

1 **Internal mouth bar variability and preservation of interflood beds in low-accommodation**
2 **proximal deltaic settings (Cretaceous Dakota Group, New Mexico, USA)**

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10 Key words: low accommodation, mouth bar, delta, interflood beds, preservation, Dakota Group

12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Mouth bars are the fundamental architectural elements of proximal deltaic successions. Understanding
14 their internal architecture and deciphering the relative impact and complex interaction of coastal
15 processes (fluvial-, tide- and wave-dominated) is paramount to the interpretation of ancient deltaic
16 successions. This is particularly challenging in low-accommodation systems, because they are commonly
17 characterized by thin, condensed and top-truncated sections. In this study, we analyze the exhumed
18 Cenomanian Mesa Rica Sandstone (Dakota Group, Western Interior Seaway, USA), which encompasses a
19 fluvio-deltaic system covering a ~450 km profile oriented parallel to depositional-dip direction. The
20 study targets the proximal deltaic expression of the system, with 22 sedimentary logs (total of 390 m)
21 spatially correlated within a ~25 km² study area at the rim of the Tucumcari Basin. Analysis of facies
22 distributions, depositional architecture and spatial extent of stratigraphic surfaces reveals a 6–10-m-
23 thick, sharp-based and sand-prone deltaic package, comprising several laterally-extensive (>800 m width)
24 mouth bars. Composite erosional surfaces infilled with multi-story fluvial and marine-influenced channel
25 deposits (12–20 m thick, 100–250 m wide) scour locally into the deltaic package. Based on differences in
26 sedimentary structures, bed thicknesses, occurrence of interflood beds and bioturbation indexes, we
27 distinguish four different subenvironments within single mouth bars. These range from mouth bar axis,
28 off-axis, fringe to distal fringe deposits, and each reflect differences in hydraulic conditions as moving
29 away from the main active feeding channel. The interpreted mouth bar components also show intra-
30 mouth-bar variability in dominant process regime, with overall river dominance but local preservation of
31 tide influence in the fringe and distal fringe components. Mouth bar deposits amalgamate to form an
32 extensive sand-rich sheet body throughout the study area, in which interflood mudstone to very-fine
33 grained sandstone beds are nearly absent. These features are interpreted to reflect successive

34 coalescence of mouth bars in a low accommodation / supply (A/S) setting. These conditions promoted
35 channel avulsion/bifurcation and thus the potential reworking of previously deposited mouth bar fringe
36 and distal fringe sediments, where tide influence tends to be better recorded. Results of this study
37 evidence a common mixed nature and internal process-regime variability within mouth bar components.
38 They also caution against the possible loss of preservation of subordinate processes (e.g. tidal indicators),
39 and consequent underestimation of the true mixed influence in low-accommodation deltaic settings.

40

41 INTRODUCTION

42 Mouth bars are fundamental architectural elements of proximal deltaic successions. They form at the
43 river mouth, where flows confined within a distributary channel expand and decelerate as they enter a
44 standing body of water (Bates, 1953; Wright, 1977; Elliott, 1986). The plan-view, cross-sectional
45 geometry and scale of mouth bars is controlled by the relative dominance of coastal processes,
46 influencing their shape and typical aspect ratio (length: width) (e.g. Wright, 1977; Postma, 1990;
47 Bhattacharya, 2006; Gani and Bhattacharya, 2007). Additionally, increased bedload and/or shallower
48 receiving water depths result in broad mouth bar deposits, as enhanced effects of bed friction cause
49 more rapid spatial expansion and deceleration of the river jet (Wright, 1977). Mouth bar depositional
50 cycles consist of deposition, extension, avulsion and abandonment (Olariu and Bhattacharya, 2006).
51 Numerical modeling suggest that individual mouth bars prograde until the water depth over the bar is
52 equal to or less than 40% of the inlet depth, after which aggradation becomes dominant (Edmonds and
53 Slingerland, 2007). This decreases distributary channel discharge and forces its bifurcation (Olariu and
54 Bhattacharya, 2006; Edmonds and Slingerland, 2007) or avulsion (e.g. Bhattacharya, 2010). Both options
55 lead to the initiation of new mouth bar deposition, and they are enhanced in high sediment supply and
56 low accommodation conditions (Van Yperen et al., *in press JSR*).

57 Mouth bars consist of beds and bedsets that reflect flood and interflood deposition related to seasonal
58 variations in flow conditions and sediment input (Dalrymple et al., 2015; Gugliotta et al., 2016a). Finer-
59 grained facies (i.e., ‘interflood beds’) deposit during times of low energy between river flood periods,
60 whereas ‘river flood beds’ are thicker and consist of coarser-grained facies deposited during times of
61 high river discharge (Dalrymple et al., 2015; Gugliotta et al., 2016a). River flood beds are amalgamated
62 towards the top and are dominant in the proximal part of mouth bars, whereas interflood beds occur
63 predominantly at mouth bar fringes (Fig. 1) (Gugliotta et al., 2016a). If not obscured by bioturbation, and
64 if deposition takes place within a tide-influenced zone, these interflood beds can show tidal rhythmites,
65 double mud drapes, and/or bidirectional current ripples (Dalrymple et al., 2015, and references therein).

66 If a depositional system or zone experiences only weak tidal energy, tidal indicators have highest
67 preservation potential in the interflood beds (e.g. Gugliotta et al., 2016b; Kurcinka et al., 2018). These
68 interflood beds represent more time than the flood deposits (e.g. Miall, 2015).

69 Beds and bedsets within mouth bars represent basinward-accreting bar-front surfaces (e.g. Gani and
70 Bhattacharya, 2007) emanating from a relatively fixed distributary channel mouth (Wellner et al., 2005).
71 Individual mouth bars coalesce and stack compensationally to form mouth bar complexes (Fig. 2) (e.g.
72 Wellner et al., 2005; Enge et al., 2010). Mouth bar complexes are related to the same progradation
73 pulse (Ainsworth et al., 2016) and their distributary channel network is genetically linked (Wellner et al.,
74 2005). Delta lobes consist of mouth bar complexes related to the same primary distributary feeder
75 channel; new lobes form when the channel avulses or erodes through the delta lobe and initiates new,
76 larger-scale mouth bar deposits outside the stranded lobe (Ainsworth et al., 2016). At both mouth bar
77 complex and delta lobe scale, individual mouth bars typically become smaller and finer-grained as the
78 distributary channel network progrades (Wellner et al., 2005). The amalgamation of mouth bars into
79 mouth bar complexes and delta lobes is the building mechanism for deltas, and avulsion and/or
80 bifurcation are the driving forces for their lateral development (Edmonds and Slingerland 2007).

81 Internal differentiation of individual mouth bars is executed but not common in ancient deltaic
82 successions (e.g. Olariu and Bhattacharya, 2006; Gani and Bhattacharya, 2007; Enge et al., 2010; Jerrett
83 et al., 2016; Fidolini and Ghinassi, 2016). In deep-water sedimentology it is common to differentiate
84 submarine fan lobe deposits internally and distinguish lobe axis, off-axis, fringe and distal fringe sub-
85 environments (e.g. Hodgson, 2009; Prélat et al., 2009; Hofstra et al., 2016; Spychala et al., 2017). A
86 similar subdivision in ancient mouth bar deposits is uncommon but differentiation between axial and
87 fringe deposits has been made (e.g. Jerrett et al., 2016; Fidolini and Ghinassi, 2016). Detailed work on
88 modern deltas shows predictable grainsize and bedform trends within individual mouth bar deposits
89 (e.g. Wellner et al., 2005). These are all consistent with an overall waning flow lithofacies association in
90 all directions away from the central axis.

91 In this study, we analyze the proximal deltaic expression of the exhumed Cenomanian Mesa Rica
92 Sandstone (Dakota Group, Western Interior Seaway, USA), with the aim to: i) describe and analyse the
93 spatial distribution of sedimentary facies and stratigraphic architecture of its proximal deltaic expression;
94 ii) distinguish and discuss different processes and deposits from internal mouth bar components; and iii)
95 discuss the role of low-accommodation conditions in resulting deltaic geometries and preservation
96 potential of interflood deposits.

