturity but the angular to sub-angular grain shape observed in
335 many samples implies textural immaturity. The apparent compositional maturity may partly reflect
336 breakdown of unstable grains (Cummins, 1962) or diagenesis (Williams et al., 1954; Allen, 1964),
337 both likely in a tropical setting (Sevastjanova et al., 2012).

338 *6.3. Heavy minerals*

339 Heavy minerals from the Lupar and Belaga Formation are shown in transmitted light (Fig. 8) and
340 backscattered SEM (Fig. 9A and B) images. Heavy mineral counts are listed in Table 2.1 and
341 percentages are in Table 2.2.

342 *6.3.1. Lupar Formation*

343 One sample of the Lupar Formation (TB39) was analysed (Fig. 10A). It is dominated (80.5%) by ultra-
344 stable zircon which includes colourless and pink varieties with predominantly subhedral to
345 subrounded grain shapes. The remaining 19.5% of heavy minerals include rutile, brookite, anatase,
346 garnet, titanite, tourmaline, epidote, chrome spinel, pyroxene and chlorite.

347 *6.3.2. Layar Member*

348 Samples TB40 and TB179b were analysed from the Layar Member. TB179b is dominated by
349 tourmaline (74.2%), zircon (24.2%) and rutile (1.3%). TB40 also contains tourmaline (47.2%), zircon

350 (45.2%) and rutile (2.6%), but also garnet (3.0%), chlorite (1.0%) and chrome spinel (0.7%). In both
351 samples traces of epidote (0.3%) were observed. Tourmaline is predominantly brown in both
352 samples. Zircon is mostly colourless euhedral, subhedral and anhedral grains. Both samples contain
353 purple zircon. The Layar Member is dominated by tourmaline and zircon (Fig. 10A) with small
354 amounts of rutile, in marked contrast to the zircon-dominated Lupar Formation.

355 6.3.3. *Kapit Member*

356 Samples TB189a, TB43 (both from the western road section) and TB238 (interior Rajang River
357 section) were analysed from the Kapit Member (Fig. 10A). There is a marked change from a
358 tourmaline-zircon-dominated assemblage in the south (lower Kapit Member) to a zircon-dominated
359 assemblage in the upper Kapit Member. TB189a is from the lower part of the Kapit Member and
360 resembles the Layar Member with tourmaline (57.0%), zircon (41.0%) and rutile (2.0%). TB43 and
361 TB238 are from the upper part of the Kapit Member and both are dominated by zircon. TB43b
362 contains zircon (77.4%), tourmaline (8.2%), chlorite (7.2%), garnet (3.9%), chrome spinel (1.3%),
363 apatite (1.0%), rutile (0.7%) and epidote (0.3%). TB238 has zircon (73.9%), tourmaline (17.3%), rutile
364 (4.9%), garnet (1.3%), apatite (2.3%) and epidote (0.3%). In all Kapit Member samples tourmaline is
365 mostly brown. Morphologies of zircon are diverse and include colourless euhedral, anhedral,
366 subrounded, and rounded types. Purple zircons are present in all three samples.

367 6.3.4. *Pelagus Member*

368 Pelagus Member samples TB44 and TB197a were sampled from the western road section and TB241
369 was sampled in the interior (Fig. 10A). TB44 is the oldest sample from the Pelagus Member and
370 contains zircon (71.1%), garnet (13.2%), tourmaline (11.5%), rutile (3.0%), epidote (0.7%) and traces
371 (0.3%) of chrome spinel and monazite. TB197a contains only zircon (79.1%), tourmaline (17.3%) and
372 rutile (3.6%). The inland sample, TB241, contains zircon (78.7%), tourmaline (9.3%), apatite (7.3%),
373 garnet (2.7%), rutile (0.7%) and epidote (0.3%). Tourmaline is predominantly brown and is the Mg
374 end-member dravite. Zircons are diverse, including colourless and some purple euhedral, anhedral
375 and subhedral, and subrounded to rounded types.

376 6.3.5. *Metah Member*

377 Samples TB195 and TB203a were collected close to each other from the Metah Member along the
378 western road section (Fig. 10A). TB195 is stratigraphically higher than TB203a. TB195 contains zircon
379 (60.0%), tourmaline (38.0%), rutile (1.7%) and garnet (0.3%). TB203a is almost identical and contains
380 zircon (57.3%), tourmaline (37.0%) and rutile (4.7%). Tourmaline is predominantly a brown variety,

381 similar to other members. Zircon types are diverse, but most commonly are colourless subrounded,
382 colourless anhedral and colourless rounded.

383 *6.3.6. Bawang Member*

384 Two samples were analysed from the Bawang Member and both are dominated by zircon. TB47,
385 from the lower part of the Bawang Member (Fig. 10A), contains zircon (77.9%), tourmaline (15.5%),
386 rutile (0.6%), garnet (5.7%) and epidote (0.3%). Higher in the Bawang Member rutile becomes more
387 abundant and TB199a is composed of zircon (71.0%), tourmaline (17.0%), rutile (6.3%), garnet (4.3%)
388 and chlorite (1.3%). The Bawang Member is dominated by euhedral to subhedral zircon.

389 *6.4. Heavy mineral ratios*

390 The commonly used indices of Morton and Hallsworth (1994) were not used for the samples
391 analysed, because of the low abundance or absence of most heavy minerals except the ultra-stable
392 minerals. The zircon-tourmaline index (ZTR) of Hubert (1962) and the zircon-tourmaline ratio (ZTi)
393 (e.g. Mange and Wright, 2007) are more useful (Fig. 10B). The ZTR index is interpreted to indicate
394 composition and maturity of the heavy mineral assemblage, while the ZTi ratio reflects
395 transportation due to the density differences of the two minerals (e.g. Mange and Wright, 2007).
396 The abundance of Ti minerals varies but identifying them consistently can be difficult and their
397 abundance can be affected by authigenic growth of brookite and anatase as well as secondary rutile
398 needle growth. All heavy mineral indices are displayed in Table 3.

399 ZTR of all samples is very high, ranging from 85 to 100, indicating the maturity of the heavy mineral
400 assemblage (Fig. 10B). ZTi shows some very interesting variations through the succession (Fig. 10B).
401 The ZTi of the Lupar Formation is 93.6 but drops significantly to 24.6-48.93 in the Layar Member. The
402 lower Kapit Member has a similar ZTi of 41.8. The upper Kapit Member and the overlying Pelagus
403 Member samples have high ZTi values above 80. The Metah Member samples have a significantly
404 lower ZTi of c. 61. The Bawang Member samples have ZTi values of about 80 similar to the upper
405 Kapit and Pelagus Members. These variations could be related to source differences. Alternatively,
406 low ZTi values for the Layar Member, lower Kapit Member and the Metah Member could reflect
407 hydraulic sorting, potentially related to a long transport distance and/or high energy environment,
408 whereas the higher ZTi values could be a result of shorter transport distance or lower energy
409 environments.

410 *6.5. Zircon varietal studies*

411 The zircons in the Lupar and Belaga Formations are colourless, purple, brown and yellow. Colourless
412 zircons are most abundant, followed by purple, brown and yellow zircons. Fig. 9B displays

413 backscattered SEM images of zircon varieties observed in the Rajang Group. All types occur as
414 rounded and non-rounded grains indicating a mixture of less and greater recycled material. Euhedral
415 zircons are less than 10% of the total and elongate zircons are present in small numbers. The
416 euhedral and elongate zircons represent first/few cycle zircons. Tab. 2 displays percentage of
417 angular to rounded zircon varieties. Samples from the Lupar Formation and the Layar Member have
418 abundant rounded zircons (41.1 to 51.6%). The lower Kapit Member sample is dominated by angular
419 zircons (68.3%). Samples from the upper Kapit and Pelagus Member have predominantly angular
420 zircons (54.5 to 79.7%), while samples from the Metah Member show a significant amount of
421 rounded zircons (45.6 to 53.5%). Angular zircons dominate again in samples from the Bawang
422 Member (70.4%).

423 **7. U-Pb Geochronology**

424 *7.1. Lupar Formation*

425 114 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 130 zircon grains (Fig. 11) in a lithic greywacke
426 sample (TB39). There are 95 Phanerozoic and 19 Proterozoic ages ranging from 70 ± 1 Ma
427 (Maastrichtian, Late Cretaceous) to 2457 ± 22 Ma (Paleoproterozoic). The major age populations are
428 Cretaceous, Permo-Triassic and around 1.8 Ga. The Cretaceous population is the largest and has a
429 major peak between 110 and 130 Ma. The Permian-Triassic population ranges from around 210 to
430 270 Ma with a major peak between 240 to 260 Ma. There are a small number of Jurassic and
431 Carboniferous to Ordovician ages. The major Proterozoic peak at 1.8 Ga is accompanied by a few
432 grains with ages at around 800 to 900 Ma, at 2.1 Ga and at 2.4 Ga. The Mesozoic and Paleozoic
433 zircons are dominated by subrounded grains indicating moderate recycling with subordinate
434 euhedral and rounded zircons. Proterozoic zircons are mainly rounded and are interpreted as the
435 product of multiple recycling.

436 *7.2. Belaga Formation*

437 *7.2.1. Layar Member*

438 126 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 135 zircon grains of sample TB40 from the lower part
439 of the Layar Member (Fig. 11). This sample is similar to TB39 of the Lupar Formation. There are 92
440 Phanerozoic, 31 Proterozoic and 3 Archean ages from 76 ± 1 Ma (Campanian, Late Cretaceous) to
441 2841 ± 10 Ma (Archean). There are prominent Cretaceous and Triassic populations. The Cretaceous
442 peak is the largest with a major peak between 110 and 130 Ma. There are a small number of Jurassic
443 and Permian to Cambrian ages. Precambrian grains are abundant with peaks at c. 0.55, 1.1 and 1.8

444 Ga. Mesozoic zircon grains are predominantly euhedral and subrounded, while Proterozoic and
445 Archean grains are mostly rounded.

446 74 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 92 zircon grains of sample TB179a from the upper part
447 of the Layar Member (Fig. 11). There are 41 Phanerozoic and 33 Proterozoic ages from 71 ± 1 Ma
448 (Campanian, Late Cretaceous) to 2617 ± 33 Ma (Archean). There is a large Cretaceous population
449 with prominent peaks at 80-90 Ma and 110-130 Ma. A mainly Triassic population is present at 200-
450 260 Ma. There are a few Jurassic, Permian, and Devonian to Cambrian grains. Precambrian grains
451 account for almost 45% of the total number of grains. Proterozoic ages have prominent peaks at c.
452 0.55, 0.8, 1.1, 1.8, and 2.5 Ga.

453 *7.2.2. Lower Kapit Member*

454 118 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 124 grains (Fig. 11) in the western lower Kapit
455 Member sample (TB189a). There are 79 Phanerozoic and 40 Proterozoic ages from 50.7 ± 0.7 (Early
456 Eocene) to 3004 ± 78 Ma (Archean). Again the sample is noteworthy for the almost 33% of
457 Precambrian grains. Like samples from the Layar Member there is a large Cretaceous population
458 with prominent peaks between 80-150 Ma with maximum at 90-110 Ma and a smaller Permo-
459 Triassic population. There are a small number of Jurassic grains, one Ordovician and one Cambrian
460 grain. Precambrian ages have peaks at c. 0.55, 0.8-1.3, 1.5-2.0, and 2.5-2.6 Ga. Mesozoic grains,
461 particular Cretaceous, are euhedral and show only minor rounding. Precambrian grains are usually
462 subrounded to well-rounded and often have a pinkish colour.

463 *7.2.3. Upper Kapit Member*

464 109 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 117 grains from sample TB238 (Fig. 12). There are 83
465 Phanerozoic and 26 Proterozoic ages from 83 ± 1 Ma (Santonian, Late Cretaceous) to 2595 ± 36 Ma
466 (Archean). This is the lowest sample in a group dominated by Cretaceous and Jurassic ages with few
467 Permo-Triassic grains compared to stratigraphically lower samples. There is a major Cretaceous
468 population with a peak between 110-120 Ma and a smaller Jurassic population at 140-160 Ma. There
469 is a small Permian-Triassic population between 220-310 Ma and a number of Paleozoic ages from
470 Carboniferous to Cambrian with a small Silurian peak at c. 430-440 Ma. Precambrian ages are similar
471 to stratigraphically lower samples, but in reduced numbers and only 22% of the grains are
472 Precambrian. Proterozoic ages have only one peak at c. 1.8 Ga. Grains are predominantly
473 subrounded and euhedral.

474 The change towards a Cretaceous-dominated population continues in TB43b (Fig. 12), sampled
475 almost at the top of the Kapit Member. A total of 57 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 78
476 grains which range from 50 ± 4 Ma (Early Eocene) to 491 ± 4 Ma (Cambrian). Sample TB43b contains

477 predominantly Cretaceous zircons with a major peak at c. 120 Ma and a moderate number of
478 Jurassic grains (140-200 Ma). There is a small number of Triassic to Cambrian grains with a minor
479 peak at 420 Ma. In contrast to the samples lower in the Rajang Group there are no Precambrian
480 grains. Most grains are euhedral with only minor rounding.

481 *7.2.4. Pelagus Member*

482 Two samples of the Pelagus Member were analysed; one from the western road section (TB193) and
483 one from the interior (TB241). Both samples are dominated by Cretaceous ages (Fig. 12) and are
484 similar to sample TB43b of the upper Kapit Member. 109 concordant U-Pb ages from 118 grains of
485 sample TB193 range from 41 ± 1 Ma (Middle Eocene) to 1992 ± 94 (Paleoproterozoic). 90 concordant
486 U-Pb ages from 113 grains were obtained from sample TB241 ranging from 78 ± 2 Ma (Stage, Late
487 Cretaceous) to 2465 ± 91 Ma (Paleoproterozoic). Apart from Cretaceous ages there are a small
488 number of Jurassic and Permian-Triassic ages, and a few older Phanerozoic grains. The samples are
489 distinctive because of the very small numbers of Precambrian ages (6%). The zircons are usually
490 euhedral with a few subrounded grains.

