1	Quantitative analysis of fluvial paleohydraulics and intra-channel belt stratal preservation:
2	lower Wasatch Formation, Utah, USA
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6	ABSTRACT
7	This article uses measurements from five fluvial channel belts of the Paleocene lower
8	Wasatch Formation to quantitatively document the transience or persistence of flow velocities
9	recorded in stratigraphy at the bedset scale. We use facies proportions and sedimentary structures
10	coupled with a paleoflow velocity workflow to calculate the mean flow velocity for each bedset.
11	Flow velocity measurements were analyzed using a lattice approach that documents either
12	persistence or transience of mean flow velocities, which, in turn was combined with facies trends
13	to infer perennial and ephemeral flow conditions during the deposition of the channel belt. All
14	five channel belts have significant spatial dependence of mean flow velocities. Based on short-
15	range spatial dependence, we infer perennial flow conditions in both laterally and downstream-
16	accreting channel belts, and ephemeral flow conditions in two downstream-accreting channel
17	belts. The remaining channel belt only has short-range spatial dependence as intra channel-belt
18	erosion has completely destroyed any intermediate and long-range flow velocity dependence
19	within the channel belt. Furthermore, we document that intra channel-belt stratal preservation
20	comes at the expense of basin-scale stratal preservation, meaning high channel migration rates
21	destroy basin-scale architecture (stacking patterns) by channel scouring while preserving intra
22	channel-belt morphodynamics at the bedset scale.

24 INTRODUCTION

25 External forcing (allogenic) mechanisms such as changes in tectonic uplift, subsidence 26 rates, climate fluctuations, and eustasy have been documented in fluvial stratigraphy and 27 simulated in forward numerical models (Foreman et al., 2012; Allen et al., 2013; Allen et al., 28 2014). Time series methods have been used to document allogenic signals, including spectral 29 analysis of Fourier and wavelet transforms, as well as autocorrelation functions (Prokoph and 30 Agterberg, 1999; Prokoph and Bilali, 2008; Jerolmack and Paola, 2009). However, recent 31 research documents that internal (autogenic) mechanisms act as a non-linear filter that can 32 destroy allogenic signals if the amplitude and period of the external signal is less than the noise 33 of the sediment transport system (Jerolmack and Paola, 2009). Recognizing allogenic signals in 34 stratigraphy is important for predicting how fluvial systems respond to tectonic, climatic, and 35 eustatic changes. Allogenic signals have been documented at the basin scale (100-1,000 m scale 36 thickness), however few studies have concentrated on the channel-belt and bar scale (1-100 m 37 thick) (e.g. Allen et al., 2014). In this study we use the term bedset, which is a hierarchical term, 38 used to describe stratigraphy composed of smaller beds, is genetically related, similar in areal 39 extent and time span of deposition (Ford and Pyles, 2014), and is comparable to an active 40 barform migrating through an active channel.

Two end-member channel-belt types have been interpreted to document short term (yearly to decadal) climatic signals, perennial and ephemeral. Perennial channel belts are interpreted to document persistent flow conditions, with annual to decadal fluctuations related to seasonality in sediment and water flux (Meinzer, 1923; Fielding et al., 2009). Ephemeral channel belts document transient flow conditions between wet and dry periods (McKee et al., 1967; North and Taylor, 1996). Despite differences in flow conditions and bedforms associated with the two channel belt types, documenting persistence or transience of flow conditions on a
decadal to 100 year timescale within ancient fluvial channel belts remains challenging. This
study uses cross sections, measured sections, grain-size distributions, lithofacies, and bedset
bounding surfaces to document allogenic climate signals within fluvial channel belts.

