

1 **Quantitative analysis of fluvial paleohydraulics and intra-channel belt stratal preservation:**
2 **lower Wasatch Formation, Utah, USA**

3 Jesse Pisel¹, David Pyles²

4 ¹*Wyoming State Geological Survey, P.O. Box 1347, Laramie WY*

5 ²*EOG Resources Inc, 600 17th St. Denver CO*

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.

41 Two end-member channel-belt types have been interpreted to document short term
42 (yearly to decadal) climatic signals, perennial and ephemeral. Perennial channel belts are
43 interpreted to document persistent flow conditions, with annual to decadal fluctuations related to
44 seasonality in sediment and water flux (Meinzer, 1923; Fielding et al., 2009). Ephemeral channel
45 belts document transient flow conditions between wet and dry periods (McKee et al., 1967;
46 North and Taylor, 1996). Despite differences in flow conditions and bedforms associated with

47 the two channel belt types, documenting persistence or transience of flow conditions on a
48 decadal to 100 year timescale within ancient fluvial channel belts remains challenging. This
49 study uses cross sections, measured sections, grain-size distributions, lithofacies, and bedset
50 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
53 exposures of a low net-sand content fluvial system. The Uinta Basin is a longitudinally
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
65 climatic fluctuations at the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (Foreman et al., 2012).

66 **DATASET AND METHODS**

67 An exceptionally well exposed, strike-oriented outcrop of the lower Wasatch Formation
68 is used to address the goals of this study (Figure 1B). The outcrop is located along the southern
69 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).

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

$$96 \quad w_{s(Dmaxs)} = \frac{gRD_{90}^2}{18\nu + (0.75CgRD_{90}^3)^{1/2}} \quad (1)$$

97 where g is the acceleration of gravity, R is the specific gravity of the particle in the water, D_{90} is
 98 the maximum grain size, ν 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:

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

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 ($0.3H$), 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):

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

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 propagates
115 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 ± 3.185 m). The resulting first order Sobol indices are as follows 0.8982 (D_{90}), 0.0126 (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.

132 Now that we have quantitatively documented which variables have first and second order
133 controls, we can calculate paleoslope and associated uncertainty. We use one standard deviation
134 as our uncertainty bounds based on a grain size error of $\pm 1\phi$ for both D_{90} and D_{50} . This
135 uncertainty is based on the assumption that our grain size measurements are within 1ϕ of the
136 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
140 paleoslope of the lower Wasatch Formation to be 2.8×10^{-3} with a maximum of 5.4×10^{-3} and a
141 minimum of 1.6×10^{-4} . The mean and lower limits are well within the reasonable bounds
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.

145 Using the mean paleoslope (2.8×10^{-3}) and flow depth measurements for each barform
146 (Figure 3C) we calculate the bed shear stress using the depth-slope product (Leopold et al.,
147 1964):

$$148 \quad \tau_b = \rho g H S \quad (4)$$

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):

$$153 \quad u_* = \sqrt{\frac{\tau_b}{\rho}} \quad (5)$$

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):

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

157 where z is the height of the velocity measurement, z_0 is the level at which the velocity goes to
158 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
166 assumptions, the simulations proceed as follows: (1) select a bedset in the channel belt, (2) for
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

181 of error within the systems of equations we will further discuss the analytical methods we used to
182 spatially 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 :

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

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

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

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

202 each simulation. Calculated Moran's I is compared to the distribution of Moran's I from the
203 Monte Carlo simulations. If the observed value of I is outside the distribution generated from the
204 simulations ($p < 0.05$), there is significant evidence for spatial autocorrelation. Moran's I ranges
205 from -1 to 1, where negative values document negative correlation (transience), and positive
206 values document positive correlation (persistence) and values near 0 document spatial
207 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
212 from uncertainty in slope estimates. A slope of $2.8 \times 10^{-3} \pm 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ results in the following mean
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 **Moran's I**