491 *7.2.5. Metah Member*

492 Samples TB203a and TB195 from the Metah Member were collected on the western road section. In
493 contrast to the upper Kapit and Pelagus Member it contains diverse zircon age populations (Fig. 13),
494 and resembles the lower group of samples from the Lupar Formation and the Layar and lower Kapit
495 Members.

496 98 concordant ages were obtained from 104 grains in TB203a (Fig. 13) in which the youngest grain is
497 Middle Eocene (44.4 ± 0.6 Ma) and the oldest 2724 ± 90 Ma (Archean). The most prominent
498 populations are Cretaceous with a peak at 90-120 Ma with a Permo-Triassic population with a peak
499 at 210-260 Ma. The Permo-Triassic population is larger than the Cretaceous population. There are a
500 few Jurassic grains and a small number of grains from Carboniferous to Ordovician. The sample has a
501 high proportion of Precambrian ages (36% of the grains analysed). The major peak at 1.8 Ga is
502 accompanied by widely scattered Proterozoic and Archean ages.

503 Sample TB195 yielded 121 concordant ages from 129 grains (Fig. 13). There are 81 Phanerozoic, 34
504 Proterozoic and 6 Archean ages from the youngest age of 81 ± 1 Ma (Campanian, Late Cretaceous)
505 to the oldest age of 2706 ± 8 Ma (Archean). Like TB203a the most prominent populations are
506 Cretaceous with a peak at 90-120 Ma and a Permo-Triassic population with a peak at 210-260 Ma.
507 The Permo-Triassic population is similar in numbers to the Cretaceous population. There is also a
508 small Late Jurassic peak. Minor Paleozoic ages range from Permian to Ordovician, with a small
509 Silurian peak. The Precambrian ages have a major peak at 1.8 Ga accompanied by smaller peaks 0.8-

510 0.9, 1.7 and 2.5 Ga. Both samples are dominated by subrounded to rounded zircons. Mesozoic
511 zircons are both euhedral and subrounded. Proterozoic zircons are mainly well-rounded.

512 *7.2.6. Bawang Member*

513 Sample TB199a was collected from the Bawang Member of the Belaga Formation in the Tatau area
514 below the unconformity overlain by the Tunggai-Rangsi Conglomerate. Sample TB47 came from the
515 Bawang Member in the Sungai Bawang area. The Bawang Member samples contrast sharply with the
516 Metah Member samples, but resemble the upper Kapit and Pelagus Member samples, in being
517 dominated by Cretaceous zircons with very few Precambrian grains (Fig. 13).

518 141 concordant ages were obtained from 141 grains in sample TB47 (Fig. 13). There are 133
519 Phanerozoic and only 8 Precambrian ages with a youngest age of 79 ± 1 Ma (Campanian, Late
520 Cretaceous) and an oldest age of 2450 ± 11 Ma (Paleoproterozoic). Cretaceous-Jurassic and Triassic
521 ages are the most abundant. The Cretaceous has a major peak between 110 and 130 Ma and the
522 Triassic at c. 230 Ma. Between them is a Late Jurassic peak at 150-170 Ma. The few Proterozoic ages
523 have a peak at c. 1.8 Ga.

524 110 concordant U-Pb ages were obtained from 114 zircon grains of sample TB199a (Fig. 13). There
525 are 100 Phanerozoic and 10 Proterozoic ages ranging from 103 ± 2 Ma (Albian, Early Cretaceous) to
526 1886 ± 11 Ma (Paleoproterozoic). An Early Cretaceous population has a major peak between 120 and
527 140 Ma and there is a Jurassic population with a major peak between 150 and 160 Ma. There are a
528 small number of Triassic grains and one Cambrian grain. Like TB47 the few Proterozoic ages have a
529 peak at c. 1.8 Ga. The Cretaceous and Jurassic zircons are dominated by subrounded and rounded
530 grains with a small number of euhedral zircons, indicating recycling of most grains. Older grains are
531 typically subrounded to rounded and are interpreted to indicate multiple recycling.

532 **8. Discussion**

533 *8.1. Depositional environment, deformation and metamorphism*

534 The original mapping of the Rajang Group showed it had a deep marine character (Haile, 1957; Kirk,
535 1957; Wolfenden, 1960; Liechti et al., 1960). The Rajang Group is now interpreted to be dominated
536 by turbidites (Hutchison, 1996) deposited in a submarine fan (Tongkul, 1997; Bakar et al., 2007).
537 Observations made during this study support these interpretations. Turbidite sandstones have
538 scoured bases, grading and parallel lamination. Linked debrites are commonly represented by
539 amalgamated sandstones with mud clasts. Macrofossils and microfossils are rare which may indicate
540 a stressed environment or they may have been removed during deformation or metamorphism.

541 Slump structures and other indications of syn-sedimentary deformation are common. Wolfenden
542 (1960) observed that deformation in the Rajang Group could not be due to a single orogenic event
543 and may be related to syn-depositional deformation. Large folds are common and are interpreted as
544 slump structures resulting from gravity-driven syn-depositional movements on slope. Bakar et al.
545 (2007) reported deformation features to be more common in the older Pelagus Member near Sibu
546 compared to parts of the Belaga Formation further north in the Tatau region (Metah and Bawang
547 Members).

548 The main differences are small variations in sandstone abundance and type. The Pelagus Member is
549 more arenaceous whereas the Layar, Kapit, Metah and Bawang Members are generally shale
550 dominated. The interior of Sarawak remains remote, largely inaccessible and almost uninvestigated
551 since the pioneering work of the 1950s and 1960s but fieldwork during this study and SRTM images
552 suggest thicker and more proximal sandstone bodies there, compared to exposures close to the
553 coast. The western exposures sampled in this study are typically thinner bedded and have a more
554 distal character than outcrops in the interior where thick amalgamated sandstone packages indicate
555 high sedimentation rates with sedimentary structures indicating rapid deposition. This indicates a
556 transition from proximal to distal from east to west within the Rajang Group. Thus, the main input of
557 sediment is likely to have been from the south and southeast.

558 A large part of the Rajang Group has undergone low grade metamorphism. The Lupar Formation,
559 Layar and Kapit Members typically consist of indurated metasandstones and low grade schists.
560 Cleavage is well developed and quartz veining is common, especially in the Lupar Formation and
561 Layar Member. Metamorphism becomes less obvious in the Pelagus and Metah Members, and
562 cleavage and quartz veining become subordinate to absent in the upper members of the Rajang
563 Group. There is also an apparent along-strike trend from west to east towards a higher grade of
564 metamorphism in the interior of the Sibu Zone in contrast to western sections.

565 It is noteworthy that the isolated northernmost exposures of the Rajang Group assigned to the
566 Bawang Member are indurated metasandstones and well cleaved phyllites. This is inconsistent with
567 the inferred young age of this member.

568 *8.2. New subdivisions*

569 As observed above, the Rajang Group has been described as a monotonous flysch group locally
570 metamorphosed to lower greenschist facies (Hutchison, 1996). In the original mapping it was
571 recognised that identification of different members was only approximately possible, and was based
572 partly on lithological characteristics and partly on limited paleontological data (Liechti et al., 1960).
573 Subdivision of the Rajang Group in the field remains difficult. Fossils are rare, and low grade

574 metamorphism means microfossils are unlikely to be found in pelitic beds. Sandstones have similar
575 quartz-rich compositions and lithological differences mainly reflect variations in depositional
576 environments in a long-lived submarine fan, modified by tropical processes. However, the heavy
577 mineral assemblages and detrital zircon ages do provide the basis for subdivision of the Rajang
578 Group, which is largely consistent with the ages previously proposed, offer answers to some
579 speculations about previous uncertainties in stratigraphy, and give insights into changing sediment
580 sources from the Late Cretaceous to Late Eocene. These units proposed in this study are consistent
581 with the original mapping and dating by Milroy (1953), Haile (1957), Kirk (1957), Wolfenden (1960)
582 and Liechti et al. (1960).

583 We propose a new three-fold classification of the Rajang Group based on heavy mineral
584 assemblages and detrital zircon ages. Table 4 summarises the new subdivisions of the Rajang Group.
585 Unit 1 is composed of the Lupar Formation, Layar Member and lower part of the Kapit Member. Unit
586 2 is exposed north of the Rajang River and includes the upper Kapit Member and the Pelagus
587 Member. Unit 3 is the Metah Member in the northernmost part of the Rajang Group in the Sibu
588 Zone. The Bawang Member is exposed in windows within the Miri Zone separated from the rest of
589 the Rajang Group in the Sibu Zone and is discussed further below, but we consider it to be probably
590 the equivalent of Unit 2, but possibly an equivalent of Unit 1. It is not an equivalent of the Metah
591 Member (our Unit 3) as previously speculated and is not the youngest part of the Rajang Group. Fig.
592 14 displays a SRTM image of the Sibu Zone showing the distribution of the proposed units. The
593 boundary between Units 1 and 2 is in an area between the Sebangkoi lineament and the Rajang
594 River lineament which is unsampled because of lack of exposures. The top of Unit 2 is the Bakun
595 lineament (named here after the Bakun dam). The Bukit Mersing Line marks the top of Unit 3 and
596 also the boundary with the Miri Zone.

597 *8.3. Heavy Minerals*

598 Heavy mineral assemblages are dominated by the ultra-stable minerals zircon, tourmaline and rutile,
599 with small percentages of garnet, chlorite, apatite, epidote and rare chrome spinel. The three units
600 have distinctive heavy mineral assemblages. Unit 1 has a zircon-dominated assemblage in the single
601 sample of the Lupar Formation at the base, but other samples are characterised by a
602 tourmaline+zircon-dominated assemblage. In Unit 2 zircon is the most abundant heavy mineral, and
603 tourmaline is less abundant, but the subsidiary heavy minerals are more varied than in Unit 1 and
604 there is more garnet and apatite. Unit 3 resembles Unit 1 in its tourmaline+zircon-dominated
605 assemblage. The heavy mineral assemblage of the Bawang Member is zircon-dominated, and
606 resembles Unit 2 and the Lupar Formation at the base of Unit 1.

607 *8.4. Depositional ages*

608 *8.4.1. Unit 1*

609 **Lupar Formation**

610 Maastrichtian foraminifera ages were reported by Milroy (1953) and Tan (1979). The sample from
611 the lower part of the Lupar Formation and therefore the lowermost part of the Rajang Group has a
612 minimum depositional age, based on the youngest zircon, of 70 ± 1 Ma (Maastrichtian, Late
613 Cretaceous). Other Late Cretaceous zircons are Campanian (84-72 Ma).

614 **Layar Member**

615 Liechti et al. (1960) suggested an age range of Turonian to Maastrichtian for the Layar Member
616 supported later by foraminifera data (Tan, 1979). Hutchison (2005) argued that the foraminifera
617 data used by Liechti et al. (1960) suggested a Cenomanian to Turonian age. The youngest zircon age
618 from the Layar Member of 71 ± 1 Ma indicates a minimum depositional age of Maastrichtian, similar
619 to the Lupar Formation sample. Abundant Campanian zircons confirm the Late Cretaceous age. This
620 clearly rules out Hutchison's proposal and supports the age estimates of Liechti et al. (1960) and Tan
621 (1979).

622 **Lower Kapit Member**

623 A Paleocene to Early Eocene age was assigned to the Kapit Member based on foraminifera
624 (Wolfenden, 1960; Liechti et al., 1960). The youngest zircons from the lower Kapit Member are Early
625 Eocene (50.7 ± 0.7 Ma). Other Cenozoic zircons are of Paleocene age.

626 *8.4.2. Unit 2*

627 **Upper Kapit Member**

628 The youngest zircon from the upper Kapit Member is Early Eocene (50 ± 4 Ma in sample TB43b)
629 similar to the lower Kapit Member.

630 **Pelagus Member**

631 The Pelagus Member was suggested by Liechti et al. (1960) to be Middle to Upper Eocene. Hutchison
632 (2005) used data from Wolfenden (1960) to suggest that the Pelagus Member was Lower to Middle
633 Eocene. The youngest zircons dated in this study from the Pelagus Member are 41 ± 1 Ma (Middle
634 Eocene). This age is consistent with the interpretations of both Liechti et al. (1960) and Hutchison
635 (2005).

636 *8.4.3. Unit 3*

637 **Metah Member**

638 Based on paleontological work by Liechti et al. (1960) and Wolfenden (1960) the Metah Member
639 was considered to be younger than the Pelagus Member and suggested to be Upper Eocene,
640 although neither member was very precisely dated. Hutchison (2005) suggested the Metah Member
641 was Middle to Upper Eocene, based on paleontological data from Kirk (1957). The youngest zircon
642 from the Metah Member is 44.4 ± 1.3 Ma (Middle Eocene) which is slightly older than the youngest
643 zircon (41 ± 1 Ma) from the underlying Pelagus Member. The zircon ages cannot distinguish between
644 the different interpretations of Liechti et al. (1960) and Hutchison (2005).