51 GEOLOGIC SETTING

52 The lower Wasatch Formation of the Uinta Basin in eastern Utah contains world class exposures of a low net-sand content fluvial system. The Uinta Basin is a longitudinally 53 54 asymmetric foreland basin located in northeastern and central Utah (Figure 1A). From the 55 Paleocene through Eocene, flexurally induced subsidence provided accommodation for 56 deposition of the Green River and Wasatch Formations (Figure 1A) (Osmond, 1964). Lacustrine 57 sediments deposited in the center of the basin were surrounded by deltaic and fluvial strata of the 58 Green River and Wasatch Formations; signifying internal drainage (Picard, 1955; Keighley et al., 59 2002). Paleocurrent directions in the southern outcrops of the Wasatch Formation document 60 fluvial systems flowing north and northeast towards the center of the basin (Ford and Pyles, 61 2014, Pisel et al., 2018) (see paleocurrent rose diagram in Figure 1B). Climatically, the lower 62 Wasatch Formation is interpreted to have been deposited during global hot house conditions 63 (Sewall and Sloan, 2006). Basin-scale studies in the adjacent Piceance basin document hundred 64 thousand year changes in channel belt dimensions and sedimentary structures attributed to climatic fluctuations at the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (Foreman et al., 2012). 65

66 DATASET AND METHODS

An exceptionally well exposed, strike-oriented outcrop of the lower Wasatch Formation
is used to address the goals of this study (Figure 1B). The outcrop is located along the southern
margin of the Uinta basin, just west of the modern day Green River (39.352 N, 110.063 W), and

70 is 5 km wide by 300 m thick. The outcrop contains 274 fluvial channel belts, all of which are 71 exceptionally well exposed and accessible. Five channel belts were analyzed in detail. They 72 represent the range of architectural variability in the outcrop and span a range of varying 73 numbers of stories and accretion styles. Using the hierarchical approach of Ford and Pyles 74 (2014) the 5 channel belts were characterized on the basis of bar migration direction as follows 75 (Figure 2): (Channel Belt 1) laterally-accreting multi story, (Channel Belt 2) downstream and 76 laterally accreting multi story, (Channel Belt 3) downstream-accreting single story, (Channel 77 Belt 4) downstream-accreting multi story, (Channel Belt 5) laterally-accreting with erosionally 78 based fine-grained fill multi story, respectively (Figure 2).

79 The following data were collected to address the goals of this study: (1) decimeter-80 resolution measured sections that qualitatively documents grain-size distributions, sorting, 81 rounding, physical and biogenic sedimentary structures, bedset, story, and element boundaries; 82 (2) high-resolution photo panels; (3) paleocurrent orientations collected from flutes, ripples, 83 cross-strata, channel-belt margin orientations; and (4) laser range finding measurements of 84 element, story, and bar form widths and thicknesses. These data were used to generate further 85 information about the channel belts using the following workflow. First, grain size distributions 86 were calculated from measured sections where grain size was optically measured using hand lens 87 and grain size card. Median grain size (D_{50}) and maximum grain size (D_{90}) are calculated from 88 the distributions for each channel belt (Figure 3A). Cross-sections of the channel belts were 89 created by tracing bedset boundaries in the photo panels and combined with measured sections to 90 constrain grain size and facies type for each bedset. Additionally, measured bar-form heights 91 were used to constrain flow depths for bedsets as bar forms scale to flow depth (Figure 3C).

From the field data we calculate the mean slope from all 5 channel belts using the paleoslope reconstruction suspension methods of Lynds et al. (2014). To calculate paleoslope using this method we first we calculate the settling velocity of the coarsest grains in suspension $(w_{s(dmaxs)})$ using the equation from Ferguson and Church (2004):

$$w_{s(Dmaxs)} = \frac{gRD_{90}^{2}}{18\nu + (0.75CgRD_{90}^{3})^{1/2}}$$
(1)

97 where g is the acceleration of gravity, R is the specific gravity of the particle in the water, D₉₀ is 98 the maximum grain size, v is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid, and *C* is a constant equal to 1 99 for typical sand grains. Next we calculate z_0 which is the height at which the velocity goes to 100 zero. To calculate z_0 we use the assumption of Lynds et al. (2014) based on Wiberg and Rubin 101 (1989) that $z_0 = 0.056b$ and b is approximately two times the median bedload grain size $b \approx$ 102 $2.0D_{50b}$ which we approximate by substituting D_{90} for D_{50b} . Using z_0 we then calculate the ratio 103 of total boundary stress to skin-friction shear stress:

104
$$F = 1 + \frac{c_d}{2\kappa^2} \frac{h_d}{\lambda} \left[\ln \left[\frac{h_d}{z_0} \right] - 1 \right]^2$$
(2)

