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Mexico

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Key words: Active margin; Cretaceous; Facies; Architecture; Strike-slip tectonics; Flow processes

1 Abstract

2 Present day submarine canyons are active conduits for large volumes of
3 sediment, carbon, and pollutants from continents to oceans. However, the
4 evolution of submarine canyons over geological timescales remains poorly
5 understood due to their erosional nature and low preservation potential. The
6 Late Cretaceous Punta Baja Formation represents a well-preserved
7 submarine canyon-fill on a tectonically-active ocean-facing margin. Outcrops
8 provide km-scale continuous strike and dip sections of the 120 m thick and
9 1.2 km wide feature. An inherited tectonic fabric influenced the location and
10 orientation of canyon incision into fluvial bedrock. The stratigraphic
11 evolution of the Punta Baja submarine canyon is reconstructed from incision
12 to fill, and shows that it remained an active sediment conduit throughout the
13 time period represented by the preserved fill. The depositional architecture
14 of the north-south oriented erosionally confined canyon-fill is asymmetric,
15 with sub-vertically stacked channel-fills to the west, and an overbank
16 confined by the canyon margin in the east. Sedimentary process interactions
17 led to depositional patterns that we consider distinct to submarine canyon
18 fills. Dynamic topography created by mass wasting processes captured
19 sediment and drove knickpoint development, an autogenic mechanism that
20 modifies sediment delivery to the ocean floor. We interpret widespread
21 upstream dipping surfaces in channel-fills as the stratigraphic expression of
22 migrating supercritical-flow bedforms, playing an important role in
23 sediment storage and transport in the canyon. The proximal location of
24 canyons and unique confinement configuration impact transverse and lateral
25 gravity flow filtering, causing depositional patterns in the intra-canyon
26 overbank areas that are less well organised than in published examples of
27 external levees and which were previously poorly characterised for
28 submarine canyons. This study provides insight into how processes that are
29 observed in modern canyons are selectively preserved through the lifetime
30 of the canyon and construct or destroy stratigraphy on geological timescales.

31 1 Introduction

32 Submarine canyons funnel large volumes of sediment from continents to
33 oceans via gravity flows (Daly, 1936; Kuenen, 1938; Shepard, 1972; Fildani,
34 2017; Fisher *et al.*, 2021). More than 9,500 submarine canyons mapped
35 along the Earth's continental margins (Harris *et al.*, 2014) are now

36 recognised to play an important role in ocean circulation patterns (Allen &
37 Durrieu De Madron, 2009; Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Nazarian *et al.*, 2021), marine
38 biodiversity (Schlacher *et al.*, 2007; Bianchelli *et al.*, 2010; Vetter *et al.*,
39 2010; Fernandez-Arcaya *et al.*, 2017), and carbon and pollutant export from
40 shelves to deep water locations (Palanques *et al.*, 2008; Pham *et al.*, 2014;
41 Puig *et al.*, 2014; Hage *et al.*, 2020; Taviani *et al.*, 2023). Despite their size
42 and ubiquity, little is known about how sediment in submarine canyons is
43 stored and transferred into the stratigraphic record on geological timescales.
44 Direct monitoring studies over the last decade are challenging paradigms in
45 submarine canyon sediment dynamics, showing that sediment transport in
46 canyons is more frequent (Heijnen *et al.*, 2022b), powerful (Paull *et al.*,
47 2018), longer-lasting (Azpiroz-Zabala *et al.*, 2017), and dynamic (Clare *et al.*,
48 2023; Lo Iacono *et al.*, 2020; Aslam *et al.*, 2018) than previously thought
49 (Normark & Piper, 1991). Subsurface studies reveal stacking patterns and
50 internal architectures (e.g. Almgren & Hacker, 1984; Galloway *et al.*, 1991;
51 Rasmussen, 1994; Hsieh *et al.*, 2020; Su *et al.*, 2020; Fisher *et al.*, 2021; Tian
52 *et al.*, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2022; Wu *et al.*, 2022) but lack the finer-scale
53 sedimentological detail that outcrop studies can provide. However, exhumed
54 submarine canyon fills are rare, particularly from ocean-facing systems, and
55 typically have limited downdip control (Von der Borch *et al.*, 1985; Advocate
56 *et al.*, 1988; Millington & Clark, 1995; Seidler, 2000; May & Warme, 2007; Di
57 Celma & Cantalamessa, 2012; Ito *et al.*, 2014; Dasgupta & Buatois, 2015;
58 McArthur & McCaffrey, 2019; Janocko & Basilici, 2021).

59 Here, we document the exceptionally well-preserved fill of a submarine
60 canyon that formed on an active tectonic margin of Baja California. Coarse-
61 grained systems of the Cretaceous-Paleogene Rosario Formation have been
62 heavily studied, focussing on the lower canyon to channel-levee
63 environments (Morris & Busby-Spera, 1990; Kane *et al.*, 2009; Li *et al.*,
64 2018; Kneller *et al.*, 2020). Less studied exposures of the Late Cretaceous
65 Punta Baja Formation provide continuous depositional strike and dip
66 sections of the 120 m thick and 1.2 km wide feature, with 4.5 km of
67 continuous dip exposure. Canyon inception and evolution has been linked to
68 tectonics causing severe baselevel changes, constraining the canyon's
69 lifespan to a maximum of 8 Myr (Kane *et al.*, 2022). Multi-scale depositional
70 architecture and depositional environments are interpreted using mapping,
71 sedimentary logging, high-resolution photogrammetry, and detailed facies
72 descriptions. New facies models for submarine canyon deposits are
73 presented, and compared to other deep-marine environments to discuss flow
74 dynamics in submarine canyons. Using the continuous strike and dip
75 sections, this study reconstructs the evolution of the submarine canyon from
76 incision, through infill, to burial.

77 We show that the Punta Baja submarine canyon-fill is asymmetric in strike
78 section, and how mass wasting processes impacted canyon architecture and
79 evolution. We provide a rare continuous dip-section through canyon-axis
80 deposits, and show that the Punta Baja submarine canyon remained a highly
81 dynamic and erosion-bypass dominated conduit during its infill. Abundant
82 upstream dipping surfaces are quantified and interpreted to represent the
83 stratigraphic expression of supercritical upstream migrating knickpoints and
84 dunes. Facies types and distributions are more complex compared to other
85 deep-marine conduit environments, owing to the unique configuration of

86 confinement, remobilisation of unstable margins, and proximity to the
87 sediment source and sites of flow generation, in submarine canyons.

88 2 Geological Setting

89 Late Cretaceous-Paleogene sediments were deposited in the Pacific Ocean-
90 facing fore-arc basin of the Peninsular Ranges (Beal, 1948; Gastil *et al.*, 1975;
91 Busby *et al.*, 2006). The Peninsular Ranges formed in the Early Jurassic as
92 the intra-oceanic Alisitos Arc (Gastil *et al.*, 1975; Busby *et al.*, 1998, 2006),
93 accreting onto North America until 105 Ma (Busby *et al.*, 2006; Alsleben *et al.*,
94 2012) by the oblique subduction of the Farallon plate under North
95 America (Hagstrum *et al.*, 1985). This collision translated the arc northwards
96 (Hagstrum *et al.*, 1985) and transformed the region into a compressional
97 continental arc (Busby *et al.*, 1998, 2006; Busby, 2004). Subduction under
98 the arc system led to the development of the gabbro-rich western part of
99 Peninsular Ranges batholith in the latest Jurassic to Early Cenozoic (*Fig. 1*)
100 (Hagstrum *et al.*, 1985; Busby *et al.*, 1998; Kimbrough *et al.*, 2015). Pre-
101 batholithic rocks contain detrital zircons sourced from the North American
102 craton, implying that the Alisitos system was a fringing arc (Busby *et al.*,
103 2006; Kimbrough *et al.*, 2015), conflicting with some authors suggesting a
104 more exotic origin (Johnson *et al.*, 1999; Dickinson & Lawton, 2001;
105 Wetmore *et al.*, 2002, 2014; Alsleben *et al.*, 2012). Magmatism culminated in
106 the Late Cretaceous (98-92 Ma) with the La Posta granodiorite plutonic suite
107 (Kimbrough *et al.*, 2006), causing regional uplift and deformation
108 (Kimbrough *et al.*, 2001), before the locus of magmatism shifted eastward
109 into mainland Mexico due to younging of subducting oceanic crust, which
110 decreased the subduction angle (Moxon & Graham, 1987; Lipman, 1992;
111 Mcdowell *et al.*, 2001; Sedlock, 2003; Busby, 2004). In the Late Cretaceous,
112 transpressional tectonics and magmatism caused regional tilting manifested
113 by uplift in the Peninsular ranges and subsidence to the west (*Fig. 2*); this
114 uplift provided sediment for deposition of the fluvial Bocana Roja Formation
115 (Turonian), the deep-marine Punta Baja Formation (Coniacian), the shallow-
116 marine to fluvial El Gallo Formation (Campanian), the deep-marine Rosario
117 Formation (Maastrichtian-Danian), and the volcanic-sedimentary Sepultura
118 Formation (Paleocene) (*Fig. 1*) in the west-facing fore-arc basin onlapping
119 the Peninsular Ranges (Beal, 1948; Gastil *et al.*, 1975).

120 The Peninsular Ranges supplied the Late Cretaceous sedimentary systems
121 with a range of volcanic, intrusive, metamorphic, and sedimentary
122 (carbonate, volcanoclastic, and siliciclastic) lithologies, across a short and
123 steep basin margin (*Fig. 1,2*). Rapid tectonically-forced base-level changes,
124 faulting and basinward tilting controlled the juxtaposition of continental and
125 marine sedimentary systems (Busby *et al.*, 1998; Kane *et al.*, 2022).

126 The conduit documented in this study is preserved as the Punta Baja
127 Formation submarine canyon-fill, which was steeply incised into the fluvial
128 Bocana Roja Formation bedrock, filled, planed off and onlapped by the
129 shallow-marine El Gallo Formation (*Fig. 1*) in a timespan of less than 8 Myr
130 (derived from Detrital Zircon dating, Kane *et al.*, 2022). This succession of
131 depositional environments has been described previously (Kilmer, 1963;
132 Schile, 1974; Boehlke & Abbott, 1986; Morris & Busby, 1996; Kane *et al.*,
133 2022) and is further contextualised below.

134 2.1 La Bocana Roja Formation (Turonian)

135 The Bocana Roja Formation is the oldest sedimentary unit in the study area
136 (93.6±1.1 Ma Maximum Depositional Age (MDA) derived from Large-N
137 Detrital Zircon dating (Fig. 3, Kane *et al.* (2022)). The contact with the
138 underlying Alisitos arc is not exposed (Kilmer, 1963; Schile, 1974). The
139 Bocana Roja Formation is a ~675 – 1260 m-thick succession of maroon and
140 grey siltstones, sandstones, and conglomerates, interpreted as overbank and
141 braided stream deposits in a rapidly subsiding basin, with transport to the
142 SW (Morris & Busby, 1996). The mudstones are mottled and contain calcrete
143 horizons, indicating palaeosol formation (Morris & Busby, 1996). The
144 sandstones are thick-bedded medium- to coarse-grained feldspathic volcanic
145 litharenites, commonly with large trough cross-beds (Schile, 1974) and form
146 10 m-thick single-storey channel-fills with several types of conglomerate
147 (clast- and matrix-supported, cross-bedded to massive) (Morris & Busby,
148 1996). Abundant black chert clasts and subordinate green, brown, and purple
149 fine-grained and porphyritic volcanoclastic clasts are common (Kilmer,
150 1963). The unit is more tectonically deformed than overlying formations,
151 tilted up to 40° to the south on the western margin, and 1-18° towards the
152 west on the eastern margin, forming a broad syncline which is heavily
153 faulted, possibly influencing subsequent Punta Baja Formation canyon
154 incision (Kane *et al.*, 2022).

155 2.2 Punta Baja Formation (Coniacian – Santonian)

156 The Punta Baja Formation basal surface truncates the Bocana Roja
157 Formation steeply by at least 140 m, forming a SSW-NNE trending
158 depression 1.2 km wide (Boehlke & Abbott, 1986; Kane *et al.*, 2022). The
159 infill (87.1±1.5 Ma MDA, Fig. 3, Kane *et al.* (2022)) is dominated by pebble-
160 cobble conglomerate deposits on the western margin, with large clasts of the
161 underlying Bocana Roja Formation bedrock overlying the basal surface (Kane
162 *et al.*, 2022). To the east, these conglomerates grade through wedge-shaped
163 sandstone bodies into thin-bedded turbidites that onlap the erosive surface
164 in the east (Kane *et al.*, 2022). Macro- and micropalaeontology suggest
165 depositional environments beyond the shelf-edge (Kane *et al.*, 2022) with
166 water depths ranging from 600 – 2000 m (Boehlke & Abbott, 1986). These
167 deposits have been interpreted as channel cut-and-fill, overbank, and
168 crevasse-splay deposits of a submarine canyon that transported sediment
169 towards the SSW (Boehlke & Abbott, 1986; Morris & Busby, 1996; Kane *et al.*,
170 2022). Conglomerate clasts are well-rounded and consist predominantly of
171 metamorphosed, silicified intermediate volcanics, and related volcanoclastics
172 and siliciclastic deposits most likely derived from the Alisitos Formation
173 (>25 km distance), with minor quartzite clasts from a terrane further to the
174 east (>100 km distance) (Boehlke & Abbott, 1986). A change in source area
175 for the Punta Baja Formation compared to the Bocana Roja Formation is
176 suggested by slightly different detrital zircon signatures (Kane *et al.*, 2022).
177 The strata are uniformly tilted 2-5° to the E-SE, with local dips of up to 30°
178 due to sedimentary onlap of the canyon wall (Boehlke & Abbott, 1986; Kane
179 *et al.*, 2022). The Punta Baja Formation is less tectonically deformed than the
180 Bocana Roja Formation, but displays several syn-depositional faults trending
181 NNE-SSW (Kane *et al.*, 2022).

182 2.3 El Gallo Formation (Santonian – Maastrichtian)

183 The El Gallo Formation overlies both the Bocana Roja and Punta Baja
184 formations with an angular unconformity, interpreted as a wave-ravinement
185 surface in the Punta Baja area (Kane *et al.*, 2022). The basal surface is locally
186 overlain by a transgressive cobble lag with bored clasts (Kane *et al.*, 2022).
187 Farther east (20-50 km), the El Gallo Formation directly onlaps the Alisitos
188 arc (Kilmer, 1963). The El Gallo Formation (86.8 ± 1.8 Ma MDA, Fig. 3, Kane
189 *et al.* (2022)) has a maximum thickness of 1.3 km and is divided into the La
190 Escarpa Member (alluvial fan to braided stream deposits), overlain by the
191 tuffaceous El Disecado Member (fluvial to tidal deposits) that grades
192 eastwards into the poorly-sorted conglomeratic El Castillo Member (Kilmer,
193 1963; Schile, 1974; Morris & Busby, 1996; Fastovsky *et al.*, 2020).
194 Conglomerates in this unit contain mainly rhyolitic, andesitic, granitic, and
195 dolerite clasts (Schile, 1974).

196 3 Methods

197 The Punta Baja Formation canyon fill is exposed around the hamlet of Punta
198 Baja ($29^{\circ}57'20.8''\text{N } 115^{\circ}48'25.0''\text{W}$), and in coastal cliffs around the Punta
199 Baja peninsula. Desert climate conditions facilitate a general lack of
200 vegetation and therefore excellent continuous exposures. Modern marine
201 terraces are present across the field area, which can be distinguished by
202 their (sub-) horizontal bedding orientation and abundant recent shell
203 material. Recent semi- to un-consolidated sand dunes overlie stratigraphy in
204 places. The northernmost coastal part of the field area could not always be
205 accessed or photographed with Uncrewed Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) due to
206 considerations with the local inhabitants.

207 Formation- and facies-mapping data in the 2.5x5 km study area using
208 handheld GPS, the ArcGIS Field Maps application, the FieldMOVE Clino
209 application, and geological compass was collated and processed in ArcGIS
210 software. We recorded sedimentary and stratigraphic characteristics by
211 measuring sections at 1:12.5 to 1:50 scale, systematically recording bed
212 thickness and boundary surface type, median grain size and texture, clast
213 orientation and median-largest clast size, sedimentary and diagenetic
214 structures, bioturbation type and degree, palaeocurrent indicators from clast
215 imbrication, ripple foresets, flutes, and grooves. We recorded a total of
216 450 m stratigraphic thickness across 41 logs. Correlations of surfaces or
217 intervals were achieved by walking out these features where possible, aided
218 by UAV imagery where necessary. We flew DJI Phantom 2 Pro and DJI Mavic
219 Mini 2 UAVs to collect aerial photographs, with which 2.3 km² of detailed 3D
220 outcrop models were constructed using photogrammetry software Agisoft
221 Metashape. All models are available on V3Geo (See Supplementary
222 materials).

