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6	Quantitative constraints on flood variability in the rock record.
7 8	Jonah S. McLeod ¹ *, James Wood ¹ , Sinead J. Lyster ^{1,2} , Jeffery M. Valenza ³ , Alan R.T. Spencer ^{1,4} , Alexander C. Whittaker ¹ .
9	¹ Department of Earth Science and Engineering, Imperial College London, UK, SW7 2BX.
10 11	² Department of Geosciences, The Pennsylvania State University, State College, Pennsylvania 16801, USA.
12 13	³ Department of Geography, University of California, Santa Barbara, 1832 Ellison Hall, Santa Barbara, California 93106, USA.
14	⁴ Science Group, The Natural History Museum, London, UK, SW7 5HD.
15	*jonah.mcleod18@imperial.ac.uk
16 17 18 19 20 21 22	ORCiDs: JSM – 0000-0002-5382-3559, JW – 0000-0002-1673-0097, SJL - 0000-0002-1188- 533X, JMV - 0000-0002-1066-0817, ARTS - 0000-0001-6590-405X, ACW - 0000-0002- 8781-7771
23	Abstract
24	Floods determine river behaviour in time and space. Yet quantitative measures of discharge
25	variability from geological stratigraphy are sparse, even though they are critical to understand
26	landscape sensitivity to past and future environmental change. Here we show how storm-

27 driven river floods in the geologic past can be quantified, using Carboniferous stratigraphy as 28 an exemplar. The geometries of dune cross-sets demonstrate that discharge-driven 29 disequilibrium dynamics dominated fluvial deposition in the Pennant Formation of South 30 Wales. Based on bedform preservation theory, we quantify dune turnover timescales and 31 hence the magnitude and duration of flow variability, showing that rivers were perennial but 32 prone to flashy floods lasting 4-16 hours. This disequilibrium bedform preservation is 33 consistent across 4 Ma of stratigraphy, and coincides with facies-based markers of flooding, 34 such as mass-preservation of woody debris. We suggest that it is now possible to quantify 35 climate-driven sedimentation events in the geologic past, and reconstruct discharge 36 variability from the rock record on a uniquely short (daily) timescale, revealing a formation 37 dominated by flashy floods in perennial rivers.

38 1 Introduction

Rivers are the most significant drivers of water and sediment transport across the continents¹, 39 40 and associated flood events play a key role in shaping landscapes, impacting ecosystems, and 41 determining the magnitude, characteristics and locus of sedimentation on the surface of the Earth^{2–10}. In principle, fluvial strata, which constitute a physical record of ancient river 42 43 behaviour, provide a key archive to assess the impacts of flooding in the geologic past. An 44 outstanding research challenge for geoscientists is to decode this archive effectively to 45 evaluate: how, where and when fluvial deposits may record extreme events; the extent to which they can be quantified; and how much they may dominate the stratigraphic record^{7,11–} 46 47 ¹³. This is particularly important as constraints on discharge variability from the geologic 48 record provide a critical tool to understand past impacts of climate variability on river behaviour^{8,14}. To-date qualitative insights into flow variability have largely been extracted 49 from the rock record using facies analysis^{10,15–19}, including observations of super-critical flow 50 indicators ^{10,15–19}. However, recent advances in our understanding of fluvial bedform 51 dynamics in disequilibrium conditions raise the possibility of gaining quantitative insights 52 into flow variability in ancient rivers^{13,20}; when used together with sedimentary observations, 53 these advances permit reconstruction of flood magnitudes and variability directly from fluvial 54 55 stratigraphy.

56 The approach begins with the fundamental morphometrics of fluvial bedforms^{20–28}, in 57 particular dune-scale cross-strata, sub-critical bedforms which are ubiquitous in most ancient 58 river deposits^{20,21,24–26}. Cross-sets are preserved when dunes are not fully reworked by the 59 prevailing flow, allowing the remaining bedform to become buried (Fig. 1). The "flood hypothesis" of bedform preservation¹³ states that enhanced bedform preservation occurs 60 61 during floods (especially those with flashy hydrographs) when the formative flood duration, T_{f} , is less than the timescale to rework a bedform, known as the turnover timescale, T_{t} (Fig. 1, 62 see Table 1 for definitions). This is due to hysteresis in the adjustment of bedforms to 63 64 changing flow conditions, meaning that when $T_f < T_t$, bedforms do not have time to adjust in form to reach equilibrium with the prevailing flow. This key signal of flow variability can be 65 extracted from dune-scale cross-strata using measurements of the distribution of heights (h_{xs}) 66 67 of preserved dune-scale cross-sets to calculate their coefficient of variation, CV^{13} . In steadystate flow conditions, which may occur when $T_f \ge T_t$, the spread in cross-set heights in 68 preserved stratigraphy is high: the CV is expected to be in the range 0.88 ± 0.3 because 69 70 existing theory and experiments demonstrate that bedform migration across random bed 71 topography with low angles of climb, in equilibrium with the prevailing flow, results in low bedform preservation and high CV (Fig. 1a) $^{13,21-23}$. In contrast, when preservation occurs in 72 73 disequilibrium conditions, which may arise due to flooding, the opposite is true (Fig. 1b). In this case, limited reworking of sediment within a dune results in lower CV^{26} , with a greater 74 proportion of the original dune preserved in stratigraphy. Disequilibrium bedform dynamics 75 have been observed experimentally^{29,13}, and recently dune cross-set CV has been used to 76 indicate disequilibrium dynamics in stratigraphy^{20,30}. However, flow variability is not the 77 only origin of disequilibrium conditions: enhanced bedform preservation in disequilibrium 78 79 conditions can also be caused by the presence of morphodynamic hierarchy, such as dunes migrating atop barforms^{13,20,26}. Disequilibrium bedform dynamics caused by flow variability 80 can therefore be difficult to definitively identify in the rock record, due to lack of independent 81 82 evidence of variable discharge. Here, we test the flood hypothesis for enhanced bedform 83 preservation in a location where unambiguous evidence of variable discharge conditions, 84 including mass preservation of woody debris, can be combined with quantitative bedform and palaeohydrologic analyses. Therefore, we link for the first time bedform disequilibrium with 85 86 stratigraphic evidence of flooding. In doing so, we demonstrate how sophisticated insights 87 into water fluxes, climate and discharge variability can now be quantified for the geological past from stratigraphic data. 88