105 where C_d is an empirically determined drag coefficient (0.21), κ is von Kármán's constant, h_d is 106 0.3 times flow depth (0.3*H*), and the dune height-to-length ratio h_d/λ is 0.063 (Lynds et al., 107 2014). Now that we have calculated $w_{s(Dmaxs)}$ and *F* we can calculate paleoslope for the lower 108 Wasatch Formation using the following from Lynds et al., (2014):

109

110
$$S = \frac{F(w_{s(Dmaxs)})^2}{g\langle H \rangle}$$
(3)

111 where *S* is slope, *F* is the ratio of total boundary shear stress to skin-friction shear stress, $w_{s(dmaxs)}$ 112 is the settling velocity of the coarsest grain in suspension, *g* is gravity, and *H* is flow depth. The 113 limitations of paleoslope reconstructions have been discussed by Trampush et al. (2014), and 114 Lynds et al. (2014), so now we will now cover the potential for error and how it propagates115 through this system of equations in our slope calculations.

116 We use Sobol indices to quantitatively understand the sensitivity of the paleoslope 117 estimates. Sobol indices are a normalized decomposition of variance that can be attributed to 118 specific inputs to the model. As Sobol index values for a single input approach 1 they have more 119 fractional variance associated with that variable (Sobol, 2001; Saltelli, 2002; Saltelli et al., 2010 120). Meaning that the larger the value, the more influence a particular variable has in the system. 121 We ran 30,000 simulations of paleoslope estimates to calculate Sobol indices for each source of 122 error in the calculation. For 10,000 simulations we varied D_{90} by $\pm 1\phi$ grain size larger and 123 smaller than our observed values. For 10,000 simulations we varied D_{50} by $\pm 1\phi$ grain size larger 124 and smaller than our observed values. And finally for 10,000 simulations we varied flow depth 125 (H) by $\pm 35\%$ of the average flow depth of channel belts in the lower Wasatch Formation 126 $(9.1\pm3.185 \text{ m})$. The resulting first order Sobol indices are as follows $0.8982 (D_{90}), 0.0126 (D_{50}), 0.0026 (D_{50$ 127 0.0259 (H). These results document that the maximum grain size and flow depth have first order 128 controls on paleoslope. Total order Sobol indices are $0.9634 (D_{90}), 0.0126 (D_{50}), and 0.0661 (H)$ 129 respectively, and document weak higher order interactions between the three variables, of which 130 none are significant. Again, the sensitivity analysis was based on an assumed error of $\pm 1\phi$ grain 131 size and 90% variance in flow depth.

Now that we have quantitatively documented which variables have first and second order controls, we can calculate paleoslope and associated uncertainty. We use one standard deviation as our uncertainty bounds based on a grain size error of $\pm 1\phi$ for both D_{90} and D_{50} . This uncertainty is based on the assumption that our grain size measurements are within 1ϕ of the mean grain size. We think that this assumption is reasonable as it would be comparable to

137 mistaking coarse sand for fine sand. Additionally, we assume that our flow depth is within 35% 138 (±3.185 m) of the mean channel-belt flow depth (9.1 m) for all measured channel belts in the 139 lower Wasatch (Pisel et al., 2018). From these assumed sources of error, we calculate the paleoslope of the lower Wasatch Formation to be 2.8×10^{-3} with a maximum of 5.4×10^{-3} and a 140 minimum of 1.6×10^{-4} . The mean and lower limits are well within the reasonable bounds 141 142 discussed by Trampush (2014) while the upper slope estimate is on the edge of what they 143 consider reasonable. Nevertheless, this gives us a place to further investigate paleoflows within 144 the lower Wasatch Formation.

Using the mean paleoslope (2.8x10⁻³) and flow depth measurements for each barform
(Figure 3C) we calculate the bed shear stress using the depth-slope product (Leopold et al.,
147 1964):

8 $\tau_b = \rho g H S \tag{4}$

149 where ρ is the density of the fluid, *g* is gravitational acceleration, *H* is flow depth, and *S* is slope. 150 The flow depth is constrained by the amount of relief on the barforms, as they scale to the water 151 surface, and are the most accurate measure of paleo-flowdepth. Next, we substitute in bed shear 152 stress (equation 3) to calculate the shear velocity (Shields, 1936):