223 Paleocurrent reconstructions (Supplementary materials) are presented in
224 equal-area rose diagrams (Nemec, 1988) and subdivided per indicator type
225 (Python code in supplementary materials). Stratigraphic cross-sections are
226 based on elevation profiles derived from our combined UAV 3D outcrop
227 model Digital Elevation Model (DEM), mapping, and measured sections.

228 We measured the orientation of fault planes using a geological compass and
229 recorded their location, trace, and apparent offset using the FieldMOVE

230 Clino application and the ArcGIS Field Maps application. Where possible, we
231 derived fault kinematics directly from offset stratigraphy, drag folds, shear
232 along fault planes, and slickensides. Where fault offsets were unclear or
233 complex, we recorded the orientation of conjugate fault sets to analyse for
234 Riedel-shear sense-of-slip indicators. Because the surface expression of most
235 major fault zones in the field area could be explained by pure strike-slip,
236 pure vertical motion, or a combination of both, we indicate both components
237 on the map (Fig. 4) without detailing the relative contributions of strike-slip
238 and vertical motion. We analysed the orientation of fault planes per
239 formation (Bocana Roja or Punta Baja), type (normal/reverse or transform),
240 and location (north-west or south-east). The data (Supplementary materials)
241 were plotted using Stereonet11 software (Allmendinger *et al.*, 2013; Cardozo
242 & Allmendinger, 2013) on equal-area stereonet as poles to fault planes,
243 after which clustering was determined using Kamb's contouring (Kamb,
244 1959). We filtered the data according to these variables to derive the
245 signature of each in the complete dataset (Supplementary materials). We
246 fitted planes to clusters in the dataset to derive mean fault orientations. The
247 dominant fault characteristics are then carried over to the bigger groupings
248 of data (Fig. 4).

249 Beds were assigned to facies and facies associations, and their recorded
250 characteristics grouped and analysed accordingly. Logged facies, grain-size
251 and bed thickness characteristics were plotted as Kernel Density Estimates
252 (KDE) of number of beds to represent the entire dataset, with the mean, 5th
253 percentile, and 95th percentile extracted as summary statistics.
254 Representative facies distributions within each facies association were
255 calculated by stratigraphic thickness. The ratio between coarse (very fine
256 sand and coarser) and fine-grained (silt and finer) sediment was calculated
257 per measured section and per environment, scaled by stratigraphic
258 thickness. The coarse:fine values of heterolithic facies were estimated in the
259 field based on sand-to-mud thickness ratio.

260 Since averaged coarse:fine ratios carry no information on the distribution of
261 lithologies within any given interval, we provide another parameter
262 representing heterogeneity. We define heterogeneity here in a purely
263 vertical stratigraphic sense, by the number of changes between coarse and
264 fine lithologies per metre of measured stratigraphy (changes per metre or
265 c/m). Together with the averaged coarse:fine ratio values, this characterises
266 facies and environments in a useful way for subsurface applications.

267 The orientation of surfaces was approximated by interpreting lines (via
268 points) on our high-resolution 3D outcrop models in LIME software (Buckley
269 *et al.*, 2019) (Supplementary materials). To each surface point cloud, a plane
270 was fitted using Singular Value Decomposition (SVD), which yielded a dip
271 direction, dip angle, spatial coordinates of the centre point, and point cloud
272 maximum diameter (Python code and data in supplementary materials). Out
273 of all interpreted surfaces (n=631), obvious non-planar surfaces and steep
274 erosional features marked during interpretation were excluded to yield all
275 sedimentary surfaces (n=539). These were then plotted on a map and their
276 dip direction was compared to the mean paleocurrent direction in the
277 canyon indicated by conglomerate clast imbrication. Post-sedimentary
278 tectonic tilting in the study area was minimal, but generally to the E-SE. This

279 might result in an overrepresentation of downstream and eastwards dipping
 280 surfaces, but since the dip angle of the surfaces ($>5^\circ$) is generally steeper
 281 than the regional tectonic tilt ($2 - 5^\circ$), this is not considered problematic.

282 We collected two samples for large-N Detrital Zircon dating in addition to
 283 the previously published dataset of Kane *et al.* (2022). Detrital Zircons for
 284 both studies were extracted and processed at the University of Calgary. U/Pb
 285 ratios and dates of three hundred grains from each sample ($n=9$) were
 286 obtained using Laser Ablation – Inductively Coupled – Plasma Mass
 287 Spectrometry (LA –ICP–MS) following the methodology of Matthews & Guest
 288 (2016). Sandstone maximum depositional ages (MDAs) were (re-)calculated
 289 using the YGC 2σ methodology (Dickinson & Gehrels, 2009) and analysed
 290 using a modified version of detritalPy (Sharman *et al.*, 2018) (Fig. 3). Where
 291 possible, the youngest detrital zircon grains were reablated to test the
 292 isotopic homogeneity of the grain(s) used in the calculation of the MDA and
 293 to reduce uncertainty (Spencer *et al.* 2016).

294 Micropaleontological ($N = 2$) and palynological ($N = 2$) samples were
 295 collected to compare with those documented in Kane *et al.* (2022) and
 296 processed in a standard fashion (Wood *et al.*, 1996). Residues were analysed
 297 for their organic matter content and identification of key dinoflagellate cyst
 298 species. Species were compared with published regional age ranges to
 299 determine an acme age range and depositional environment.

300 4 Results

301 4.1 Structural control on canyon evolution

302 General structural fabric

303 Structural deformation in the study area is dominated by normal faults,
 304 dipping $60^\circ \pm 10^\circ$ to the SW or NNE. Strike-slip faults occur generally as
 305 near-vertically dipping ($80 - 90^\circ$) NNE-SSW trending fault zones, and more
 306 rarely trending in a perpendicular WNW-ESE direction (Fig. 4). Reverse
 307 faults are rare ($n=6$), generally dipping $30 - 40^\circ$ to the NE. The
 308 perpendicular orientation of strike-slip and normal-reverse faults in the
 309 study area is consistent with a locally extensional transform stress regime,
 310 often seen in releasing bends or step-over zones in transform systems
 311 (Reading, 1980; Rodgers, 1980; Christie-Blick & Biddle, 1985; Wu *et al.*,
 312 2009; Huang & Liu, 2017).

313 The sense of movement along brittle strike-slip faults is difficult to establish
 314 in the field, without clear indicators such as slickensides or offset lithological
 315 boundaries. We analysed conjugate fault sets and compared their orientation
 316 to kinematic models of Riedel shear, but the measured orientations were
 317 often incompatible with existing models of Riedel shear. This might be due
 318 to the rheology of coarse sandstones and conglomerates, or the oblique-slip
 319 stress regime. Compatible orientations tentatively indicate a dextral strike-
 320 slip sense for NE-SW trending faults, which agrees with the regional stress
 321 regime related to the oblique subduction and northward translation of the
 322 arc terrain relative to North America.

323 Bedrock deformation

324 The Bocana Roja Formation bedrock is dominantly normal faulted, with
 325 antithetic 60° -dipping fault planes. The dominant failure direction in the
 326 NW of the study area is towards the SW, while on the opposite side of the

327 canyon fill in the SE, the failure direction is dominantly to the NE (Fig. 4).
 328 This antithetic spatial distribution of extensional faults is interpreted to
 329 represent opposing extremities of a releasing bend.

330 The SW-NE trending strike-slip lineament and the extensional normal faults
 331 in the Bocana Roja Formation bedrock forming in a releasing bend of a
 332 transform zone likely steered and accommodated the Punta Baja canyon as a
 333 conduit. This explains the SSW-directed sediment transport within the
 334 canyon (Fig. 4), which diverges from the regional westwards trend of
 335 sedimentary systems that is perpendicular to the paleo-slope (Fig. 1,2) (Kane
 336 *et al.*, 2022).

337 **Canyon fill deformation**

338 The strike-slip faults in the Punta Baja canyon-fill trend SSW-NNE, at a
 339 slight angle with the SW-NE trending faults in the Bocana Roja Formation
 340 bedrock. This difference might be due to rotation of the Bocana Roja
 341 Formation due to the ongoing transform faulting during Punta Baja
 342 Formation deposition. This rotation could be accommodated in rotational
 343 blocks documented in transform shear zones and releasing/constraining
 344 bends (Christie-Blick & Biddle, 1985). The NW-SE trending transform fault
 345 signature in the study area likely represents the shear zones that bound the
 346 rotational blocks, consistent with the sinistral sense of shear observed in
 347 some of these fault zones.

348 The reverse faulting in the northern segment of the Punta Baja canyon-fill is
 349 directed SW-wards and might indicate either tectonic inversion in the
 350 northern section of the releasing bend, or syn-depositional down-slope
 351 failure and the compressional 'toe' of mass wasting of the canyon deposits.
 352 Normal faulting in the SE segment of the Punta Baja canyon-fill might
 353 represent sedimentary failure of canyon deposits into the conduit due to
 354 sedimentary oversteepening or tectonic activity. We recognised no definitive
 355 indicators for the syn- or post-depositional nature of these faults in the field.

356 **4.2 Facies and depositional environments**

357 **4.2.1 AXIS – submarine braid plain**

358 **Description:** This facies association is up to 30 m thick, overlies a basal
 359 erosion surface, and is characterised by thin- to thick-bedded highly
 360 amalgamated conglomerates and sandstones, with minor heterolithic
 361 intervals. This facies association has the lowest mud-content by
 362 stratigraphic thickness and is the most homogeneous. The succession is
 363 dominated by thick-bedded organised (Co) and disorganised (Cu)
 364 conglomerates, commonly with erosive bases and/or within successions
 365 confined by steep erosion surfaces (Fig. 6d,f). Cross-bedded conglomerate or
 366 conglomerate-sandstone (CSx) is found in tabular packages up to 2 m thick
 367 (Fig. 6c), or as wedges that commonly overlie mudclast breccia (Dm) that
 368 form concave-up lenses (Fig. 6g). Sub-horizontal interstratified
 369 conglomerates and sandstones (CSh) provide the most laterally continuous
 370 beds of the facies association, with minor variations in bed thickness along
 371 their length (Fig. 6c). These facies may be truncated by metre-scale erosion
 372 surfaces overlain by massive sandstone (ST) with minor gravel lags (Fig.
 373 6e). Thinner-bedded sandstone (ST) and heterolithics (H) are seen overlying
 374 and onlapping conglomerates in finning- and thinning-upwards successions
 375 up to 3 m thick.

376 **Interpretation:** We interpret this facies association as submarine braid
 377 plain deposits (Klaucke & Hesse, 1996; Hesse *et al.*, 2001). Conglomerate
 378 deposition on the submarine braid plain was governed by non-cohesive
 379 debris flows (Walker, 1975; Lowe, 1982; Postma *et al.*, 1988; Cronin, 2018)
 380 eroding and delivering gravel *en masse* (Walker, 1975), and tractional
 381 reworking by turbidity currents (Cronin, 2018).

382 Non-cohesive granular debris flows may have originated from failure of
 383 oversteepened slopes and eroded the seafloor (Dakin *et al.*, 2013), resulting
 384 in steep truncation surfaces. Terrestrial granular debris flows have been
 385 documented to become channelised and build coarse-grained levees and
 386 frontal lobes (Kim & Lowe, 2004). Deposits attributed to similar processes
 387 have been identified in submarine settings (Sohn, 2000; Kane *et al.*, 2009).
 388 The sequence in Fig. 6h shows deposits that may have resulted from a
 389 propagation of a submarine debris flow. The mudclast-rich sandstone and
 390 mudclast breccia represent the excavation of a mud-rich substrate and an
 391 increase in flow cohesion. The gravel-sand cross-bedded wedge is then likely
 392 to be the frontal lobe, and the coarsest gravel cross-bedded interval
 393 represents the levee to the 1.5 m wide channel with a conglomeratic fill.

394 Tractional reworking of gravel on the canyon floor by overriding sediment
 395 gravity flows resulted in more organised, sorted, and structured
 396 conglomerate deposits. Conglomerate deposits developed pronounced clast
 397 imbrication in channel thalwegs, requiring sustained high flow velocities for
 398 bedload transport. Cross-bedded and well-sorted conglomerates or
 399 conglomerates-sandstones represent accretion surfaces of migrating mid-
 400 braid-plain or bank-attached bars (Klaucke & Hesse, 1996; Hesse *et al.*,
 401 2001). Horizontally interstratified conglomerate-sandstone is formed by
 402 traction carpets (Lowe, 1982; Cronin, 2018). The metre-scale truncation
 403 surfaces represent scours filled by sand and gravel from subsequent flows.

404 Sandstone is generally underrepresented in braid plain deposits. This is
 405 attributed to the strongly bypassing nature of turbidity currents that likely
 406 reworked the gravel deposits. Turbidity currents that deposited sand and
 407 mud on the braid plain are preserved as scour-fills and channel margin
 408 deposits, which were shielded by their negative relief. Evidence for fine-
 409 grained deposition on the braid plain comes in the form of abundant
 410 sandstone rafts, mudclast-rich sandstones, and mudclast breccias found in
 411 axial deposits. These represent the erosional products of semi-lithified
 412 deposits, transported over limited transport distances.

413 4.2.2 AXIS – channel margin

414 **Description:** The channel margin facies association is up to 15 m thick and
 415 characterised by thick- to thin-bedded sandstones (ST), with heterolithic
 416 (H) and minor conglomerates (CSx). Commonly, beds are normally graded
 417 and stack in generally fining- and thinning-upwards successions, with
 418 decreasing bed amalgamation. The channel margin facies association
 419 typically overlies erosion surfaces that cut into braid plain deposits. Beds
 420 appear tabular in dip section, but in strike section generally thin and fine
 421 eastwards to onlap metre-scale westward-dipping truncation surfaces.
 422 Debrites may overlie these surfaces, which are in turn overlapped by
 423 sandstones of facies ST. Locally, these deposits are folded. Coarse-grained
 424 lag deposits or conglomerate beds are common at bed bases. Load-structures

425 of conglomerate into sandstone are common, often planed-off and
 426 completely separated from conglomerate beds (Fig. 7b). Sandstones often
 427 display dewatering structures, such as pipes and load balls (Fig. 7g).
 428 Commonly, current ripple lamination is steeply climbing, with high
 429 amplitude and variable mud-content (Fig. 7i). Rippled beds generally
 430 indicate a south-east directed palaeoflow direction. Slumps, sandstone
 431 injections, mudclast breccia, and debrite deposits are common, in various
 432 stages of disaggregation (Fig. 6a,b; Fig. 7g). A thicker interval of
 433 amalgamated debrites and slumps is preserved in the north of the field area,
 434 with medium- to thick-bedded turbidites of this facies association onlapping
 435 mass transport relief, with common low-angle cross-bedding (Fig. 7c) and a
 436 variety of ripple types and palaeocurrent directions. Vertical paired *Tisoo*
 437 burrows are found in debrites below erosion surfaces.

438 **Interpretation:** We interpret this facies association as a channel margin
 439 setting within a channel belt in the accommodation formed by bank failure
 440 and erosion. These deposits formed in a transitional region between the axis
 441 and the overbank. Deposition was by turbidity currents lateral to the
 442 highest-energy parts of flows in the thalweg. Abundant de-watering
 443 structures and steeply climbing, high-amplitude ripples suggest high rates of
 444 deposition, with varying mud content in ripples indicating deposition under
 445 rapidly decelerating flows (Baas *et al.*, 2011; Taylor *et al.* In press). Energy
 446 was still occasionally high, evidenced by the detached conglomeratic load-
 447 balls (Fig. 7b) signifying high degrees of sediment bypass. As the topography
 448 healed, deposits thinned and fined upward as the bank was filled. The beds
 449 are (sub-)horizontal and there is no indication of lateral accretion, so these
 450 deposits do not represent lateral migration of open channels.

451 Low-angle cross-bedding observed in thick-bedded sandstones of this facies
 452 association is found near confining surfaces (cutbank, canyon wall, or mass
 453 transport deposit relief). This supports an interpretation of flow reflection
 454 and deflection off such a surface, combined with sustained supercritical
 455 flow, to result in low-angle cross-bedded thick beds (Slootman & Cartigny,
 456 2020). The same flow-topography interaction is held responsible for the
 457 varying nature and migration direction of ripples in thinner-bedded
 458 turbidites near these confining surfaces (Edwards *et al.*, 1994; Taylor *et al.*
 459 In press). The denser, coarser-grained parts of flows that deposited the low-
 460 angle cross-bedded thick beds carried more momentum and were thus less
 461 affected by the topography than the more dilute, finer-grained parts of flows
 462 that deposited the ripple laminated thin-bedded turbidites.