- 90 Figure 1: The hydrodynamic conditions that lead to differences in coefficient of variation of cross-set height,
- 21 *CV*, recorded in cross-strata. (a) Dune migration and evolution in steady-state (equilibrium) flow conditions, and
- 92 the resultant geometries of preserved cross-sets; (b) dune evolution and preservation in disequilibrium with
- Figure 1: The hydrodynamic condition *CV*, recorded in cross-strata. (a) Dunce
 the resultant geometries of preserved
 prevailing flow, resulting in low *CV*.

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Parameter	Defir	nition	References
Mean cross set height.	The mean from a distributi	on of heights measured	11010101000
h	within one cross-set.	on of heights measured	
Original bedform	The original height of the b	bedform before	21,22
height, h_d	preservation as a cross-set.		
6 /	$h_d = 2.90$	$(\pm 0.7)h_{rs}$	
Bedform preservation	The ratio of cross-set heigh	nt to original bedform	13,20
ratio, hxs/hd	height, representing the pro-	oportion of the original	
	height of the bedform pres	erved in the rock record.	
Coefficient of variation	The ratio of standard devia	tion to mean of cross-set	21,22
of cross-set height, CV	height, measured along a s	ingle cross-set.	
	$CV - \sigma$	σ : standard deviation	
	$LV = -\frac{u}{u}$		
	1-	u: mean	
Bedform turnover	The length of time taken for	or a bedform to be fully	12,13,31
timescale, T,	reworked by flow, or for th	ne sediment in a dune to be	
· L	displaced downstream by c	one bedform wavelength.	
	$\lambda h_d \beta$	λ: dune wavelength	
	$I_t = \frac{q_h}{q_h}$	(≈7.3H)	
		$β$: shape factor (≈ 0.55)	
		q_h : unit bedload flux	
Prevailing flow	The duration of the falling	limb of the discharge	12,13
duration, T_f	event which generated the	preserved bedform.	
	$T_f = T_t T *$	<i>T</i> *: bedform	
	, ,	disequilibrium number	
Flow intermittency	The fraction of the total tin	ne in which bankfull flow	32
factor, I _f	would accomplish the sam	e amount of water	
	discharge as the real hydro	graph.	
	$\Sigma Q(t)$	$\Sigma Q(t)$: sum of the time	
	$I_f = \frac{1}{Q_{bf}\Sigma t}$	dependent discharge	
	-,		

Q_{bf} : bankfull discharge	
Σt : timespan	

95 Table 1: Key palaeohydrological variables and definitions.

96 2. Study Area

97 We focus on the Pennant Formation of South Wales, UK (Fig. 2), a 1.3 km thick succession

98 of Upper Carboniferous (312.4 – 308 Ma, corresponding to the Moscovian age, or Bolsovian-

Asturian substages) fluvial strata 33,34 . The five members of the formation (Llynfi, Rhondda,

100 Brithdir, Hughes, Swansea) were deposited when South Wales was located near the equator,

101 at a palaeolatitude of between 2.7° N and 3.0° S³⁵. The formation is the product of rivers that

102 drained the Variscan Mountains, flowing north-west²⁸ across foreland basin floodplains^{36,37}.

103 The regional climate was warm and wet, with precipitation rates averaging 1.5–5

104 mm/day^{35,38,39}. Individual catchment length and drainage areas reconstructed for multiple

105 rivers in the Pennant system, based on outcrops in South Wales, average 130-200 km and \sim

106 4500 - 9500 km² respectively^{28,40,41}. Rapid sedimentation in a foreland basin setting (up to

 $107 \quad 340 \text{ m/Ma}^{28,36}$ resulted in a high-fidelity and high-temporal resolution record of fluvial

108 processes across a c. 4 myr time period^{33,36,37}.





110 Figure 2: The South Wales and Pembrokeshire Coalfields, and the localities used for primary data collection.

111 Pennant Formation geology is outlined after Jones and Hartley³⁷. The stratigraphic column shows the five

112 Members of the Pennant Formation, modified from Waters et al⁴², and Barclay⁴³ with age data from the BSG

113 Geological Timechart. The localities are colour-coded by Member.

114 The formation comprises bedded, channelised sandstone bodies, with well-preserved accretion sets and abundant dune-scale cross-bedding²⁸. Separating the cliff-forming 115 sandstone bodies are slope-forming fine-grained sediments representing floodplain 116 deposition³⁷. They contain abundant and well-documented coals^{36,44} indicating river 117 118 migration across a forested, swampy foreland, characterised by high retention of surface 119 water. As a result, the Pennant Formation has classically been divided into 3 main facies associations: fluvial, channel, floodplain and mire^{36,37} (Supplementary Material). These 120 121 characteristics are consistent with single-threaded or anastomosing rivers consisting of a few threads, which have been interpreted as showing perennial discharge regimes^{15,28,33,36,37,44,45}. 122 123 Qualitative observations of heterolithic deposits at channel margins (Supplementary Material) and the presence of in-channel plant debris strongly point to the occurrence of flood 124 events^{33,36}, some of which entrained flood plain vegetation^{31,34,35}. These observations are 125 consistent with the hypothesis in the thesis of Jones³⁶, based on extensive facies analysis 126 127 across South Wales, that the Pennant Formation may well have experienced variable

- 128 discharge conditions. We therefore exploit this setting, including classical descriptions of
- 129 facies associations^{36,37} as well as recent reconstructions of palaeo-rivers within the Pennant
- 130 Formation²⁸ to compare numerical and facies evidence of disequilibrium flow conditions
- 131 related to floods, and in doing so, quantify discharge variability in a Carboniferous river
- 132 system for the first time.