645 *8.4.4. Bawang Member*

646 The stratigraphic position of the Bawang Member is unknown as no age diagnostic fossils have been
647 found in it but it was speculated to be an equivalent of the Metah Member (Liechti et al., 1960). The
648 youngest zircon of the Bawang Member is 76 ± 1 Ma and significantly older than the youngest zircon
649 in the Metah Member. The zircon age populations from the Bawang Member samples are distinctive
650 and quite different from the Metah Member (Fig. 13). They resemble those of Unit 2 (Pelagus and
651 upper Kapit Member) in the abundance of Cretaceous zircons with very few Precambrian grains.
652 TB199a is almost identical to Pelagus Member samples, but TB47 has a large number of Triassic
653 zircons similar to those found, although less abundantly, in Units 1 and 3 (Lupar Formation, Layar,
654 Kapit and Metah Members). However, abundant Triassic zircons in those samples are usually
655 accompanied by Permian, older Paleozoic and large numbers of Precambrian grains, which is not the
656 case for TB47. The Bawang Member samples also differ from other Rajang Group samples in having a
657 relatively large number of Jurassic zircons. The zircon ages indicate only a maximum depositional age
658 of Late Cretaceous (Campanian) for the Bawang Member and do not resolve its stratigraphic position
659 in the Rajang Group. However, the detrital zircon ages indicate it is unlikely to be a deeper water
660 equivalent of the Metah Member as speculated by Liechti et al. (1960). As noted above, the
661 presence of a cleavage in the Bawang Member is also inconsistent with a young age for the Metah
662 Member.

663 *8.5. Provenance and sources*

664 Most sandstones are quartz-dominated, with abundant lithic fragments of plutonic, volcanic,
665 metamorphic or sedimentary origin and both feldspar varieties. The conventional light mineral plots
666 indicate a recycled orogenic provenance (Fig. 7) for most samples, but they give little insight into
667 likely sources beyond this. Furthermore, feldspar dissolution and breakdown of unstable lithic

668 fragments during transport, erosion and alluvial storage of sand in a humid tropical environment
669 (Suttner et al., 1981; Johnsson et al., 1988; Smyth et al., 2008; van Hattum et al., 2013) may have
670 altered the original composition significantly.

671 All samples from the Rajang Group are dominated by ultra-stable heavy minerals that indicate a
672 predominantly acid granitic source with a subsidiary metamorphic contribution. Zircons are the most
673 abundant heavy mineral in most samples. Rounded zircons with frosted surfaces and Paleozoic to
674 Precambrian ages indicate a recycled sedimentary provenance, whereas euhedral and subhedral
675 grains with Mesozoic ages are likely to have been derived directly, or with little recycling, from acid
676 igneous source rocks. The few chrome spinel grains in a small number of samples indicates very
677 minor input from ultrabasic/ophiolitic rocks. These could have been derived from rocks of the Lubok
678 Antu Melange now exposed in the Lupar Valley, also no ultramafic rocks are exposed (Haile et al.,
679 1994) or from the Boyan Melange that potentially underlie the Rajang Group. The dominance of
680 ultra-stable heavy minerals shows a compositional maturity which could be related to multiple
681 recycling, acid dissolution during transport and deposition or diagenesis, or low-grade metamorphic
682 processes, removing less stable minerals. The abundance of rounded zircon and tourmaline indicates
683 significant recycling.

684 The two dominant Phanerozoic age populations in the Rajang Group sandstones are Cretaceous and
685 Triassic but there are a few Paleogene grains in most samples.

686 *8.5.1. Paleogene zircons*

687 Paleogene zircons are likely derived from contemporaneous magmatism in Borneo. K-Ar ages
688 reported by Pieters et al. (1987), Bladon et al. (1989), de Keyser and Rustandi (1993), Pieters and
689 Sanyoto (1993) and Pieters et al. (1993) indicate minor localised magmatism in Central Borneo. The
690 very small number of Paleogene zircons indicates very limited magmatism at the time of deposition.
691 Therefore a submarine fan derived from an active subduction margin as shown in the model of
692 Hutchison (1996, 2005) is not supported. A much more diverse heavy mineral assemblage and
693 immature light mineral composition would also be expected if the Rajang Group was sourced by an
694 active magmatic arc.

695 *8.5.2. Cretaceous zircons*

696 The Schwaner Mountains region was potentially a major source for the Rajang Group. K-Ar ages
697 from volcanic and magmatic rocks of the Schwaner Mountains were reported by Haile et al. (1977)
698 and Williams et al. (1988). Almost all zircons from the extensive granites of the Schwaner Mountains
699 and from the Pinoh Metamorphics in SW Borneo (Fig. 15) are Cretaceous (Davies, 2013; van Hattum
700 et al., 2013; Davies et al., 2014; Hennig et al., 2017). Ages range from c. 130 to 80 Ma which matches

701 well the Cretaceous zircon population in the Rajang Group. A distinctive feature of the Schwaner
702 region is the absence of Precambrian zircons. This also matches well to Unit 2, which could therefore
703 be explained by a single source.

704 Cretaceous granites of the Malay Peninsula are typically about 90 to 80 Ma (Searle et al., 2012;
705 Cottam et al., 2013) and could not account for the large number of older Cretaceous zircons in the
706 Rajang Group.

707 Abundant Cretaceous magmatism is reported from the Da Lat Zone in SE Vietnam (Nguyen et al.,
708 2004; Shellnut et al., 2013), and interpreted as the continuation of the same Paleo-Pacific
709 subduction magmatism that formed the Schwaner Mountain granites (Breitfeld et al., 2017; Hennig
710 et al., 2017). However, considering the distance from Sarawak we suggest it is unlikely that
711 significant input was derived from SE Vietnam (Fig. 15).

712 8.5.3. *Jurassic zircons*

713 Jurassic zircons that accompany Cretaceous zircons in smaller numbers could also be derived from
714 Borneo. Haile et al. (1977), van Hattum et al. (2013) and Davies et al. (2014) identified Jurassic
715 magmatism in the southern Schwaner Mountains. Hennig et al. (2017) reported Jurassic magmatism
716 in West Borneo (NW Schwaner Zone). Alternatively, Jurassic zircons could have been derived from
717 the Malay Peninsula. Clements et al. (2011) suggested that the Khorat Group of Thailand (Carter and
718 Moss, 1999) could have extended from Indochina into the Malay Peninsula where remnants of
719 terrestrial red beds are found locally (Fig. 15).

720 8.5.4. *Triassic zircons*

721 The area of NW Kalimantan and West Sarawak is the closest potential source for Triassic zircons in
722 the Rajang Group. Breitfeld et al. (2017) dated abundant Upper Triassic zircons from the Jagoi
723 Granodiorite and Triassic clastic sediments of the Sadong and Kuching Formations in West Sarawak.
724 Hennig et al. (2017) reported Triassic zircons from the northwestern Schwaner Mountains in
725 Kalimantan. Setiawan et al. (2013) suggested input of Triassic material from southern Borneo.

726 Other Triassic exposures in Borneo include the Busang Complex (Williams et al., 1988) interpreted as
727 allochthonous by Hennig et al. (2017). However, the size of the Busang Complex is too small to
728 account for significant input and it is also uncertain if the Busang Complex was exposed during the
729 Cenozoic.

730 An obvious potential source for Triassic zircons is the well-known and extensive Tin Belt granites of
731 the Malay Peninsula (Hutchison, 1977; Cobbing et al., 1986; Hutchison and Tan, 2009; Cottam et al.
732 2013). Searle et al. (2012) reported abundant Permian-Triassic zircons from granites. Detrital

733 Permian-Triassic zircons are abundant in modern river sands of the Malay Peninsula (Sevastjanova et
734 al., 2011). Van Hattum (2005) and van Hattum et al. (2006, 2013) suggested the Malay Peninsula was
735 the main source of Permo-Triassic zircons in the Crocker and Sapulut Formations in NW Sabah.
736 However, brown zircons are abundant in the Malay Peninsula and considered to be diagnostic of this
737 source region (Krähenbuhl, 1991; Sevastjanova, 2007), but are rare in the Belaga Formation and this
738 may indicate only limited input from there.

739 Indochina and SE China are possible source regions. Triassic zircons are reported from the Kontum
740 massif in Vietnam (Lan et al., 2003; Hieu et al., 2015) and central Vietnam/Laos/SE China/Hainan (Liu
741 et al., 2012; Vladimirov et al., 2012; Mao et al., 2013; Ishihara and Orihashi, 2014; Jiang et al., 2015;
742 Halpin et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2017). Burrett et al. (2014) reported abundant
743 Permian-Triassic zircons from northern Thailand and Arboit et al. (2016) from central Thailand. Usuki
744 et al. (2013) demonstrated the central part of Vietnam (NE Indochina) has a slightly different zircon
745 signature compared to the rest of Indochina, thus indicating if zircons were sourced from Indochina,
746 they were not derived from the northern part. The distance from north and northwest Indochina to
747 the Rajang Group is significant (Fig. 15) and a northern source is also inconsistent with the east to
748 west change from proximal to distal deposits in the fan, which indicates a southern input of
749 sediment. Thus, it is unlikely that these regions represented a major direct source.

750 *8.5.5. Precambrian zircons*

751 The immediate source of the various Precambrian grains is difficult to interpret as these have clearly
752 been reworked during multiple cycles. Breitfeld et al. (2017) reported abundant c. 1.8 Ga and some
753 c. 2.5 Ga zircons from the Triassic Kuching and Sadong Formations of West Sarawak. However, there
754 are almost no other Precambrian zircons in these formations and other sources are required to
755 explain the diverse Precambrian zircon populations within the Rajang Group. The Cretaceous
756 Pedawan Formation of West Sarawak and NW Kalimantan has slightly more diverse Precambrian
757 zircon ages (Breitfeld et al., 2017) and could be a potential nearby source.

758 Similar Paleoproterozoic zircon populations are also common in SE China (Liu et al., 2009; Chen and
759 Xing, 2013; Chen et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2016), East Malaya (Sevastjanova et al., 2011) and Vietnam
760 (Lan et al., 2001, 2003). Carter and Moss (1999) reported 1.8 Ga and 2.5 Ga zircons from the Khorat
761 Group in Thailand and Hara et al. (2013) dated detrital zircons of similar age from northern Thailand,
762 but other Precambrian ages are rare.

763 The most important Precambrian zircon age populations, besides 1.8 Ga and 2.5 Ga, in the Rajang
764 Group are c. 500 Ma, 800 Ma and 1.2 Ga. Abundant zircons of these ages are reported from Phuket
765 Island, southern Thailand (Burrett et al., 2014) and from central Thailand (Arboit et al., 2016). These

766 populations are also common in Cenozoic sediments in other parts of Sundaland. Clements and Hall
767 (2011) reported them from West Java, part of SW Borneo and Smyth et al. (2007) from East Java. A
768 Triassic sandstone from Sibumasu has comparable Precambrian zircon populations (Hall and
769 Sevastjanova, 2012), which could indicate that Precambrian zircons in the Rajang Group were
770 recycled from Sibumasu. Smyth et al. (2007) suggested that the East Java zircons were derived from
771 the Pinjara (500-800 Ma) and Albany-Fraser (1000-1300 Ma) orogens of western Australia.

772 *8.6. Paleogeography*

773 This study shows that the Rajang Group in Sarawak consists of three units with distinctive
774 provenance characteristics that indicate shifts in source material through time. Unit 1 was derived
775 from SW Borneo (Schwaner Mountains) and Sundaland (West Borneo or Malay Tin Belt), whereas
776 Unit 2 was sourced almost entirely from SW Borneo. Unit 3 was derived from a SW Borneo and
777 Sundaland source. Lower Mesozoic, Paleozoic and Precambrian zircons are usually subrounded to
778 rounded and indicate recycling from older sediments as important source. With time, the relative
779 importance of the two major sources fluctuated.

780 Based on the results in this study and previous paleontological dating, it is clear that the fan system
781 was active for at least 30 Ma from the Maastrichtian to the Middle/Late Eocene, with a major
782 contribution from southern Borneo. Massive amounts of sediment must have been transported by a
783 large river system. The actual observable fan size comprises the whole Sibu Zone (Central Sarawak)
784 with a length of c. 140 km and a width of c. 450 km, covering an area of c. 6.3×10^4 km². The Rajang
785 Group extends into north Sarawak and Sabah with equivalents in the Mulu and the Sapulut
786 Formations (Haile, 1962; Collenette, 1965; Tate, 1991). This indicates a much larger possible fan
787 width of up to c. 850 km and an area of c. 1.2×10^5 km². The Rajang Group also extends westwards
788 beneath offshore Sarawak (Madon, 1999; Mat-Zin, 2000) and could cover an even larger area. This
789 would make the Rajang Group submarine fan one of the largest ancient fans in the world (see
790 comparative data in Shanmugam, 2016). It is similar in size to some modern deep water fan systems
791 such as the Amazon, the Laurentian and the Mississippi (Shanmugam, 2016).

792 Fig. 15 displays the interpreted depositional area and provenance of the Rajang Group based on the
793 results of this study. During the Early Cretaceous, SW Borneo had been added to Sundaland (Hall,
794 2012; Hennig et al., 2017) and the Sibu Zone (Central Sarawak) was situated at the Sundaland margin
795 in the Late Cretaceous (Breitfeld et al., 2017). The Lupar Line probably formed the shelf edge with
796 mainly terrestrial sedimentation to the south, where sediments of the Kuching Zone were deposited
797 in a number of strike-slip basins, and the Rajang Group deep water fan to the north. We suggest the
798 Lupar Line was an important left-lateral strike-slip fault active during the deposition of the Rajang

799 Group and it could have linked to the latest Cretaceous to early Cenozoic thrusting in the Kampot
800 Fold Belt in SW Vietnam described by Fyhn et al. (2016).