463 4.2.3 OVERBANK

464 **Description:** The overbank facies association forms thin- to medium-bedded
 465 heterolithic successions with varying sandstone to mudstone ratios, with
 466 common upward bed thinning and increased mud-content. The overbank
 467 facies association commonly conformably overlies axial and channel margin
 468 deposits, or rarely is in sharp contact with slumped beds below. Medium-
 469 bedded sandstones form isolated outsized beds that may form positive relief,
 470 with dune-scale cross-bedding (Fig. 7e). Pebble-grade lag deposits (Fig. 7a)
 471 and flat-topped coarse sandstone to gravel lenses (Fig. 7f) occur
 472 sporadically, concentrated towards the western extent of this facies
 473 association. Bioturbation intensity is variable but generally high. Typically,

474 sandstones (ST) are horizontally laminated to ripple cross-laminated. Ripple
 475 types include high-angle climbing, mixed grain-size (high-amplitude with
 476 mud-rich troughs and low amplitude), reversal (Fig. 7j), starved ripple
 477 trains (Fig. 7h), and starved lamination (Taylor *et al.*, 2023). Palaeocurrent
 478 directions are variable but with a tendency towards the south-east, with
 479 common opposing directions. Shallow-angle erosion surfaces are common
 480 and filled with sandstone (Fig. 7d).

481 **Interpretation:** We interpret this facies association as overbank deposits.
 482 The finer-grained, more dilute parts of turbidity currents are either flow
 483 stripped from, or overspill the main braid plain confinement to deposit thin-
 484 bedded turbidites, while the denser, more concentrated part of rare larger
 485 magnitude flows overspill the main braid plain confinement to deposit the
 486 thicker bedded and coarser-grained turbidites. Medium-bedded sandstone
 487 with dune-scale cross-bedding (Fig. 7e) within thin-bedded deposits implies
 488 out-sized flows depositing and tractionally reworking sand on the overbank
 489 (e.g. McArthur *et al.*, 2020; Soutter *et al.* In Press). Pebble lags (Fig. 7a)
 490 within thin-bedded turbidite successions imply a high-density traction flow
 491 winnowing, transporting, and bypassing in an otherwise low-density flow
 492 environment (Allen *et al.*, 2022a). Starved ripple lamination and laminae
 493 indicate that overbanking flows were occasionally sediment-starved. Local
 494 breaches of the main braid plain confinement result in crevasse-like deposits
 495 with a coarsening-up highly aggradational character, or develop high aspect
 496 ratio overbank channels represented by the flat-topped coarse-grained
 497 lenses (Fig. 7f). Complex facies distributions, scour surfaces (Fig. 7d),
 498 palaeocurrent patterns, and combined flow signatures (Fig. 7j) point to flow
 499 interaction with the canyon wall or other locally confining surfaces driving
 500 reflection and deflection (Kane *et al.* 2010). Mixed-grainsize transitional
 501 bedforms are common in this environment due to flows incorporating mud
 502 from the overbank or higher up on the canyon walls.

503 4.2.4 SHALLOW MARINE

504 **Description:** This facies association reaches up to 15 m thick and is
 505 dominated by thick-bedded sandstones and minor heterolithic deposits. The
 506 base is erosional and truncates channel margin or overbank deposits. This
 507 facies association is overlain by the El Gallo Formation beach boulder
 508 unconformity. Sandstone beds are dominantly low-angle cross-laminated,
 509 and commonly grade into symmetrically-rippled sandstone and thinly
 510 interbedded sandstones and mudstones. Siderite concretions and siderite-
 511 cemented *Ophiomorpha* and *Thalassinoides* burrows are common. Mudclast
 512 breccias are found in the thickest beds. Upward thinning trends are
 513 common. In one instance this is preceded by an upward thickening trend.
 514 Palynofacies consist of mixed opaques and Amorphous Organic Matter with
 515 poor recovery and poor preservation, and deposits are rich in *Gonylacoid*
 516 dinoflagellate cysts.

517 **Interpretation:** We interpret this facies association to represent restricted
 518 to shallow marine conditions. The low-angle cross-lamination in
 519 combination with the symmetrical ripples and siderite cement is typical of
 520 near-shore depositional environments (Reading, 1996). The upwards
 521 thickening-then-thinning trends likely represent the migration of shoreface
 522 bars. The ichnofacies and palynofacies agree with a more restricted

523 environment compared to the deep-water deposits in the rest of the canyon
 524 fill. The detrital-Zircon-derived age and stratigraphic position of this facies
 525 association below the El Gallo Formation unconformity leads us to conclude
 526 that these are transgressive deposits, preserved below the main wave-
 527 ravinement surface of the El Gallo Formation, in the embayment that the
 528 Punta Baja canyon head likely formed at that time.

529 **4.3 Architecture**

530 The Punta Baja canyon-fill forms a 5 x 2 km exposure, mainly as coastal
 531 cliffs, with a general SW paleocurrent direction (Fig. 4). It incises the fluvial
 532 bedrock of the Bocana Roja Formation (Fig. 10a,b). This contact is exposed in
 533 multiple places around the peninsula.

534 We constructed three strike and one dip cross-sections by projecting field
 535 mapping and measured sections on DEM-derived topographic profiles,
 536 assisted by virtual outcrop models. The chosen strike sections provide
 537 different stratigraphic windows into the canyon fill succession with X3 the
 538 stratigraphic lowest and X1 the highest (Fig. 9).

539 **Canyon wall**

540 The steep erosional contact between the Bocana Roja Formation bedrock and
 541 the Punta Baja Formation canyon-fill is well exposed along the eastern and
 542 western sides of the peninsula. The canyon wall erosion surface in the east
 543 truncates fluvial floodplain deposits and braided stream conglomerates (Fig.
 544 10a,b), and is overlain by mud-rich mass transport and overbank
 545 heterolithic deposits of the canyon fill (Fig. 9, Fig. 10f). The western canyon
 546 wall truncates floodplain deposits of the Bocana Roja Formation and is
 547 overlain by a broad variety of canyon fill facies, but dominantly
 548 conglomerates (Fig. 10c,d,e). Locally, the canyon wall is scalloped and
 549 overlain by chaotic facies, representing slide scars, chutes, and gullies
 550 shaping the canyon margin. In the west, these scallop surfaces are filled with
 551 dark pebbly mudstone and thin-bedded turbidites steeply onlapping the
 552 contact (Fig. 10d). In the east, a conglomeratic and coarse sand-filled scallop
 553 overlies the canyon wall, in an otherwise thin-bedded depositional
 554 environment.

555 Overall, the eastern margin is dominantly overlain by channel margin and
 556 overbank deposits, and the western margin by axial conglomerates. A
 557 notable exception is on the western side of the peninsula, where a 10 m-
 558 thick interval with a wide variety of facies is found overlying the canyon
 559 wall (Fig. 11). Irregular canyon wall topography, such as terrace surfaces
 560 could have facilitated the range of depositional conditions that lead to the
 561 wide variety of facies onlapping the canyon wall in this location.

562 **Lower fill**

563 The lowermost exposed canyon fill is dominated by unorganized and poorly
 564 sorted conglomerates containing large (~4 m diameter) angular blocks of
 565 red sandstone from the Bocana Roja Formation bedrock (Fig. 12a,c)
 566 signifying ongoing canyon wall excavation during canyon fill. Within these
 567 chaotic conglomerates sit sand-prone scour- and channel-fills with complex
 568 cross-cutting relationships and pebble-lined bypass surfaces (Fig. 12b,d).
 569 These relationships are interpreted as braid plain deposits that accumulated
 570 during the initial high-energy filling of the canyon, (Fig. 12a).

571 Upper fill

572 Braid plain deposits in the eastern canyon fill are overlain by, and laterally
573 interfinger with mud-rich debrites with contorted thin bedded turbidites
574 (Fig. 9). The conglomerates at the base are steeply truncated towards the
575 west. The N-S oriented truncation surface is overlain by deformed turbidites
576 and rotationally slumped thick-bedded channel margin deposits. The failure
577 direction as indicated by slump vergence is to the west, perpendicular to the
578 truncation surface (Fig. 9). These slumps grade towards the west into axial
579 braid plain deposits, and are overlain by thick-bedded channel margin
580 turbidites. The preservation of the channel margins means that the thalweg,
581 which would normally cannibalise these deposits, migrated outward. A
582 westward migration of the channel belt is indirectly recorded by the
583 preservation of multiple cutbank surfaces and fills (Fig. 13). This geometry
584 and process interpretation is akin to the “lateral step remnants” proposed by
585 Kane et al. (2010), to differentiate such deposits from true lateral accretion.

586 Finer-grained overbank material is preserved mainly on the eastern canyon
587 margin, with conglomeratic braid plain deposits vertically stacking and
588 amalgamating along the western canyon margin. Generally, overbank
589 deposits thin- and fine-upwards, with a similar eastward trend in the upper
590 canyon fill. A thick (<10 m) interval of channel margin deposits is preserved
591 along the western side of the field area, bounded by conglomeratic braid
592 plain deposits below and above. West- to southwest-oriented conglomerate-
593 filled scour surfaces truncate thick-bedded sandstone channel margin
594 deposits (Fig. 6e), and in most places amalgamate with underlying
595 conglomeratic braid plain deposits.

596 Mass transport deposits

597 In the northern, most upstream part of the field area, the sand-rich channel
598 margin deposits are overlain by and interbedded with mud-rich debrites and
599 slumps. Their mud-rich or thin-bedded composition supports a source from
600 the unstable canyon wall. Sandstone lenses intercalated with the debrites
601 and slumps display erosive to conformable bases with multi-directional
602 fanning geometries (Fig. 14d) and a general thinning- and fining-upwards
603 trend. Complex paleocurrent patterns in ripples and low-angle cross-bedding
604 indicate abundant flow reflection and deflection. The *Tisoa* burrows below
605 erosion surfaces indicate that conduits were active and open above these
606 mass transport deposits (Knaust, 2019). We interpret this succession as
607 representing multiple mass wasting events with sandstones foundering
608 above, and channels navigating across, mass transport relief.

609 Up-flow dipping surfaces

610 Generally, sedimentary surfaces within the axial conglomerates of the Punta
611 Baja canyon-fill are steeper than bedding surfaces in sandstone or
612 heterolithic deposits. The steepness of these surfaces, whether resulting
613 from erosion or deposition, was maintained due to the conglomerates, which
614 increases the angle of repose and stability of the seabed compared to their
615 sand-rich equivalents. Due to the extensive dip-exposure of axial canyon
616 deposits in the field area, we can document for the first time in outcrop the
617 spatial extent and 3D orientation of the main canyon-fill building surfaces.
618 The orientation of these surfaces is related to flow processes on multiple
619 scales. Small-scale scours can form complicated 3 dimensional surfaces.

620 Therefore, only larger-scale planar surfaces are included in the analysis, and
621 concave or convex erosional scours and dune-scale bedforms are excluded.

622 The scale of the measured surfaces exceeds the bed scale with a mean
623 measured plane diameter of 10.2 m, and a mean dip of 12.7°. Most surfaces
624 are upstream-inclined, with a mean dip direction to the ENE, nearly opposite
625 the mean flow direction to the SW (Fig. 15). This preferred upstream
626 orientation is not caused by post-depositional tectonic tilting, since surfaces
627 generally dip more steeply (76.7% between 5 - 30°) than the structural tilt
628 (<5°) of the Punta Baja Formation. Moreover, the structural tilt is
629 southward, which should cause overrepresentation of downstream dipping
630 surfaces.

631 Whereas upstream dipping surfaces clearly dominate over downstream,
632 flow-perpendicular orientations show a slight tendency to the SE. This
633 variability is probably caused by local variations in axis thalweg direction,
634 more sinuous braid plain channel planforms, and outcrop orientation to a
635 lesser degree.

636 **El Gallo unconformity**

637 The nature of the contact with the overlying El Gallo Formation is variable,
638 consisting of yellow-weathering shallow marine deposits or a very well-
639 rounded bored-boulder lag with a white matrix (Fig. 16a), which locally is
640 preceded by red-weathering matrix-supported gravels with angular clasts
641 (Fig. 16b). The age of these shallow marine deposits as indicated by detrital
642 zircon dating (78.5±0.9 Ma), is younger than other canyon-fill deposits (min.
643 80.8±1.0 Ma), but also older than El Gallo Formation (max. 72.3±0.5 Ma)
644 samples in the area (Fig. 9; Supplementary materials). Micropaleontological
645 samples suggest an open, but relatively restricted marine setting.

646 **5 Discussion**

647 **5.1 Canyon evolution**

648 **5.1.1 Incision to fill**

649 Our structural data demonstrates that the Punta Baja canyon is aligned with
650 the structural fabric of the bedrock (Fig. 4), in agreement with Kane et al.
651 (2022). This localised expression of the regional stress regime that caused
652 subsidence formed a relatively minor structural depression that was enough
653 to divert submarine sediment gravity flows from the regional west-dipping
654 slope (Fig. 17 t1). Initial capturing and focusing of sediment gravity flows
655 enhanced erosion of the bedrock and promoted incision and deepening of the
656 nascent canyon (Fig. 17 t2). Scallop-shaped erosion surfaces on the canyon
657 wall overlain by chaotic facies representing slide scars, chutes, and gullies
658 coincide with bedrock faults. A sand-rich canyon wall gully-fill on the
659 eastern canyon margin suggests that smaller lateral conduits transferred
660 sediment from the shelf into the canyon, in this case depositing oversized
661 sediment to the overbank environment. The lowermost canyon fill,
662 comprising chaotic conglomeratic deposits with abundant clasts from the
663 adjacent bedrock (Fig. 12), represent coarse-grained lag deposits and a
664 sediment bypass-dominated period (Stevenson *et al.*, 2015). Overall, this
665 phase of canyon formation was dominated by erosion, sediment bypass, and
666 canyon wall failure.

667 5.1.2 Early fill

668 During the incisional phase, dilute parts of bypassing turbidity currents ran
669 up the canyon wall to deposit fine-grained thin-bedded turbidites above the
670 irregular topography of the canyon margins (Fig. 10d). Accumulations of
671 thin-bedded turbidites could have been remobilised, resulting in the mud-
672 rich mass transport deposits in the Punta Baja canyon-fill. Lateral canyon
673 wall failure caused instantaneous widening of confinement, allowing passing
674 flows to expand and become depositional. The mass transport deposits
675 formed topographic barriers to flows (Fig. 17 t3). Multiple phases of mass
676 transport deposition and canyon floor aggradation could have been entirely
677 eroded while the highly energetic canyon was deepening. However, the
678 combination of instantaneous canyon widening and decreased thalweg
679 gradient due to mass transport deposition, promoted the (local) onset of
680 canyon floor aggradation.

681 5.1.3 Aggradational fill

682 The preservation of overbank material on the eastern margin marks the
683 aggradational stage of the canyon fill. As the canyon filled and the floor
684 became elevated and thus wider, flows focused in an axial thalweg were
685 stripped and overspilled onto the overbank. Erosional entrenchment of the
686 thalweg could have forced lateral flow segregation due to the elevation
687 difference between the lower high-density and upper low-density parts of
688 stratified flows. Mass transport deposits also formed superelevated relief
689 above the thalweg. Thus, flow stripping and overspill from the thalweg
690 confinement constructed local overbank successions. Our field observations
691 (Fig. 9 X3) suggest a strong link between the emplacement and preservation
692 of mass transport deposits and onset of overbank accumulation (Fig. 17 t4).

693 Axial thalweg migration is recorded by westward-cutting-and-aggrading
694 channel margin deposits, grading eastwards and upwards into thin-bedded
695 overbank deposits (Fig. 13). The canyon-fill asymmetry suggests that,
696 overall, the axis migrated westward, contributing to the upwards fining and
697 thinning trend on the eastern overbank area.

698 This asymmetry may be attributed to tectonic releasing bend characteristics,
699 with the centre of active extensional tectonism stepping north and westward
700 through time. Other contributing factors for the architectural asymmetry
701 could have been the regional westward sloping basin margin and the pinning
702 of a sinuous channel outer bend (Brunt *et al.*, 2013). Rotational slumping of
703 eastern channel margin deposits (Fig. 9 x3) supports that active incision was
704 focused on the western margin of the canyon.