133 **3 Results**

134 **3.1 Quantitative Analysis of Flood Stratigraphy**

135 We first consider whether this formation contains quantitative evidence of disequilibrium

136 bedform preservation, consistent with the flood hypothesis^{9,16,27}, and if so, what this implies

137 about flood durations. We then place these results in the context of facies-based evidence of

- 138 floods in the form of woody debris accumulations (Section 3.2).
- 139 The mean cross-set height, h_{xs} , across the Pennant Formation was 0.12 m, with a median of
- 140 0.12 m and a standard deviation of 0.06 m (Fig. 3a). Values of maximum height measured
- 141 within each cross-set average 0.19 m. Two-tailed Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) tests show that
- 142 the h_{xs} distributions of the Pennant Formation's five Members are similar with 99.9%
- 143 confidence (Supplementary Material S3h), and Fig. 3a shows that the distributions of mean
- 144 h_{xs} follow a similar pattern across all members. This analysis indicates that measured samples
- 145 of cross-sets have similar height distributions at member and formation level.



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Figure 3: Cross-set data demonstrating disequilibrium bedform preservation. (a) Cumulative probability distributions of mean cross-set height for each member of the Pennant Formation, with distributions of the mean, 84th percentile, maximum for the Pennant Formation overall, and cross-sets associated with woody debris; (b) similar to (a), but with distributions of CV; (c) the CV of cross-set height for each member of the Pennant Formation. ⁴⁴The dashed line and grey shaded region indicate the theoretical and empirical range of CVat steady state of $0.88 \pm 0.3^{21,22}$.

- 153 Results also show statistically similar low *CV* distributions for all members with 90%
- 154 confidence with median CV values spanning 0.36–0.42 (Fig. 3b, Supplementary Material).
- 155 The median CV in the Pennant Formation is 0.40 and the mean is 0.41. We emphasize that
- 156 these CV values are significantly lower than the theoretical value expected for steady-state
- bedform preservation of $CV = 0.88 \pm 0.3$ (Fig. 4c)^{13,21–23}. Indeed, 99.6% of cross-sets have

- 158 *CV* below 0.88, and 96.7% have *CV* below 0.58 (0.88–0.3), suggesting that c. 97% of dunes
- 159 measured were preserved in disequilibrium with the prevailing flow. These findings are
- 160 consistent with theory and observations of disequilibrium (enhanced) bedform
- 161 preservation^{13,20,25,26} (Fig. 3), and this signal of variable discharge conditions is consistent
- 162 across all members of the Pennant Formation (Fig. 3c).
- 163 These data can be used to quantify bedform turnover timescales, T_t , and prevailing flood
- 164 durations, T_{f} . We first explore what our data imply assuming a minimum theoretical bedform
- 165 preservation ratio (h_{xx}/h_d , see Table 1) of $0.3^{13,20,26}$ to obtain estimates of the maximum
- 166 durations of T_t and T_t (Fig. 4a). Then we evaluate the sensitivity of these results to higher
- 167 bedform preservation ratios.

168 T_t calculations (Eq. 3) suggest dunes required a median of 3.2 days to be fully reworked by 169 flow; similar results are found for all members of the Pennant Formation (Fig. 4a). Bedform

170 theory and empirical observations¹³ demonstrate dunes preserved in the falling limbs of

171 flashy floods, in disequilibrium with the prevailing flow, have a bedform disequilibrium

172 number, T^* , of <1, representing the ratio of T_f and T_t . When the CV of cross-set height is as

173 low as 0.4, as our calculations show, T^* can be as low as 0.1^{13} . This means given the average

174 T_t of 3.2 days, T_f is reconstructed as c. 8 hours (0.32 days). Flashy floods, which can be

175 defined as having abrupt flow deceleration and $T^* \ll 1^{13}$ are often associated with intense

176 precipitation lasting less than half a day⁴⁶ and can have almost symmetrical hydrographs¹⁵, so

177 the total length of the average flood preserved in the Pennant Formation can be approximated

- as 16 hours. To our knowledge this is the first time flood durations have been estimated for
- 179 Carboniferous river systems. Based on paleohydrological calculations (Table 1 and Methods)

180 we recover median bankfull discharge in individual channel threads as $140-160 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, and

- 181 considering existing reconstructions of several (i.e. 2-4) anastomosing threads²⁸ this could be
- 182 as high as $640 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$.



Figure 4: Cumulative probability distribution graphs showing key palaeohydrological variables. (a) The primary x-axis represents bedform turnover timescale, T_t , in each member of the Pennant Formation, and the secondary x-axis indicates prevailing flow duration, T_f , which we set as $0.1T_t$, following Leary and Ganti¹³; (b) the primary x-axis represents the unit discharge, Q, and the secondary x-axis represents the bankfull discharge, Q_{bf} , calculated by multiplying Q by the average width of the channel, 55 m³¹.