220 For a bedset lag of 1, all five characters belts have documented positive spatial
221 autocorrelation (or similarity) of mean flow velocity using Moran's I (Figure 5a). As we increase
222 the region neighborhoods, or distance between bedsets, we document positive spatial
223 autocorrelation up to 2 bedset lags for all the channel belts (Figure 5a). Meaning the mean flow
224 velocities in all the channel belts are locally similar from bedset to bedset both vertically and

225 laterally. Channel Belts 3 and 4 have positive spatial correlation at bedset lags of 3, while the
226 mean flow velocity for Channel Belts 1, 2, and 5 is spatially independent and remains that way
227 through 4 bedset lags. At bedset lags of 5 and 6, Channel Belts 1-4 have negative spatial
228 autocorrelation of mean flow velocity (Figure 5b-e). This means mean flow velocities in
229 intermediate bedsets, both vertically and laterally, are dissimilar. Channel Belt 5 has no
230 correlation for any bedset lags higher than 2 (Figure 5f), meaning that mean flow velocities for
231 all bedsets are spatially independent or different.

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

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.

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

248 the channel belt. Therefore, we infer the intermediate-range transience in flow velocity is the
249 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
260 predominantly low flow regime associated facies (e.g. facies F3, F4, F5) and have little
261 variability within the channel belt. Therefore, we infer the intermediate and long-range
262 transience in flow velocity is due to alternating periods of high and low flow velocity rather than
263 rapid infilling of the channel belt.

264 We interpret Channel Belt 2 documents perennial deposits; the majority of the facies are
265 diagnostic of lower flow regime conditions which are interpreted by North and Taylor (1996) to
266 record low discharge and low flow velocity conditions (Figure 5b). Facies in Channel Belt 4
267 document both high and low flow conditions, but is primarily facies that are interpreted to
268 document low flow regime (Figure 5e). Additionally, the short-range persistence and
269 intermediate range transience of flow velocities document periods of alternating high and low

270 flow. Therefore, we interpret this channel belt to be a combination of perennial and ephemeral
271 flow 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

293 from intra-channel belt architecture to basin-scale stacking patterns. This concept provides
294 insight into the scales that future studies should consider when attempting to resolve external
295 signals. Systems with deep laterally-migrating channel belts should be considered ideal when
296 attempting to resolve signals at the intra-channel belt scale, while systems with shallow
297 downstream-migrating channel belts should be considered ideal to study when attempting to
298 resolve basin-scale signals. Furthermore, the spatial relationships between some bedsets are non-
299 random, 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.

310 This article quantitatively documents a paleoflow velocity calculation method and the
311 associated sources and propagation of error through the system of equations. Additionally we
312 document perennial and ephemeral signals within fluvial channel belts. We use a workflow to
313 calculate mean flow velocity and associated error for each bedset. Using Moran's I , facies
314 patterns, and migration orientations, we document spatial dependence and independence in mean
315 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	ν	kinematic viscosity of water
324	ρ	density of water
325	τ_b	bed shear stress
326	C	constant equal to 1
327	C_d	drag coefficient
328	D_{90}	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	H	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 $w_{s(D_{maxs})}$ settling velocity of coarsest grain in suspension
341 W_{ij} spatial weights
342 \bar{y} global mean flow velocity
343 y_i i -th observation in Moran's I
344 y_j j -th observation in Moran's I
345 z_0 height above the bed at which the velocity goes to zero
346 z height of the velocity measurement,

347

348 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

349 This article benefited from early constructive reviews by Kyle Straub, Brady Foreman, an
350 anonymous reviewer, _____ and _____. Financial support was provided by the
351 Chevron Center of Research Excellence (Colorado School of Mines), AAPG Student Grant-in-
352 aid, Rocky Mountain Section of SEPM Fluvial Sedimentology Award, Rocky Mountain
353 Association of Geologists Scholarship, Devon Energy Scholarship, and the Hemmesch and
354 Burch Fellowships from the Colorado School of Mines. We thank Duncan Metcalfe, Corinne
355 Springer, Dave Potter, and the Natural History Museum of Utah for field support and access to
356 Desolation Canyon.