705 Thalweg widening followed by entrenchment, and pulses of eastward
706 thalweg migration, and/or bank erosion result in remnants of lateral steps
707 on the eastern side of the thalweg (Fig. 13), when axis migration resumed its
708 general westward tendency (Fig. 17 t4). The repeated bank cutting, and
709 gradual accretion of the channel margin and overbank suggests that the
710 canyon was an active conduit for flows that transported and partially
711 bypassed a wide range of grainsizes during filling.

712 The thick accumulation of channel margin deposits can represent 1) a
713 westward migration of the canyon axis, with laterally equivalent braid plain
714 deposits now eroded beyond the western coastline, or 2) a decrease in

715 grainsize delivered to these reaches of the canyon, resulting in sand-rich
 716 channel systems filling the canyon thalweg. The latter could be caused by an
 717 upstream intra-canyon blockade trapping the gravel fraction, a relative sea
 718 level rise after which the sediment delivery had to re-adjust, or a change in
 719 sediment supply from the hinterland drainage system. The presence of
 720 gravel lags in the channel margin deposits supports a more western axis
 721 with its conglomeratic braid plain deposits unexposed.

722 Continued erosion caused canyon wall failure and the emplacement of a
 723 thick succession of mass transport deposits in the canyon axis. Flows were
 724 diverted or partially blocked by the positive relief of these mass transport
 725 complexes (Fig. 17 t5). When gravity flows eventually overcame the
 726 depositional relief, the canyon thalweg re-established in a more eastward
 727 (canyon-central) position, incising into the mass transport deposit and
 728 underlying channel margin deposits.

729 This net-aggradational phase of canyon development shows evidence of a
 730 highly efficient conduit, that eroded and bypassed sediment in an entrenched
 731 axis, while an overbank aggraded. The conglomeratic axial fill with
 732 sandstone-filled scours suggests that flows bypassed grainsizes up to
 733 pebble/cobble through the axis, with the higher, sand- and mud-bearing
 734 parts of flows partially stripping and spilling onto the overbank. The
 735 abundant erosional structures, coarse-grained lags, and down-canyon
 736 palaeocurrent directions in the overbank deposits suggest that even bank-
 737 overspilling flows underwent a high degree of down-canyon bypass.

738 5.1.4 Late fill

739 No stratigraphic evidence remains for further stages of canyon evolution,
 740 owing to the El Gallo Formation ravinement unconformity. However, the
 741 more restricted or shallow marine character of the early El Gallo Formation
 742 deposits suggests deposition in a shelf-incised embayment. This constrains
 743 the proximal position and short sediment transport distance of the Punta
 744 Baja submarine canyon deposits relative to its head on the steep basin
 745 margin.

746 5.2 Unique sedimentary properties of submarine canyons and their 747 stratigraphic character

748 5.2.1 Flows interacting with dynamic topography caused by mass 749 wasting

750 Mass transport deposits in the Punta Baja canyon fill are common and are
 751 shown to impact canyon sedimentation and erosion patterns profoundly. The
 752 restoration of channel gradients across mass transport deposits has at least
 753 partially been attributed to upstream migrating knickpoints or knickpoint
 754 zones (Tek *et al.*, 2021; Allen *et al.*, 2022b). The increased gradient on the
 755 downstream part of the mass transport deposits is likely to induce
 756 knickpoints, that incise headward across the mass transport deposit and
 757 produce steep, stepped, and composite erosion surfaces (Allen *et al.*, 2022b).
 758 These may be infilled with coarse-grained and fining-up terrace deposits, or
 759 channelised sandstones. We observe foundering sandstone deposits on the
 760 mass transport complex relief (Fig. 14), indicating that sand-bearing parts of
 761 flows surmounted the mass transport relief (e.g. Martínez-Doñate *et al.*,
 762 2021). Pebbles and cobbles were likely trapped behind the mass transport
 763 complex relief, as is observed in the modern Congo Canyon (Pope *et al.*,

764 2022). Where the surmounting sand-rich flows accelerated over the steep
 765 downstream part of the mass transport complex, knickpoints or knickpoint
 766 zones could be initiated. Indeed, we find erosion surface-bound fining-up
 767 sandstone successions (<5 m thick) within and near the top of the mass
 768 transport complex (Fig. 14), which could record deposition directly
 769 downstream of a migrating knickpoint. When these knickpoints, knickpoint
 770 zones, or sand-rich channels were able to connect across the mass transport
 771 deposit, a conduit was re-established and gravel transport was resumed,
 772 evidenced by the return of conglomeratic axis deposits (Fig. 14)

773 The erosion by knickpoints and channels into the mud-rich mass transport
 774 deposits would have resulted in increased mud-content of flows, leading to
 775 mud-rich transitional flows downstream. The erosion rates due to knickpoint
 776 migration could also be instrumental in providing the near-bed sediment
 777 concentrations that are necessary for the development and migration of
 778 backsets (Englert *et al.*, 2023), that produced the upstream inclined surfaces
 779 (Fig. 15).

780 The dynamic erosional and depositional relief caused by mass wasting
 781 events is thus a main factor in sediment capture and storage in submarine
 782 canyons, modifying downstream sediment delivery patterns and possibly
 783 overriding allogenic input signals.

784 **5.2.2 The impact of proximal position on transverse flow filtering**

785 The Punta Baja canyon fill stratigraphy has abundant large-scale erosion
 786 surfaces and thick, chaotic conglomerates (Fig. 6). This duality suggests an
 787 environment where large-scale catastrophic events eroded as well as
 788 deposited. Proximity to the canyon head could play an important role in the
 789 described stratigraphic expression of gravity flow activity and magnitude.
 790 The canyon head can act as a sediment ‘capacitor’, storing sediment until
 791 catastrophic failure discharges large volumes of sediment down-canyon
 792 (Clare *et al.*, 2016; Bailey *et al.*, 2021; Talling *et al.*, 2023). The regions of
 793 sediment buffering thus experience different patterns of erosion and
 794 deposition than their down-system reaches. The position and extent of this
 795 region changes as the canyon evolves, shifting upstream in the case of a
 796 retrogressive canyon head. Other structures in canyons may have similar
 797 sediment buffering and discharging effects, such as landslide dams (Pope *et*
 798 *al.*, 2022) or faults (Mountjoy *et al.*, 2009; Micallef *et al.*, 2014), which have
 799 a less predictable spatial and stratigraphic trajectory than canyon heads.
 800 Stratigraphic evidence of this temporary sediment buffering will be
 801 inherently difficult to identify, due to the catastrophic erosional nature of
 802 the collapsing buffer. Our dataset contains the downstream expression of
 803 large-magnitude canyon-flushing flows that likely originated by failure in
 804 the canyon head, in the form of large-scale erosion surfaces and *en masse*
 805 deposited conglomerates.

806 Overbank deposits in the Punta Baja canyon display a wider range of grain
 807 sizes and bed thicknesses, with a less predictable character, compared to
 808 more distal deep-water thin bed successions like external levees. Submarine
 809 canyon reaches are in a unique position where gravity flows may either
 810 deposit up dip of leveed channels, or are yet to bulk up and travel great
 811 distances (Heijnen *et al.*, 2022a). Flows through canyons are thus rarely in
 812 equilibrium with the canyon gradient and intra-canyon confinement,

813 contrary to lower slope and basin floor settings. This lack of filtering means
814 that overbank deposits within submarine canyon fills should provide a more
815 complete record of events than downstream external levee or basin-floor
816 lobe successions. However, the record in submarine canyon environments is
817 subject to regular and severe erosion and reworking, resulting in an
818 incomplete record. The near-constant disequilibrium between flows and
819 bank confinement in canyons prevents the development of an organised
820 overbank that is reported in external levees (e.g. Kane & Hodgson, 2011).
821 The resulting lack of transverse flow filtering is reflected in our dataset by
822 the wide range and unpredictable nature of grain sizes and bed thicknesses
823 in overbank deposits within canyons.

824 5.3 Comparison to the Monterey canyon

825 Nine hundred and forty kilometres north of Punta Baja, along the same
826 Pacific coast transform margin, lies the modern Monterey Canyon. The
827 Monterey canyon has been studied since the early 20th century (Beal, 1915),
828 with recent pioneering direct monitoring studies (e.g. Smith *et al.*, 2007; Xu
829 & Noble, 2009; Symons *et al.*, 2017; Paull *et al.*, 2018; Maier *et al.*, 2019;
830 Bailey *et al.*, 2021) that have advanced our understanding of modern canyon
831 sediment transport processes. The Monterey submarine canyon system
832 consists of an active canyon-fan on the present-day seafloor, and ancient
833 remnant fills that have been imaged in the subsurface (Fig. 18)(Maier *et al.*,
834 2018). The entire grain size range from clay to cobbles is found on the
835 modern canyon floor, with powerful flows regularly passing through. The
836 similarities in tectonic setting and grain size range means that the Monterey
837 canyon represents a modern analogue to the Punta Baja canyon-fill.

838 A seismic reflection cross section through the upper reaches of the Monterey
839 canyon (Fig. 18) reveals buried incision surfaces and asymmetric
840 paleochannel fills, strikingly similar in scale and architecture to the Punta
841 Baja canyon fill. It is worth noting that the present-day Monterey canyon
842 incision is deeper and wider than both the Punta Baja canyon fill and most
843 buried palaeocanyon fills in Monterey Bay. This implies that the preserved
844 fill of a canyon might represent only a fraction of the true dimensions of the
845 open conduit. The Punta Baja canyon-fill might thus represent a smaller
846 incision and fill on a larger composite system-bounding surface that has
847 been abandoned, re-occupied, and ultimately mostly removed by the El Gallo
848 Formation unconformity. Alternatively, the Punta Baja canyon might have
849 been a tributary canyon to a larger system now not exposed.

850 The abundant re-incisions and amalgamation in the seismic section highlight
851 the complexity of lateral and vertical facies relationships in canyon fills. If
852 exposure, detail, or contrast is limited, the nature of erosion surfaces may be
853 deceiving; a subtle erosion surface might in fact represent a much younger
854 re-incision, instead of a time-equivalent facies transition. In the Punta Baja
855 canyon fill we can be reasonably certain that the axial braid plain and
856 overbank were pene-contemporaneous due to good lateral control, despite
857 facies transitions are generally erosion-bounded. The timing of
858 establishment of the upper conglomeratic axis deposition is unlikely to
859 represent a prolonged abandonment and re-incision of the canyon, as the
860 foundered sandstones within the mass transport complex indicate
861 continuous sediment throughput. The erosion surfaces at the base of major

862 facies changes appear to have truncated semi-soft deposits, further
863 evidencing continuous activity.

864 **6 Conclusions**

865 In the area of Punta Baja a bedrock incised submarine canyon, with an
866 asymmetric coarse-grained axial fill and finer-grained intra-canyon
867 overbank deposits is exposed. The structural and stratigraphic evolution of
868 the Punta Baja submarine canyon is reconstructed from incision to fill:

- 869 • An inherited tectonic fabric influenced the location and orientation of
870 canyon incision into fluvial bedrock.
- 871 • The depositional architecture of the north-south oriented erosionally
872 confined canyon-fill is asymmetric, with sub-vertically stacked
873 channel-fills to the west, and an overbank confined by the canyon
874 margin in the east.

875 Sedimentary process interactions led to depositional patterns that we
876 consider distinct to submarine canyon fills:

- 877 • Dynamic topography created by mass wasting processes captured
878 sediment and drove knickpoint development, an autogenic
879 mechanism that modifies sediment delivery to the ocean floor.
- 880 • We interpret widespread upstream dipping surfaces in channel-fills
881 as the stratigraphic expression of migrating supercritical-flow
882 bedforms, playing an important role in sediment storage and
883 transport in the canyon.
- 884 • The proximal location of canyons and unique confinement
885 configuration impact transverse and lateral gravity flow filtering,
886 causing depositional patterns, including scours and bypass lags, in
887 the intra-canyon overbank areas that are less well organised than in
888 published examples of external levees and which were previously
889 poorly characterised for submarine canyons.
- 890 • The canyon remained an active sediment conduit throughout the
891 time period represented by the preserved fill.

892 This study provides insight into how processes that are observed in modern
893 canyons are selectively preserved through the lifetime of the canyon and
894 construct or destroy stratigraphy on geological timescales.

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901 **Data availability statement**

902 The data that supports the findings of this study are available in the
903 supplementary material of this article.

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1360 **Figure, captions, and table references:**

- 1361 1. (Gastil *et al.*, 1971; Kane *et al.*, 2022)
 1362 2. (Busby *et al.*, 1998; Tsuji *et al.*, 2014)
 1363 3. –
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 1370 10. –
 1371 11. –
 1372 12. –
 1373 13. –
 1374 14. –
 1375 15. –
 1376 16. –
 1377 17. –
 1378 18. (Balster-Gee *et al.*, 2018; Maier *et al.*, 2018)

1379 **Table 1:** (Walker, 1975; Lowe, 1982; Postma *et al.*, 1988; Nemeč, 1990;
 1380 Cronin, 2018; Boulesteix *et al.*, 2019; Slooman & Cartigny, 2020)

1381

Figures

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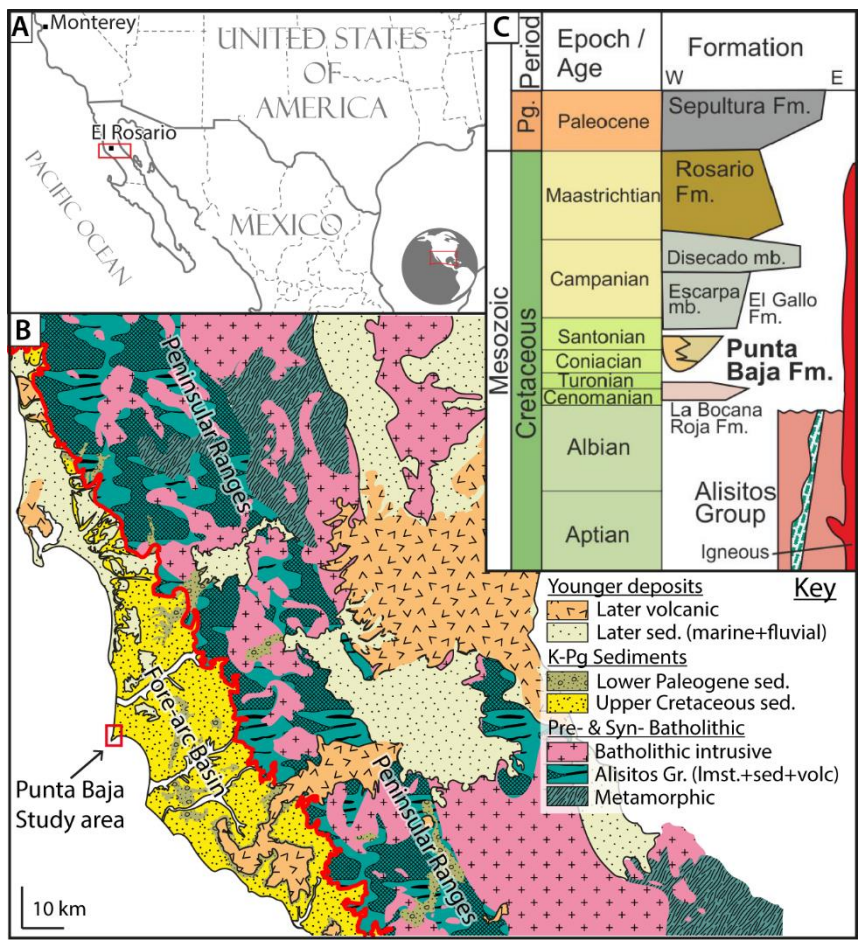


Figure 1: A) Location of the study area on the Baja California peninsula, Mexico. B) Geological map of the Baja California peninsula (simplified from Gastil *et al.* (1971)). Lithologies grouped for the purposes of this study in: pre- & syn-batholithic rocks of the Peninsular Ranges (blue and pink) that are the bedrock and source of the studied Late Cretaceous sedimentary systems (yellow), and younger deposits (pale yellow and orange). Note that modern sediment conduits (white) drain straight from the Peninsular Ranges into the Pacific Ocean, probably in a similar way to sedimentary systems since the Cretaceous. C) Upper Cretaceous and Palaeocene stratigraphy of the study area with the duration of magmatism on the peninsula highlighted (Kane *et al.*, 2022), the Punta Baja Fm. canyon fill in bold.