801 Our results support models by Tan (1982) and Williams et al. (1988) that suggest a southern source
802 in Borneo. Sediment was derived from an elevated landmass to the south or southwest, eroding
803 mostly acid igneous (granitic) material. The Schwaner Mountains in SW Borneo and the area of NW
804 Kalimantan and West Sarawak are therefore likely source areas. The Schwaner granites and possible
805 sedimentary cover are the most likely source of Cretaceous zircons. Triassic zircons are most likely to
806 have come from the Malay Peninsula but the relatively small number of brown zircons, which are
807 typical of the Malay Peninsula granites, indicates a smaller contribution as suggested by van Hattum
808 et al. (2013). Zircon age populations, especially in Unit 2, resemble the Lower Eocene Sapulut
809 Formation in Sabah but its heavy mineral assemblage also includes apatite, garnet, tourmaline and
810 chrome spinel with pyroxene, amphibole and chloritoid (van Hattum, 2005; van Hattum et al., 2013).
811 This more immature assemblage probably reflects an important local ophiolite source in Sabah.

812 It is unlikely that Indochina or SE China was a direct source of sediment, e.g. via a proto-Mekong
813 River (e.g. Hutchison, 1996), considering the distance to Sarawak and the fact that the great rivers
814 flowing through Indochina result from much later India-Asia collision. Clements et al. (2011)
815 suggested a former larger extent of the Khorat Basin into the Gulf of Thailand and the Malay
816 Peninsula from which zircons with Indochina signature could have been recycled into the Rajang
817 Group (Fig. 15).

818 There is little evidence to support the suggestion by Hutchison (1996) that the Rajang Group is an
819 accretionary prism formed by south-directed subduction. Although zircons close to the depositional
820 age indicated by fossils are found in most samples, showing some contemporaneous magmatism,
821 they are not as abundant as would be expected from a subduction arc. Deformation and
822 metamorphism of the fan do not require collision and subduction. A plausible present-day
823 equivalent of the Rajang Group is the fold and thrust belt of offshore NW Sabah. Major toe-thrust
824 deformation is caused by down-slope gravity-driven collapse. The deformation observed in the deep
825 water sediments is attributed to syn-depositional processes (Hesse et al., 2010), such as large-scale
826 submarine landslides (Gee et al., 2007; Morley, 2007a), slumps and slides (McGilvery and Cook,
827 2003; Morley, 2007b, 2009). Significant sub-surface deformation and low grade metamorphism is
828 likely in the deeper parts of the sediment wedge. Studies of the offshore Niger delta (e.g. Corredor
829 et al., 2005) show extensional faults and thrusts at depths of several kilometres, where low grade
830 metamorphism would be expected. Deformation and development of cleavage within the Mesa
831 Central submarine fan in Mexico (Silva-Romo et al., 2000) is associated with displacement along a

832 major strike-slip fault. The Lupar Line could also be responsible for some deformation in the Rajang
833 Group.

834 Our results indicate the change in Sarawak from deep marine to terrestrial sedimentation marked by
835 the Rajang Unconformity occurred in the late Middle Eocene (approximately 40 Ma). After that time
836 onshore and offshore Sarawak was a shallow marine shelf. Uplift of the Rajang Group to form the
837 mountainous region of present-day central Borneo must have occurred relatively recently. Further
838 studies of the Neogene in NW Borneo are required to analyse this uplift history.

839 **9. Conclusions**

840 The Rajang Group is a large submarine fan, active for approximately 30 to 40 Ma, comparable in size
841 to major modern fans. It is dominated by turbidite deposits and debrites showing locally significant
842 syn-sedimentary deformation. The previous established subdivision into members based on slight
843 lithological differences is hard to apply. We propose a new three unit classification based on heavy
844 minerals and detrital zircon ages to subdivide a monotonous deep water sequence and show
845 changes in source in time.

846 Heavy minerals are dominated by ultrastable varieties. They indicate sources for the Rajang Group
847 were predominantly acid igneous rocks with subsidiary metamorphic and reworked sedimentary
848 rocks. There was very little input from ultrabasic/ophiolitic sources. Major sources for the Rajang
849 Group were the Schwaner Mountains in SW Borneo, Mesozoic clastic sediments and igneous rocks
850 of West Borneo and the Tin Belt of Sundaland. The importance of these sources fluctuated with
851 time.

852 The material derived from West Borneo and the Tin Belt is characterised by a mature tourmaline-
853 rutile-zircon heavy mineral assemblage. Detritus derived from the Schwaner Mountains was
854 dominated by zircons. The Bawang Member is not the equivalent of the Metah Member. This study
855 suggests that it is likely to be an equivalent of Unit 2 (Pelagus Member) or less probably the base of
856 Unit 1 (Lupar Formation).

857 Although rare zircons throughout the sequence indicate contemporaneous magmatism, the Rajang
858 Group was not formed in an active subduction margin setting. Intermittent magmatism in Borneo is
859 known throughout the Cenozoic and has continued in Sarawak at least into the Pliocene but the
860 cause is not clear.

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- 1172
- 1173

1174 **Figure captions**

1175 Fig. 1: Geological map of Borneo modified after Hall and Breifeld (2017), showing the extent of the
1176 Rajang Group in central Borneo. The research area in the Sibuan Zone (Central Sarawak) is marked with
1177 the box.

1178 Fig. 2: Geological map of Central Sarawak (Sibuan Zone) modified after Liechti et al. (1960), Heng
1179 (1992) and Pieters et al. (1993) with locations of samples used in this study. Bold samples have
1180 detrital zircon U-Pb ages.

1181 Fig. 3: Field photographs of the Lupar Formation and Layar Member. A – Alternations of fine to
1182 medium grained sandstone beds with thin layers of mudstone of the Lupar Formation (STB104).
1183 Inset figure: Close-up of the alternations. B – Slumping within alternations of sandstone and shale of
1184 the Lupar Formation (STB104). C – Alternations of slumped thick sandstone with shale and siltstone
1185 in the Layar Member (TB179). D – Close-up of the slump folds (TB179). E – Conglomerate bed
1186 composed of mud clasts within white amalgamated sandstone in the Layar Member (TB182). F –
1187 Close-up of the mudflake conglomerate in the Layar Member (TB182). G – Horizontal to rippled
1188 sandstone with thin mud layers in the Layar Member (TB182). H – Turbidite composed of Bouma A
1189 (graded sandstone) and B (horizontal laminated sandstone) above E (mudstone) in the Layar
1190 Member (TB183). I – Slate in the Layar Member (STB117).

1191 Fig. 4: Field photographs of the Kapit Member. A – Thick sandstone succession on top of mudstone-
1192 siltstone alternations at Bukit Sebangkoi in the lower Kapit Member (TB42). B – Sharp contact of
1193 thick sandstone succession with mudstone-siltstone alternations (TB42). C – Massive slumping in
1194 sandstone-siltstone-shale alternations in the upper Kapit Member (TB43). D – Load structures at the
1195 base of vertical meta-sandstone bed in the upper Kapit Member (TB238). E – Upright tight antiform
1196 in meta-sandstone beds of the upper Kapit Member (TB235).

1197 Fig. 5: Field photographs of the Pelagus Member. A – Alternation of sandstone and shale overlain by
1198 thick amalgamated sandstone with irregular base (TB44). B – Close-up of the irregular contact. C –
1199 Close-up of the thinly bedded sandstone-mudstone alternations. D – Ripple marks on the bedding
1200 plane at the top of a sandstone bed (TB191). E – Bioturbation in sandstone bed (TB193). F –
1201 Horizontal and ripple lamination (climbing ripples) in sandstone bed (TB191). G – Load casts at the
1202 base of sandstone bed (TB248). H – Thick amalgamated sandstone packages interbedded with
1203 mudstone at the Bukit Tanggi quarry (TB191).

1204 Fig. 6: Field photographs of the Pelagus, Metah and Bawang Members. A – Bioturbation and
1205 convolute bedding with in sandstone-mudstone alternations (heterolithics) of the Pelagus Member
1206 (TB193). B – Soft-sediment deformation within the Pelagus Member, resulting in polygonal normal

1207 faults within a sandstone bed (TB193). C – Mudflake conglomerate in the Pelagus Member
1208 composed of elongated mud clasts (TB193). D – Soft-sediment deformation in the Pelagus Member
1209 with irregular mudstone-sandstone alternations displaced along syn-sedimentary faults (TB193). E-
1210 Upright isoclinal fold within the Metah Member (TB196). F – Slumped alternations of thin shale and
1211 siltstone within the Metah Member (TB202). G – Amalgamated sandstone packages between thick
1212 shale and siltstone alternations in the Metah Member (TB203). Inset figure shows the erosive basal
1213 contact of the sandstone. H – Thick sandstone bed between thick siltstone-mudstone alternations
1214 (TB47). Inset figure shows the sharp to slight irregular contact of the thick sandstone with the
1215 siltstone-mudstone alternations. I – Moderately dipping shale-siltstone alternations of the Bawang
1216 Member unconformably overlain by the Tunggai-Rangsi Conglomerate (TB199). Inset figure shows a
1217 close-up of the shale-siltstone alternations of the Bawang Member.

1218 Fig. 7: QFL and QmFLt plots of framework detrital modes showing composition of Rajang Group
1219 sandstones. QFL diagram for classification for arkosic rocks (0-15% matrix) and for wackes (15-75%
1220 matrix) after Pettijohn et al. (1987). QFL and QmFLt diagram for provenance after Dickinson et al.
1221 (1983).

1222 Fig. 8: Photomicrographs of selected heavy minerals from the Rajang Group in plane polarised light.

1223 Fig. 9: Backscattered SEM images. Scale bar is 50 micron. A – Selected heavy mineral grains of the
1224 Rajang Group samples. B – Different zircon types from the Rajang Group samples.

1225 Fig. 10: Heavy mineral abundances in the Rajang Group sandstones. A – Variations shown as 100%
1226 vertical stacked area plots. B – ZTR (zircon-tourmaline-rutile) heavy mineral index and ZTi (zircon-
1227 tourmaline) ratio, showing significant variations that are interpreted as different provenance
1228 indicators.

1229 Fig. 11: U-Pb detrital zircon age histograms with probability density plot for samples of Lupar
1230 Formation, Layar Member and lower Kapit Member (Unit 1), which have Cretaceous, Permian-
1231 Triassic and Precambrian zircon populations. Histograms for each sample use a bin size of 10 Ma for
1232 Phanerozoic ages and 50 Ma for Precambrian ages.

1233 Fig. 12: U-Pb detrital zircon age histograms with probability density plot for samples of upper Kapit
1234 and Pelagus Member (Unit 2), showing major Cretaceous population. Histograms for each sample
1235 use a bin size of 10 Ma for Phanerozoic ages and 50 Ma for Precambrian ages.

1236 Fig. 13: U-Pb detrital zircon age histograms with probability density plot for samples of the Metah
1237 (Unit 3) and Bawang Member. Metah Member samples have Cretaceous, Permian-Triassic and
1238 Silurian and Precambrian populations. Bawang Member samples have abundant Cretaceous and

1239 Jurassic ages. Sample TB47 has also abundant Triassic ages. Histograms for each sample use a bin
1240 size of 10 Ma for Phanerozoic ages and 50 Ma for Precambrian ages.

1241 Fig. 14: SRTM image of Central Sarawak (Sibu Zone) showing major lineaments and the newly
1242 proposed subdivision for the Rajang Group.

1243 Fig. 15: Reconstruction of deposition and provenance of the Rajang Group in the Late Cretaceous to
1244 ?Late Eocene based on Smyth et al. (2007), Hall (2012), Hennig et al. (2016, 2017), Breiffeld et al.
1245 (2017) and this study. Rajang Unit 1 was sourced in the Late Cretaceous (Maastrichtian) to Early
1246 Eocene by the Schwaner Mountains, and West Borneo and the Malay Tin Belt. Rajang Unit 2 was
1247 predominantly sourced by the Schwaner Mountains in the Early to Middle Eocene. Rajang Unit 3 was
1248 sourced by the Schwaner Mountains, and West Borneo and the Malay Tin Belt in the Middle to ?Late
1249 Eocene. Note: The Bawang Member provenance is similar to Unit 2 or the base of Unit 1. It could
1250 indicate deposition in the Middle Eocene or in the Late Cretaceous. A Late Eocene age for this
1251 member is unlikely. Faults in Thailand (MPF, TPF, RF, KMF) after Watkinson et al. (2011), Morley
1252 (2012) and Fyhn et al. (2016). Khorat Basin/Plateau and equivalents in the Thai-Malay Peninsula
1253 after Clements et al. (2011) and Fyhn et al. (2016).

1254 **Table captions**

1255 Table 1: Light mineral modes for the Rajang Group samples in the Sibu Zone, Central Sarawak. (Qm =
1256 monocrystalline quartz, Qmu = monocrystalline undulatory quartz, Qv = volcanic quartz, Qp =
1257 polycrystalline quartz, Ch = chert, Fp = plagioclase, Fk = K-feldspar, Lm = metamorphic lithic
1258 fragments, Ls = sedimentary lithic fragments, Lv = volcanic lithic fragments, H = heavy mineral, Mt =
1259 matrix, Lithics (L) = Lm+Ls+Lv, Total lithics (Lt) = Lm+Ls+Lv+Qp+Ch, Total Qm = Qm+Qmu+Qv).
1260 (*considered to be Pelagus Member, but the location is in an area mapped by Heng (1992) as Metah
1261 Member)

1262 Table 2.1: Total heavy mineral counts of the Rajang Group samples in the Sibu Zone, Central
1263 Sarawak.

1264 Table 2.2: Heavy mineral percentages of the Rajang Group samples in the Sibu Zone, Central
1265 Sarawak.

1266 Table 3: Commonly used heavy mineral ratios and counts of heavy minerals for index calculation
1267 after Hubert (1962); Morton and Hallsworth (1994) and Mange and Wright (2007).

1268 Table 4: Summary of the new three-fold subdivision of the Rajang Group. Age incorporates zircon
1269 data of this study and previous paleontology published in Liechti et al. (1960) and Hutchison (2005).