GEOLOGICAL SETTING AND STRATIGRAPHIC FRAMEWORK

99 The Mesa Rica Sandstone (hereafter referred to as ‘Mesa Rica’) was deposited ~98–99 Ma during the
100 Cenomanian (Scott et al., 2018) and is the oldest formation within the Dakota Group in Colorado and
101 New Mexico (e.g. Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992; Scott et al., 2004). The Dakota Group is among the
102 eastward prograding sedimentary systems of the US Western Interior that were sourced from the Sevier
103 fold-and-thrust belt (e.g. MacKenzie and Poole, 1962; Dickinson, 2018 and references herein, Van
104 Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). The latter formed during the Cordilleran orogeny, with subduction of the
105 Farallon plate beneath the west coast of North America causing back-arc compression in the Late
106 Jurassic (DeCelles, 2004). The Dakota Group also received minor sediment volumes from other smaller
107 topographic highs (Kisucky, 1987; Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992). The study area is located at the
108 northwestern rim of the Tucumcari Basin (Fig. 3A), which formed during the late Carboniferous and early
109 Permian as a tectonic element of the Ancestral Rocky Mountains (Broadhead, 2004).

110 An overall NW to SSE-directed depositional profile characterizes the Dakota Group in southeastern
111 Colorado and northeastern New Mexico. The Dakota Group is further subdivided into the Mesa Rica,
112 Pajarito (Dry Creek Canyon member in south-central Colorado and northeastern New Mexico) and
113 Romeroville formations. These represent phases of predominantly fluvial, paralic, and fluvial deposition,
114 respectively (Fig. 3B). Regional sequence boundary SB3.1 (Fig. 3B) forms the base of the Mesa Rica and
115 relates to a late Albian – early Cenomanian forced-regression, which caused widespread erosion in
116 southeast Colorado and northeast New Mexico (Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992; Holbrook, 1996;
117 Holbrook, 2001; Scott et al., 2004; Oboh-Ikuenobe et al., 2008). In east-central New Mexico, only the
118 Mesa Rica and Pajarito formations are preserved, and the former can be in turn subdivided into the
119 lower, middle, and upper Mesa Rica (Scott et al., 2004; Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). This
120 subdivision relates to depositional transgression-regression (T-R) cycles and record higher-frequency
121 relative sea-level fluctuations in the Western Interior Seaway (e.g. Holbrook and Wright Dunbar 1992;
122 Holbrook 1996; Scott et al., 2004; Oboh-Ikuenobe et al., 2008). In the Tucumcari Basin, the open marine
123 Albian-Cenomanian Tucumcari Shale separates the fluvial Jurassic Morrison Formation from the fluvi-
124 deltaic, Cretaceous Dakota Group (Fig. 3B) (e.g. Holbrook and Wright Dunbar 1992; Scott et al., 2004;
125 Van Yperen et al., *in press JSR*). The Tucumcari Shale is locally underlain by estuarine deposits of the
126 informally defined Cretaceous Campana Sandstone Bed (hereafter referred to as “Campana”) (Holbrook
et al., 1987; Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992). This represents the sandy infill of local topographic
128 lows, as the Late Jurassic landscape was progressively inundated during relative sea-level rise (Holbrook
et al., 1987).

130 The lower Mesa Rica shows a change from fluvial to deltaic deposits at the northwestern rim of the
131 Tucumcari Basin, which reflects the most proximal shallow-marine deposition within the Mesa Rica
132 depositional system (Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992; Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). Upstream,
133 time-equivalent fluvial strata record deposition of a >80 km-wide single-story channel sheet (e.g.
134 Holbrook, 2001). Downstream, in the center of the Tucumcari Basin, coalesced mouth bars consistently
135 overlain by sand-filled amalgamated distributary channels characterize the contemporaneous deltaic
136 deposits (Van Yperen et al., *in press JSR*). The upper Mesa Rica represents a lower delta plain
137 environment with fluvial distributary channel deposits (e.g. Scott et al., 2004; Holbrook et al., 2006; Van
138 Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*) and an increased presence of marine-influenced distributary channel
139 deposits towards the center of the basin (Van Yperen et al., *in press JSR*).

140 During the Cretaceous, the study area was located at ~35°N latitude, with a prevailing warm and humid
141 climate (Chumakov et al., 1995).

142

143 **METHODS AND DATA**

144 The field study focused on the lower Mesa Rica, which is deltaic in the study area, because the main
145 objective of this work is the recognition of internal architecture of ancient deltaic sandstone bodies.
146 However, the upper Mesa Rica and the stratigraphic relationships with underlying and overlying strata
147 are also briefly reported in the results below.

148 Stratigraphic sections were measured at 1:100 cm scale (18 logs) and 1:200 cm scale (4 sketch logs)
149 within a ~25 km² area, at the Trigg Ranch in San Miguel County, east-central New Mexico (Fig. 4).
150 Sedimentary facies analysis was based on lithology, texture, sedimentary structures, and bioturbation
151 assemblage and intensity. The latter was recorded using the 1–6 bioturbation index (BI) scheme of
152 Taylor and Goldring (1993). UAV (unmanned aerial vehicle) imagery (shot with a Phantom 4 Pro ®),
153 photomontages, and field sketches are used to map sedimentary body geometries, lateral distributions,
154 architectural elements and extension of key stratigraphic surfaces. These form the basis of a fence
155 correlation diagram that correlates constructed depositional-dip (~6,5 km) and strike-oriented (~4 km)
156 panels. Paleocurrent measurements (N=260) were obtained from cross-stratification and cross-
157 lamination foresets.

158

159 **FACIES ANALYSIS**

160 The studied strata are divided into 13 facies (f1–13) based on observations of lithology, grain size,
161 sedimentary structures, paleocurrents, bioturbation indices, and interpreted depositional processes

162 (Table 1, Figs. 5–9). We grouped the facies into nine facies associations (FA1–9) that reflect different
163 environments of deposition, based on the combination of dominant sedimentary processes (facies),
164 bioturbation intensity, and lateral and vertical facies relationships.

165

166 FA1 – Prodelta

167 **Description** - Gray, structureless muddy siltstone (f1, Table 1) found in sharp contact with overlying
168 delta front deposits (FA2–FA5). FA1 thicknesses average 0.3–0.7 m (max. 2 m thick). Bioturbation indices
169 are high (BI 4–5) and we identified *Thalassinoides*, *Phycosiphon*, *Planolites*, *Teichichnus*, *Chondrites*, and
170 *Helminthopsis* (Fig. 7A). Macrofauna was not observed.

171 **Interpretation** - Deposition occurred below fair-weather wave base, in a low-energy setting beyond the
172 influence of the river effluent (e.g. Wright and Coleman, 1973; Gani et al., 2009). The stratigraphic
173 position of FA1 relates to the open marine Tucumcari Shale, with abundant macrofauna (e.g.
174 *Texigrapheya*, *Peilina levicostata*) within the Tucumcari Basin (e.g. Scott, 1974; Holbrook and Wright
175 Dunbar, 1992; Kues, 1997; Oboh-Ikuenobe et al., 2008). In the study area however, a shallower setting is
176 inferred from the thin and silty appearance and lack of macrofauna indicative of open marine settings
177 (e.g. Holbrook et al., 1987; Kisucky, 1987; Holbrook and White, 1998). The trace fossils indicate brackish
178 to normal marine conditions (MacEachern and Bann, 2008).

179

180 FA2 – Mouth bar axis

181 **Description** – FA2 consists of two subsets: FA2.a consists of laterally-extensive sandstone beds with a
182 tabular, sharp-bedded nature and display an alternation of f2 with f3, f4 and/or f5 (Fig. 8A, Table
183 1). Facies f2 consists of 10–30-cm-thick poorly-sorted, clast supported conglomerate beds with common
184 (faint) stratification (Fig. 5A). Facies f3 consists predominantly of 30–50-cm-thick fine-grained
185 structureless sandstone beds, and rare planar lamination (f4) and cross-stratification (f5). The contact
186 surface between the alternating facies is sharp or gradational. Conglomerate beds become increasingly
187 amalgamated upwards and grade into better sorted, through- and tangential cross-stratified pebbly
188 sandstone (f6, Fig. 5B, Table 1). *Ophiomorpha* trace fossils (BI 0–2) occur predominantly in the upper
189 part of the structureless sandstone beds (Fig. 7B). FA2.b consists of 40–60-cm-thick cross-stratified (f5)
190 and parallel-laminated (f4) sandstone, with common soft-sediment deformation and an absence of mud.
191 In places, dispersed granules occur in cross-stratified sandstone beds.

192 FA2 units are 8–10 m thick, reveal arrangement in ~8° dipping accretionary strata in places, and grade
193 laterally into FA3 (mouth bar – off-axis). FA2 is locally eroded and overlain by FA6 (distributary channel
194 deposits).