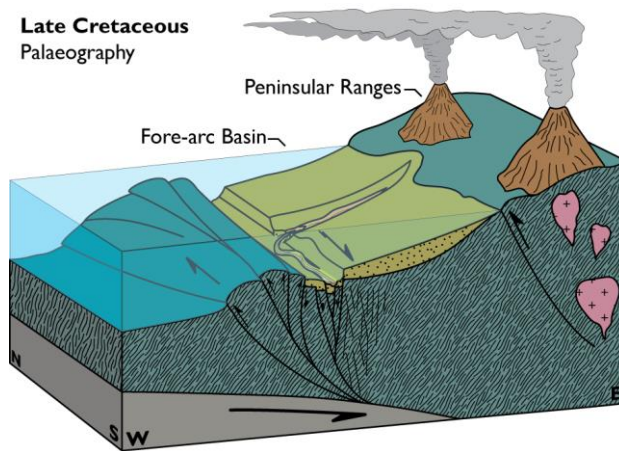


Figure 2: Schematic paleogeography during the Late Cretaceous continental arc phase (Modified from Busby *et al.* (1998) and Tsuji *et al.* (2014)) showing the active magmatism and uplift in the Peninsular Ranges, with steep and short sedimentary systems draining and depositing westwards into the Pacific Ocean-facing fore-arc basin, steered by complex structural topography. Colours correspond to Figure 1b.

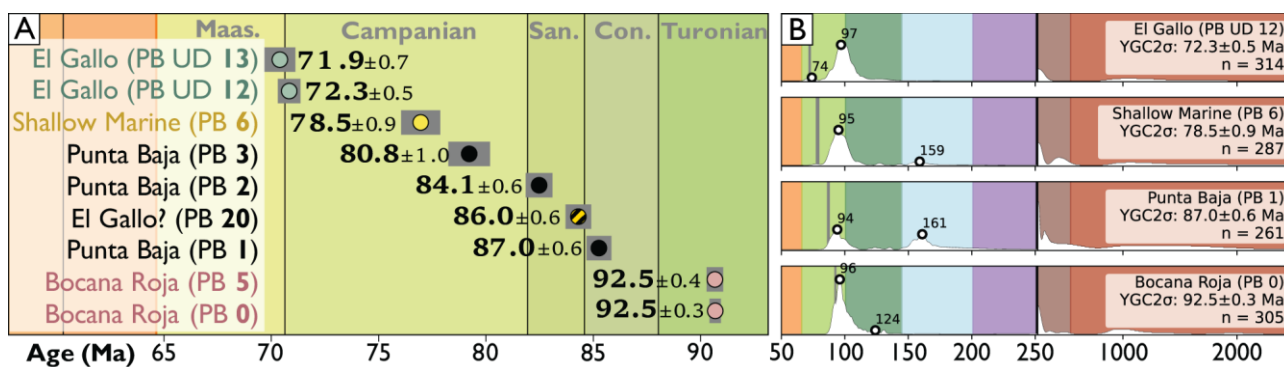


Figure 3: A) Large-N Detrital Zircon ages of samples collected from the bedrock Bocana Roja Formation, Punta Baja Formation submarine canyon fill, and shallow marine to fluvial El Gallo Formation. **B)** Detrital Zircon age distributions for representative samples with statistically most relevant populations, yielding a Maximum Depositional Age (MDA) using the YGC 2σ methodology (Dickinson and Gehrels 2009). Note the change in timescale increments around 250 Ma (Palaeozoic-Mesozoic)

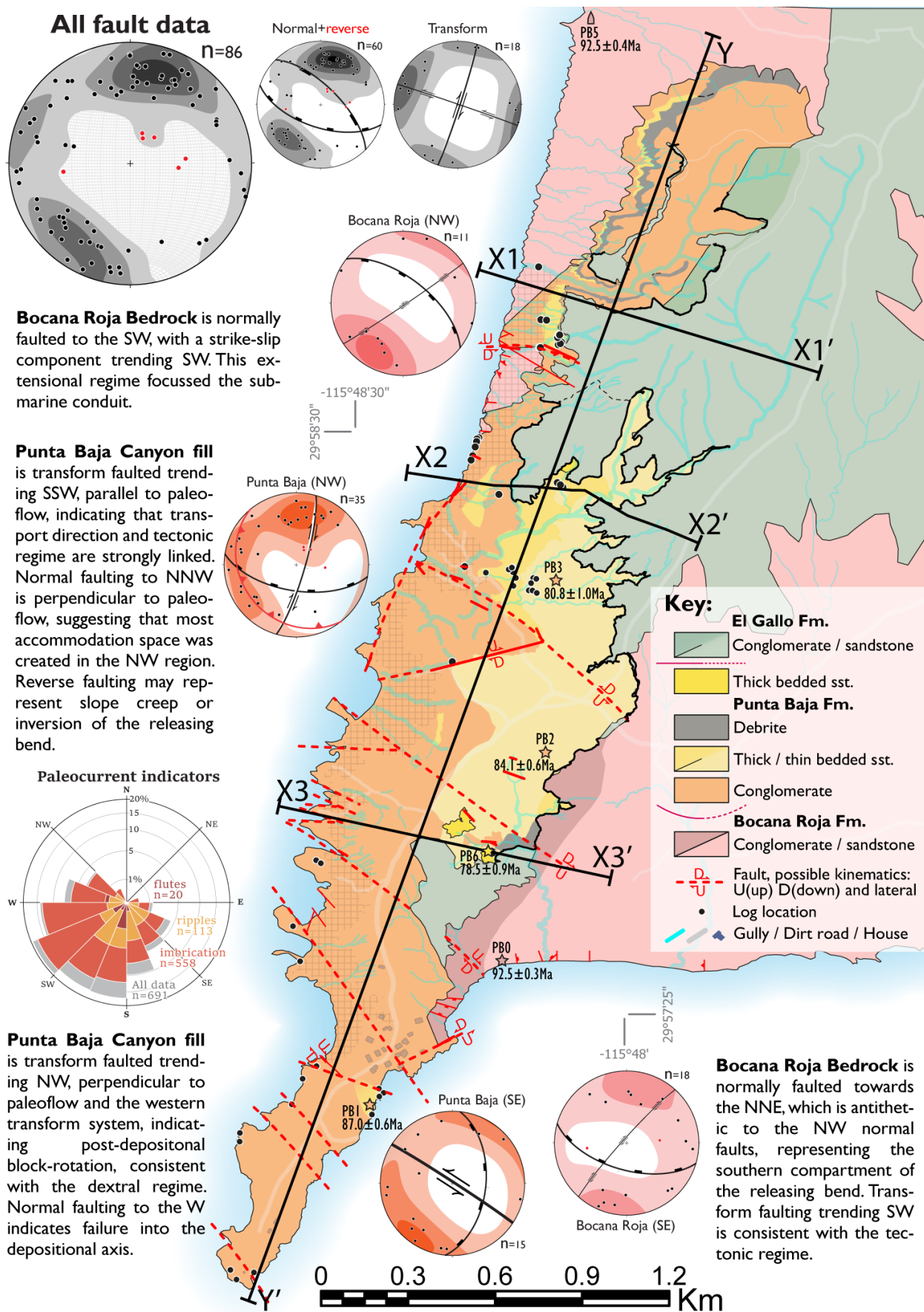


Figure 4: Formation and facies map of the field area with major fault traces, location of cross sections, and equal-area rose diagram of palaeo-current indicators. Fault plane orientations plotted as poles and grouped per formation and location. Fault kinematics on traces on the map are displayed with vertical and lateral components that could both explain the outcrop pattern, however the exact kinematics are unknown.

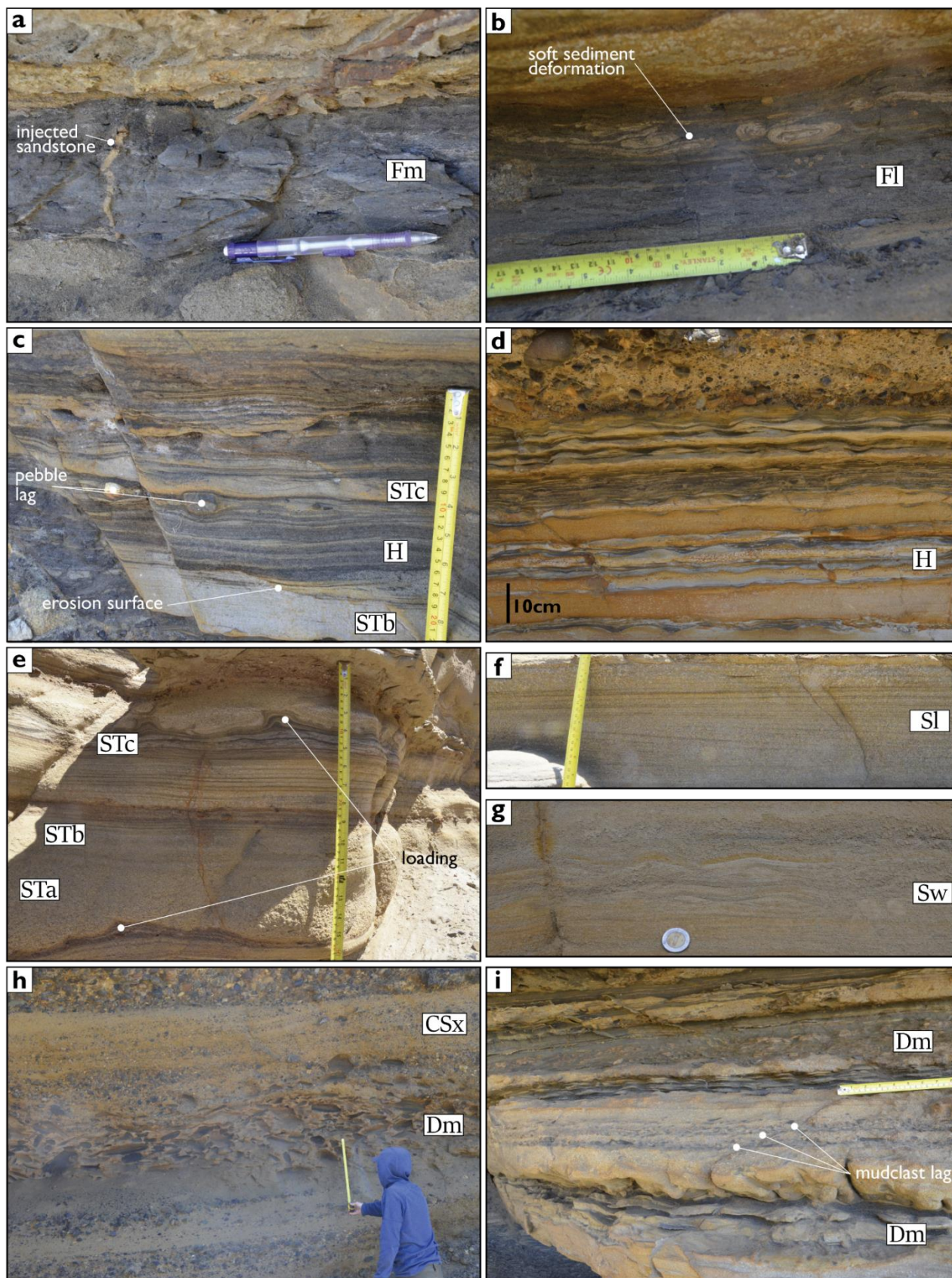


Figure 5: Representative facies field photographs of facies in Error! Reference source not found..

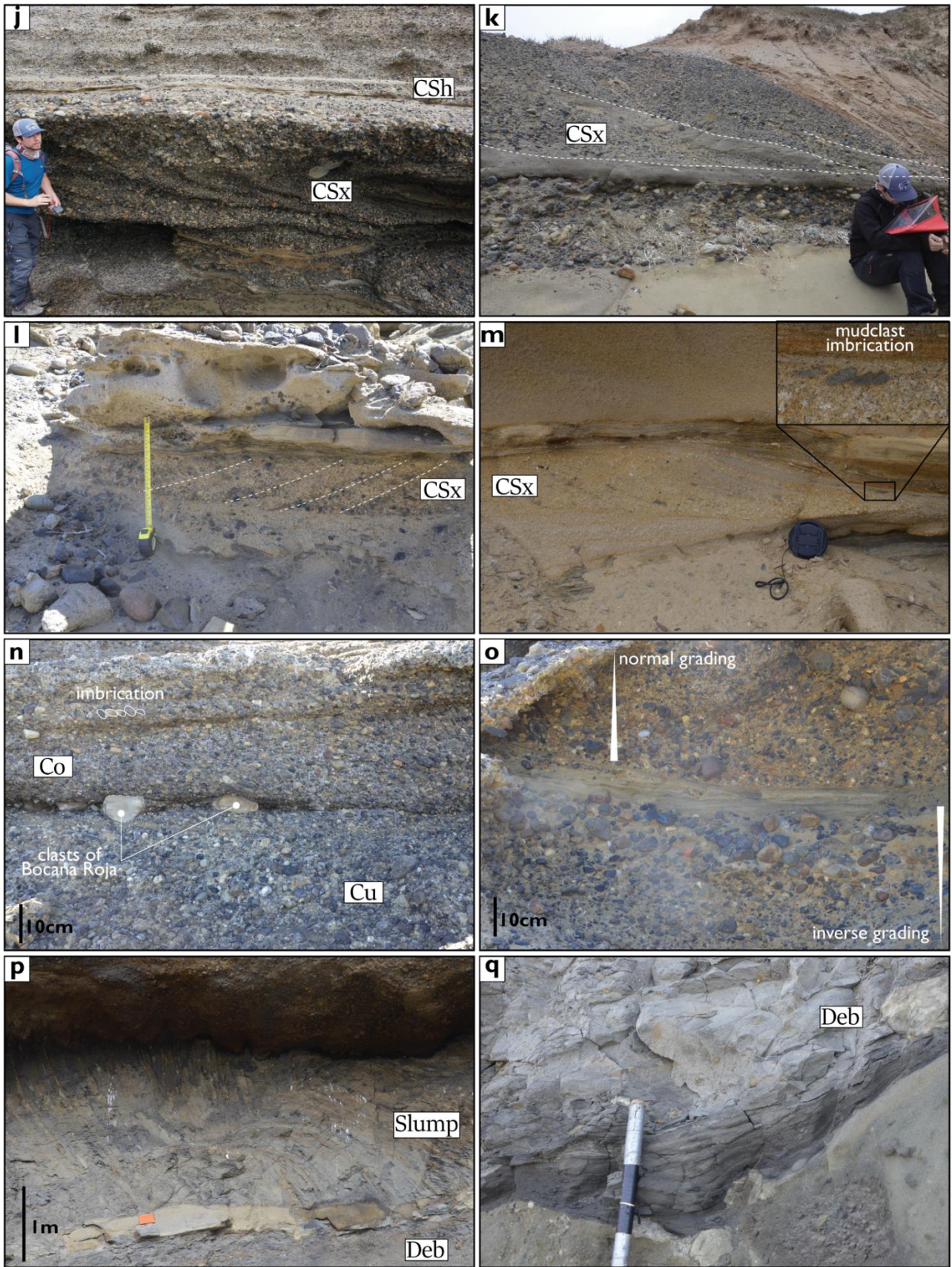


Figure 5 (continued)

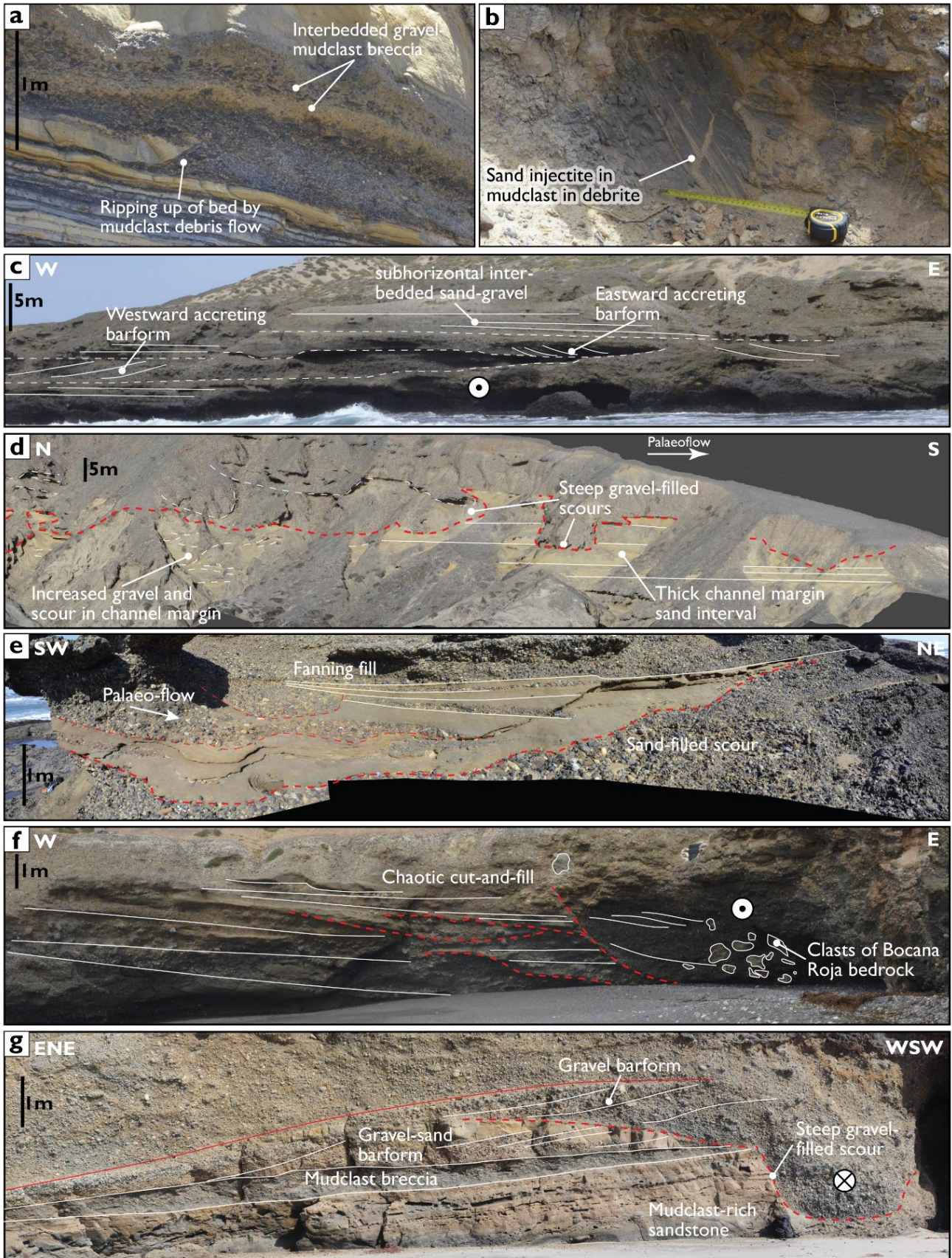


Figure 6: Field photographs representing depositional and erosional bedforms in coarse-grained deposits.