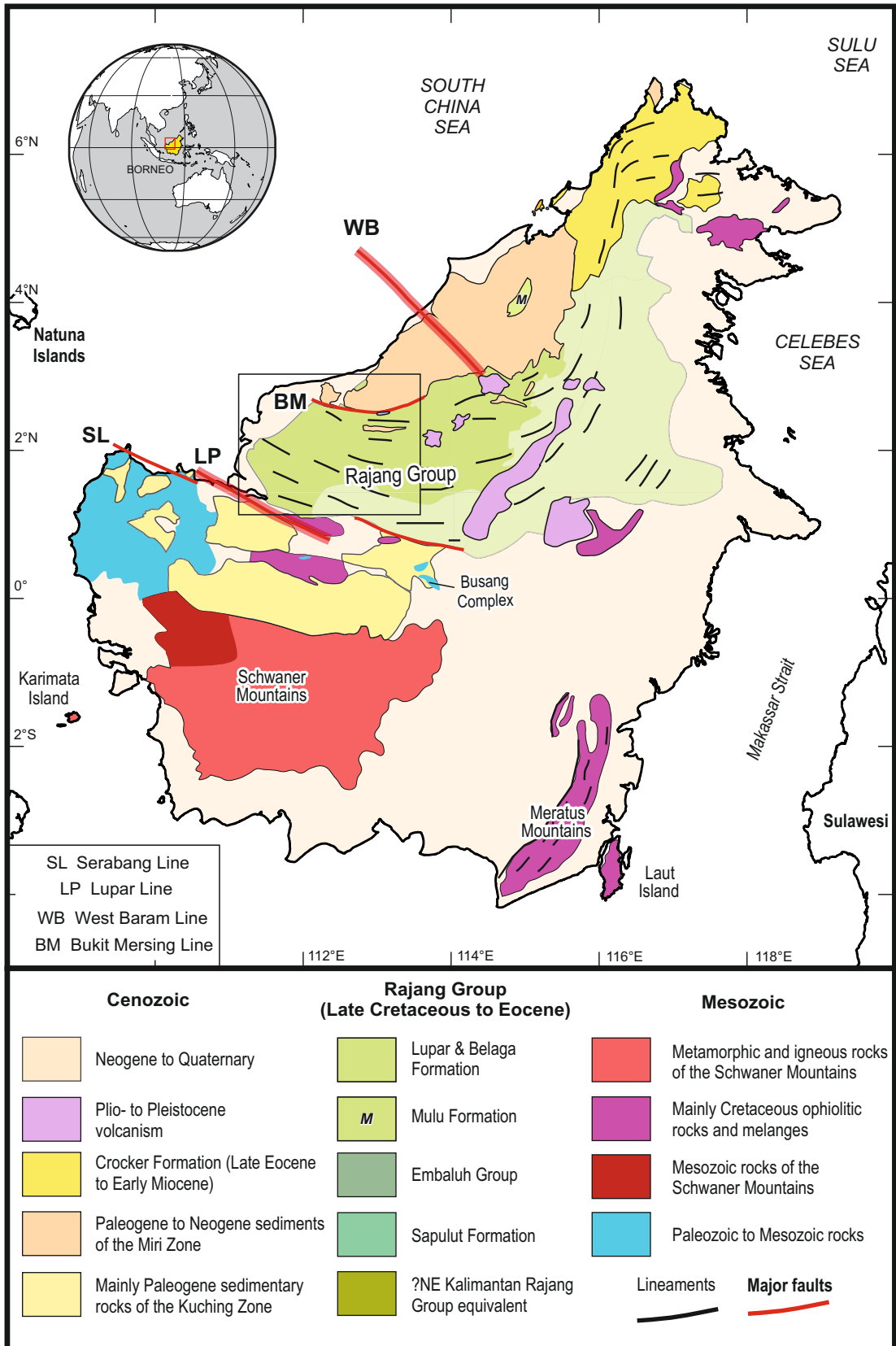


Fig.1

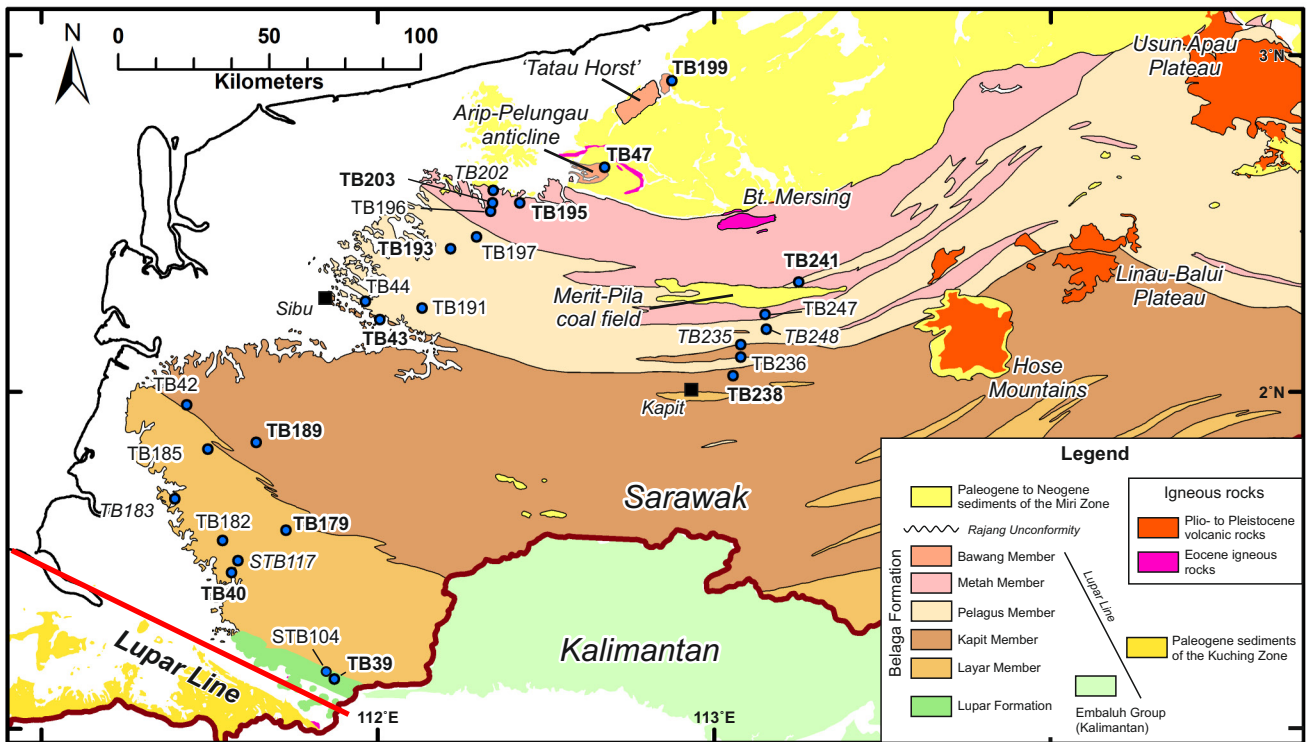


Fig.2

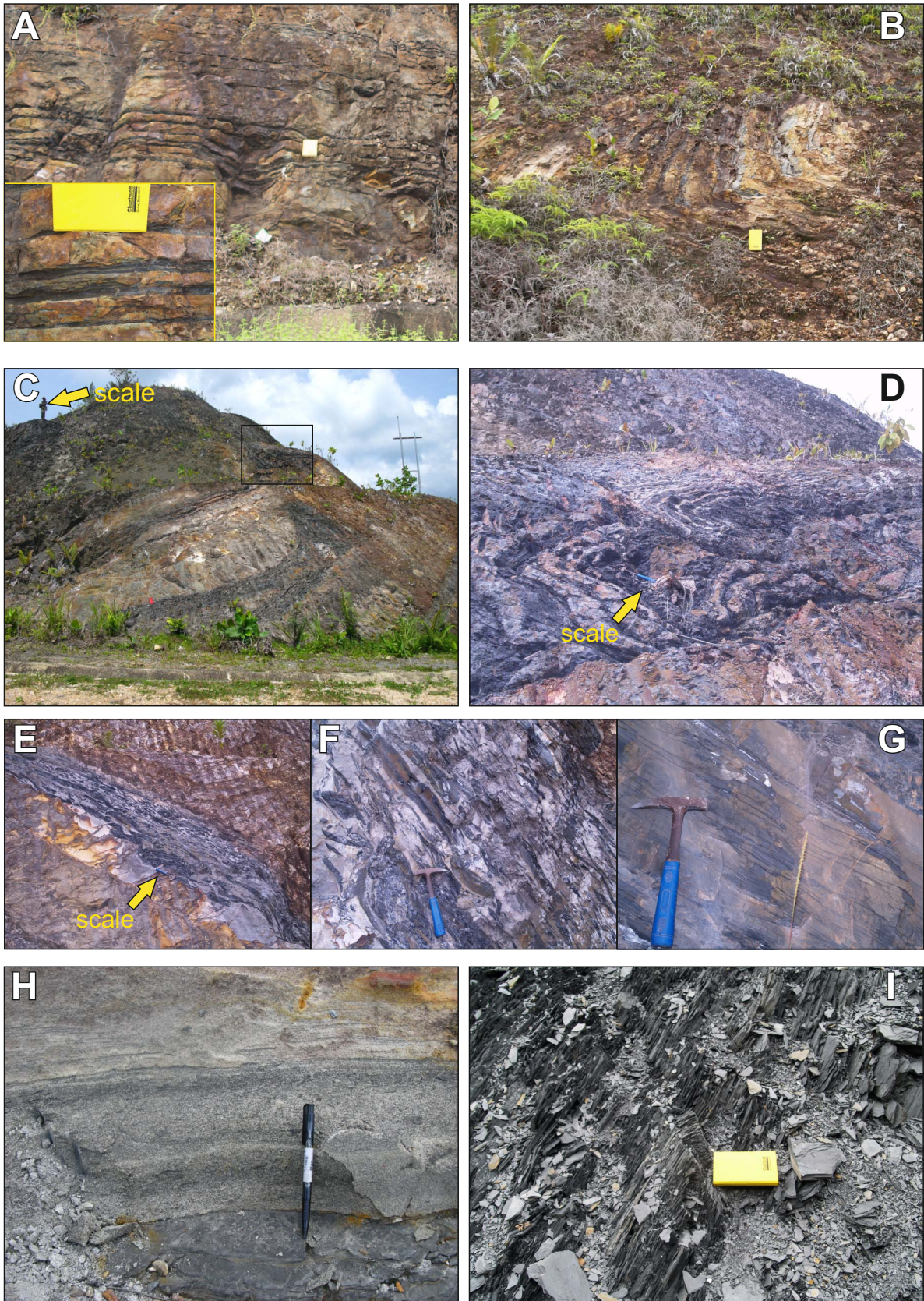


Fig.3

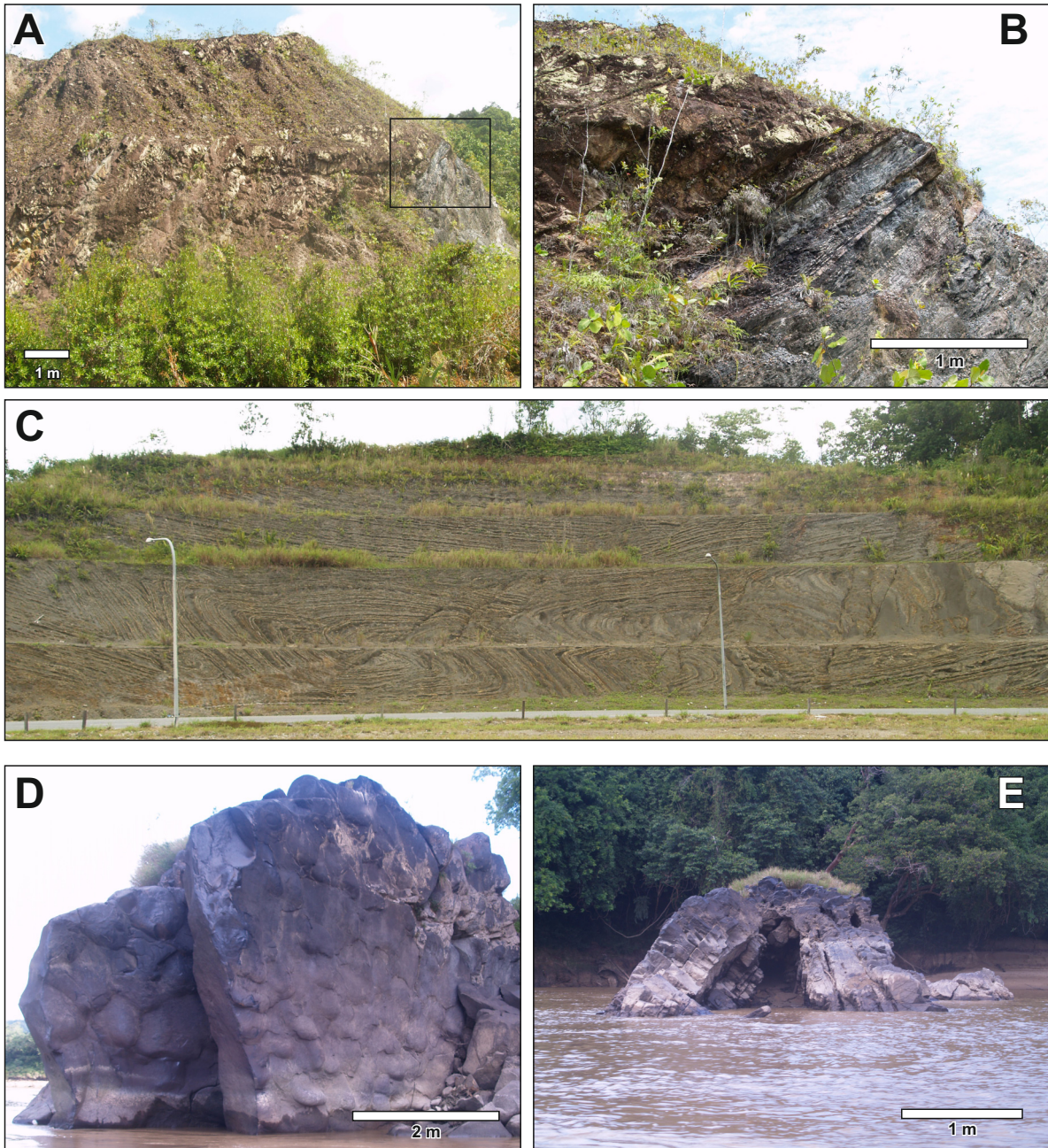


Fig.4

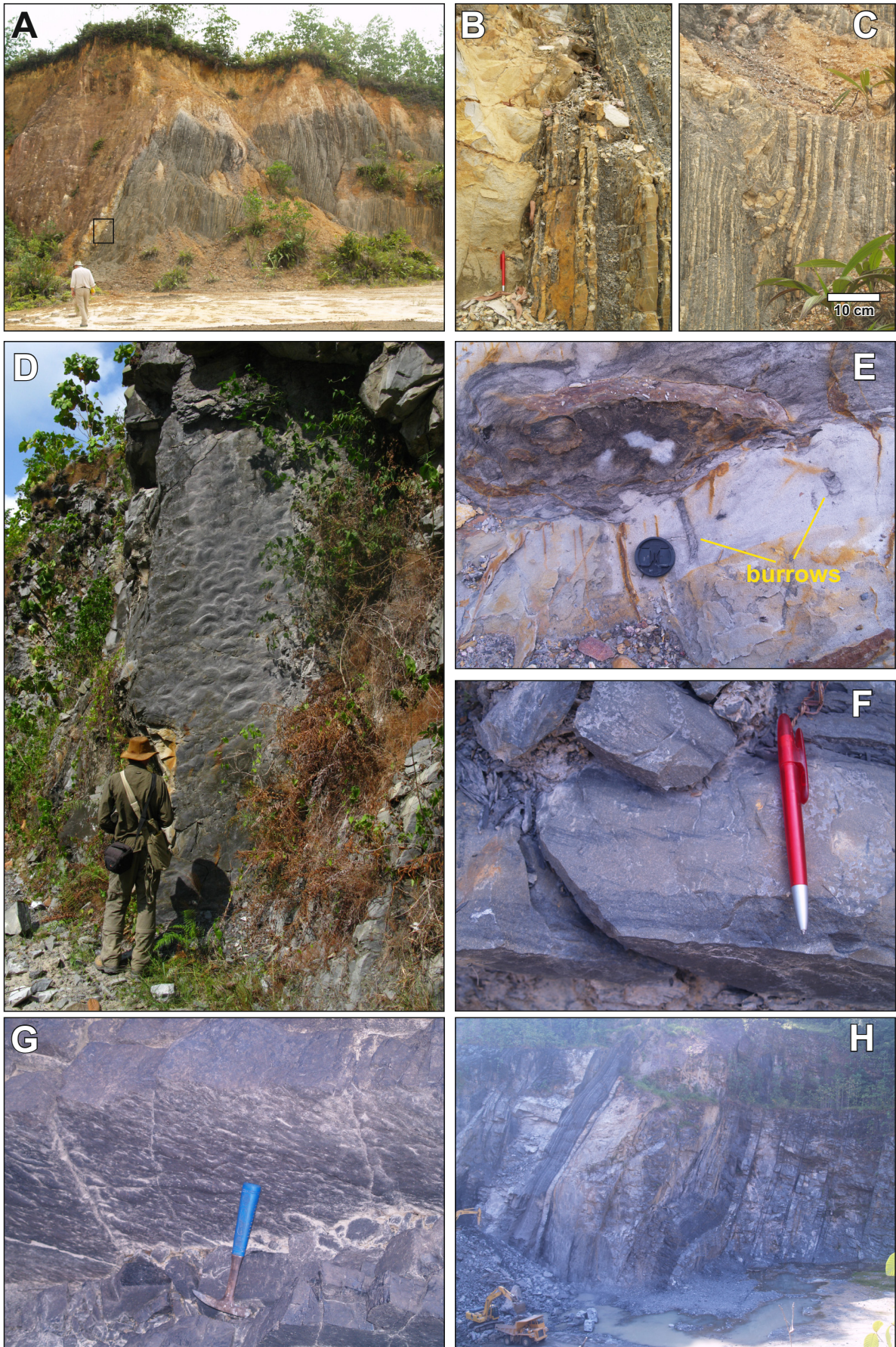


Fig.5

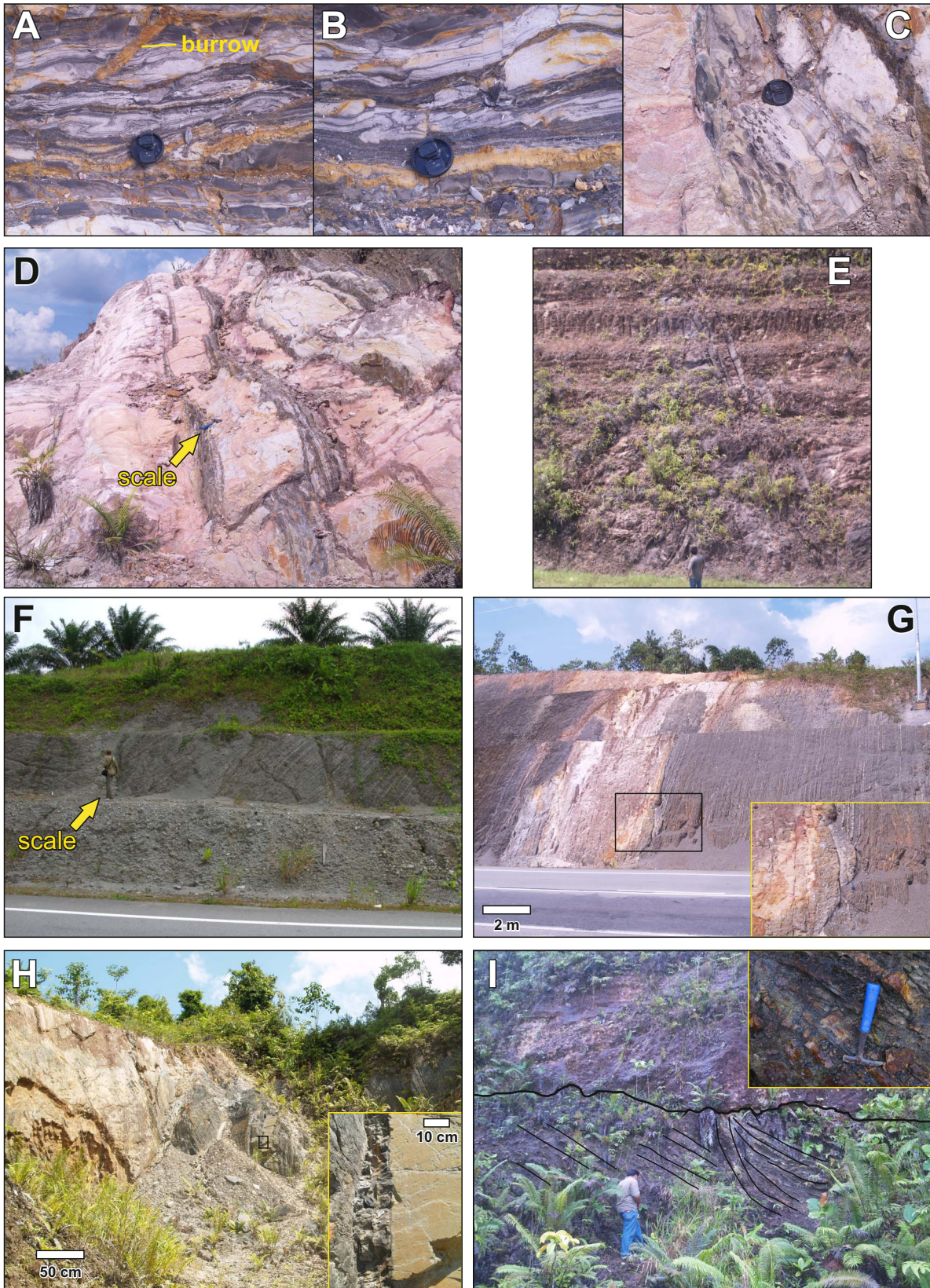