153
$$u_* = \sqrt{\frac{\tau_b}{\rho}} \tag{5}$$

154 where τ_b is the bed shear stress and ρ is the fluid density. Finally, from the shear velocity

155 (equation 4) we calculate the average velocity using the Law of the Wall (von Kármán, 1930):

156
$$u = \frac{u_*}{k} \left(ln \frac{z}{z_0} \right) \tag{6}$$

where z is the height of the velocity measurement, z_0 is the level at which the velocity goes to zero, u_* is the shear velocity, and k is von Kármán's constant. In this study we define z as 6/10ths 159 the height of flow depth to calculate an average flow velocity. Furthermore, we define z_0 as we 160 did during the previous slope calculations.

161 We further investigate error in our flow velocity calculations using Monte Carlo 162 simulations to explore the distributions of potential flow velocities in the lower Wasatch 163 Formation. Specifically we assume that the error in the maximum grain size, mean grain size, 164 flow depth, and slope is normally distributed, centered on our field measured values, and that the 165 standard deviations are the same as those used in the sensitivity analysis. Given these assumptions, the simulations proceed as follows: (1) select a bedset in the channel belt, (2) for 166 167 the selected bedset calculate the paleoflow velocity distribution from the mean paleoflow 168 velocity and its standard deviation, (3) randomly choose a velocity value from the velocity 169 distribution for the bedset, (4) select the next bedset and repeat steps 1-3, (5) repeat this process 170 99 times for each channel belt before moving to the next channel belt and repeating steps 1-5. 171 This builds a robust dataset with 35,900 data points for flow velocity and flow depth. 172 Next we visualize how the uncertainty in flow velocity changes with flow depth as a 2D 173 kernel density estimate (Figure 4). Note that as flow depth increases, the variance in the flow 174 velocity increases as well. We attribute this to the increase of variance in the slope estimate as 175 flow depth increases. This is exactly what Trampush et al. (2014) discuss, that the error in flow 176 depth estimates propagates through to the slope estimate. Here we document that flow depth 177 uncertainty also propagates through to velocity calculations as well. Figure 4 documents the 178 range of flow velocities that we generated from the Monte Carlo simulations for the channel 179 belts in the lower Wasatch. Areas of higher density (lighter colors) infer a higher confidence in

180 the calculation. Now that we have discussed how we calculate paleoflow velocities and sources

of error within the systems of equations we will further discuss the analytical methods we used tospatially evaluate the data.

183 Spatial persistence and transience of mean flow velocity were quantified using spatial 184 statistics and lattice methods. Lattice data are discrete, with each region represented by an 185 average of the data. In this study we define regions by bedsets, and assign the mean-flow 186 velocity to each. We define spatial neighborhoods for each bedset using row standardized 187 weights, meaning that bedsets in contact with one another (linked) are spatially related. Beyond 188 adjacent bedsets, we evaluated spatial autocorrelation of mean flow velocity at increasing, non-189 adjacent bedset lags using Moran's I. Bedset lag spatial autocorrelation simply increases the 190 neighborhood structure to include beds that are not directly in contact with one another which 191 documents long-range spatial trends. Spatial autocorrelation, which is the cross-correlation of a 192 region with its neighbors, is calculated using Moran's *I*:

193
$$I = \frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij}(y_i - \overline{y})(y_j - \overline{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}$$
(7)

where y_i is the *i*-th observation, y_j is the *j*-th observation \overline{y} is the global mean flow velocity and W_{ij} is the spatial weight of the link between regions *i* and *j* defined above using row standardized binary weights (Moran, 1950). The expected value of Moran's *I* under the null hypothesis of no spatial dependence is:

198
$$E(I) = \frac{-1}{N-1}$$
 (8)

where *N* is the number of locations. To test for spatial autocorrelation using Moran's *I*, we use
Monte Carlo simulations. In this test, 99 Monte Carlo simulations were run for each channel belt.
Values for each region are randomly reassigned to a new region and Moran's *I* is calculated for

each simulation. Calculated Moran's *I* is compared to the distribution of Moran's *I* from the
Monte Carlo simulations. If the observed value of *I* is outside the distribution generated from the
simulations (p<0.05), there is significant evidence for spatial autocorrelation. Moran's *I* ranges
from -1 to 1, where negative values document negative correlation (transience), and positive
values document positive correlation (persistence) and values near 0 document spatial
independence.