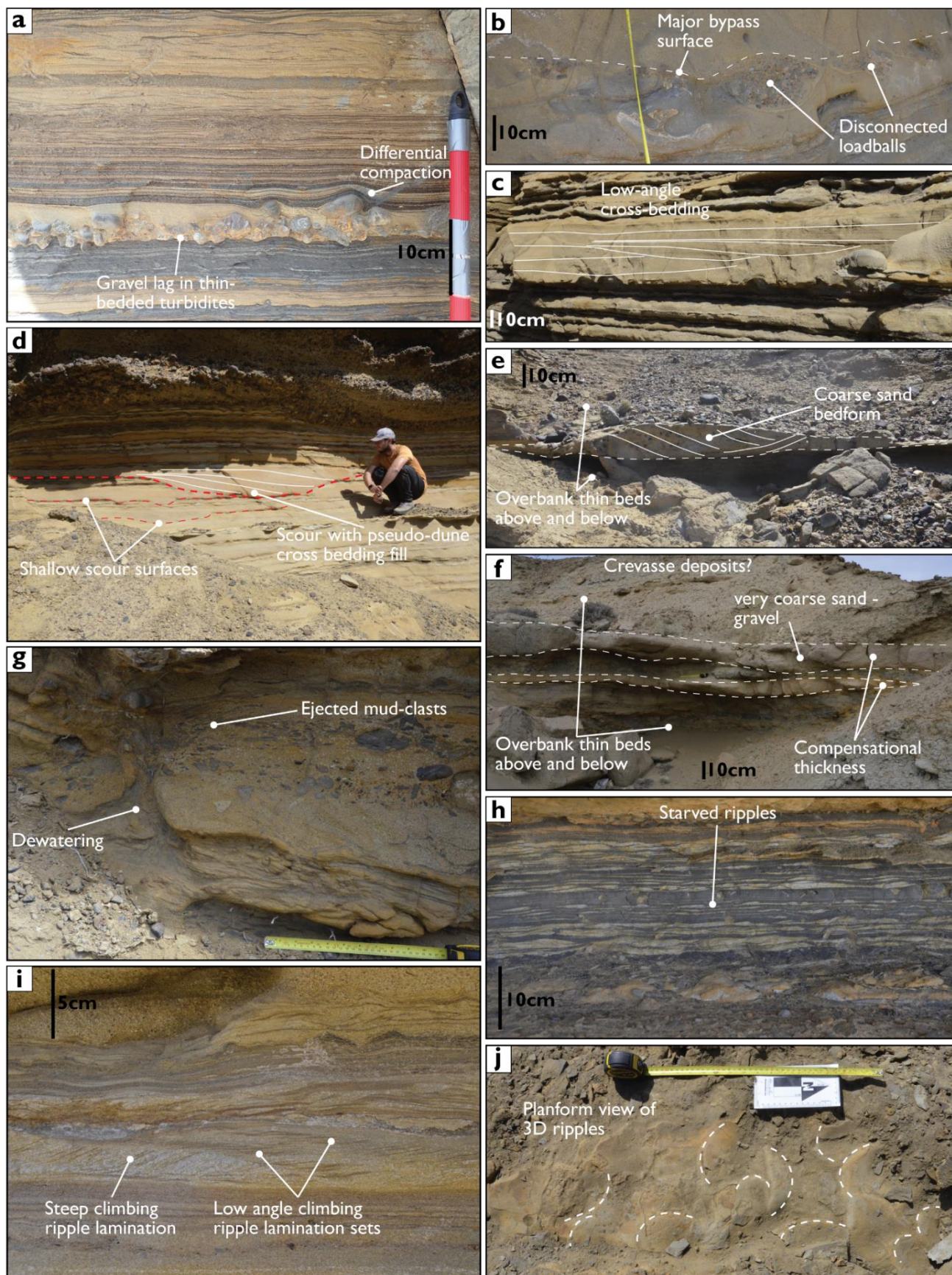


Figure 7: Field photographs representing depositional and erosional bedforms in generally fine-grained deposits.

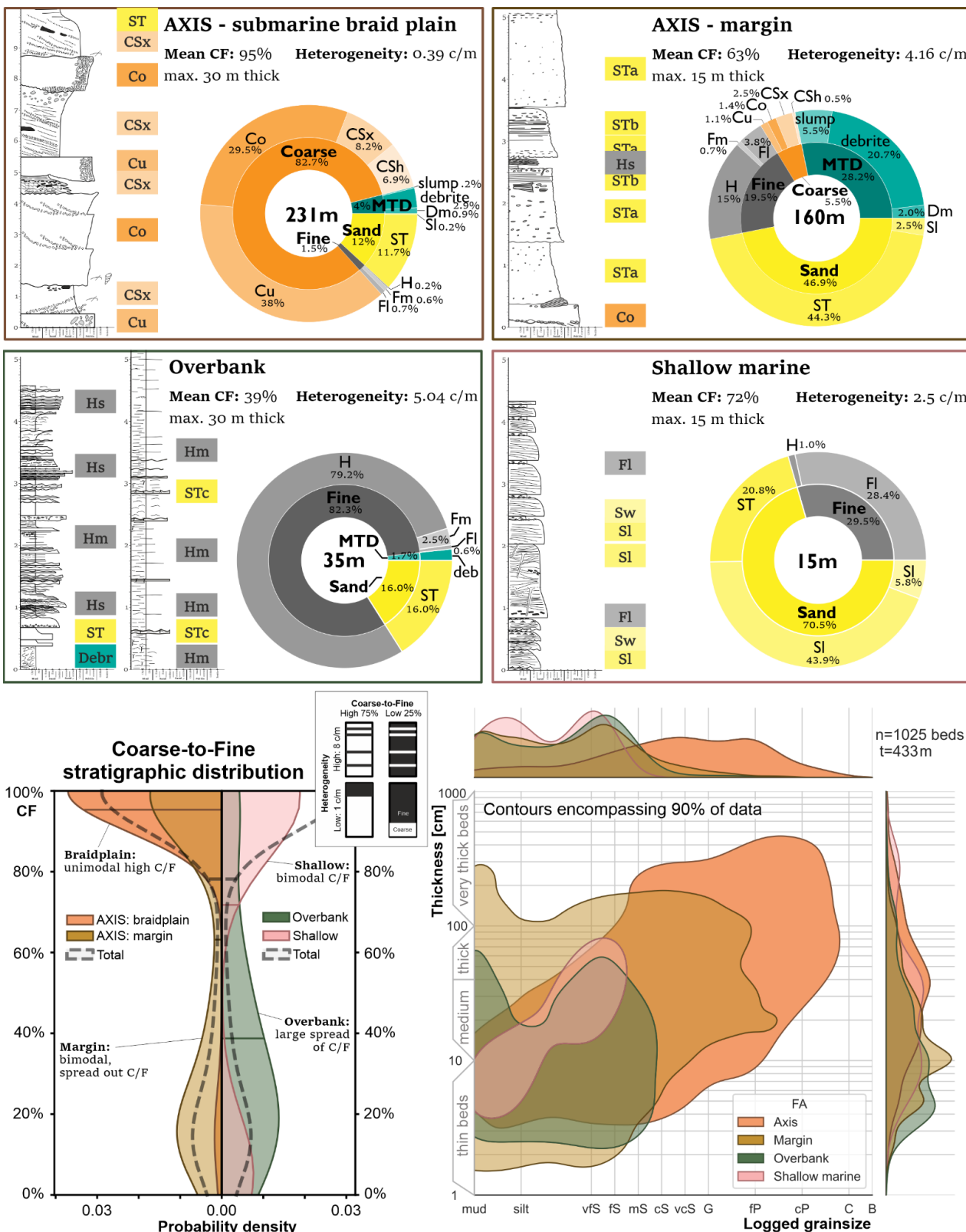


Figure 8: Overview, characteristics, and statistics of facies associations. Representative measured sections of each facies association are labelled with facies (Error! Reference source not found.). Donut plots of facies make-up in percentage of total stratigraphic thickness per facies association, categorised by mean grainsize being in the mud, sand, or coarser range. Mean CF represents the percentage of stratigraphy with a logged grainsize coarser than silt. Heterogeneity (in changes per meter or c/m) indicates how the coarse vs. fine lithologies are distributed; high heterogeneity means that coarse and fine lithologies are interspersed, while low heterogeneity implies a more clustered distribution and thicker intervals of the same class. Logged grainsize versus bed thickness of beds in each facies association. Coarse-to-Fine distribution per bed per facies association, on a probability density scale, which gives more detail than the mean value.

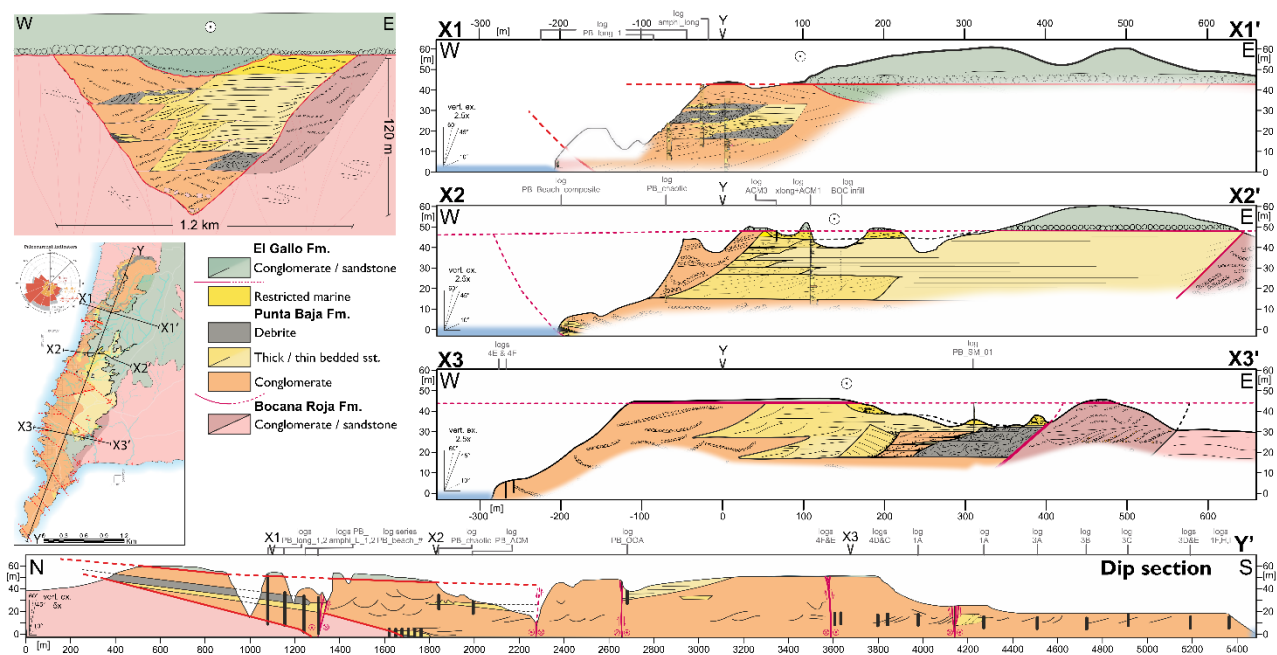
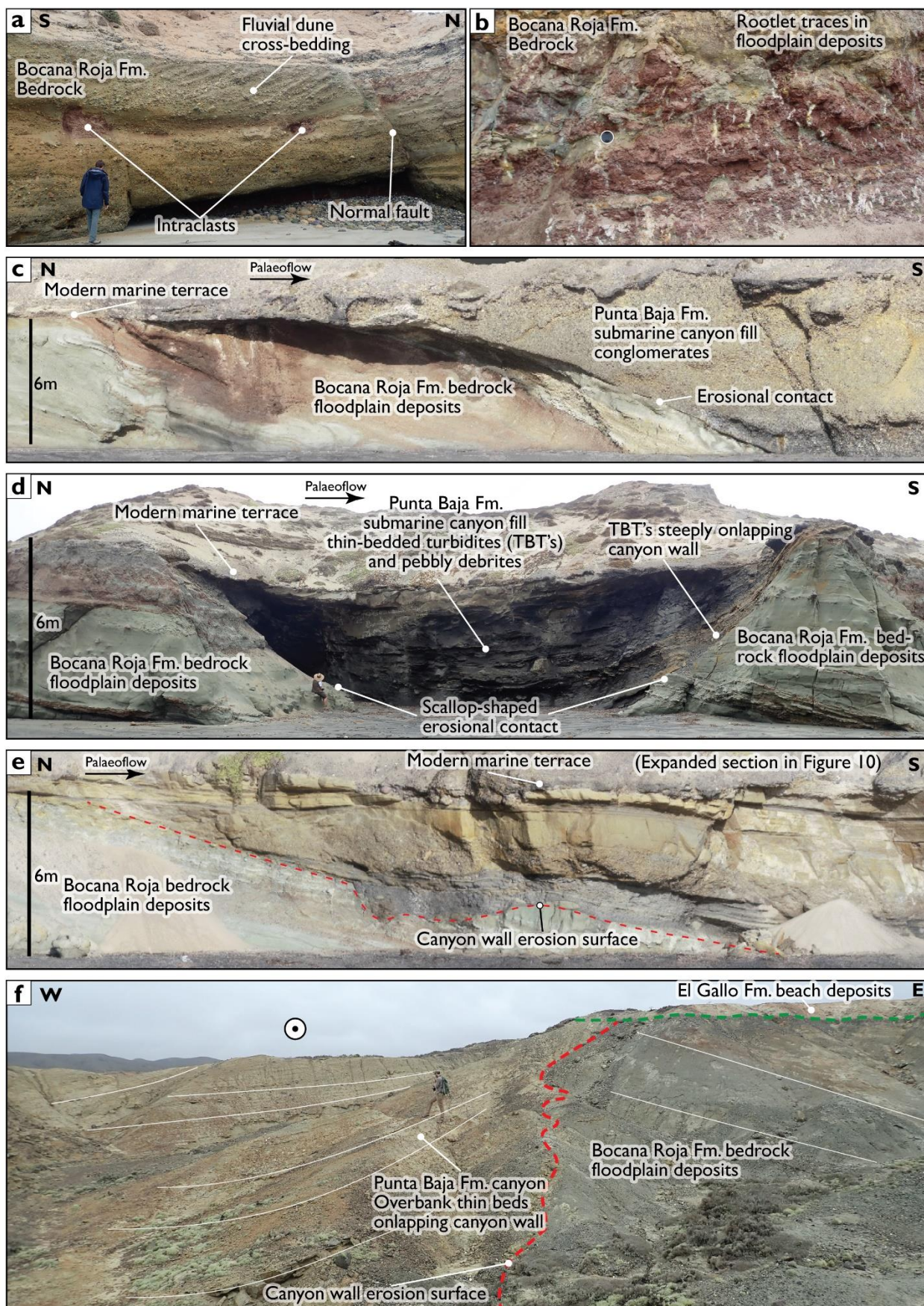


Figure 9: Strike and dip panels with projected mapped facies boundaries, logged sections, and UAV-assisted orientation of surfaces. Note vertical exaggeration in each panel. Due to regional tectonic deformation, the strike-oriented panels provide different windows into the stratigraphic order; panel X3 covers the lowest stratigraphy, panel X1 the highest stratigraphy of the exposed canyon fill.