Fig.6

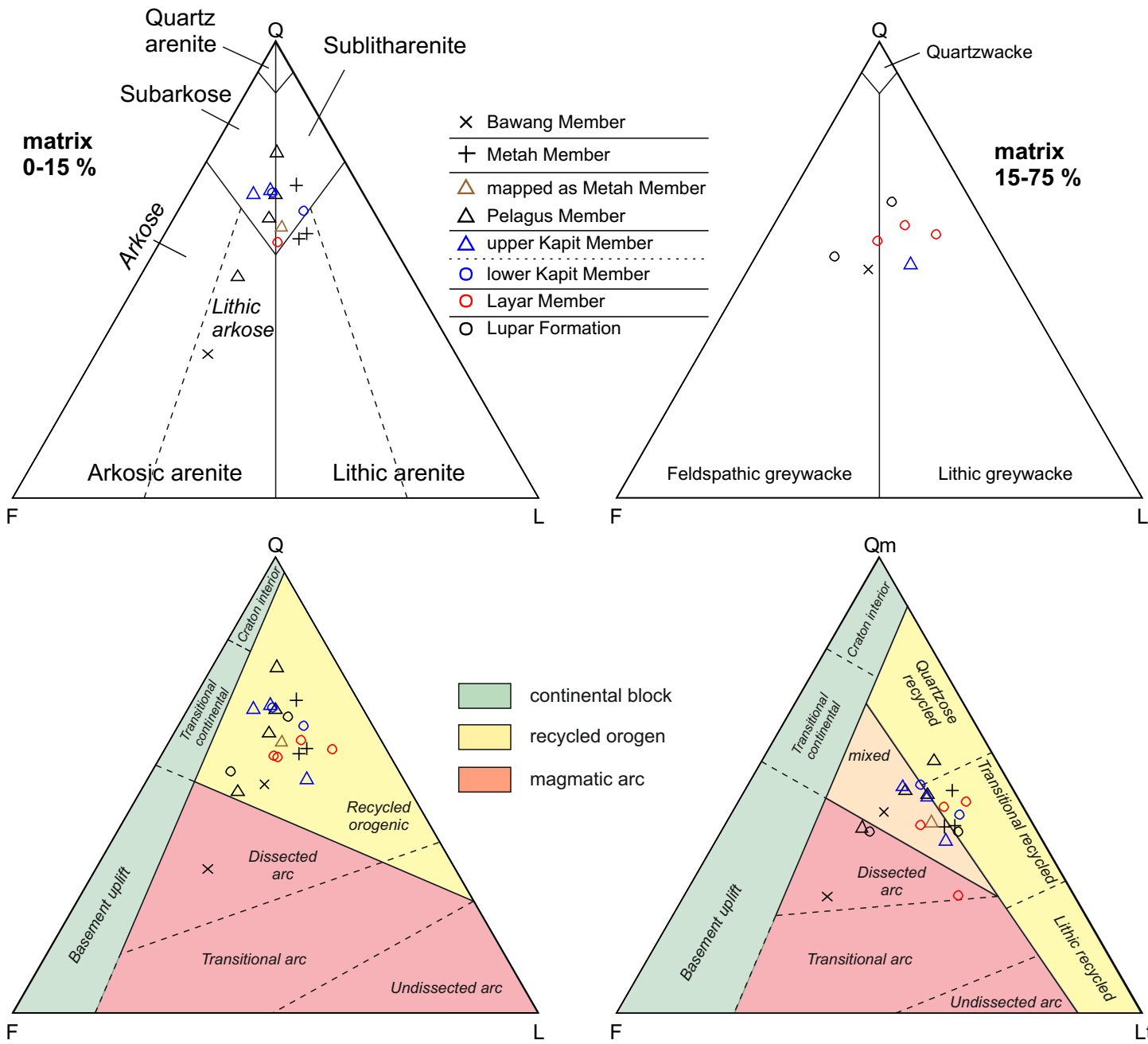


Fig.7



Fig.8

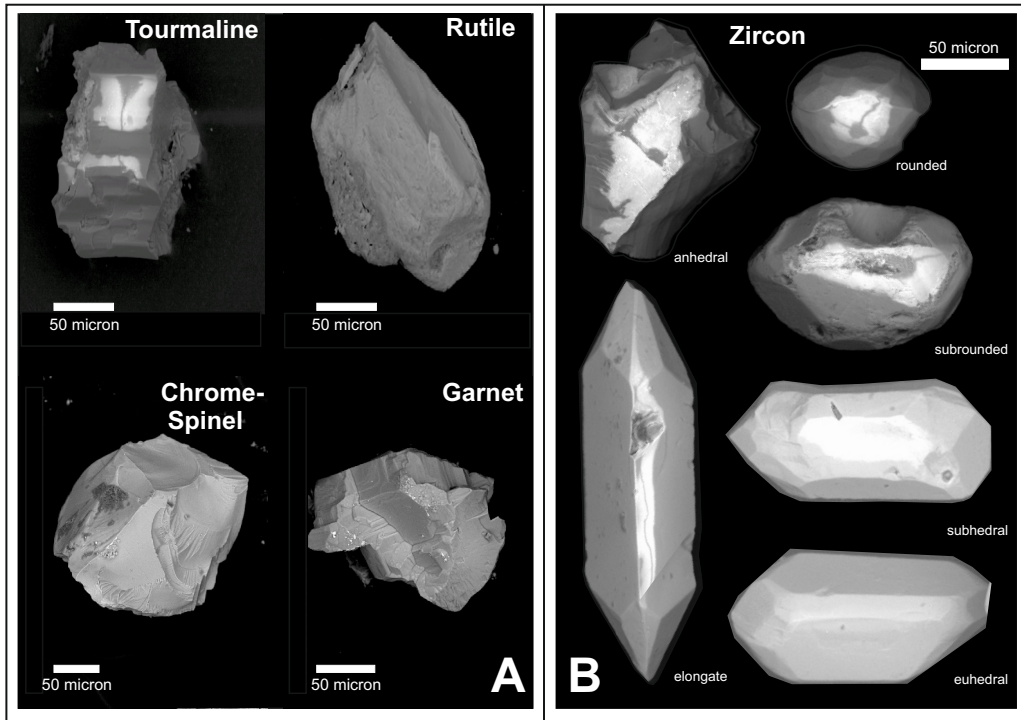


Fig.9

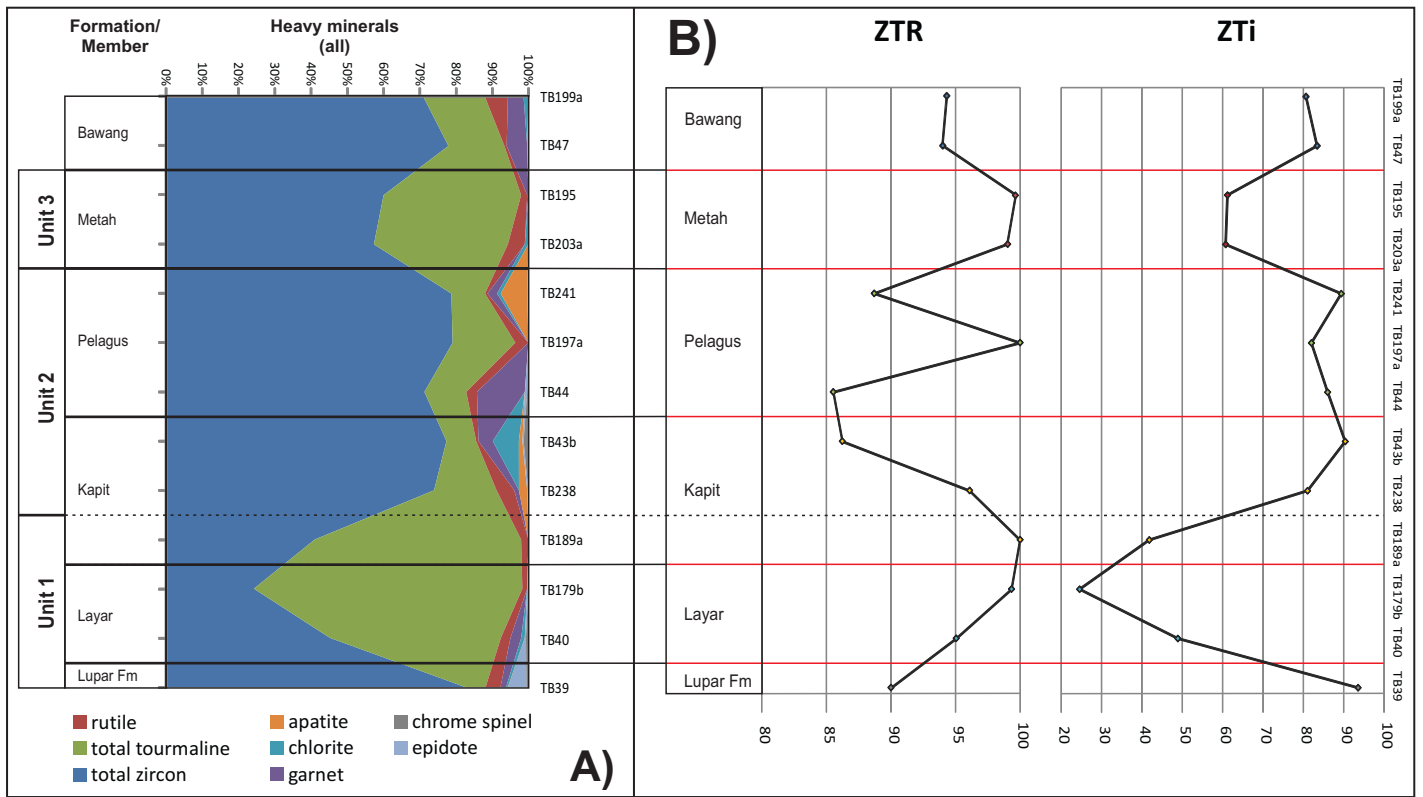


Fig.10

Lupar Formation, Layar and lower Kapit Member (Unit 1)

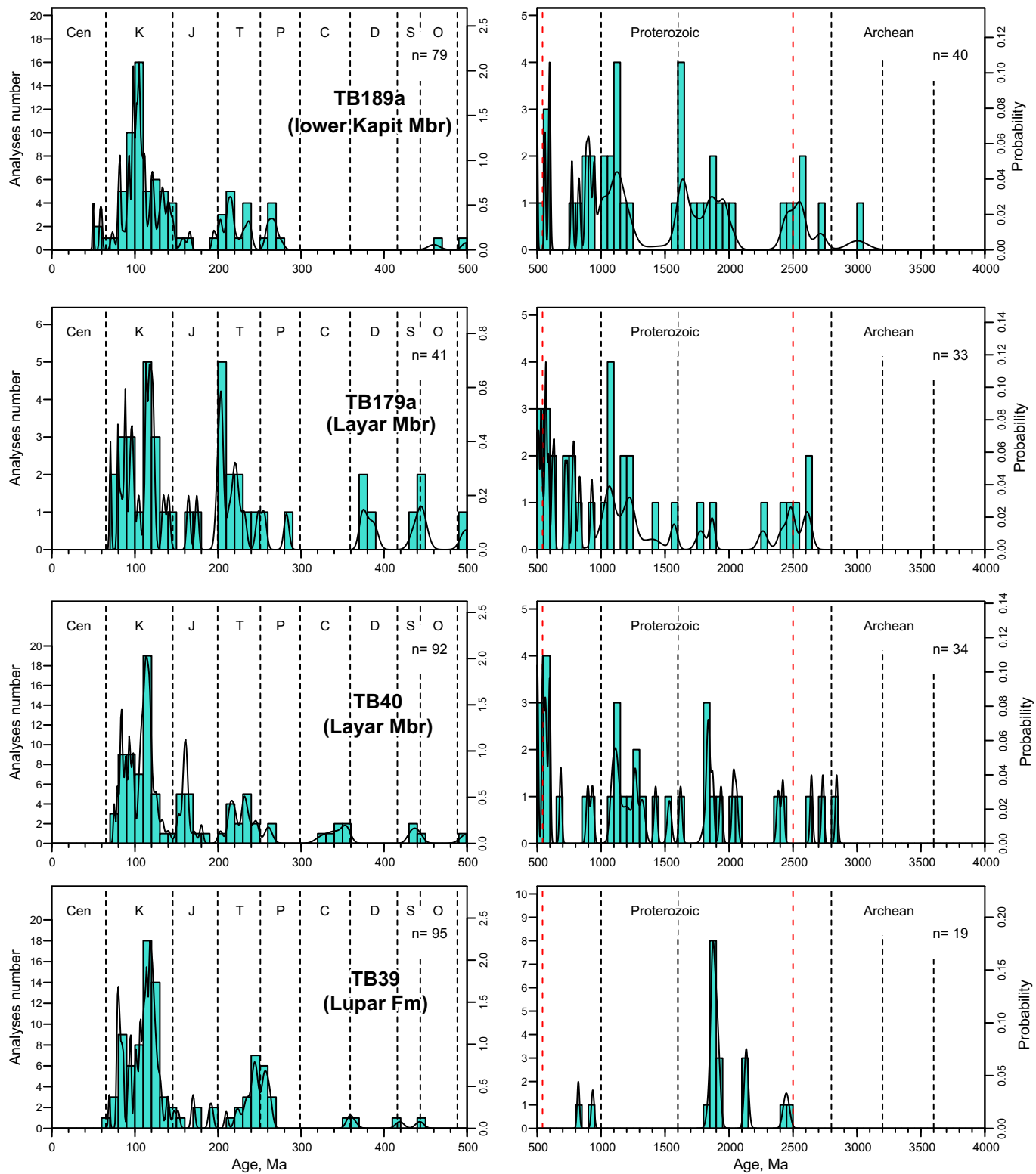