189 Because disequilibrium (enhanced) bedform preservation due to flooding is indicated by our CV values (Fig. 3), the estimates presented in Fig. 4a are conservative maxima⁹. The bedform 190 preservation ratio, h_{xs}/h_d , is the ratio of measured mean cross-set height to estimated mean 191 192 original dune height, and is influenced by the equilibrium dynamics of flow. Steady state dynamics are implicit in many bedform scaling relations²², assuming $h_{xs}/h_d = 0.3$, however 193 194 plausible non-steady state values of h_{xs}/h_d may be as great as 0.6, based on theory and experiments which show enhanced preservation during the falling limbs of flashy floods^{13,20}. 195 As h_{xs}/h_d increases from 0.3 to 0.6 for a known h_{xs} (0.12 m on average for the Pennant 196 197 Formation), the median T_t reduces from 3.2 days to 0.9 days (Fig. 5a). This means that while 198 the falling limb of floods may be as long as 8 hours assuming a 'typical' bedform 199 preservation ratio of 0.3, T_f could be as short as 2 hours assuming a bedform preservation 200 ratio as large as 0.6. Durations are very unlikely to be shorter than this as we do not see complete dunes preserved. The shaded regions in Fig. 5 illustrate the plausible range in 201 202 palaeohydrologic parameters, with bankfull discharges for individual channels reconstructed 203 from cross-set heights as between 88 and 160 m^3/s (Fig. 5b). Independent architectural constraints on channel morphology³¹ result in comparable discharge reconstructions, with a 204 205 median of 140 m³/s per channel.

- Finally, we note that the flow intermittency factor of a river, I_f , can be used to obtain
- 207 quantitative context into annual flow regime, and can be visualised as the proportion of the
- 208 year a river would need to maintain channel forming discharge conditions to equal an
- 209 estimate of the yearly water budget. For ancient fluvial systems such as the Pennant
- 210 Formation, If can be estimated using published constraints on palaeogeographic and palaeo-
- 211 precipitation rates (see Methods) to obtain a plausible annual water budget, and we exploit
- these to obtain first-order intermittency estimates for Pennant rivers^{39,41}. By comparing these
- 213 constraints on mean annual discharge to our bankfull estimates (Fig. 4b), we estimate $I_f =$
- $214 \quad 0.17 0.44$ (see Methods). This suggests that if the rivers of the Pennant Formation sustained
- 215 bankfull conditions they could complete annual discharge in 62 160 days, which is
- 216 consistent with perennial river systems, as discussed further below.



Figure 5: The effect of increased bedform preservation ratios on key palaeohydrologic parameters. (a) The primary y-axis indicates bedform turnover timescale, T_t , and the secondary y-axis indicates prevailing flow duration, T_f , when bedform disequilibrium number, T^* , is set as 0.1^{13} , and T_f of 6 modern rivers are given for comparison (references in Supplementary Material); (b) the primary y-axis indicates unit discharge, Q, and the secondary y-axis indicates bankfull discharge, Q_{bf} , when channel width is set as 55 m, the average for the Pennant Formation²⁸.

224 **3.2** Facies-based evidence for flooding

225 The quantitative analysis above, based on bedform theory, indicates that sediment deposition

- in the palaeo-rivers of the Variscan Foreland was controlled by disequilibrium bedform
- dynamics, which we relate to floods that had durations up to 16 hours. But to what extent are
- these quantitative conclusions supported by facies-based observations? Fluvial channel
- 229 facies in the Pennant Formation can be divided into 3 major lithofacies (conglomerate,
- 230 sandstone and heterolithic) after Jones and Hartley³⁸ which have been well-documented since
- the 1960s and for which variable discharge conditions have been qualitatively suggested. We

- do not repeat these analyses but focus on the *conglomerate lithofacies* (sensu Jones &
- Hartley³⁸), and present new observations of woody debris, below, which we link to our
- 234 quantitative approach. Further contextual details on facies that have been observed in the
- 235 Pennant Formation (cite jones), are presented in the supplementary material.





Figure 6: Examples of woody debris in the Pennant Formation, specifically in the Llynfi Member, at Kilvey

- Hill, Loc3.3. (a) The underside of the erosive base of a log-jam deposit in the *conglomerate lithofacies*
- 239 overlying channel sandstone; (b, c) a closer view of this outcrop, with the largest woody debris fossils
- 240 highlighted, noting that the matrix is composed of a mixture of sediment and macerated vegetation; (d) an
- 241 example of well-preserved *Lepidodendron* fossils; (e) a debris bed in the *sandstone lithofacies*; (f) the

- 242 cumulative frequency distribution of the minimum long axis of debris fossil found in the *sandstone* and
- 243 conglomerate lithofacies; and (g) a schematic log displaying the typical features of the conglomerate and
- 244 *sandstone lithofacies* in the Pennant Formation, using Kilvey Hill as an exemplar.

Dense accumulations of fossilised plant materials, or "Plant conglomerates"³⁷, are abundant 245 246 and well-documented in the Pennant Formation. Plant fossils are preserved as a mixture of 247 coalified compactions, compressions, as casts with well-preserved surface features, and 248 occasional perimineralization. Identifiable fossils are mostly genus Calamites and 249 Lepidodendron. Calamites, a genus of arborescent Equisetales (horsetails), grew in rapidly shifting and aggrading riparian settings⁴⁷, proximal to channels, inhabiting levees, bars, and 250 overhanging river channels. Calamites grew to its full height within 2 seasons, whereas 251 252 Lepidodendron grew further from river channels, requiring more established substrate before reaching \sim 35 m in height and developing woody branches in 5 – 10 years ^{33,45,48,49}. Although 253 ubiquitous throughout the Pennant Formation, the densest plant accumulations (Fig. 6), 254 historically referred to as "conglomerates"³⁸ are observed in this study at 6 localities 255 (Supplementary Material), but are documented throughout the formation^{33,36,37,45,50}. They are 256 257 characterised by large volumes of woody debris preserved at the bases of channel packages 258 and accretion sets (S8). Conglomeratic debris beds are 0.25 - 3 m in thickness, and contain 259 mostly Lepidodendron preserved as casts and compactions at varied stages of surface 260 degradation. Fossils overlap and interlock, and occur in a matrix of highly macerated 261 vegetation mixed with sand, and organic-rich mud and silt. The conglomerate lithofacies 262 contains a higher proportion of large debris fossils than in the sandstone lithofacies 263 (Supplementary Material), and associated sediment is often poorly organised, but may contain a range of bedforms, from high-angle dune-scale cross stratification to upper plane-264 265 bed lamination. No in-situ plant fossils (e.g. stumps) are observed.