Figure 10 (next page): Field photographs and 3D-model renders of the variable nature of the canyon fill erosional contact with the underlying Bocana Roja Formation. a) Steep dune-scale cross-bedded conglomerates representing alluvial braided stream deposits of the Bocana Roja Formation on the eastern side of the canyon fill erosion surface. b) Finer-grained floodplain deposits of the Bocana Roja Formation to the west and further east of the canyon fill erosion surface (see lense cap for scale). c) Western canyon wall contact between Bocana Roja Formation floodplain deposits and Punta Baja submarine canyon fill conglomerates. d) Western canyon wall scalloped contact between Bocana Roja floodplain deposits and Punta Baja submarine thin-bedded turbidites and dark mud pebbly debrites, representing a chute or gully on the canyon wall and inferring major bypass. e) Western canyon wall contact between Bocana Roja Formation floodplain deposits and a variety of Punta Baja Formation submarine facies (more detail in **Figure 116**). f) Eastern canyon wall contact between Bocana Roja Formation floodplain deposits and overlapping Punta Baja Formation submarine canyon fill thin-bedded overbank turbidites.



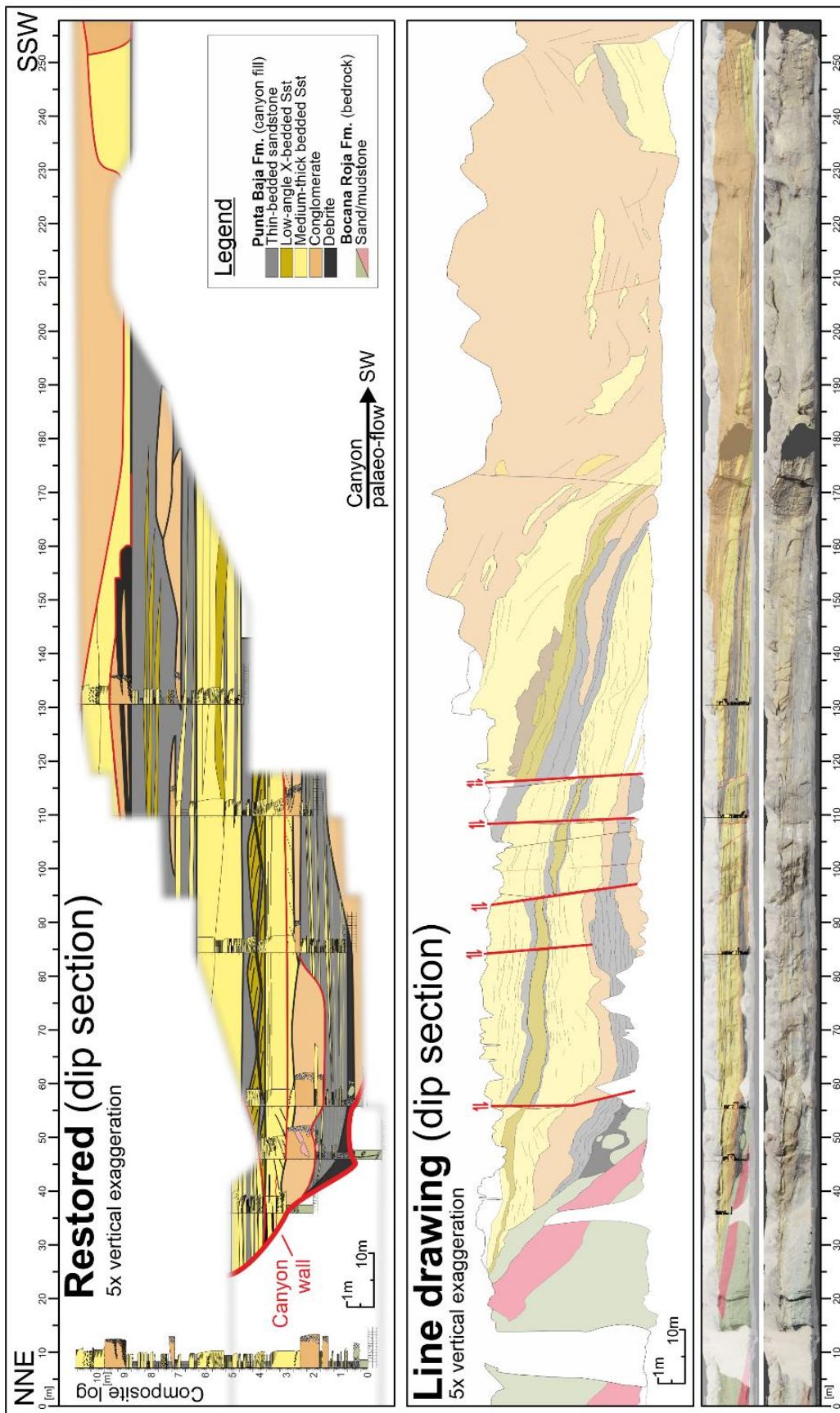


Figure 116: Canyon wall onlap styles



Figure 7: Characteristics of the lower canyon fill. a) Amalgamated conglomeratic deposits with clasts of Bocana Roja bedrock and a rafted intraformational clast, showing common up-stream dipping surfaces; b) Steep erosion surfaces overlain by conglomerate and onlapped by medium to thin-bedded turbidites. Erosion surfaces stepping up-stream, possibly representing migrating channels on the submarine braid plain, filled with sand-rich turbidites; c) a large clast (4 m diameter) of Bocana Roja bedrock with original bedding preserved, within Punta Baja canyon fill conglomerates; d) Detail of b showing conglomerate load-balls within thin-bedded turbidites, sometimes completely removed and the only evidence of high-energy deposits that were since removed, and thus representing a major bypass surface.

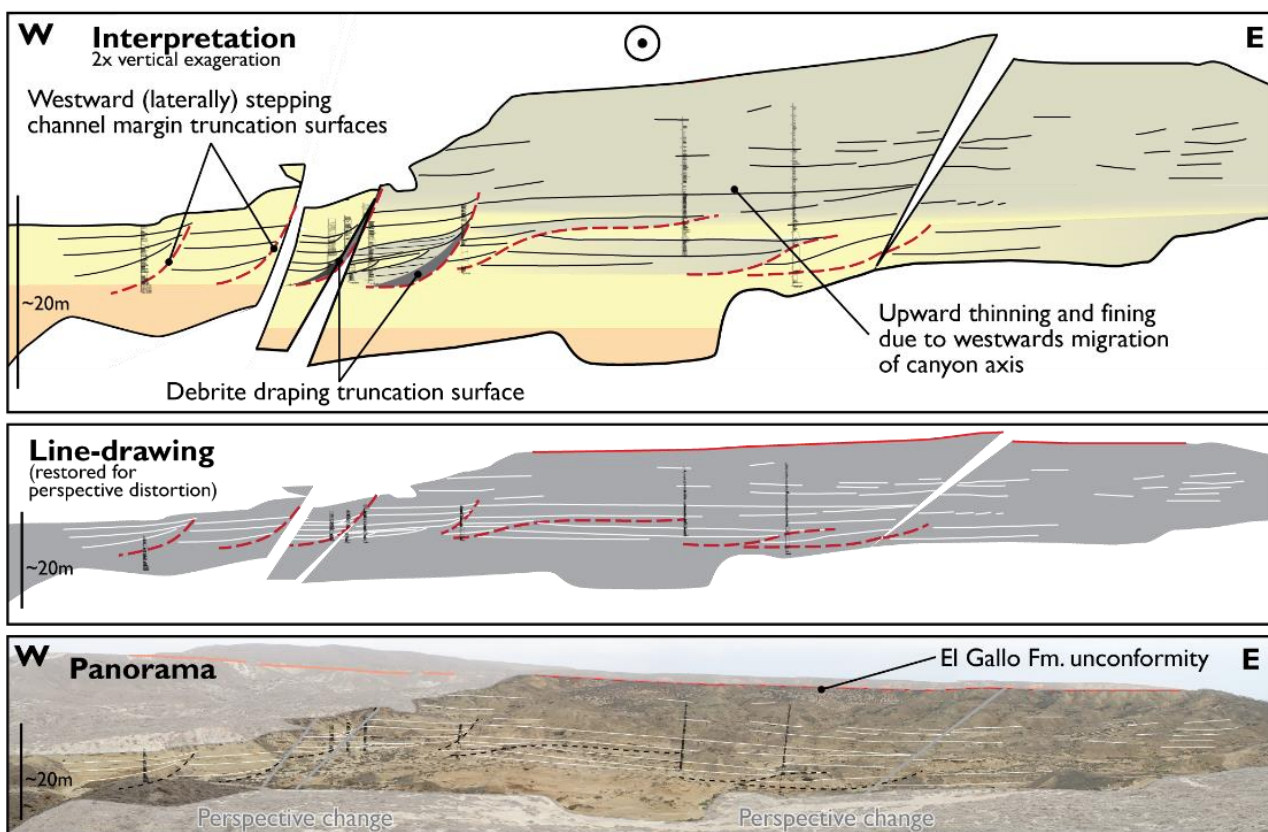


Figure 13: Photo panel and reconstructed interpretation of westward laterally stepping channel margin deposits. The vertical fining facies succession and westward stepping of erosion surfaces reflect a westward migration of the canyon axis, resulting in decreasing energy levels in its eastern parts. Multiple erosion surfaces are overlain by muddy debrites, reflecting the bank failure and erosion upstream of this location.

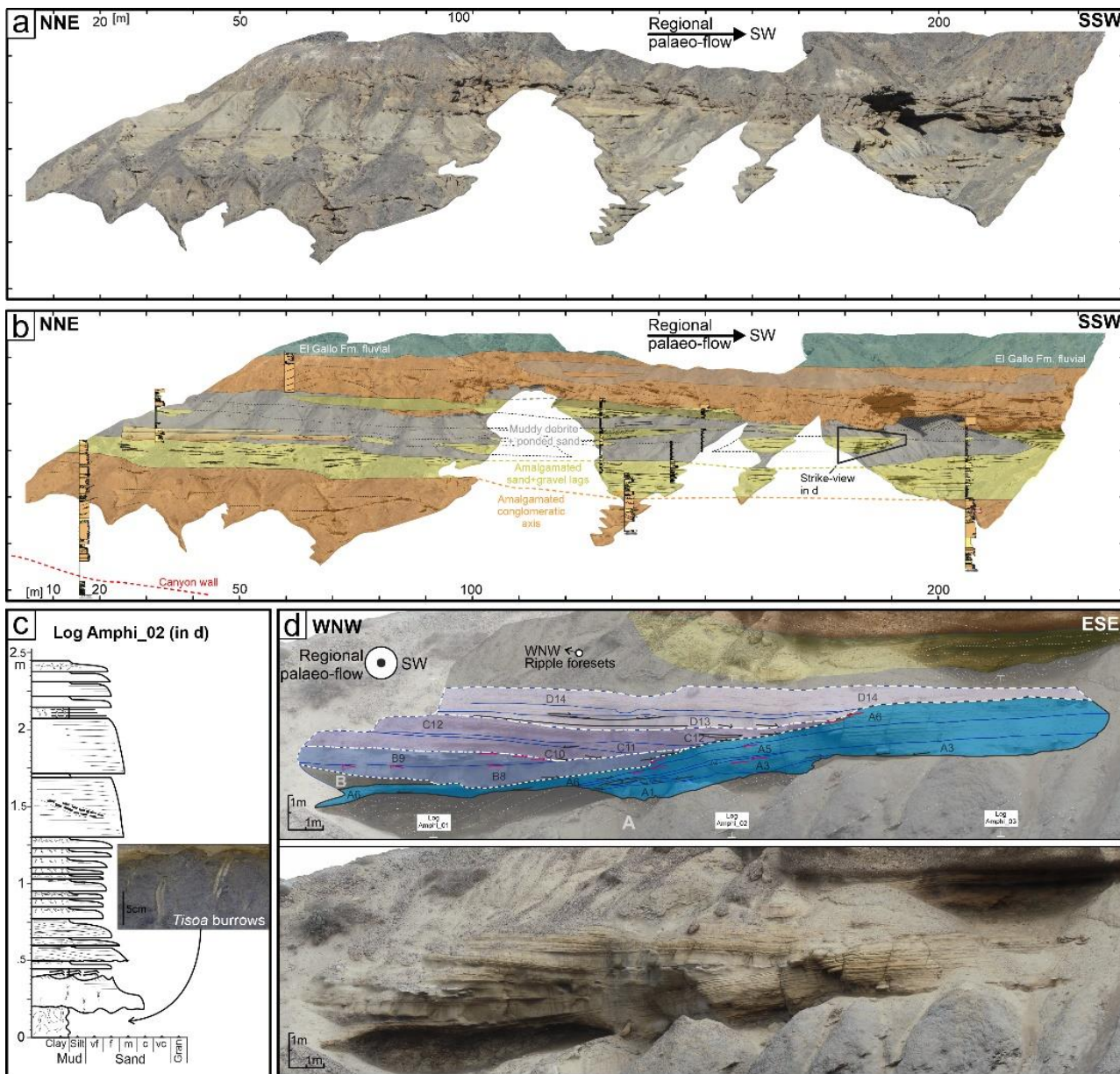


Figure 14: a) 3D outcrop model orthographic render of northern cliff dip-section; b) Interpretation highlighting depositional environments, and measured sections; c) Example sedimentary log through a ponded sandstone body within the mass transport complex. The *Tisoo* burrows suggest that the erosion surfaces were sustained open sediment conduits before filling. d) Strike view of a sandstone body within the MTC, interpreted as several phases of sand deposition over a partly mobile substrate, causing complex dip orientations and cross-cutting relationships.