195 **Interpretation** – FA2 deposits are associated with high-energy deposition close to the river mouth (e.g.
196 Wright, 1977; Enge et al., 2010; Fidolini and Ghinassi, 2016). We interpret FA2.a as hyperpycnites (*sensu*
197 Mulder et al., 2003) because of their position in the sedimentary system, grain size, and trends in
198 sedimentary structures. The latter show an alternation of different conforming facies that reflect
199 repetitive deposition from different flow types and represent deposition dominated by gravity-flow
200 deposits (e.g. Talling et al., 2012). Deposition from debris flows transitional to high-density, stratified
201 turbulent flows is inferred from the clast supported conglomerate with faintly visible cross-stratification
202 (f2) (e.g. Lowe, 1982; Zavala et al., 2011; Talling et al., 2012). F2 alternates with high-density and low-
203 density turbidity currents, as we infer from the structureless (f3) and/or planar laminated or cross-
204 stratified sandstone (f4, f5), respectively. The upward-increasing amalgamation of conglomerate beds
205 represents an increase in energy and is interpreted as mouth bar progradation. Eventually, a decreased
206 depth over the mouth bar causes flow deceleration (Edmonds and Slingerland, 2007), which explains the
207 vertical transition from conglomerate beds into pebbly sandstone that reflect lower energy. Lack of
208 finer-grained facies indicates an absence of interflood beds. The sparse occurrence of *Ophiomorpha*
209 trace fossils supports the interpretation of a marine setting with proximity to the river outlet.
210 FA2.b lacks any marine indicators. However, the interpretation of mouth-bar deposition close the river
211 outlet is supported by the gradual lateral facies change into FA3, local arrangement in dipping
212 accretionary strata, and the lack of erosional channel-shaped surfaces.
213 FA2.a is dominated by gravitational-flow processes, whereas FA2.b by bedload deposition. Despite their
214 different dominant depositional processes, they both represent a closer position relative to the feeding
215 channel than the deposits assigned to FA3–5. This is based on the complete lack of interflood deposits
216 (FA2.a and FA2.b) and low (FA2.a) to absent (FA2.b) bioturbation.

217

218 FA3 – Mouth bar off-axis

219 **Description** – FA3 (Fig. 8B) consists of very fine- to fine-grained, 20–50 cm thick sandstone beds that are
220 structureless (f3, Table 1) (Fig. 5C) or show parallel lamination and tabular cross stratification (f4, f5,
221 respectively). Soft-sediment deformation, wood fragments and stringers of extrabasinal clasts (up to 4
222 cm in diameter) are common. The lower part of FA3 displays rare interbedded siltstone to very fine-
223 grained sandstone (f7). Pebby cross-stratified sandstone (f6, Fig. 5B) dominates the upper part. Sparse

224 and low-diversity bioturbation (BI 0–2, *Ophiomorpha*) characterizes FA3 although rare horizontal
225 bedding planes with BI 4–5 are present. A 20–50 cm thoroughly bioturbated sandstone bed (f9) is
226 commonly found at the base of FA3.

227 FA3 units are 7–8 m thick of which the upper part locally shows arrangement in low-angle dipping
228 accretionary strata ($\sim 3^\circ$ dip towards SSW). FA3 grades laterally into FA2 (mouth bar – axis) or FA4
229 (mouth bar -fringe) and is locally eroded and overlain by FA6 (distributary channel deposits).

230 **Interpretation** – The sedimentary features of FA3 also indicate high energy deposition in a proximal
231 mouth bar setting (e.g. Wright, 1977; Enge et al., 2010; Fidolini and Ghinassi, 2016). This is based on the
232 coarsening-upward nature, the abundance of well-stratified sandstone, the accretionary architecture,
233 and abundant soft sediment deformation. The latter indicates rapid deposition and dewatering by
234 loading, typical for delta front deposition (e.g. Bann et al., 2008). The predominantly absent to sparse
235 bioturbation supports the interpretation of high sedimentation rates and proximity to a river outlet
236 (MacEachern and Bann, 2008). The *Ophiomorpha* structures are typical for high energy settings as well
237 (Pemberton et al., 2001). The rare occurrence of thoroughly bioturbated horizontal bedding reflects
238 short time-windows with reduced depositional energy (MacEachern and Bann, 2008), consistent with an
239 off-axis environment. This indicates sparse interruptions of the otherwise high energy depositional
240 setting and interpreted as the record of interflood periods.

241

242 FA4 – Mouth bar fringe

243 **Description** – A sharp tabular (at outcrop scale) nature characterizes the thin to thick (5–40 cm), very
244 fine- to fine-grained sandstone beds of FA3 (Fig. 5D). They are structureless (f2, Table 1), but show
245 progressively more planar- and tangential cross-stratification (f5) towards the top (Fig. 8C), where
246 trough and cross-stratified pebbly sandstone (f6, Fig. 5B) is locally present. Sandstone beds are in places
247 interbedded with siltstone to very fine-grained sandstone (f3), with common asymmetrical ripples (f8)
248 (Fig. 5E). Mud-drapes are sparse. Stringers of extrabasinal clasts (up to 5 cm diameter) occur locally (Fig.
249 5F). The bioturbation index varies (BI 0–5) and is characterized by a non-uniform but upwards-
250 decreasing trend. We documented high-index bioturbation predominantly on horizontal bedding planes
251 (Fig. 7D) and/or in parallel-laminated siltstones (f7). Trace fossils observed are *Ophiomorpha*,
252 *Thalassinoides*, *Conichnus*, *Palaeophycus*, *Macaronichnus*, *Teichichnus* and *Rosellia* (Fig. 7E). Thoroughly
253 bioturbated sandstone beds (0.3–2 m thick, f9; Fig. 7F) occur locally at the base and / or at the top of
254 FA4.

255 FA4 units are 6–8 m thick and grade laterally into FA3 (mouth bar – off-axis) or FA5 (mouth bar – distal
256 fringe). Fluvial deposits (FA6) incise into FA4 locally (Fig. 9A).

257 **Interpretation** – FA4 represents episodic deposition in a position farther from the river outlet than the
258 previous FA's. This is based on the alternation of upper and lower flow regime bedforms and the non-
259 uniform bioturbation index. The interbedded finer-grained facies were deposited during times of lower
260 energy between river floods (i.e., ‘interflood beds’ cf. Dalrymple et al., 2015; Gugliotta et al., 2016a),
261 with preservation of a minimal tide-influence. The occurrence of intensely bioturbated horizontal
262 bedding planes and/or interflood beds also suggests longer recurrent times with stable conditions in
263 between deposition of individual sandstone beds (e.g. Gani et al., 2009). The upward-decreasing
264 bioturbation index and local upward-increasing pebble content indicate bar progradation and increasing
265 proximity to the river mouth (e.g. MacEachern and Bann, 2008; Bhattacharya, 2010).

266

267 **FA5 – Mouth bar distal fringe**

268 **Description** – FA5 consists of thoroughly bioturbated sandstone beds (1–2 m thick, f9, Table 1) with or
269 without overlying fine-grained sandstone beds with bidirectional cross-stratification (f6). The latter
270 increase upwards in bed thickness from 10 cm to 40 cm, and bidirectionality is supported by
271 paleocurrent measurements ($n = 10$) (Fig. 8D). These sandstone beds display no mud-draping or trace
272 fossils. FA5 units have thicknesses of 3–4 m and are adjacent to FA4 (mouth bar – fringe).

273 **Interpretation** – FA5 represents mouth bar deposition with decreased river influence compared to FA2–
274 4. The bidirectional cross-stratification indicates that tidal currents were able to fully reverse the river
275 outflow and suggest a strong tide-influence (cf. Martinus and Gowland, 2011).

276

277 **FA6 – Fluvial distributary channel**

278 **Description** – FA6 consists of fine- to medium-grained sandstone bodies composed of 10–100 cm thick
279 sandstone beds with parallel lamination, tabular (Fig. 6A) and trough cross-stratification (f5, f6, f10,
280 Table 1). Both beds and individual foresets show normal grading and bed thicknesses decrease upwards
281 locally. Erosional flat- and concave-upward surfaces bound the single- and multi-storey sandstone
282 bodies, and in places they are lined with wood debris, muddy rip-up clasts, and/or pebble lag horizons
283 (f11). The single-storey sandstone bodies have average dimensions of ~3/100 m (width/thickness).
284 Multi-storey bodies have erosional bases that form composite surfaces bounding higher-order channel-
285 fill elements with rare lateral accretionary packages. The multi-storey bodies are 250–300 m wide and
286 8–20 m thick, and consist of 2–6 stories (Fig. 9B-C). Internally, individual channel-fill elements average 4

287 m in preserved thickness. Varicolored mottling overprints the uppermost interval of FA6 units in places
288 (Fig. 6B). FA6 is devoid of trace fossils, and only the top surface is commonly bioturbated with *Skolithos*
289 (BI 0–2). Laterally continuous deposits of the Jurassic Morrison Formation also fit with this facies
290 association, but they are outside the focus of this study. FA6 incises into mouth bar deposits (FA2–5) and
291 is also found isolated within interdistributary-bay deposits (FA8).