The maximum length of woody debris we observed is 250 cm, with a median of 13 cm (Fig. 266 6f). The maximum reconstructed volume is 95,000 cm³ with a median of 237 cm³. While 267 268 these woody debris accumulations have not before been linked with palaeohydrological observations, KS tests (see Methods and S3, 4) demonstrate that dune cross-sets, where found 269 270 in close association with woody debris in the conglomerate facies, have an even lower CV271 than those documented elsewhere (Fig. 3) with 90% confidence. This shows that, whilst 272 bedform preservation for sandy channel deposits is enhanced consistently at formation level, 273 even greater enhancement is observed where debris-dominated facies associations are 274 present. These data suggest that disequilibrium bedform preservation prevailed throughout

the Pennant Formation and was particularly enhanced in flow associated with preservation ofwoody debris.

We interpret the observed *debris conglomerates* as log-jam deposits, generated by floods. 277 First, the characteristics of the log-jam deposits observed here are similar to modern and 278 ancient examples ^{10,16,50–53}, where debris orientation, sorting, and palaeobiology are 279 280 comparable. Once in the river channel, log-jams can occur due to obstacles or flow separation between large objects such as bars or entire tree trunks.⁵⁴ Therefore, secondly, the formation 281 282 of log-jams in the palaeo-rivers of the Variscan foreland is feasible due to the known 283 presence of barforms and because Lepidodendron grew large enough to act as key members in log-jams⁴⁷ and because log-jams are known to have been be frequent and diverse in 284 Carboniferous rainforests⁴⁷, and in ancient alluvial systems^{4,10,16,53,54}. Moreover, The classic 285 observations of Jones³⁶ document woody debris up to 10 m long, suggesting the presence of 286 material large enough to generate a significant obstruction in the channel⁴⁷. We suggest, 287 288 therefore, that the deposits observed represent transport jams as described by Gibling et al.⁴⁷ 289 and we link these events to the discharge variability documented using our quantitative 290 bedform approach.

291 4 Discussion

292 Bedform disequilibrium

293 Based on our quantitative bedform analysis, we document a CV of cross-set distributions in the Pennant Formation of 0.40 ± 0.7 , found throughout the unit (Fig. 3), which demonstrates 294 that stratigraphy in the Pennant Formation preserves non-steady-state bedform dynamics. 295 296 This is coupled with clear evidence for variable discharge conditions and the occurrence of 297 floods. We show that 97% of observed cross-sets (N = 271) possess low CV (classified as \leq 298 0.88 ± 0.3) consistent with enhanced dune preservation, and this appears to be the norm 299 across up to 1.3 km of stratigraphy, a significant interval representing 4 Ma of deposition. 300 Enhanced bedform preservation is being increasingly recognised in ancient fluvial 301 systems^{20,30}. Uniquely, our work in the Pennant Formation also links this signature to facies-302 based observations of flood-driven woody debris entrainment and deposition, and we 303 interpret that these disequilibrium conditions likely reflect the prevailing flow conditions 304 during the falling limbs of floods. Based on bedform turnover timescale calculations, we 305 reconstructed falling limb flood durations (T_f) of 2–8 hours, suggesting that relatively flashy

306 floods had a total duration 4–16 hours, with bankfull discharges of 140–160 m^3/s per channel

307 thread. This duration is consistent with published estimates of catchment size, with flow

- 308 estimated to propagate through a catchment typical of the outcrops studied in 12 40 hours²⁸
- 309 (Supplementary Material). This is the first time that dune bedform-based analyses of variable
- 310 discharge conditions have been used to constrain flood durations in the ancient past. In
- 311 conjunction with facies-based approaches, discussed below, this methodology provides a new
- 312 way of quantifying the magnitude and duration of floods in the stratigraphic record.

313 Woody debris

314 We present evidence of log-jams and woody debris accumulations throughout the Pennant 315 Formation, and we interpret these to have formed during floods, such as those that we quantify above. Rapid sedimentation and high-fidelity surface preservation of fossils in the 316 317 conglomerate lithofacies, as well as their poor sorting and significant volume, speaks to high-318 magnitude storm-driven events. Plant accumulations including woody and peaty debris in 319 accretion packages in other facies associations³⁸ (e.g. *sandstone lithofacies*, Supplementary Material) can also be explained by high-discharge events. These deposits are ubiquitous in 320 321 the formation and occur in every member, implying regular discharge variability in a tropical 322 ever-wet rainforest setting.