208 **RESULTS**

209 Velocities

210 All five channel belts document increasing mean flow velocity with increasing flow depth as we 211 expect given equation 5. In all five channel belts, a majority of the calculated variance stems from uncertainty in slope estimates. A slope of $2.8 \times 10^{-3} \pm 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ results in the following mean 212 213 flow velocities in meters per second: Channel Belt 1 0.55±0.29, Channel Belt 2 0.20±0.11, 214 Channel Belt 3 0.28±0.14, Channel Belt 4 0.40±0.21, and Channel Belt 5 0.45±0.23. If we 215 exclude the slope variance and only use flow depth and grain size variance for the velocity 216 calculations, our standard deviation is half of what we calculate with the slope variance (Table 217 1). From the average flow velocities for each bedset, we calculate the spatial autocorrelation 218 (Moran's I) for an increasing numbers of bedset lags.

219 <u>Moran's I</u>

For a bedset lag of 1, all five characters belts have documented positive spatial autocorrelation (or similarity) of mean flow velocity using Moran's *I* (Figure 5a). As we increase the region neighborhoods, or distance between bedsets, we document positive spatial autocorrelation up to 2 bedset lags for all the channel belts (Figure 5a). Meaning the mean flow velocities in all the channel belts are locally similar from bedset to bedset both vertically and laterally. Channel Belts 3 and 4 have positive spatial correlation at bedset lags of 3, while the
mean flow velocity for Channel Belts 1, 2, and 5 is spatially independent and remains that way
through 4 bedset lags. At bedset lags of 5 and 6, Channel Belts 1-4 have negative spatial
autocorrelation of mean flow velocity (Figure 5b-e). This means mean flow velocities in
intermediate bedsets, both vertically and laterally, are dissimilar. Channel Belt 5 has no
correlation for any bedset lags higher than 2 (Figure 5f), meaning that mean flow velocities for
all bedsets are spatially independent or different.

In all 5 channel belts the diagnostic sedimentary structures associated with high and low flow regimes coupled with facies proportions provide further information into the meaning of the Moran's *I* results. Specifically, spatial persistence of flow velocity, low facies diversity, and low flow regime associated facies are interpreted to be characteristic of perennial deposits. In contrast, spatial transience of flow velocity, high facies diversity, and high flow regime associated facies are interpreted to be characteristic.

238 We interpret the short-range, positive autocorrelation, facies, and bar migration 239 orientation in Channel Belts 1 and 5 to collectively record short term stasis in flow velocity. Both 240 of these channel belts migrated solely laterally, which is interpreted to have preserved the 241 depositional processes. From the facies proportions, we interpret Channel Belt 5 to document 242 ephemeral deposits, as the facies record high flow regime conditions within the channel belt. 243 Additionally in Channel Belt 5 we interpret that the spatial independence of flow velocity at 244 intermediate and long distances documents the deposition and subsequent erosion of bars in a 245 random manner, resulting in the spatial independence of flow velocity.

Channel Belt 1 is interpreted to document perennial deposits as the facies are
predominantly low flow regime associated facies (e.g. facies F3, F4, F5) and do not vary within

the channel belt. Therefore, we infer the intermediate-range transience in flow velocity is the result of periods of high and low flow velocity as the channel belt laterally migrated.

250 We interpret the short-range positive autocorrelation, intermediate-range negative 251 autocorrelation, facies, and bar migration orientation in Channel Belts 3 and 4 to record short 252 term stasis in flow velocity along with long term transience in flow velocity. Furthermore, using 253 facies proportions, we interpret Channel Belt 3 to document ephemeral deposits as the facies 254 record high flow regime (e.g. facies F8, F9, F10) and vary significantly within the channel belt. 255 In Channel Belt 3, we interpret the intermediate-range transience of flow velocity is due to 256 decreasing flow depth related to rapid filling of the channel belt. A majority of facies in Channel 257 Belt 3 (e.g. Facies F9 and F10) are characteristic of high deposition rates that are common in 258 ephemeral deposits, and support the hypothesis of a rapidly filling channel belt (Figure 5c). 259 Channel Belt 4 is interpreted to document perennial deposits as the facies are

predominantly low flow regime associated facies (e.g. facies F3, F4, F5) and have little
variability within the channel belt. Therefore, we infer the intermediate and long-range
transience in flow velocity is due to alternating periods of high and low flow velocity rather than
rapid infilling of the channel belt.