292 **Interpretation** – FA6 deposition resulted from the migration of two-dimensional and three-dimensional
293 subaqueous bedforms (dune and ripple-scale), and the formation of parallel laminations in upper flow
294 regime conditions, within subaqueous channels (e.g. Flemming, 2000). The absence of bioturbation,
295 marine indicators, and mud-drapes suggests deposition by fully fluvial currents. Preserved fine-grained
296 facies within channel bodies are interpreted as abandoned channel fills, covered by interdistributary fine
297 deposits (FA8). The varicolored mottling indicates weak pedogenesis on previously deposited channel
298 fills and suggests prolonged subaerial exposure. Holbrook (1996) measured average channel depths of
299 10–12 m and widths of 90–180 m for equivalent upstream Mesa Rica trunk channels. This implies that
300 the smaller channel dimensions of FA6 (~3/100 m width/thickness) represent the result of successive
301 downstream bifurcations from the trunk channel. Larger channel dimensions (~250–300/~8 20 m total
302 width/thickness) represent trunk-scale or first-order distributaries. Multi-storey channel deposits relate
303 to repeated occupation of a given location and their deep scouring may indicate a link to forced-
304 regression conditions.

305 306 FA7 – Tide-influenced distributary channel

307 **Description** – FA7 consists of sandstone-dominated heterolithic deposits with predominantly very fine-
308 to fine-grained sharp-based structureless (f3, Table 1) or tabular cross-stratified sandstone beds (f5) that
309 are 10–40 cm thick (Fig. 6C). The cross-stratification is rarely sigmoidal. These sandstone beds alternate
310 with flaser bedding (facies 13; Fig. 6D-E) and/or thin siltstone intervals (1–10 cm thick) (f7, f8). The latter
311 are occasionally mud-draped or double mud-draped and have unidirectional and/or bidirectional ripples
312 in places. Wood debris, mud rip-up clasts, and syneresis cracks are common. Bioturbation occurs both in
313 sandstone and finer-grained siltstone beds, is non-uniform and low (BI 0–3), and includes *Skolithos*,
314 *Macaronichnus*, and *Ophiomorpha*. Erosional concave-upward surfaces bound single-storey (max. 3 m
315 thick, 70 m wide) channel bodies. We documented one multi-storey channel body of 12/75 m
316 (width/thickness).

317 FA7 occurs embedded in fine-grained interdistributary-bay deposits (FA8; Fig. 9D) and incising erosively
318 into mouth-bar deposits (FA2–5). Paleocurrent data (n=42) reveal a mean direction towards NNW.

319 **Interpretation** – FA7 represents the infill of tide-influenced distributary channels. The heterolithic
320 character could result from variations in fluvial discharge (Gugliotta et al., 2016a). However, the
321 occurrence of flaser bedding can be assigned to a tidal origin (Baas et al., 2016), and all channel fills
322 included at least two criteria that may be produced by, although not unique, to tidal processes (e.g.
323 sigmoidal bedding, bidirectional cross-stratification, double mud-draped ripple laminae) (e.g. Nio and
324 Yang, 1991). We therefore interpret a recurrent tide-influence of river currents, rather than a tide-
325 dominance. The bioturbation reflects a low-diversity expression of the *Skolithos* ichnofacies, which
326 supports the interpretation of tidally-affected deposits (Gani et al., 2009). The upstream NNW
327 orientation of the average paleocurrent direction reflects localized tidal flood-dominance.

328

FA8 – Interdistributary bay

330 **Description** – FA8 consist predominantly of gray-brown muddy siltstone (f1; Fig. 6F). Very fine- to fine-
331 grained, sharp-based sandstone beds (0.1–0.3 m thick) can be traced for 100–200 m and bed tops
332 commonly exhibit asymmetrical ripples (f8; Fig. 7C). The sandstone beds are generally structureless (f3),
333 occasionally cross-stratified (f5) and interbedded with rippled siltstone (f8). Syneresis cracks common,
334 and bioturbation (BI 0–3) includes *Skolithos*, *Arenicolites*, and *Phycodes*. Isolated sandstone bodies of
335 FA6 (fluvial distributary channel) and FA7 (tide-influenced distributary channel) are found in FA8.

336 **Interpretation** – FA8 represents fine-grained lower-delta-plain to interdistributary-bay deposits, based
337 on its close relation to FA6 and FA7, and absence of coal. The thin-bedded sheet sandstone deposits
338 represent crevasse splays or overbank flow deposits. Trace fossils indicate short-lived marine incursions.
339 The siltstone holds rare dinoflagellates and abundant spores and pollen (Oboh-Ikuenobe et al., 2008),
340 which supports the interpretation of brackish conditions.

341

FA9 – Estuary

343 **Description** – FA9 consists of fine-grained sandstone beds (0,3–3 m) that fine upward into very fine-
344 grained sandstone beds (5–20 cm) with interbedded siltstone in places. FA9 comprises two subsets;
345 FA9.a is characterized by high index bioturbation (BI 5–6, *Thalassinoides*, *Ophiomorpha*) that obliterates
346 primary structures and bed boundaries. Extrabasinal clasts (diameter < 3 cm) occur dispersed and locally
347 in lag horizons (subangular-subrounded diameter 2–4 cm) together with mud rip-ups (f11, Table 1). The
348 lags are in places overlain by a thin (~5 cm) siltstone package. FA9.b is characterized by sandstone beds
349 (30–60 cm) that are structureless (f3) or reveal parallel lamination, tabular or trough cross-stratification
350 (f5, f6, f9). Composite surfaces bound higher order scour surfaces and are commonly lined with wood

351 debris and muddy rip-up clasts. Bioturbation is absent in the lower part of FA9.a and shows an upward-
352 increasing trend (BI 0–5) in the upper part. Trace fossils include *Thalassinoides*, *Ophiomorpha*, *Planolites*
353 and *Teichichnus*.

354 FA9 has a limited lateral extent of max. 1 km and is found embedded within the underlying fluvial
355 deposits of the Jurassic Morrison Formation; prodelta deposits (FA1) overlie FA9. FA9.a is 2–4 m thick
356 and onlaps the the underlying strata, whereas the basal surface of FA9.b is 6–7 m thick and erosional.

357 **Interpretation** –FA9 represents estuarine deposits, based on localized occurrence, upward-increasing
358 marine influence, and stratigraphic position below prodelta deposits (FA1) (e.g. Holbrook et al., 1987;
359 Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). The high bioturbation index of FA9.a is indicative for conditions
360 favoring trace makers, such as wave-agitation (e.g. MacEachern and Bann, 2008). FA9.b represents the
361 aggradational fluvial infill of existing topographic lows with a progressively increasing marine influence.
362 The stratigraphic position of FA9 relates to the Campana Sandstone Bed (Holbrook et al., 1987).

363

364 **Facies distribution**

365 Estuarine deposits (FA3) unconformably overlie fluvial strata of the Jurassic Morrison Formation and
366 represent the transgressive infill of topographic lows (Holbrook et al., 1987; Van Yperen et al., *in press*
367 *NMGS*) (Figs 2B, 10). The overlying prodelta (FA1) deposits are present throughout the study area,
368 except in the northwest, and separate Jurassic fluvial strata from Cenomanian Mesa Rica deposits. The
369 latter consist of two sandstone units; Succession 1 (S1) forms a continuous sandstone sheet (6–10 m
370 thick) throughout the study area, whereas Succession 2 (S2) is discontinuous (0–6 m thick) and
371 embedded in interdistributary fines (FA8). S1 and S2 correlate to the lower and upper Mesa Rica,
372 respectively Rica (e.g. Scott et al., 2004; Holbrook et al., 2006) and both successions are capped by a
373 flooding surface with BI 1–5 (*Skolithos*, *Diplocraterion*, *Thalassinoides*) in the study area. These flooding
374 surfaces (Maximum Regressive Surface 1 and 2) represent key stratigraphic surfaces and are used for
375 correlation (Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). They correlate to TS3.1 and TS3.2 (cf. Holbrook et al.,
376 2006; Oboh-Ikuenobe et al., 2008).