323 While plant material can be recruited into river channels by direct abscission, wind-blown input, and undercutting and collapse of the banks⁵⁴, we suggest that the woody debris 324 conglomerates present strong evidence of overbank flooding: firstly, the volume and density 325 326 of many of the conglomeratic beds speak to the rapid recruitment of vegetation from large 327 areas of forested floodplain, especially when considering estimates on Carboniferous tree spacing^{55,56}. Secondly, the abundance of comminuted plant material gives insight into 328 formation mechanism, implying maceration during transport, or prior decomposition on the 329 330 forest floor. When found amongst large samples of woody debris this either requires flood 331 water to transport rotted vegetation from the floodplain or to macerate fresh vegetation in 332 high-energy flow. Further, these deposits are poorly sorted, with the lengths of measurable 333 debris fossils in the 5 - 95% range being 0.03 - 1 m. This cannot be explained by gradual build-up of logs due to a barform, and instead suggests rapid accumulation in a high energy 334 335 setting. Third, the quality of preservation of many fossils suggests rapid sedimentation, occurring during high and falling stages of flood events⁵⁴. 336

337 Incremental floodplain cannibalisation is not favoured in this interpretation of log-jam debris recruitment not only due to the large volume of the deposits, but also due to the 338 339 disproportionate absence of fossilised plant roots. If vegetation was recruited by bank 340 collapse, this would place the entire tree, including roots, into the channel. However, these 341 deposits do not contain roots, but mostly branches of Lepidodendron, which must have been 342 collected by overbank flow where these organisms grew. Lepidodendron grew relatively far 343 from river channels, requiring at least 5-10 years of stable growth before generating 344 branches^{57,58}, so large volumes of branch material would not have been recruited directly 345 from the river bank. Furthermore, the absence of any in-situ tree fossils suggests woody material was not sourced from plants living within the channel, consistent with 346 palaeohydrologic reconstructions of these systems²⁸ that show they were perennial. 347 Palaeobotanical and palaeohydrological reconstructions show rivers channels were no wider 348 349 than 200 m and did not have steep banks. Therefore, collapse of the bank on a scale large 350 enough to incorporate enough of the floodplain into the channel to potentially cause a log-jam is unlikely, and only occurs on the largest rivers today⁵⁹⁻⁶². Even if undercutting and bank 351 collapse were an additional mechanism, this process occurs especially during floods^{47,63,64}. 352

353 Together, our quantitative analyses, coupled with our observations of log-jam deposits, show 354 that disequilibrium conditions related to variable discharge and flooding are ubiquitous across 355 1.3 km of Welsh Carboniferous stratigraphy. Our data are unique in the ability to link 356 qualitative facies indicators of potential discharge variability to quantitative evidence of 357 enhanced bedform preservation. Where woody debris is found in the densest concentrations 358 (i.e., log-jam deposits in the *conglomerate lithofacies* and plant-rich beds in the *sandstone* 359 lithofacies), it coincides with lower cross-set CV to 90% confidence (Fig. 3b). Almost all 360 cross-sets measured across the formation indicate disequilibrium preservation, interpreted to 361 be driven by flashy floods, however, dunes shown to have occurred in stratigraphic proximity 362 to debris-transporting flood events are preserved with the lowest CV values. This 363 demonstrates that debris accumulations record the same high-discharge events that are recorded by the disequilibrium preservation of dunes in ancient rivers, establishing dune 364 365 cross-set CV as a robust indicator of discharge variability. This also highlights the critical importance of uniting facies-based evidence of variable discharge conditions with 366 quantitative insights from bedform theory. 367

368 Discharge regimes

369 A number of indicators have been developed to identify ephemeral and monsoonal systems in the geologic record^{10,15,16,65}, including Froude transcritical or supercritical structures, and 370 371 evidence of long periods free of discharge, such as in-situ vegetation. However, facies evidence indicates that rivers were perennial rather than strongly seasonal or highly 372 intermittent^{10,15,16,28,36,37}, consistent with our quantitative calculations. In the Pennant 373 374 Formation trans- or supercritical sedimentary structures have been rarely observed, as 375 sedimentation is dominated sub-critical dune bedforms alongside occasional upper plane bed 376 lamination in close association with woody debris. Moreover, supercritical conditions are not 377 expected in these rivers given their reconstructed morphodynamics and flow velocities (see 378 also Supplementary Material) . The abundance and diversity of plants in upper 379 Carboniferous would imply that vegetation would colonise the river channel if long dry periods existed, however, no *in-situ* vegetation has been observed in this formation, leading 380 to the inference that rivers were perennial^{15,16}. Moreover, the Pennant Formation's fluvial 381 382 channel facies contains abundant well-developed accretion sets, characteristic of perennial river deposits, as opposed to streams supplied largely by seasonal precipitation^{15,17,18,66–69}. 383 Serinaldi et al⁷⁰ also note that monsoonal regimes are typically characterized by sustained 384 385 floods (5–25 days). T_t calculations yield flood durations less than 1 day, which is inconsistent with models of subtropical systems, but consistent with flashy, precipitation- (storm-) driven 386 floods in a perennial system. Further, Leary and Ganti¹³ found that sustained floods may have 387 388 sufficiently long flood recessions that bedforms reach equilibrium with the flow, in contrast 389 with our results showing disequilibrium bedform preservation. All of these factors point 390 towards a system not dominated by strong seasonality, but instead by storm precipitation on a 391 daily timescale.

Finally, it is informative that estimates of the water flux intermittency factor, I_{f} , obtained for 392 393 the Pennant Formation of 0.17 to 0.44 (methodology) are not consistent with ephemeral discharge rivers^{20,27} but can be compared with systems today such as the Mississippi River, 394 395 MO, and Red River, LA (USA), with water flow intermittency factors of 0.30 and 0.26, respectively⁷¹. These are both characterized by high precipitation rates of 900 mm/a (2.5 396 mm/day)⁷⁴ and 700 mm/a (2 mm/day)⁷⁵, respectively, similar to those expected of 397 Carboniferous Wales³⁵. Consequently, the intermittency factors we obtain are broadly 398 399 characteristic of perennial flow in sand-bedded rivers documented in modern humid environments³². 400