We interpret Channel Belt 2 documents perennial deposits; the majority of the facies are diagnostic of lower flow regime conditions which are interpreted by North and Taylor (1996) to record low discharge and low flow velocity conditions (Figure 5b). Facies in Channel Belt 4 document both high and low flow conditions, but is primarily facies that are interpreted to document low flow regime (Figure 5e). Additionally, the short-range persistence and intermediate range transience of flow velocities document periods of alternating high and low flow. Therefore, we interpret this channel belt to be a combination of perennial and ephemeralflow conditions.

272 **DISCUSSION**

273 The paleoflow velocities and associated error is minimized by minimizing the error in the 274 paleoslope calculation. When we constrain the slope error, we minimize the variance in flow 275 estimates by over half. However, the same variables that contribute to the error in the slope 276 estimate are also used in the velocity calculation, so minimizing error in the field measurements 277 has a two-fold effect of constraining slope, and velocity calculations. Further work is needed to 278 compare measured velocity data from modern systems and the calculated slope and velocity 279 from grain size and flow depth. However, we note that Moran's *I* values are rather insensitive to 280 the variance in flow velocity in our Monte Carlo simulations and give us quantitative bounds for 281 Moran's *I* for each bedset (Figure 4).

282 From the spatial autocorrelation results, we interpret the rate of lateral migration within 283 laterally-accreting channel belts, to be proportional to preservation potential of the subjacent 284 bars. Furthermore, we interpret that the rate of in channel belt aggradation within downstream-285 accreting channel belts is also proportional to the preservation potential of subjacent bars. 286 Results from this study suggest intra-channel belt preservation of allogenic signals to be opposite 287 those of basin-scale channel-belt stacking patterns documented by Straub and Esposito (2013). 288 At the bar scale, if a channel moves laterally quickly the underlying basin-scale strata is 289 removed, but the intra-channel belt architecture is preserved. Conversely, if a channel doesn't 290 migrate laterally, the basin-scale channel-belt stacking pattern is better preserved. However, if 291 downstream migrating bars aggrade quickly enough, both the basin-scale and intra-channel belt 292 architecture is preserved. Therefore there is a scale-dependent tradeoff in signal preservation

from intra-channel belt architecture to basin-scale stacking patterns. This concept provides insight into the scales that future studies should consider when attempting to resolve external signals. Systems with deep laterally-migrating channel belts should be considered ideal when attempting to resolve signals at the intra-channel belt scale, while systems with shallow downstream-migrating channel belts should be considered ideal to study when attempting to resolve basin-scale signals. Furthermore, the spatial relationships between some bedsets are nonrandom, and are related to both external controls and hydrologic conditions

300 CONCLUSION

301 We interpret perennial and ephemeral fluvial systems in the lower Wasatch Formation 302 based on spatial dependence and facies types. Perennial rivers have short range positive 303 autocorrelation, intermediate and long range negative autocorrelation, and are composed of low-304 flow regime bedforms. Ephemeral rivers have both short range positive autocorrelation, long 305 range negative autocorrelation, and contain sedimentary structures and facies indicative of upper 306 flow regime and high deposition rates. External signals that are completely masked by deposition 307 and subsequent erosion are characterized by no spatial dependence at all but short distances. 308 However, facies proportions and sedimentary structures document facies associated with both 309 perennial and ephemeral rivers.

This article quantitatively documents a paleoflow velocity calculation method and the associated sources and propagation of error through the system of equations. Additionally we document perennial and ephemeral signals within fluvial channel belts. We use a workflow to calculate mean flow velocity and associated error for each bedset. Using Moran's *I*, facies patterns, and migration orientations, we document spatial dependence and independence in mean flow velocity. We interpret short and long-range spatial dependence and facies types to

- 316 differentiate between rapid filling of ephemeral channel belts, and the fluctuations of flow
- 317 velocity of perennial channel belts. Furthermore, we document that repeated deposition and
- 318 erosion of barforms results in local spatial dependence, but intermediate and long-range
- 319 independence of flow velocities. Concepts developed in this study provide context from a world
- 320 class fluvial outcrop to previous tank and numerical studies on the preservation of external
- 321 signals, and are applicable to both modern and ancient fluvial systems around the globe.