377 The sheet-forming S1 contains laterally-extensive mouth bar deposits (FA2–FA5), except in the NW
378 corner of the study area, where fluvial strata (FA6) persist. Previously published work asserted an
379 absence of equivalent shallow marine strata up paleodepositional dip of the study area (e.g. Holbrook et
380 al., 1987; Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992) and drone data collected outside the main study area (Fig.
381 4) and ground truthing confirms this. The S1 is locally incised by composite erosional surfaces containing
382 multi-storey fluvial (FA6) (Fig. 9B, C) and marine-influenced (FA7) channel infill (8–20 thick, 75–300 m

wide), and large-scale scours filled with fine-grained material (Fig. 9A). S1 thickens towards the south. The S1 / lower mesa Rica (6–10 m thick) is thin compared to both the upstream fluvial strata (10–15 m, e.g. Holbrook et al., 2006) and downstream fully deltaic strata (12–20 m, Van Yperen et al., *in press JSR*), which reflects deposition at the basin margin (Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). S2 consists of isolated composite fluvial bodies that are amalgamated into multi-lateral single or double stories. They represent mostly fully fluvial channel bodies (FA6), but tide-influenced heterolithic channel bodies occur locally (FA7) (Fig. 9D). The isolated nature of FA6 and FA7 suggests a higher A/S ratio (i.e., more accommodation or less sediment supply) than during S1 deposition. The S1 and S2 relate to the lower and upper Mesa Rica, respectively (e.g. Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992; Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*). The overlying strata belong to the paralic Pajarito Formation (e.g. Lucas and Kisucky, 1988; Holbrook and Wright Dunbar, 1992; Holbrook, 1996; Van Yperen et al., *in press NMGS*) and are outside the scope of this paper.

Mouth bar (FA2–FA5) paleocurrents reveal a scattered pattern covering 360° variance, which we explain by the intrinsic compensation and growth in radial patterns during mouth bar development. Distributary channel deposits (FA6) show a consistent SSE component whereas the tide-influenced distributary channel deposits have a strong NNW component, supporting the interpretation of bidirectionality (Fig. 10).

400

401 MOUTH BAR ARCHITECTURE

402 Components

403 The mouth bar facies associations (FA2–5) represent deposition of sheet-like deposits in a relatively
404 unconfined environment, based on their general lack of deep scours, the laterally extensive individual
405 sandstone beds and the apparent tabular bed geometry. They (FA2–5) form a continuum of deposits that
406 are interpreted as different expressions of deposition close to a river outlet. These sub-environments
407 are referred to as ‘axis’ (FA2), ‘off-axis’ (FA3), ‘fringe’ (FA4) and ‘distal fringe’ (FA5) (Fig. 8), and
408 represent along-strike changes of processes and resulting deposits within a single mouth bar (Fig. 11).
409 This subdivision into mouth bar components is similar to the common classification used to describe
410 deep-water lobe deposits that build basin-floor fan successions (e.g. Hodgson 2009; Prélat et al., 2009;
411 Spychala et al., 2015; Hofstra et al., 2016).

412 Mouth bar facies associations (FA2–5) reveal a predictable trend in flow regime, bed thickness,
413 occurrence of interflood beds, bioturbation index and tide-influence, when moving away from the
414 center to the outer parts of the sedimentary body (Fig. 11). From mouth bar axis to fringe, the

415 occurrence of upper flow regime bedforms and average bed thickness diminishes. Soft-sediment
416 deformation is most common in axis and off-axis deposits (FA2, FA3). The record of interflood beds and
417 bioturbation index progressively increases towards the fringe (FA4; Fig. 11). Interflood beds display
418 varying thicknesses (Fig. 12) and are expressed only by a bioturbated surface in places (Fig. 12A). These
419 thoroughly bioturbated surfaces separate upper flow regime beds and reflect time-windows with
420 reduced depositional energy (MacEachern and Bann, 2008). Therefore, we interpret them as formed
421 during interflood periods, although they likely represent less time than the thicker expressions of
422 interflood beds. In addition, some fringe sections (FA4, FA5) show thoroughly bioturbated top surfaces,
423 which may indicate early abandonment of certain mouth bar components (Fig. 12E, F). The lack of trace
424 fossils in axial deposits can be ascribed to the proximal deltaic setting, in which fresh water dominance
425 overprints the marine influence and makes it unfavorable for infaunal colonization (e.g. MacEachern and
426 Bann, 2008). If no other features indicate a shallow-marine environment, the lateral relationships
427 described are key for an accurate identification of a mouth bar setting.

428

429 **Internal geometries and stacking patterns**

430 Geometries resulting from the progradation and aggradational mouth bars during deposition typically
431 reveal a predictable architectural hierarchy with basinward dipping strata at bed scale and lapping
432 relationships at bed and element scale (e.g. Bhattacharya, 2006; Enge et al., 2010; Kurcinka et al., 2018).
433 At bed scale, in the Mesa Rica, subtle lensoid geometries with accompanying onlapping surfaces are
434 sparse in strike-oriented outcrops, which are characterized by a tabular nature and laterally extensive
435 individual sandstone beds. Top truncated terminations of bedding surfaces indicate erosion due to
436 successive bar deposition (Fig. 13). Low-angle accretionary surfaces occur in oblique-oriented sections of
437 axis and off-axis mouth bar deposits (FA2, FA3) (Fig. 14). These oblique- to strike-oriented accretionary
438 surfaces result from mouth bar compensational stacking and growth in radial pattern. Irrespective of
439 their direction, accretionary surfaces are also expected in fringe and distal fringe deposits (FA4, FA5),
440 although axial areas (FA2, FA3) are likely to develop steeper, and more evident foresets (cf. Fidolini and
441 Ghinassi, 2016). The absence of documented accretionary surfaces in fringe sections is ascribed to the
442 low-accommodation setting, which enforces the development of laterally widespread and very low-
443 dipping accretionary surfaces that are difficult to resolve from outcrop data (e.g. Anell et al., 2016; Van
444 Yperen et al., *in press JSR*).

445 At mouth bar scale, bars lap onto older mouth bar strata, creating inter-mouth bar bounding surfaces
446 (Fig. 15). These bounding surfaces are subtle in places and expressed by a sharp contact between two

447 sand beds (Fig. 9, Log 19), or consists of a fine-grained interval mantling the older mouth bar (Fig. 14,
448 Log 3). The latter results from prolonged lowered depositional rates before abandonment. The absence
449 of these fine-grained packages indicates short periods between deposition of successive mouth bars.
450 Additionally, abrupt vertical changes from typical fringe (FA4) to axial (FA2) mouth bar deposits occur in
451 a few places and suggest a spatial shift of active bar deposition as a result of (compensational) stacking
452 of mouth bars. Bar deposits are thicker above thinner units of the underlying mouth bar deposits (e.g.
453 Fig. 12). This is indicative of compensational stacking, and maintenance of a topographic low while the
454 successive mouth was being deposited (cf. Prélat et al., 2009).

455

DISCUSSION

Mouth bar dimensions

458 The distance between different mouth bar components observed in the field and their extrapolation
459 provides an estimate of mouth bar dimensions (Fig. 16). In combination with the observed internal
460 geometries and stacking patterns, we utilize this to assess the hierarchy of preserved geometries (Fig. 2);
461 what are the largest elements within the S1 sheet-forming sandstone, mouth bar complexes or delta
462 lobes?

463 The estimation of mouth bar dimensions is challenged by the fragmented outcrop nature and the
464 distribution of data points (Fig. 4; Fig. 16). Log correlation reveals spatial relationships between different
465 mouth bar components, but no complete pinch-out was documented, which limits the assessment of
466 complete mouth bar width. Thus, an overall similar distance between mouth bar components is
467 assumed, which gives a minimum mouth bar width. We exclude the presumable process change
468 towards the distal fringe where sedimentation from suspension fallout would tend to create more
469 laterally extensive plumes.

470 We observe a facies change from fringe to off-axis deposits and back to fringe in ~1.4 km at logs 15, 16,
471 17 (Fowl Canyon; Fig. 9, 16). Axial mouth bar deposits are documented at log 11 (Alamosa) and off-axis
472 and fringe deposits at logs 12, 13 (Dog Canyon; Fig. 16). All these deposits could belong to the same
473 mouth bar, but this causes difficulties to fit the axial mouth bar deposits at log 22 and the fringe
474 deposits inferred from drone data ~900 m south of log 22 (Nana's; Fig. 16). We therefore separate this
475 group of deposits in two mouth bars, of which the one in Dog Canyon has an axis-to-fringe distance of
476 ~900 m, and thus a fringe-axis-fringe minimum width of ~1.8 km. The mouth bar at Alamosa estimates
477 ~1.7 km.