401 Stratigraphic completeness

402 One final implication of the low CV values for fluvial cross-sets documented in this study is 403 that they imply elevated bedform preservation ratios. Consequently, the palaeohydrological 404 and facies-based results of this study show the "unusual completeness"¹¹ of the strata (in terms of bedform preservation) is likely due to discharge variability related to flooding^{13,15,28}. 405 406 This conclusion raises important questions about preservation of flow events in the stratigraphic record^{11,21}. Variscan tectonics and associated accommodation generation 407 undoubtedly contributed to the high rates of alluvial aggradation, as well as the preservation 408 409 of woody debris⁴. However, given that almost the entire Pennant Formation contains the 410 signature of disequilibrium bedform preservation, steady-state flow conditions appear to be 411 disproportionately underrepresented. One explanation is that river sediment may behave in a state of disequilibrium more often than not¹⁵ due to the known hysteresis⁸⁵ between flow 412 conditions and adjusting dune morphology 76 . If this is true for the Pennant Formation, then 413 414 this study offers further evidence that ancient rivers should not be treated as binary – either at 415 steady-state or non-steady-state - but that disequilibrium bedform preservation is occurring 416 regularly due to constant discharge variability.

417 However, given that we have extensive facies-based evidence for flood discharge conditions, 418 our observations (e.g. Fig. 3) provide clear evidence for significant changes in flow 419 conditions. Consequently, floods occurred over brief timescales, as we quantify above, 420 leaving perennial flow states to dominate the annual hydrograph, but evidently not the 421 sedimentary record. In this scenario, the finding that 97% of observed cross-sets show CV 422 values inconsistent with steady-state bedform preservation as a result of flood-driven 423 discharge variability implies the exclusion of the vast majority of geologic time from the depositional record¹⁴. This study provides bedform-based evidence of disequilibrium flow 424 425 conditions driven by flashy, storm-driven flooding, which we are able to link unambiguously 426 with independent evidence of ancient floods for the first time. Consequently we are able to 427 reconstruct the signature of discharge variability on a daily timescale and our work illustrates 428 how quantitative bedform analyses increasingly enable flood characteristics to be recovered 429 from the rock record.

Taken together, these results demonstrate vividly how a careful combination of bedform and
facies-based approaches can unlock fresh insights into Earth's surface sedimentary systems
and surface processes. This study represents the first quantitative investigation of bedform

433 dynamics in upper Carboniferous palaeo-rivers and show how preserved bedforms can be used to extract signals of ancient discharge variability from fluvial stratigraphy. We reveal 434 435 that the rivers in the Variscan foreland of the UK were significantly influenced by flood 436 variability, the signature of which dominated stratigraphy over a period of 4 Ma. Palaeo-437 rivers had flow intermittency factors of 0.17-0.44, consistent with precipitation- (storm-) 438 driven flooding in a sand-bedded perennial river regime. Floods had duration 4-16 hours, 439 causing enhanced preservation of dunes and recruiting large volumes of woody debris, 440 sometimes as log jams, and flood discharges had magnitudes of 140–160 m³/s for individual 441 channel threads.

442 **5 Methods**

443 **5.1 Field observations**

- 444 Primary data were collected in Autumn 2021 and Spring 2022 across 20 sites in the South
- 445 Wales and Pembrokeshire Coalfields (Figure 2; Supplementary Materials) from the five
- 446 Members of the Pennant Formation. Primary data included cross-set height distributions (Fig.
- 447 7a, b), the geometries of various architectural elements (Fig. 7c, d), grain-size, and
- 448 observations of flood facies (Fig. 6).



450 Fig. 7: Field measurements at outcrop. (a, b) Methods of collecting cross-set height measurements, where the

451 vertical bars make one cross-set height distribution, Locality 6.2; (c, d) architectural elements observed at

452 outcrop scale, including accretion surfaces for use in Equation 7, Locality 2.1.

Cross-set height distributions were collected following the sampling strategy of Lyster et al^{20} , 453 454 Ganti et al²⁴ and are explained in detail in Wood et al²⁸. Cross-set bounding surfaces were 455 first identified, and cross-set height was measured (to a precision of ± 5 mm) at regular intervals, with between 7 and 61 measurements per cross-set. We used cross-bed dip 456 457 directions, palaeoflow estimates (both regional and local) and 3D outcrops to ensure we sampled the cross-set parallel to the migration direction. A total of 4390 height measurements 458 459 were taken across 271 cross-sets (Table S2). Measurements of maximum cross-set height (with sample size N = 1735) were also collected separately. Relationships were established 460 461 between the maximum and mean height from the recorded distributions (Table S2), allowing estimation of mean h_{xs} from cross-sets where only the maximum value was measured. This 462 463 increased the sample size of mean cross-set heights to N = 6125. For each observed cross-set, 464 the grain-size of the sediment was also established (see S4: Extended Methodology, for more detail)⁷⁵. The geometries of architectural elements, including the dimensions of channel and 465 466 accretion packages, were measured using a Haglof Laser Geo laser range finder to a precision of \pm 5 cm. Data on woody debris fossils were collected by measuring their long and short axis 467 468 to a precision of ± 5 mm, and their location within the stratigraphic architecture was recorded. 469

470 **5.2 Quantitative palaeohydrology**

Fundamental to the "flood hypothesis"²⁶ is the detection of enhanced bedform preservation in fluvial strata. Measured h_{xs} distributions were used to calculate the coefficient of variation of cross-set height, *CV*, where:

474

475

$$CV = \frac{\sigma}{\mu}$$

in which σ is the standard deviation and μ is the mean of the cross-set heights within a single cross-set. The *CV* reflects the preservation of the original dune, and therefore the equilibrium dynamics of flow: a *CV* of 0.88 is expected in equilibrium conditions^{21–23} and *CV* decreases as bedform preservation becomes enhanced (Fig. 1).