322 APPENDIX OF VARIABLES

- 323 *v* kinematic viscosity of water
- 324ρ density of water
- 325 τ_b bed shear stress
- $326 \quad C \qquad \text{constant equal to 1}$
- 327 C_d drag coefficient
- $328 \quad D_{90} \quad \text{maximum grain size}$
- 329 E(I) expected value of Moran's I
- 330 *F* ratio of boundary stress to skin-friction shear stress
- 331 g gravitational acceleration
- $332 \quad H \qquad \text{flow depth}$
- 333 h_d 0.3 times flow depth
- 334 h_d/λ dune height-to-length ratio
- 335 κ von Kármán's constant
- 336 *N* number of bedsets
- 337 *R* specific gravity of a particle in water
- 338 S slope

339	U*	shear velocity
340	Ws(Dmax	s) settling velocity of coarsest grain in suspension
341	W_{ij}	spatial weights
342	\bar{y}	global mean flow velocity
343	yi	<i>i</i> -th observation in Moran's <i>I</i>
344	y j	<i>j</i> -th observation in Moran's <i>I</i>
345	Z0	height above the bed at which the velocity goes to zero
346	Z	height of the velocity measurement,
347		
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428	FIGURE CAPTIONS

429 Figure 1. (A) Map showing the location of the Uinta Basin and bounding structures. Inset is a

430 chronostratigraphic chart of the Uinta Basin. The lower Wasatch Formation lies between the

431 Flagstaff Limestone and middle Wasatch Formation and is the focus of this study. (B)

432 Photopanel of the field area showing the locations of the 274 channel belts. The five used in this433 study are labeled 1-5 and are highlighted by the colored boxes.

434

Figure 2. Stratigraphic cross sections through the five channel belts within the lower Wasatch Formation used in this study. Sediment transport is into the page for all channel belts. Bedsets are colored according to the dominant facies within the bedset. Brown and green colors reflect facies with clay-sized sediment, while yellow and orange are facies with silt and sand. Facies proportions by area are documented in the pie charts next to each channel belt.

440

441 Figure 3. (A) Grain-size distributions for the channel belts used in this study. Grain-size

442 measurements were made throughout the measured sections, and across the outcrop face. (B)

443 Box and whisker plots of mean flow velocities calculated for bedsets in channel belts. (C) Box

444 and whisker plots of flow depths measured from bar-form thicknesses within the channel belts.

445

Figure 4. Two-dimensional kernel density estimate plot of flow velocity and flow depth for all
Monte Carlo simulations. Darker colors are areas with fewer points and lighter colors have
higher density of points. The velocity and flow depth for each bedset in the five documented
channel belts in the lower Wasatch Formation are plotted above to visualize alignment of the
variance with the mean values.

451

452 Figure 5. (A)Spatially lagged Moran's *I* values for channel belts in the lower Wasatch

453 Formation. Increasing the neighborhood structure to include bedsets not directly in contact with

one another documents both short and long-range changes in spatial dependence. (B-F) Spatially
lagged Moran's *I* values for all documented channel belts in the lower Wasatch Formation with
boxplots documenting the variance of Moran's *I* due to variance in flow velocity calculations
caused by error propagation from field measurements.

Table 1. Comparison of variance in mean flow velocity with and without variance in slope for
each channel belt. When variance in slope is removed from the error propagation, the standard
deviation of flow velocity is cut in roughly half.













Table 1.							
Channel Belt	Mean Flow Velocity with Slope Variance (m/s)	Mean Flow Velocity Standard Deviation with Slope Variance (m/s)	Mean Flow Velocity without Slope Variance (m/s)	Mean Flow Velocity Standard Deviation without Slope Variance (m/s)			
1	0.55	0.29	0.55	0.13			
2	0.2	0.11	0.2	0.045			
3	0.28	0.14	0.28	0.06			
4	0.4	0.21	0.4	0.09			
5	0.45	0.11	0.45	0.09			