478 The facies architecture and lapping relationships are consistent with components at mouth bar scale
479 rather than depositional trends at lobe scale. We base this on the internal hierarchy, as we rarely
480 observe bounding surfaces and lapping relationships, whilst observations at lobe scale would be
481 expected to reveal numerous bounding surfaces because these result from the amalgamation of mouth
482 bars. In addition, average dimensions of ancient mouth bars range from 1.1 km to 14 km wide with
483 lengths between 2.6 km to 9.6 km (Reynolds, 1999): the inferred dimensions of individual sandstone /
484 mouth bars in the study area (Fig. 16) fit well within this. The S1 sheet-forming mouth bar deposits thus
485 represent amalgamation of mouth bars into a mouth bar complex (Fig. 2).

486

Dominant process regime of the lower Mesa Rica

488 Mouth bar deposits of the Mesa Rica in the study area represent river-dominated proximal deltaic
489 deposition in a low-accommodation setting. The river-dominance is inferred from the alternation of
490 upper and lower flow regime bedforms, the absent, low-diversity or non-uniform varying bioturbation
491 index, and near-absence of wave-induced bedforms. Based on the latter, the wave-energy was minimal
492 and/or damped by river discharge.

493 Tidal evidence is absent in mouth bar axis and off-axis deposits (FA2, FA3). Full current-reversals
494 represent unambiguous tidal indicators and are documented as bidirectional cross-stratification at
495 Anna's point and occur in mouth bar distal fringe deposits (FA5) (Fig. 4, Fig. 8D). In most mouth bar
496 fringe deposits (FA4) however, finer-grained interflood beds show mud drapes and rare upstream-
497 migrating current ripples in places. This is inferred as evidence for (moderate) tidal modulation,
498 although the first are not unique tidal indicators. Additionally, tidal action often extends farther
499 landward than marine, salt-water intrusions (Dalrymple et al., 2015). The interflood beds are thoroughly
500 bioturbated and include fully-marine trace fossils. These reflect interflood periods, in which decreased
501 discharge allows the salinity gradient to re-establish in the off axis areas between active mouth bars (e.g.
502 Dalrymple et al., 2015), which in turn influences the ichnological character of the deposit, resulting in
503 more diverse trace-fossil assemblages (Gingras et al., 2002) and/or higher bioturbation indices (e.g.
504 Gugliotta et al., 2016b; Kurcinka et al., 2018). This evidence for salt-water intrusions holds the potential
505 tide influence.

506 Tide energy was variable throughout the study area, based on the differential nature and preservation
507 of tidal indicators. Mouth bar fringes (FA4, FA5) experienced different tidal impact dependent on when
508 and where they formed. For instance, places with weak tidal energy resulted in tidal indicators only
509 present in fine-grained interflood beds, whereas tide-dominated areas favored formation and

510 preservation of sand-prone bidirectional cross-stratified sandstone beds. Both are documented in this
511 study and suggest strike-variability in tidal energy. We reason that decreased river influence allowed
512 localized higher tidal energy. This indicates that the ‘background’ tidal energy was moderate, but still
513 only recorded in the distal mouth bar fringes, and when river discharge was low.

514

515 **From mouth bar to delta front – controlling factors**

516 The ratio between available accommodation and sediment supply (A/S) is controlled by a combination
517 of alloegenic and autogenic factors, but their contribution is often difficult to distinguish because of their
518 close interaction, particularly at high-resolution (e.g. mouth-bar and complex) scales.

519 In this study, at mouth bar scale, deposition occurred within the available accommodation between
520 previously deposited mouth bars (Fig. 15, 16). We link this to autogenic compensation processes and
521 avulsion and/or bifurcation of distributary channels. At the same scale, we infer an overall high
522 sediment supply from the absence of mud and silt in mouth bar axial deposits (FA2), and the rare
523 occurrence of these in mouth bar fringe deposits (FA4, FA5; Fig. 11). Additionally, the absence of trace
524 fossils or low-diversity assemblages (*Ophiomorpha*) in mouth bar axis to off-axis deposits (FA2, FA3) also
525 suggests a rather continuous sedimentation rate, which prohibits colonization by trace makers.
526 *Ophiomorpha* has been related to opportunistic colonization (e.g. Knaust and Bromley, 2012) and has
527 been found in brackish environments and proximal deltaic settings (e.g. MacEachern and Bann, 2008).
528 However, the alternation between upper flow regime bedforms and bioturbated surfaces or interflood
529 beds in fringe deposits (FA4, FA5) result from variations in sediment supply. Variations in sediment
530 supply can be caused by both autogenic and alloegenic control and these are often difficult to
531 differentiate. We link the variations to seasonal fluctuations in river discharge and to along-strike
532 differences in sediment distribution within a mouth bar.

533 Amalgamated mouth bar deposits form mouth bar complexes which embody the S1 sheet forming
534 sandstone succession. At this scale, the thinner thickness compared to both the upstream fluvial (e.g.
535 (Holbrook, 2001; Holbrook et al., 2006), and downstream fully deltaic time-equivalent strata (Van
536 Yperen et al., *in press JSR*), reflects deposition close to base level, with vertical limitations on
537 aggradation and incision close to the equilibrium point of the graded stream profile (e.g. Mackin, 1948;
538 Quirk, 1996; Holbrook et al., 2006). This is consistent with the position of the study area at the rim of the
539 Tucumcari Basin, but also with a relatively stable, low-accommodation setting, with either constant sea-
540 level or subjected to slow fluctuations. Limited accommodation promotes faster occupation of all
541 available space in front of the river mouth, and thus accelerates mouth bar depositional cycles (e.g.

542 Olariu and Bhattacharya 2006). The low accommodation also makes lateral sedimentary accretion a
543 prime mechanism for sediment distribution. The lateral shifting locus of mouth bar deposition means
544 that more elapsed time is represented by preserved sediment in three dimensions than in only vertical
545 accumulation (Miall, 2015). Each mouth bar represents a relatively short period of time but the lateral
546 set (mouth bar complex or delta lobe) captures depositional conditions at longer time scales. Successive
547 mouth bar coalescing in such space-limited conditions caused the sheet-like nature (cf. Olariu and
548 Bhattacharya 2006; Van Yperen et al., *in press JSR*).

549 In summary, the stable base level, low-accommodation setting and position of the system in the graded
550 stream profile, are considered the major allogenic controls on the mouth bar complex development. The
551 limited available accommodation led to recurrent avulsion/bifurcation of distributary channels, forcing
552 repetitive and coalescent mouth bar deposition cycles. The resultant compensational stacking and sand-
553 dominated nature of mouth bars reflect the multi-scale interplay of allogenic and autogenic controlling
554 factors.

555

556 **Influence of low accommodation on preservation of interflood beds**

557 Subordinate coastal processes are predominantly recorded in interflood beds. It is important to bear this
558 in mind when interpreting competing coastal processes. If a depositional system or zone only
559 experiences weak tidal energy, the tides modulate, rather than reverse river currents (Martinius and
560 Gowland, 2011; Gugliotta et al., 2016b). In these settings, tidal indicators have highest preservation
561 potential in the interflood beds (e.g. Gugliotta et al., 2016b; Kurcinka et al., 2018).

562 In the study area, the record of interflood beds is subordinate to the record of river flood beds. In
563 general, more time and processes are missing than represented in the rock record (Miall, 2014). River
564 floods have the potential to erode the interflood beds, despite floods only lasting several weeks in
565 medium-sized rivers close to the coast (Dalrymple et al., 2015). If river flood processes are too powerful,
566 interflood deposits are not preserved (cf. Gugliotta et al., 2016a) and the related time is not represented
567 in the rock record. The amount of time contained in these interflood beds is significantly more than in
568 the flood beds (e.g. Miall, 2015).

569 In addition to generalized ideas about preservation potential, the low-accommodation setting limits the
570 preservation potential of interflood deposits in two ways and subsequently masks the true sedimentary
571 processes that were active at time of deposition. First, the low accommodation increases reworking-
572 processes at bed scale and lowers significantly the preservation potential in the axial and off-axis
573 components. The recording of interflood deposits is thus restricted to the mouth bar fringe and distal

574 fringe components (FA4, FA5; Figs 1, 11) because these zones can experience temporary interruptions of
575 the otherwise high energy depositional setting. Second, low accommodation lowers the preservation
576 potential of the fringes themselves. The limited accommodation accelerates mouth bar depositional
577 cycles (e.g. Olariu and Bhattacharya 2006) and increases the reworking potential of older deposits (Van
578 Yperen et al., *in press JSR*). Mouth bar deposition with short recurrence intervals might prevent
579 lithification of previously deposited mouth bar sediment. Additionally, reworking of fringe deposits is
580 expected because their position will likely coincide with the higher energy zones (i.e., axis, off-axis) of
581 successive mouth bars, as they migrate to stack compensationally (Fig. 17). Thus, the low-
582 accommodation setting increases the potential for fringe-reworking which in turn lowers the
583 preservation potential of interflood deposits, as these are predominantly recorded in the fringe and
584 distal fringe mouth bar components. This also explains the sand-prone nature of the fringe and the small
585 differences in overall grain size between mouth bar axis and fringe components. It seems unrealistic to
586 preserve abundant fine-grained fringes in a low-accommodation system like this, but a trend in
587 decreasing energy when moving away from the axis is evident.