⁴⁷⁶ Eq. 1

To calculate the original dune height from cross-sets observed in the field, the relationship
 established by Leclair and Bridge²² was used, based on previous theoretical work²¹:

483
$$h_d = 2.9(\pm 0.7)h_{xs}$$

484 Eq. 2

485 where h_d is the mean original dune height, and h_{xs} is the mean cross-set height. Values of h_d 486 were then used in an array of further palaeohydrological calculations to build a complete 487 picture of river morphodynamics. See Supplementary Material for further detail on 488 palaeohydrologic calculations and uncertainty.²⁸

To estimate uncertainty, Monte Carlo uncertainty propagation was used to generate a distribution of values for h_d that reflects the true spread of the data, following previous hydrological studies^{20,27,31}. For Equation 2, 10⁶ random samples were generated between bounds defined by $\mu - \sigma$ and $\mu + \sigma$ where μ is the mean and σ is one standard deviation. This was repeated for all formulae with a stated error, and propagated uncertainties were carried through.

Bedform turnover timescale (T_t) is defined as the time to displace the volume per unit width of sediment in a bedform, i.e., the length of time required for a bedform to be completely reworked by the prevailing flow¹². This parameter is used to indicate whether bedforms evolved in equilibrium with the prevailing flow, as a T_t that is greater than the duration of the prevailing flow, T_f , implies a hysteresis that results in limited reworking of the bedform. This study determines T_t using the methods of Myrow et al¹² and Martin and Jerolmack⁷⁶, in which:

502
$$T_t = \frac{\lambda h_d \beta}{q_b}$$

503 Eq. 3

504 where λ is dune wavelength (approximated as $\lambda = 7.3H$, where *H* is the formative flow depth),

505 the shape factor $\beta \approx 0.55$ and q_b is the unit bedload flux (Extended Methodology Eq. 9).

506 Myrow et al¹² define a dimensionless bedform disequilibrium number, T^* :

507
$$T * = \frac{T_f}{T_t}$$

508 Eq. 4

509 Using data compiled from experiments and modern rivers by Leary and Ganti¹³, it is possible 510 to establish plausible values of T^* for calculated values of CV. Their results imply that dunes 511 preserved in disequilibrium with falling-limb flood discharge lead to cross-sets low values of 512 CV and T^* . Based on their data, we take 0.1 as a plausible value of T^* , meaning $T_f = 0.1T_f$.

513 The flow intermittency factor, I_{f} , is defined as the fraction of the total time in which bankfull 514 flow would accomplish the same amount of water discharge as the real hydrograph³²:

515
$$I_f = \frac{\Sigma Q(t)}{Q_{bf} \Sigma t}$$

516 Eq. 5

where $\Sigma Q(t)$ is the sum of the time dependent discharge (i.e., the unit discharge), Q_{bf} is the 517 discharge at bankfull conditions and Σt is the timespan. Flow intermittency requires 518 519 estimation of a yearly water budget, and this necessitates a range of assumptions. Based on atmospheric general circulation models^{35,38}, the palaeo-precipitation rate was estimated as 520 between 1.5 and 2.5 mm/day, and catchment area has been estimated by Wood et al²⁸ as 4500 521 - 9500 km², based on catchment scaling relationships⁴¹ and previously published 522 palaeogeographic constraints³⁴. Multiplying the annual average precipitation rate by the 523 524 catchment area gives an estimate of the discharge (m^2/s) supplied to the catchment, once

525 modified to account for infiltration and evaporation of 20% ⁷⁷ (Supplementary Material).

526 **5.3 Statistical tests**

527 Two-tailed Kolomogorov-Smirnov (KS) tests were performed in order to test the similarity of

528 datasets, with the null hypothesis that the tested datasets have similar distributions. Firstly,

529 the h_{xs} data collected in each member were tested against each other and against the data

530 collected from the Pennant Formation as a whole. Secondly, the same tests were conducted

531 for the cross set CV. Finally, the CV values of cross-sets associated with woody debris were

tested against those not associated with debris. See S3h, S3i and S3j, respectively, for these

533 statistical tests.

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539 Author contributions

- 540 JSM: Data curation (lead), formal analysis (lead), investigation (lead), methodology (lead),
- 541 visualization (lead), visualisation (lead), writing original draft (lead), writing review and
- 542 editing (equal); **JW**: Data curation (supporting), formal analysis (supporting), investigation
- 543 (supporting), methodology (supporting), writing review and editing (equal); SJL: Data
- 544 curation (supporting), formal analysis (supporting), investigation (supporting), methodology
- 545 (supporting), supervision (supporting), writing review and editing (equal); **JV**: Formal
- 546 analysis (supporting) investigation (supporting), methodology (supporting), writing review
- and editing (supporting); **ARTS:** Formal analysis (supporting), investigation (supporting),
- 548 writing review and editing (supporting); ACW: Principal investigation, Data curation
- 549 (supporting), formal analysis (supporting), methodology (supporting), supervision (lead),
- 550 writing review and editing (equal).

551 Competing interests

552 The authors declare no competing interests.

553 Data availability statement

- All data used in this study are available in the Supplementary Information and online at
- 555 doi:10.6084/m9.figshare.22564942 and doi:10.6084/m9.figshare.22564945.

556 Supplementary Materials

- 557 S1: Table of localities
- 558 S2: Localities and access (.kmz)
- 559 S3: Primary field data and statistical analysis

- 560 S4: Extended methodology
- 561 S5 Sedimentary facies
- 562 S6: Stratigraphic/sedimentary logs from literature
- 563 S7: Sedimentary logs of overbank deposits at Locality 4.3
- 564 S8: Field photographs
- 565

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