Fig.11

Upper Kapit and Pelagus Member (Unit 2)

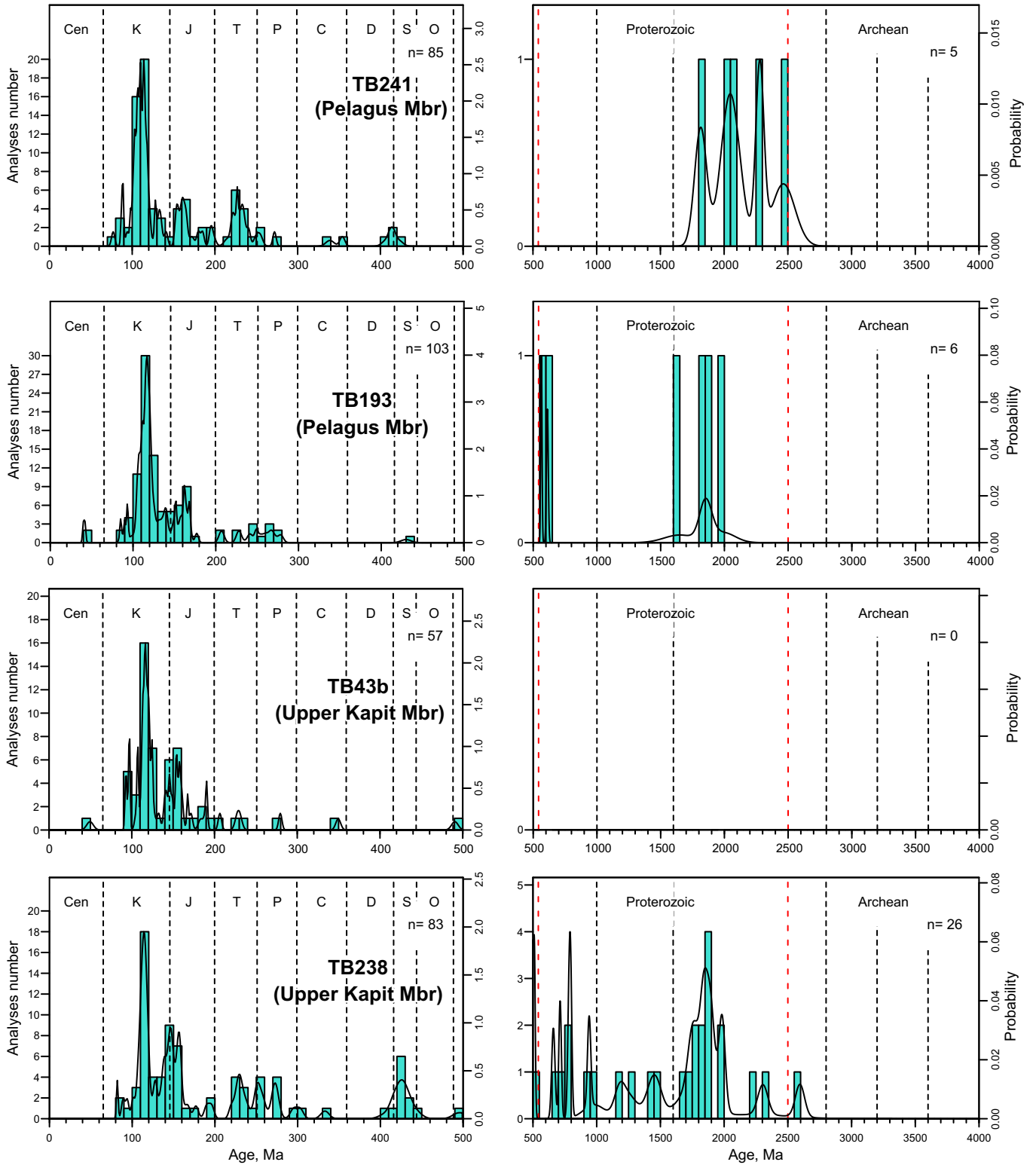
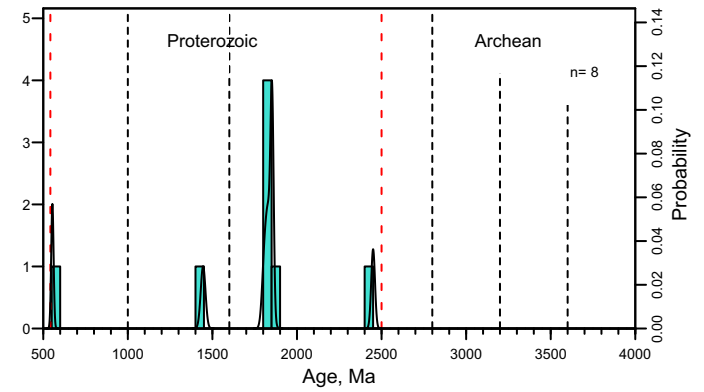
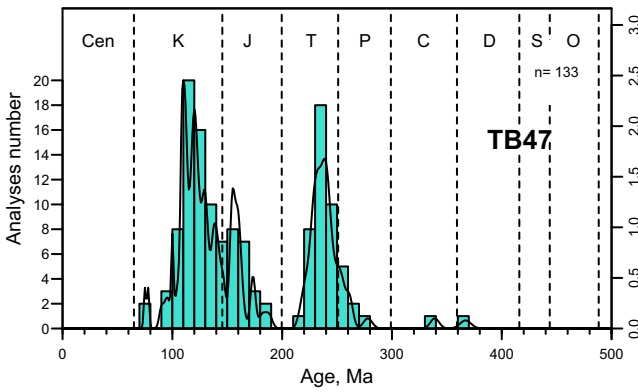
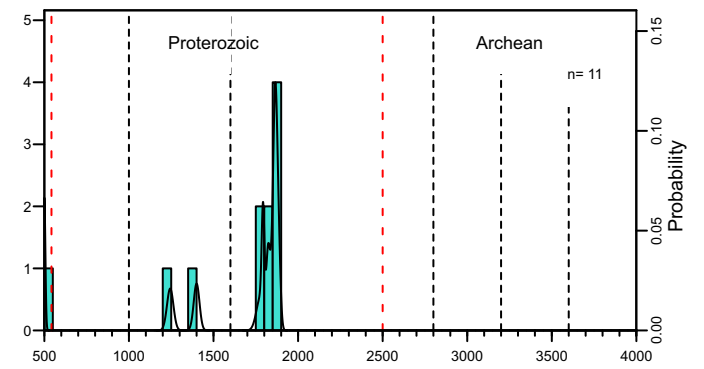
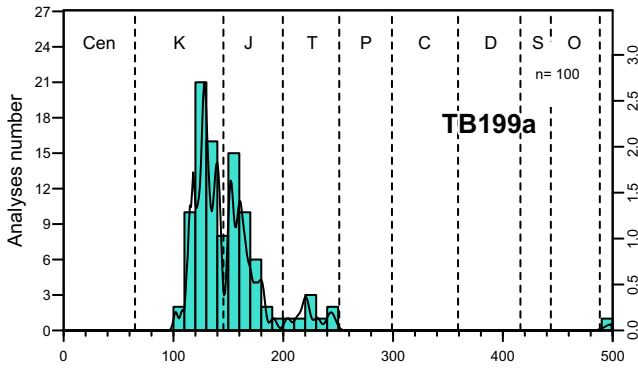