588 Lastly, the subordinate record of interflood beds in the study area can be a result of the ‘equable’
589 climate of the mid-Cretaceous (Fluteau et al., 2007). Such a warm, low seasonality climate would imply
590 semi-constant high river discharge conditions and could explain the dominance of river flood beds and
591 our interpretation of a rather continuous sedimentation rate with only small variations. However,
592 modeling studies show that there are significant uncertainties in the effect of the sea surface
593 temperature gradient. The latter might cause Hadley cell atmospheric transport reduction which in turn
594 enhances seasonal thermal contrasts (Fluteau et al., 2007; Hasegawa et al., 2012), causing increased
595 variation in river discharge.

596 To summarize, care should be taken when evaluating the relative dominance of process regimes (i.e.,
597 river, tides, waves) in mixed systems. Especially low-accommodation settings are prone to preserve less
598 time and deposits, and in particular the record of interflood periods. These interflood beds are the
599 containers for recording processes captured in finer-grained facies. Their low preservation potential
600 causes potential underestimation of the true influence of these processes in low-accommodation deltaic
601 settings.

602

603 **Implications for other deltaic studies**

604 Our work demonstrates that axis, off-axis, fringe and distal fringe components (FA2–5) can be
605 differentiated in river-dominated mouth bars, even in low-accommodation settings. A growing number

606 of studies document the variability within delta fronts (e.g. Gani and Bhattacharya, 2007; Ainsworth et
607 al., 2016) but few document internal characteristics of mouth bar deposits and their lateral relationships
608 (e.g. Enge et al., 2010; Jerrett et al., 2016; Fidolini and Ghinassi, 2016). Despite the different basinal
609 settings of a shallow lake (Fidolini and Ghinassi 2016) and a foreland basin (Jerrett et al., 2016), both
610 studies reveal similar trends as in the Mesa Rica. Finer-grained facies occur towards the fringe, diversion
611 in paleocurrent directions, and depositional processes change from predominantly high density currents
612 in the axial zone, to an alternation of low and high density deposits in the fringe zones.

613 The Campanian to Maastrichtian Horseshoe Canyon Formation (SW Alberta, Canada) is interpreted as a
614 wave-dominated delta that transitions laterally into fluvial dominated (Ainsworth et al., 2016). The
615 Horseshoe Canyon Formation shows strike-oriented changes in dominant processes at mouth bar
616 complex scale, which allows assessment of the impact of these changes on mouth bar architectures,
617 geometries and facies relationships (Ainsworth et al., 2016). We notice internal variability within
618 individual mouth bars in the strike-oriented correlation panels (Fig. 11 in Ainsworth et al., 2016). The
619 axial components consist of higher energy facies associations (foreshore or upper shoreface) whereas
620 lower shoreface heterolithics become dominant towards the fringes. This demonstrates potential for
621 differentiation of internal mouth bar components in wave-dominated deltas as well as in river-
622 dominated deltas (this study).

623 The recognition of mouth bar components in this study, when compared to previous work, implies that
624 the internal hierarchy of mouth bars is evident and observed regardless of dominant coastal processes
625 and/or depositional setting. Subdivision of mouth bar, mouth bar complexes, and delta lobe deposits
626 into different components can reduce complexity of models deriving from myriad facies subdivisions,
627 and help predicting facies changes and sand distribution.

628

629 CONCLUSIONS

- 630 • The Mesa Rica Sandstone represents a river-dominated proximal deltaic succession, based on the
631 recognition of dominant river flood beds, rare tidal-indicators, and a near-absence of wave-induced
632 bedforms. In such a proximal setting, fresh water dominance overprints the marine influence.
633 Lateral relationships are key for accurate identification of depositional sub-environments.
- 634 • Mouth bar deposits of the Mesa Rica Sandstone show four different mouth bar components; axis,
635 off-axis, fringe to distal fringe, in which the occurrence of upper flow regime bedforms and average
636 bed thickness decreases towards the fringe, whilst the record of interflood beds and bioturbation
637 index progressively increases.

- 638 • Subdivision of mouth bars and mouth bar complexes into different components is applicable in
639 other studies, regardless of depositional setting of the studied deltaic succession and/or dominant
640 (deltaic) coastal processes. This improves comparisons between systems and helps predicting facies
641 changes and sand distribution.
- 642 • The low-accommodation setting enforces a negative feedback on the preservation potential of
643 interflood deposits. The recording of these becomes restricted to the fringe and distal fringe mouth
644 bar components due to increased reworking-processes at bed scale and low preservation potential
645 of these beds in the axial and off-axis low-accommodation. The preservation potential of the fringes
646 themselves is in turn lowered because of accelerated mouth bar depositional cycles and consequent
647 increase of fringe-reworking.
- 648 • Care should be taken when evaluating the relative dominance of process regimes (i.e., river, tides,
649 waves) in low-accommodation settings. These are prone to preserve less time and deposits, and in
650 particular interflood beds, yet those are the intervals that predominantly record subordinate coastal
651 processes. Lowered preservation potential leads to underestimation of the true influence of these
652 processes in low-accommodation deltaic settings.
- 653 • Onlapping mouth bar strata and compensational stacking patterns demonstrate the amalgamation
654 of mouth bars into mouth bar complexes. This coalescence of mouth bars resulted in sheet-like
655 geometries. Their sand-rich nature and near-absence of fine-grained interflood deposits reflects
656 deposition in a low A/S setting. Deposition occurred at the rim of the Tucumcari Basin, which caused
657 vertical limitations on aggradation and incision close to the equilibrium point of the graded stream
658 profile.

659 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

660 The Lower Cretaceous basinal studies of the Arctic (LoCra) consortium and the Research Centre for
661 Arctic Petroleum Exploration (ARCEx) allocated funding for field expeditions. Sincere thanks go to
662 Stephen Hasiotis for essential feedback on ichnology determination, and Lina Hedvig Line, Cody Myers,
663 Blake Warwick and Edwin Tieman for field-assistance. We thank Gretchen Gurtler and Axel
664 Hungerbuehler from the Mesalands Dinosaur Museum and Natural Sciences Laboratory in Tucumcari for
665 irreplaceable logistical help. Last but definitely not least, we thank the Trigg family for their hospitality
666 and permitting us access to their property, with a special thanks to Sally, Kristen and Rick.

667

668

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Summary of facies (f) in the studied interval at the Trigg Ranch study area, east-central New Mexico