357 **REFERENCES CITED**

358 Allen, J. P., Fielding, C. R., Gibling, M. R., & Rygel, M. C. (2014). Recognizing products of
359 palaeoclimate fluctuation in the fluvial stratigraphic record: An example from the
360 Pennsylvanian to Lower Permian of Cape Breton Island, Nova Scotia. *Sedimentology*,
361 *61*(5), 1332–1381.

362 Allen, J. P., Fielding, C. R., Rygel, M. C., & Gibling, M. R. (2013). Deconvolving signals of
363 tectonic and climatic controls from continental basins: an example from the late
364 Paleozoic Cumberland Basin, Atlantic Canada. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, 83(10),
365 847–872.

366 Fielding, C. R., Allen, J. P., Alexander, J., & Gibling, M. R. (2009). Facies model for fluvial
367 systems in the seasonal tropics and subtropics. *Geology*, 37(7), 623–626.

368 Ford, G. L., & Pyles, D. R. (2014). A hierarchical approach for evaluating fluvial systems:
369 Architectural analysis and sequential evolution of the high net-sand content, middle
370 Wasatch Formation, Uinta Basin, UtahGeohorizon. *AAPG Bulletin*, 98(7), 1273–1304.

371 Foreman, B. Z., Heller, P. L., & Clementz, M. T. (2012). Fluvial response to abrupt global
372 warming at the Palaeocene/Eocene boundary. *Nature*, 491(7422), 92.

373 Herman, J., & Usher, W. (2017). SALib: an open-source Python library for sensitivity analysis.
374 *The Journal of Open Source Software*, 2(9).

375 Hunter, J. D. (2007). Matplotlib: A 2D graphics environment. *Computing in Science &*
376 *Engineering*, 9(3), 90–95.

377 Jerolmack, D. J., & Paola, C. (2010). Shredding of environmental signals by sediment transport.
378 *Geophysical Research Letters*, 37(19).

379 Keighley, D., Flint, S., Howell, J., Andersson, D., Collins, S., Moscariello, A., & Stone, G.
380 (2002). Surface and Subsurface Correlation of the Green River Formation in Central Nine
381 Mile Canyon, SW Uinta Basin, Carbon and Duchesne Counties, East-Central Utah (MP-
382 02-1).

383 Leopold, L. B., & Wolman, M. G. (n.d.). Miller] P. 1964. Fluvial processes in geomorphology.
384 *San Francisco, California, Freeman*, 522, 135–163.

385 Lynds, R. M., Mohrig, D., Hajek, E. A., & Heller, P. L. (2014). Paleoslope reconstruction in
386 sandy suspended-load-dominant rivers. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, 84(10), 825–
387 836.

388 McKee, E., Crosby, E. t, & Berryhill Jr, H. (1967). Flood deposits, Bijou Creek, Colorado, June
389 1965. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, 37(3).

390 McKinney, W. (2010). Data structures for statistical computing in python (Vol. 445, pp. 51–56).
391 Presented at the Proceedings of the 9th Python in Science Conference, Austin, TX.

392 Meinzer, O. E. (1923). Outline of ground-water hydrology. *US Geological Survey Water Supply*
393 *Paper*, 494, 5.

394 Moran, P. A. (1950). Notes on continuous stochastic phenomena. *Biometrika*, 37(1/2), 17–23.

395 North, C. P., & Taylor, K. S. (1996). Ephemeral-fluvial deposits: integrated outcrop and
396 simulation studies reveal complexity. *AAPG Bulletin*, 80(6), 811–830.

397 Oliphant, T. E. (2006). *A guide to NumPy* (Vol. 1). Trelgol Publishing USA.

398 Osmond, J. C. (1964). Tectonic history of the Uinta basin, Utah.

399 Pérez, F., & Granger, B. E. (2007). IPython: a system for interactive scientific computing.
400 *Computing in Science & Engineering*, 9(3).

401 Picard, M. D. (1956). Summary of Tertiary oil and gas fields in Utah and Colorado. *AAPG*
402 *Bulletin*, 40(12), 2956–2960.