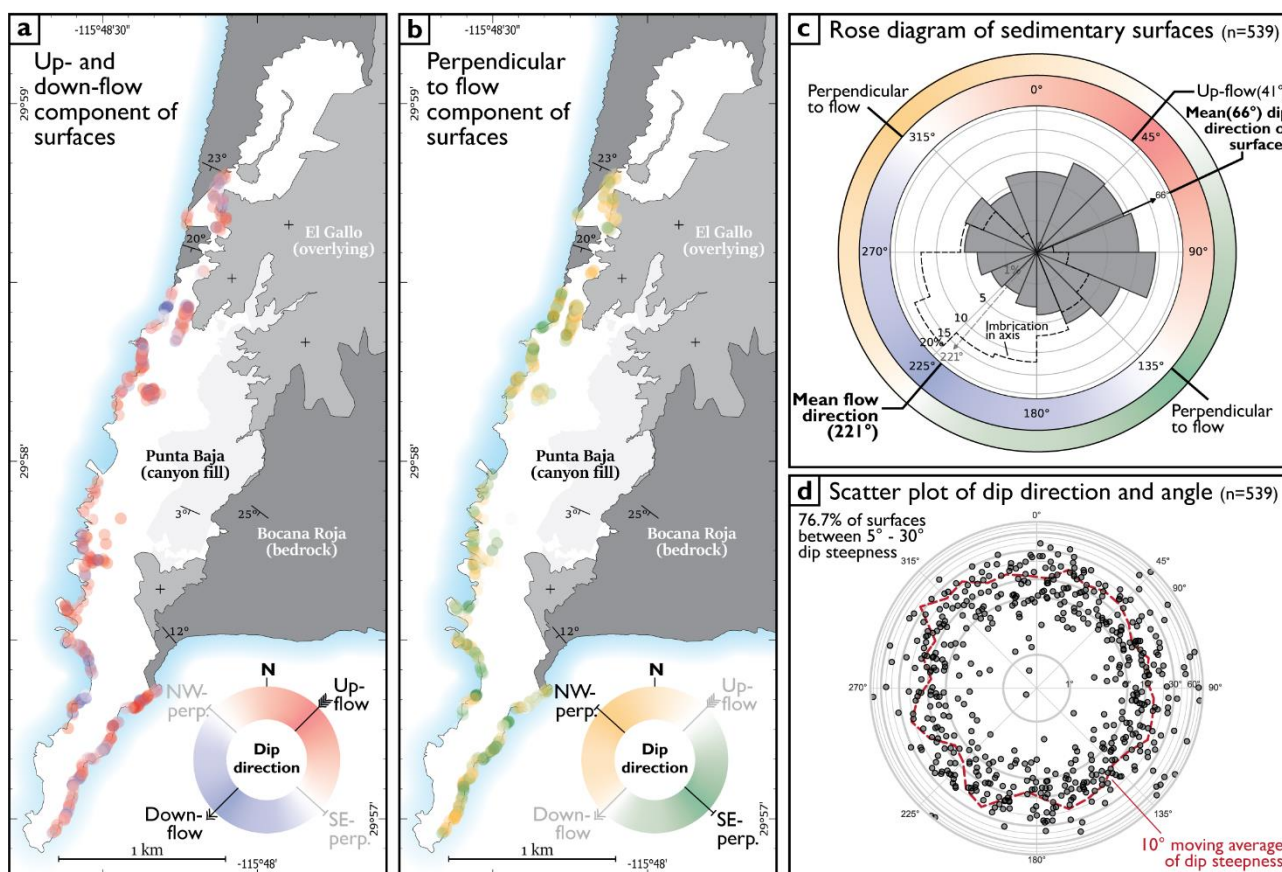


Figure 15: Orientation and spatial distribution of 539 virtual 3D outcrop model measured sedimentary surfaces in the Punta Baja conglomeratic canyon fill, compared to the mean sediment transport direction in axial conglomerate deposits. **a)** Location of interpreted surfaces, coloured by dip direction relative to mean palaeoflow direction, focussing on up- and down-stream trends (see c for colour legend). Up-stream dipping surfaces dominate most locations, even with the canyon fill tectonic tilt dipping 3° downstream; **b)** Location of the same interpreted surfaces, coloured by dip direction relative to mean palaeoflow direction, focussing on palaeoflow-perpendicular trends (see c for colour legend). Eastwards and westwards dipping surfaces occur evenly dispersed, suggesting no preferred orientation of flow-perpendicular surfaces; **c)** Rose diagram comparing mean conglomerate imbrication transport direction (dashed, SW 221° mean) to dip direction of sedimentary surfaces (grey, ENE 066° mean), showing a clear antithetic relation; **d)** Scatter plot of dip direction and dip angle (note logarithmic radial axis) of sedimentary surfaces. More than 75% of sedimentary surfaces dip $5^\circ - 30^\circ$, with no clear relation between dip direction and steepness, confirming that only the number of preserved surfaces dipping upstream is greater than downstream, and not the surface steepness.

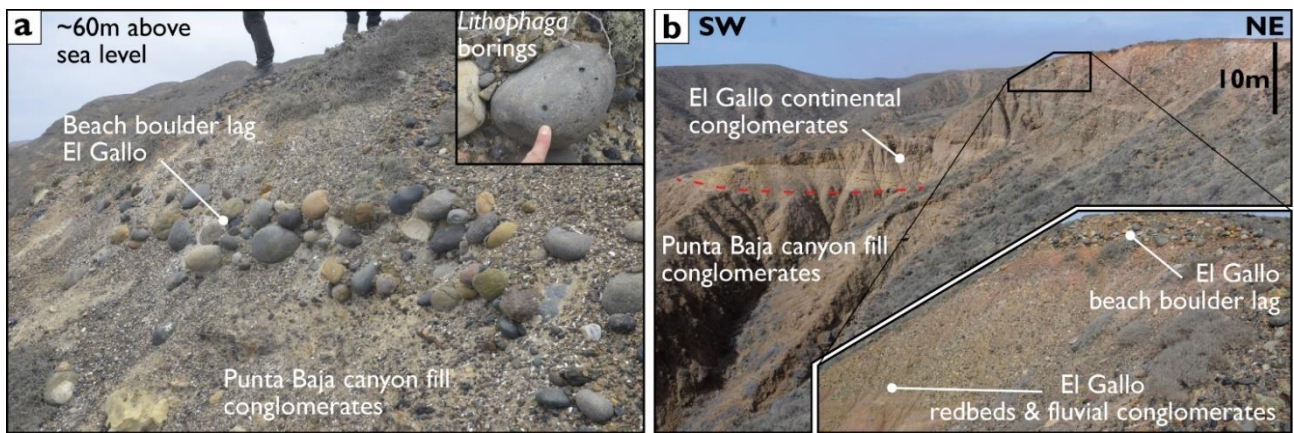


Figure 16: Expression of the El Gallo unconformity.

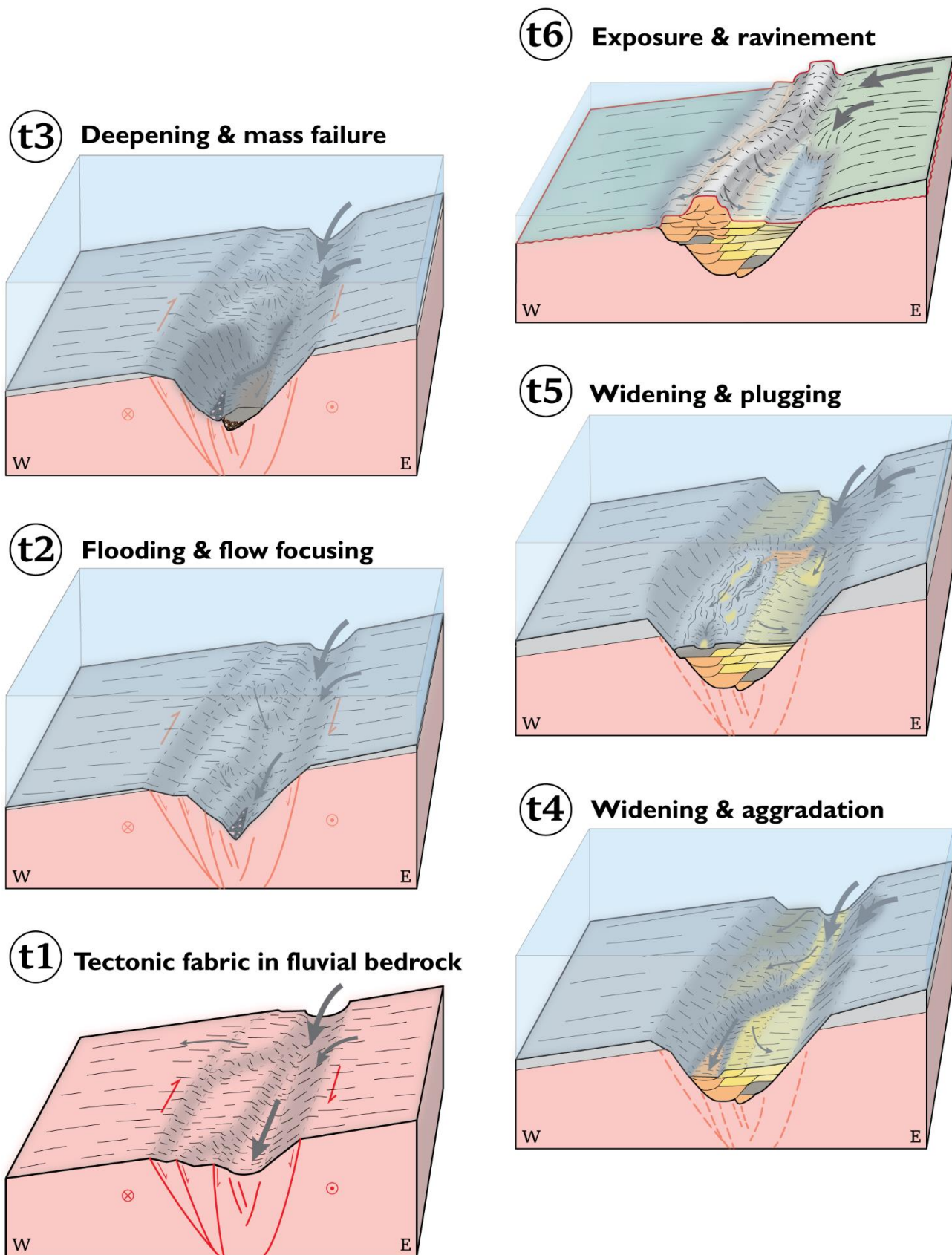


Figure 17: Evolutionary block diagrams of the Punta Baja canyon as a sediment conduit. **t1:** Bocana Roja Fm. bedrock: Braided river and floodplain deposits from an eastward source. Releasing-bend tectonics create local depression on regional westward sloping basin margin. **t2:** Flooding of the basin margin. Submarine gravity flows are captured and focussed by the developing structural depression. Focussed, highly energetic flows erode and entrench the nascent canyon floor. **t3:** Erosional and tectonic deepening cause lateral and retrogressive canyon wall collapses. Most mass wasting deposits are eroded in the high-gradient erosional canyon thalweg. Canyon widening allows flow expansion, flows become more depositional. Severe thalweg gradient changes caused by mass wasting deposits induce knickpoint development. **t4:** Canyon widening and backstepping causes deposition and aggradation. Overbank developing in the form of canyon terraces. Thalweg migration through knickpoint migration leaves lateral step channel margin remnants. **t5:** Further canyon widening through flank collapse plugs thalweg, blocking and/or diverting flows. Canyon floor is wide enough for internal levee development. **t6:** Relative sea level lowering, ravinement surface erodes an unknown thickness of canyon fill and bedrock. Differential weathering produces more erosion in overbank lithologies, where shallow marine and conglomeratic talus sediments deposit.

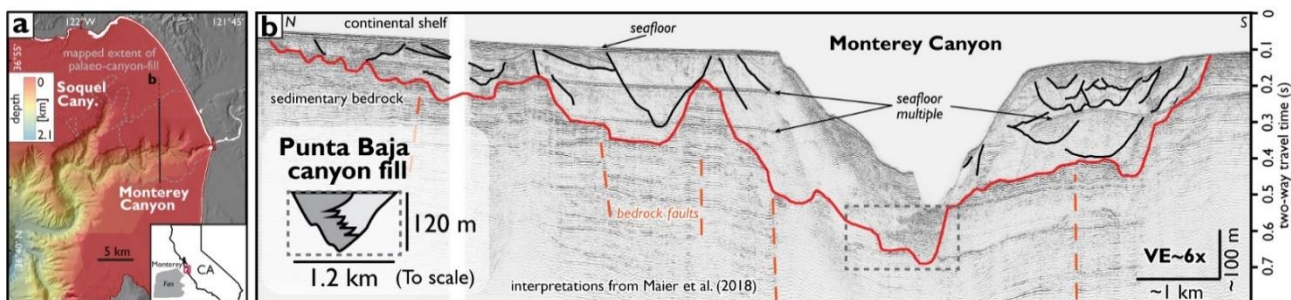
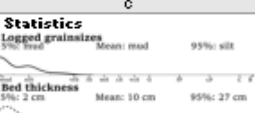
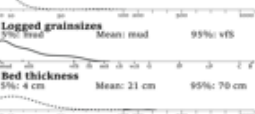
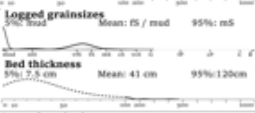
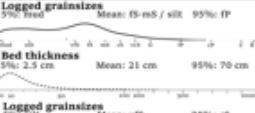
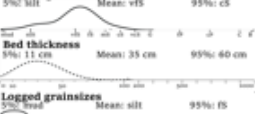
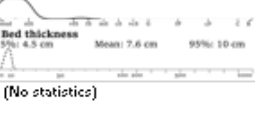
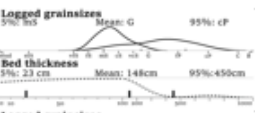
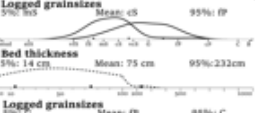
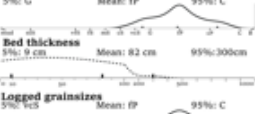
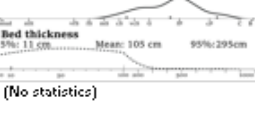


Figure 18: a) Map and b) seismic reflection profile through the subsurface of Monterey Bay (Map and profile with interpretations modified with permission from Maier et al. (2018)). The red line in b) denotes a composite erosion surface separating the transpressionally deformed Miocene-Pleistocene sedimentary Purisima Formation below from the Pleistocene palaeocanyon sediments above. Black lines are erosional bounding surfaces of palaeocanyon fills. Note schematic inset of the Punta Baja canyon fill dimensions, to scale. The scale and asymmetric internal architecture of the Punta Baja canyon fill is similar to the deepest palaeocanyon incision and fill indicated by the dashed box. Also note that the sedimentary fill is only a fraction of the dimensions of the open canyon conduit. Seismic reflection data available from the U.S. Geological Survey via Balster-Gee et al. (2018).

Table 1: Facies descriptions

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1	Code	Name	Statistics	Description	Interpretation	Fig. 5
	Fm	Massive mudstone		Massive structureless mudstone, commonly rich in sub-mm scale organic material. Deposits from hemipelagic suspension fallout, or low-density turbidity currents that are too fine-grained to differentiate by the naked eye (Bouletstex et al. 2013).	Deposits from hemipelagic suspension fallout, or low-density turbidity currents that are too fine-grained to differentiate by the naked eye (Bouletstex et al. 2013).	a
2	FI	Laminated mudstone		Laminated mudstone and siltstone, continuous or discontinuous laminae, common mm-scale organic material.	Deposits from hemipelagic suspension fallout, or low-density turbidity currents that are too fine-grained to differentiate by the naked eye (Bouletstex et al. 2013).	b
3	H	Heterolithic		Thin-bedded alternations of mudstone and sandstone, commonly planar laminated to ripple cross-laminated.	Sedimentation by low-density turbidity currents, resulting from the more dilute parts of gravity flows.	c,d
4	ST	Turbidite sandstone		Medium- to thick-bedded sandstones and siltstones, dominantly normally graded, massive or planar laminated to ripple laminated. Common mudclasts and oversized clasts.	Sedimentation by high- and low-density turbidity currents.	e
5	SI	Low-angle x-laminated sandstone		Medium- to thick-bedded sandstone with low-angle cross-lamination, commonly truncations in multiple directions and diverging/converging laminations.	Deposition from supercritical turbidity currents (Slootman et al. 2020), variable angle due to reflection off topography. Or shallow-water strandplain aggradation.	f
6	Sw	Wave-rippled sandstone		Sand- and siltstone with symmetrical cross-laminations. Sideritic concretions and organic material common.	Sedimentation from oscillatory flow above fair-weather wave-base.	g
7	Dm	Mudclast breccia	(No statistics)	Angular mudclasts in a matrix of sandstone or mudstone, clast-supported or matrix supported. Clasts may be oriented sub-horizontal (Sub-)Horizontally stratified conglomerate and sand couplets.	Product of the erosion of poorly lithified, but solidified, mud-rich sediments. Transport distance is minimal.	h,i
8	CSh	Horizontally interstratified conglomerate and sandstone		(Sub-)Horizontally stratified conglomerate and sand couplets.	Produced by high-density turbidity currents, multiple pulses either within a single event or within multiple events (Cronin 2018).	j
9	CSx	Cross-stratified conglomerate and sandstone		Dune-scale cross-stratified conglomerate and sand couplets.	Dune gravel barforms, resulting from high-density turbidity currents tractionally reworking or transporting clasts as dunes or sandwaves (Cronin 2018).	j,k,l,m
10	Co	Organised conglomerate		Clast-supported conglomerate with a preferred clast fabric. Normal or reversely graded. Occasionally cross-stratified.	Non-cohesive debris flow (Postma et al. 1988; Lowe 1982; Cronin 2018). Inverse grading when dispersive pressure is high at base of flow, normal grading when dispersive pressure lower (Walker 1975).	n
11	Cu	Unorganized conglomerate		Clast- or matrix-supported poorly-sorted conglomerate with a high poorly-sorted matrix content. Normally, inversely, or non-graded.	Grainflow or en-masse freezing of flow (Walker 1975), related to local failure and short-runout transport of oversteepened deposits with non-cohesive debris-flow characteristics (Nemec 1990; Cronin 2018)	n,o
12	Slump		(No statistics)	Rotated to plastically deformed deposits.	Slope failure with coherent behaviour: short transport distance, immature mass transport deposit.	p
13	Debrite		(No statistics)	Mud-rich intervals with with disintegrated bedding.	Slope failure with complete disaggregation: longer transport distances, mature mass transport deposit.	q
14						