Fig.12

Bawang Member



Metah Member (Unit 3)

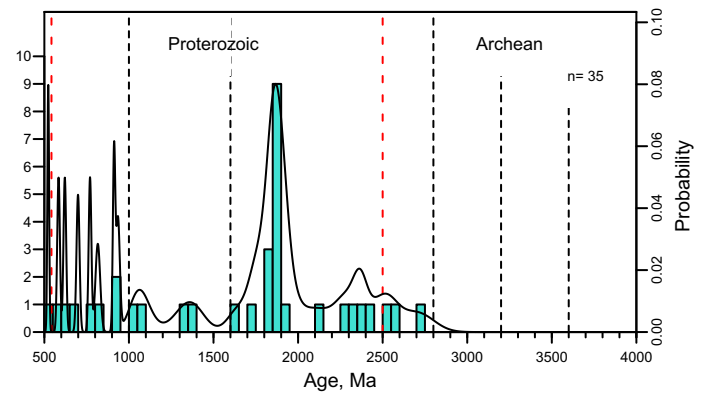
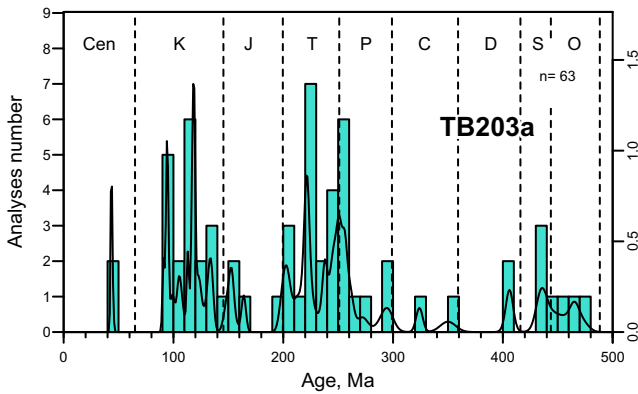
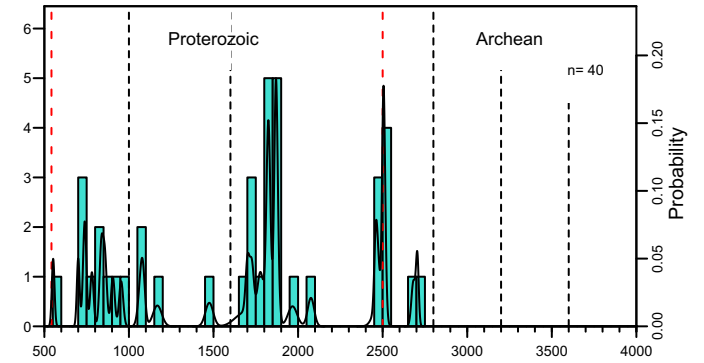
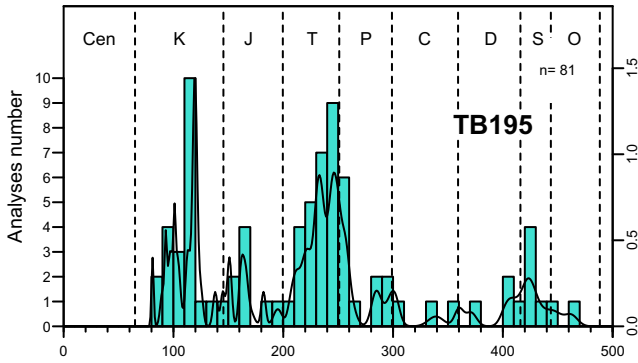


Fig.13

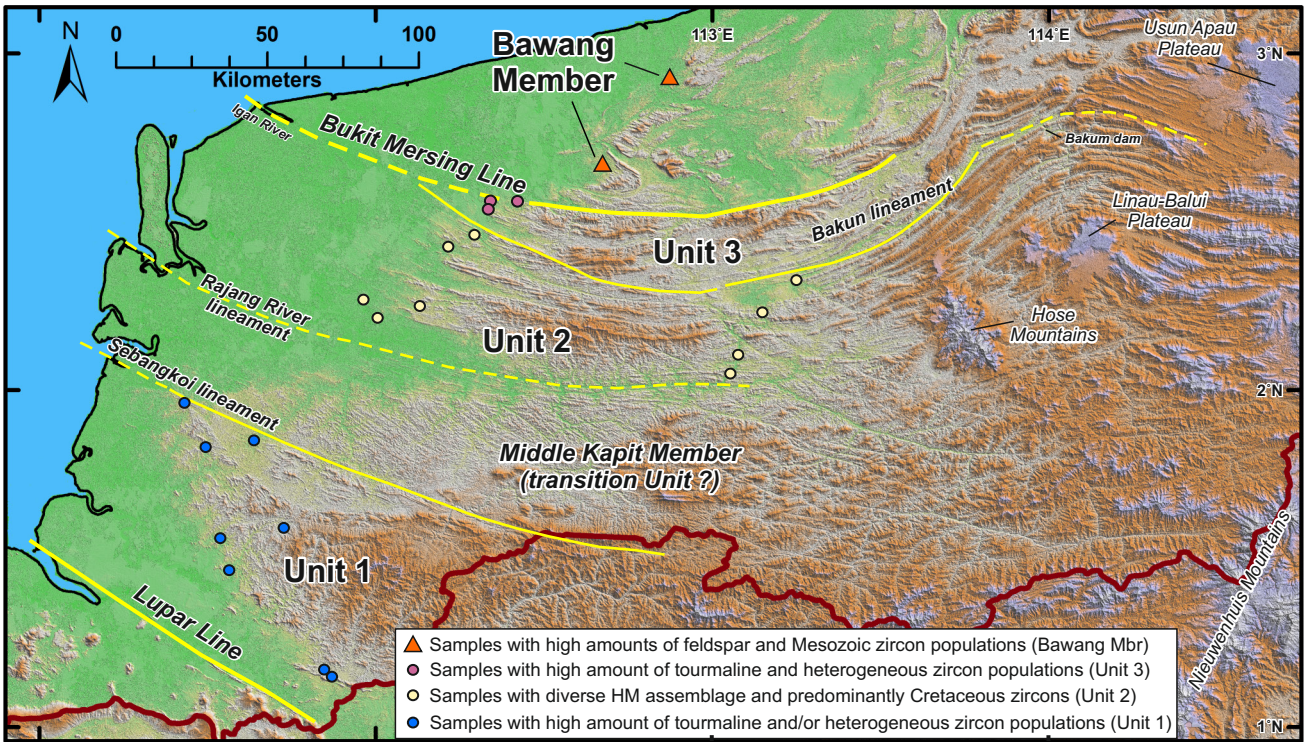


Fig.14

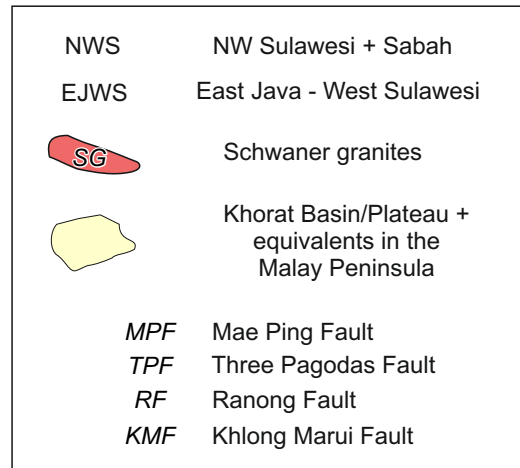
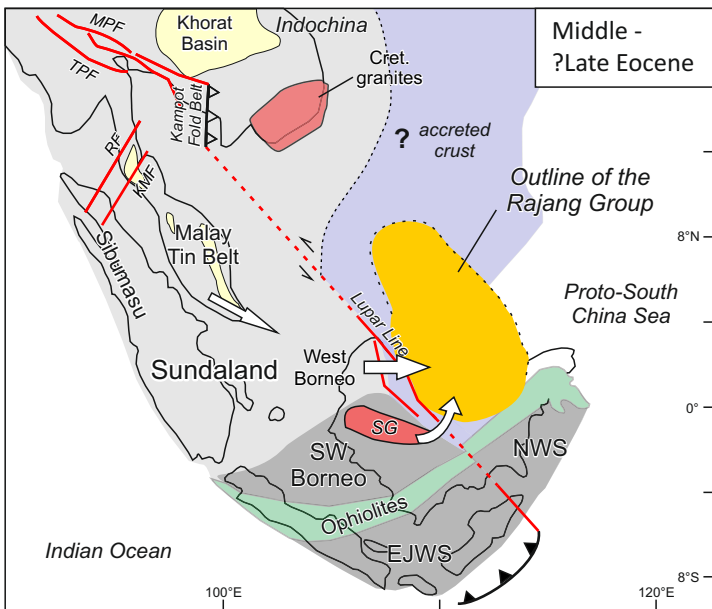
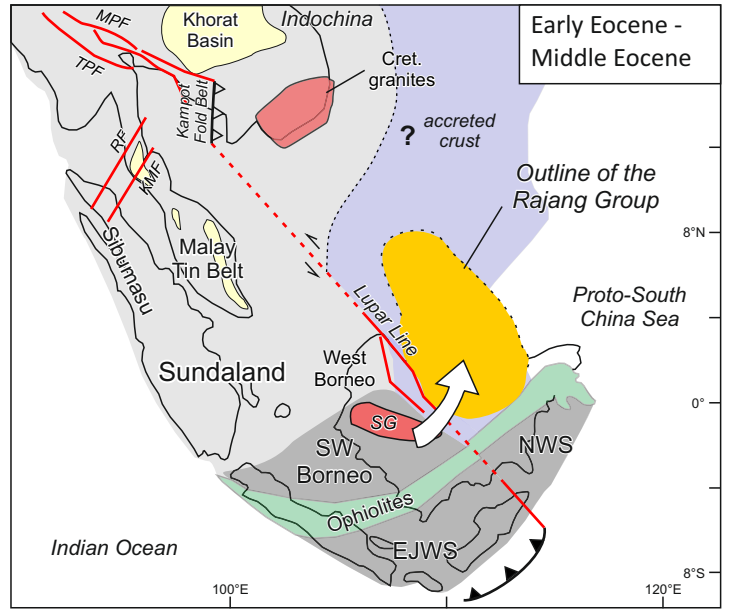
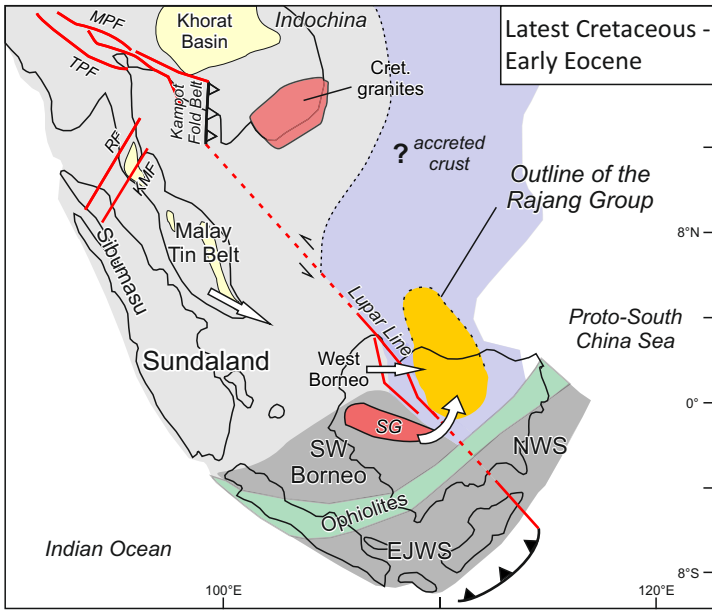


Fig.15