403 Pisel, J. R., Pyles, D. R., & Kirschbaum, M. A. (2018). The influence of lateral topographic
404 confinement on fluvial channel-belt clustering, compensation and connectivity—lower
405 Wasatch Formation and Dakota Sandstone, Utah, USA. *Sedimentology*, 65(2), 597–619.

406 Prokoph, A., & Agterberg, F. P. (1999). Detection of sedimentary cyclicity and stratigraphic
407 completeness by wavelet analysis: an application to late Albian cyclostratigraphy of the

408 Western Canada sedimentary basin. *Journal of Sedimentary Research*, 69(4).

409 Prokoph, A., & El Bilali, H. (2008). Cross-wavelet analysis: a tool for detection of relationships
410 between paleoclimate proxy records. *Mathematical Geosciences*, 40(5), 575–586.

411 Saltelli, A. (2002). Making best use of model evaluations to compute sensitivity indices.
412 *Computer Physics Communications*, 145(2), 280–297.

413 Saltelli, A., Annoni, P., Azzini, I., Campolongo, F., Ratto, M., & Tarantola, S. (2010). Variance
414 based sensitivity analysis of model output. Design and estimator for the total sensitivity
415 index. *Computer Physics Communications*, 181(2), 259–270.

416 Sewall, J. O., & Sloan, L. C. (2006). Come a little bit closer: A high-resolution climate study of
417 the early Paleogene Laramide foreland. *Geology*, 34(2), 81–84.

418 Shields, A. (1936). Application of similarity mechanics and turbulence research on shear flow.
419 *Mitteilungen Der Preußischen Versuchsanstalt Für Wasserbau (in German)*, (26).

420 Sobol, I. M. (2001). Global sensitivity indices for nonlinear mathematical models and their
421 Monte Carlo estimates. *Mathematics and Computers in Simulation*, 55(1–3), 271–280.

422 Trampush, S., Huzurbazar, S., & McElroy, B. (2014). Empirical assessment of theory for
423 bankfull characteristics of alluvial channels. *Water Resources Research*, 50(12), 9211–
424 9220.

425 Von Kármán, T. (1931). Mechanical similitude and turbulence.

426 Wiberg, P. L., & Rubin, D. M. (1989). Bed roughness produced by saltating sediment. *Journal of*
427 *Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 94(C4), 5011–5016.

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 this
433 study are labeled 1-5 and are highlighted by the colored boxes.

434

435 Figure 2. Stratigraphic cross sections through the five channel belts within the lower Wasatch
436 Formation used in this study. Sediment transport is into the page for all channel belts. Bedsets
437 are colored according to the dominant facies within the bedset. Brown and green colors reflect
438 facies with clay-sized sediment, while yellow and orange are facies with silt and sand. Facies
439 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

446 Figure 4. Two-dimensional kernel density estimate plot of flow velocity and flow depth for all
447 Monte Carlo simulations. Darker colors are areas with fewer points and lighter colors have
448 higher density of points. The velocity and flow depth for each bedset in the five documented
449 channel belts in the lower Wasatch Formation are plotted above to visualize alignment of the
450 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

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

458

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

Figure 1.

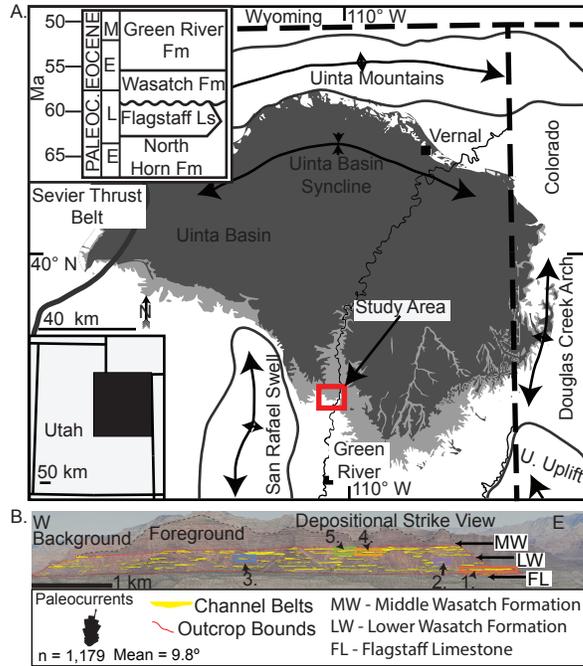


Figure 2.

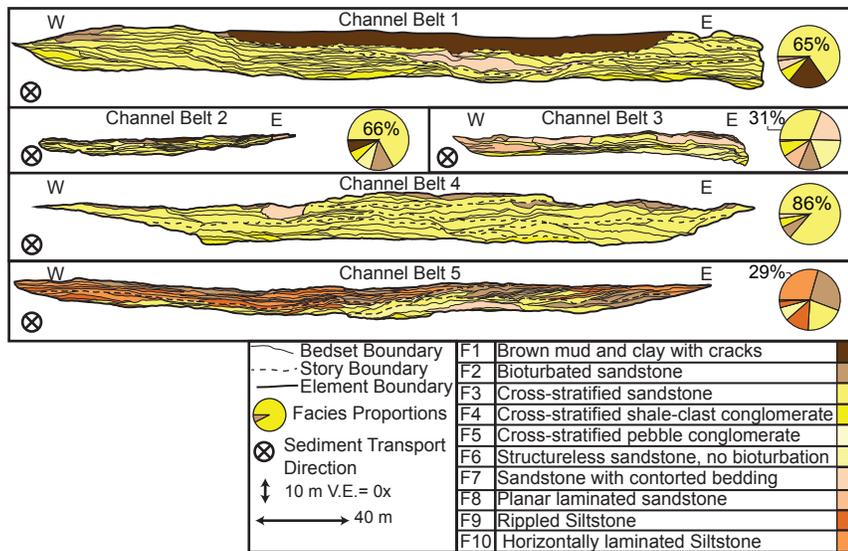


Figure 3.

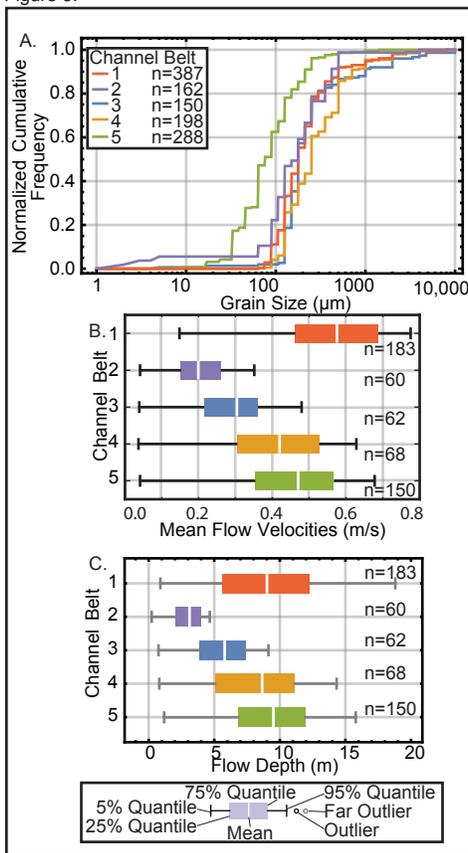


Figure 4.

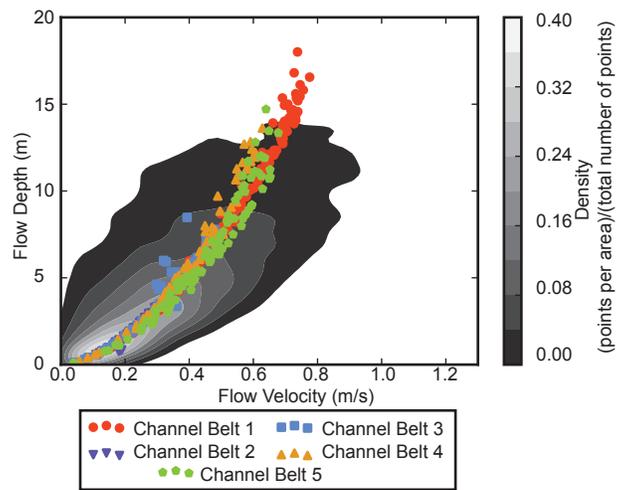


Figure 5.

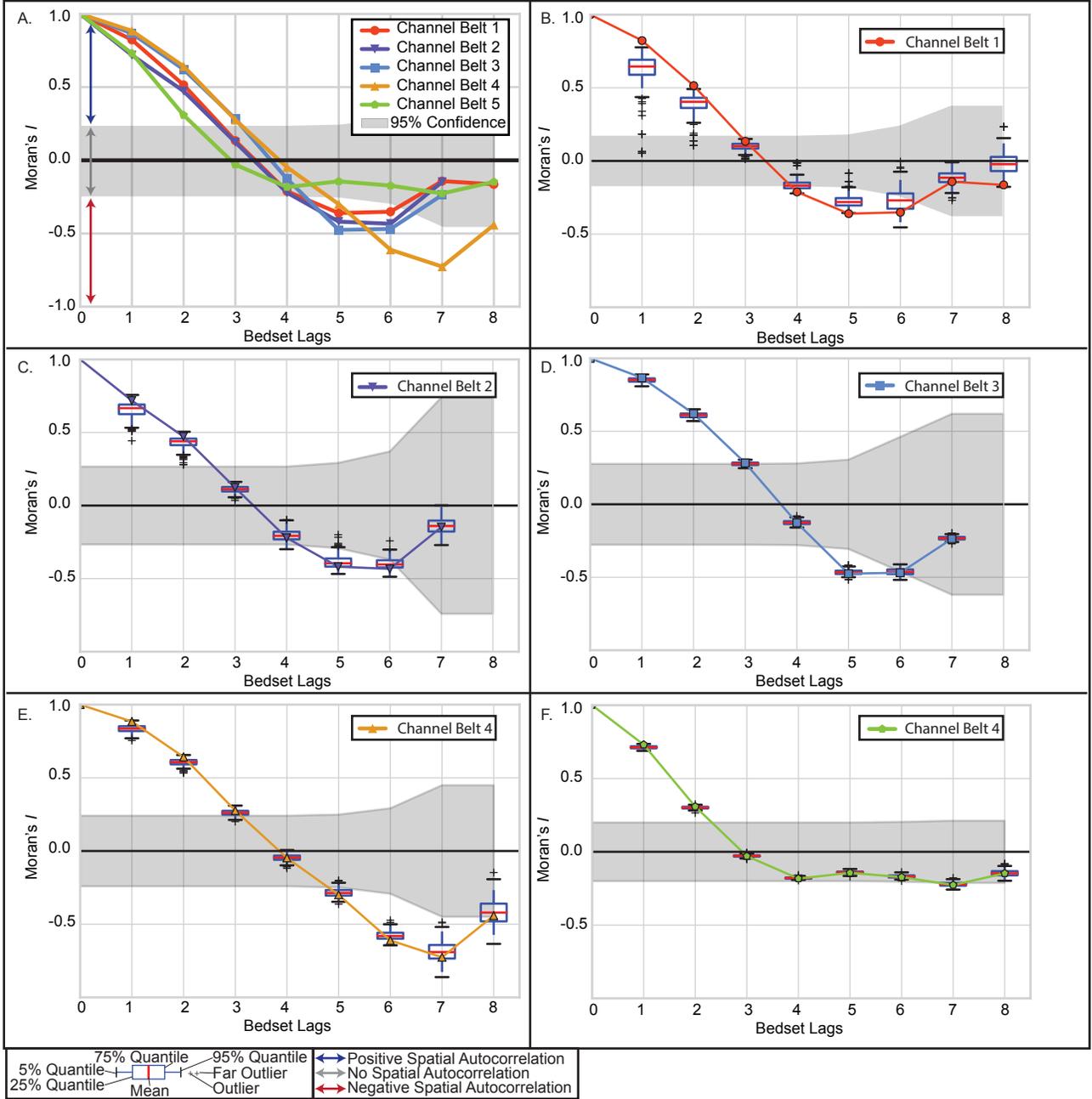


Table 1.

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