Description		Grainsize	Structures	Biogenic structures	Interpretation
f1	Muddy siltstone	Mud - Si	Structureless, gray or gray-brown muddy siltstone. In places fissile. Max 5 m thick. Commonly vegetated.		BI 4-6: <i>Phycosiphon, Thalassionoides, Planolites, Teichichnus, Chondrites, Helminthopsis</i> . Locally, no bioturbation observed.
f2	Conglomerate	Cgl	Sharp-based, clast-supported, conglomerate, often crudely stratified. No or normal grading. Sub-angular to sub-rounded, poorly - moderately sorted extrabasinal and intrabasinal clasts, average ϕ 0,5–2 cm (max ϕ 6 cm). Extrabasinal clasts are predominantly quartz and chert. Fine- to medium-grained matrix. Bed thickness 10–30 cm.		BI 0-2: <i>Ophiomorpha</i> Predominantly deposition from high-density turbidity currents. When grading and stratification is absent; deposition from debris flows transitional to high-density turbulent flow.
f3	Structureless sandstone	VF - F	Erosional, sharp-based, structureless sandstone with normal grading. Bed tops exhibit asymmetrical ripples locally. Bed thickness 5–80 cm.		BI 0-5: <i>Ophiomorpha, Skolithos, Thalassionoides, Conichnus, Palaeophycus, Rosellia</i> . High BI-indices on horizontal bedding planes. Lack of structure might be due to intensive surface weathering. Rapid suspension fall out. Waning flow energy when rippled top surface.
f4	Parallel-laminated sandstone	VF - F	White and brown sharp-based and -topped, parallel-laminated sandstone. Bed tops exhibit asymmetrical ripples locally. Bed thickness 20–70 cm.		BI 0-3: <i>Skolithos, Ophiomorpha, Rosellia</i> Upper flow conditions
f5	Tabular cross-stratified sandstone	VF - M	Sharp-based and -topped, local lower erosive base, planar and tangential tabular cross-stratified sandstone. Locally, bidirectional. Bed thickness 20–50 cm. In places organized in low-angle accretionary packages. Local wood-remains.		BI 0-4: <i>Ophiomorpha, Skolithos, Thalassionoides, Conichnus, Palaeophycus, Rosellia</i> . High BI-indices on horizontal bedding planes. Migrating straight-crested or sinuous dunes with and without flow separation, lower flow regime.
f6	Pebbly sandstone	F - F-M	Pebbly sandstone with trough and tangential cross-stratification. Intra- and extrabasinal pebbles, average ϕ 0,5–1 cm (max ϕ 3 cm). In places organized in low-angle accretionary packages.		Not observed High-energy unidirectional traction currents and bed load deposition.
f7	Parallel-laminated siltstone	Si - VF	Parallel-laminated siltstone, in places mud-draped. 1–20 cm thick.		Not observed Gentle flow activity with potential tide-influence.
f8	Asymmetrical ripple-laminated siltstone to sandstone	VF - F	Unidirectional current ripples in sharp-based sandstone beds. Sparse climbing and/or sigmoidal ripples. Bed thickness 3–40 cm.		BI 0-3: <i>Skolithos, Ophiomorpha, Macharonichnus</i> Migrating straight-crested ripples. Lower flow regime. Climbing ripples indicate high rates of deposition.
f9	Thoroughly bioturbated sandstone	Si - F	Sharp-based and -topped sandstone beds. Bioturbation obliterates original sedimentary features and bed boundaries. 20 cm–3 m thick.		BI 5-6: <i>Thalassionoides, Ophiomorpha</i> Bioturbation favourable conditions (optimized oxygen, salinity, temperature).
f10	Trough cross-stratified sandstone	F - M	Single to several sets of trough cross-bedding. Set thickness 15–110 cm.		Not observed Migrating sinuous or linguoid dunes. Lower flow regime.
f11	Pebble lag	Cgl	Erosional basal surface with extrabasinal clasts in a finer sandstone matrix. Clast- or matrix-supported, subangular to subrounded. Includes mud-silt rip-up clasts and/or wood debris locally.		Not observed High-energy fluvial channel base. When situated at the base of facies structureless or muddy siltstone, potential lag formed by wave-erosion and reworking.
f12	Paleosol	Si - Vf	Purple siltstone with gray rhizoliths and yellow mottling. Yellow-grey siltstone with yellow mottling. Locally, soil development overprints parallel-laminated sandstone.		Mottling, rhizoliths Subaerial exposure, post-deposition weak to moderate pedogenic development.
f13	Flaser bedding	VS-F	Ripple- and dune-scale cross-stratified sandstone with single or double mud drapes. Locally, climbing ripples and / or bidirectional ripples.		BI 0-1: unidentified Current reversals in subtidal zone. Climbing ripples indicate high rates of deposition.

840

841

FIGURE CAPTIONS

842 FIGURE 1 Schematic depiction of facies stacking patterns with seasonal bedding (i.e., river flood and
843 interflood beds). River flood beds are thicker and more amalgamated towards the top and in the
844 proximal part of the mouth bar. A progressive decrease of preserved interbedding shows a similar trend.
845 Note that the occurrence of interflood beds is expected to be lower in the scenario with a lower A/S
846 ratio. Modified after Gugliotta et al. (2016a).

847

848 FIGURE 2 Coalescence of individual mouth bars forms mouth bar complexes and delta lobes, which
849 together form the building blocks of a delta system. Mouth bar complexes are related to the same pulse
850 of progradation and their shallow distributary channel network are genetically linked. Mouth bar lobes
851 consist of mouth bar complexes related to the same primary distributary feeder channel. Note that the
852 occurrence of fringe deposits is limited in proximal areas at all scales. Terminology used in previous
853 works and cited in the text is listed.

854

855 FIGURE 3 (A) Regional map of the Western Interior during the Early – Late Cretaceous (Albian-
856 Cenomanian) showing the approximate location of the Western Interior Seaway extent (light blue,
857 Blakey, 2014) and main basins that formed during Laramide Orogeny and Colorado Orogeny (modified
858 after Van Yperen et al. *in press-JSR*). The study area is situated at the rim of the Tucumcari Basin (red
859 square). GRB = Green River Basin; UB= Uinta Basin; DB (Colorado) = Denver Basin; SJB = San Juan Basin,
860 TB = Tucumcari Basin; DB (New Mexico) = Dalhart Basin; BD = Bravo Dome. (B) Chronostratigraphic chart
861 for the Jurassic to Cenomanian successions in Northeastern (NE) and East-central New Mexico.
862 References used for compilation; Waage, 1955; Holbrook et al., 2006; Oboh-Ikuenobe et al., 2008; Van
863 Yperen et al., JSR; Van Yperen et al., NMGS. Albian-Cenomanian boundary from Scott et al. (2018). SB =
864 Sequence boundary, TS = Transgressive Surface

865

866 FIGURE 4 Geologic map of the study area around the Trigg Ranch, in San Miguel County, showing the
867 outcrop extent and location of the collected dataset. Drone data was collected outside the main study
868 area as well (see inset). Locations of the photopanoramas in Fig. 13, 14 and 15 are also indicated.

869

870 FIGURE 5 Photographs of selected facies (Table 1). (A) Clast supported conglomerate (f2) alternating
871 with structureless sandstone (f3) and/or planar lamination (f4) or cross-stratification (f5). The contact

872 represents an erosive surface related to the reworking of successive bypassing events. This facies
873 assemblage occurs in axial mouth-bar deposits (FA2). (B) Trough cross-stratified pebbly sandstone (f6) in
874 axial mouth-bar deposits (FA2). Common in off-axis deposits (FA3) as well. (C) Structureless sandstone
875 (f3) with wood fragments and low index bioturbation (BI 1) in mouth-bar off-axis deposits (FA3).
876 Common in mouth-bar fringe deposits (FA4) as well. O = *Ophiomorpha*. (D) Thin to thick-bedded (5–40
877 cm), fine-grained structureless sandstone (f3) and cross-stratified sandstone (f5) in mouth bar fringe
878 (FA4) deposits. Interbedding with asymmetrical ripple-laminated sandstone (facies 8). (E) Structureless
879 sandstone (f3) interbedded with asymmetrical ripple-laminated sandstone (f8), with high-index
880 bioturbation on horizontal bedding planes. This is typical for mouth bar fringe deposits (FA4). (F)
881 Bioturbated parallel laminated sandstone (f4) with scattered pebble lags in mouth bar fringe deposits
882 (FA4). O = *Ophiomorpha*. 15-cm pencil and 33-cm hammer for scale.

883

884 FIGURE 6 Photographs of selected facies (Table 1). (A) Bedsets of tabular cross-stratified sandstone (f5)
885 in fluvial distributary channel-fill deposits (FA6). (B) Weak pedogenesis overprinting parallel-laminated
886 sandstone (f6) at the top of a fluvial distributary channel fill (FA6). (C) Tide-influenced distributary
887 channel-fill deposits (FA7), with bidirectional tabular cross-stratified sandstone (f5) and ripple-laminated
888 sandstone (f8), overlying sand-dominated heterolithic deposits (f3, f13). (D) Flaser bedding (f13) with
889 climbing ripples and upwards-increasing sand content, in tide-influenced distributary channel-fill
890 deposits (FA7). (E) Zoom-in of c, with detail of flaser bedding (f13). (F) Gray-brown muddy siltstone (f1),
891 interpreted as part of interdistributary bay deposits (FA8). 15-cm pencil and 33-cm hammer for scale.

892

893 FIGURE 7 Photographs of selected ichnotaxa. (A) Muddy siltstone with BI 4–5 in prodelta deposits (FA1).
894 (B) Alternating conglomerate (f2) and structureless sandstone (f3) with non-uniform BI 0–3 in axial
895 mouth-bar deposits (FA2). (C) Structureless sandstone beds with bed tops that exhibit asymmetrical
896 ripples (f3) interbedded with silt to very-fine-grained sandstone (f7). Trace fossils include *Skolithos* and
897 several undefined traces. This facies and trace fossil assemblage occur in interdistributary bay deposits
898 (FA8). (D) High-index (BI 4–5) bioturbation at a basal bedding plane in mouth-bar fringe deposits (FA4).
899 (E) Low-diversity trace fossil suite in mouth bar off-axis to fringe deposits (FA3, FA4). (F) Thoroughly
900 bioturbated sandstone (BI 5–6) in which traces are only sporadically identifiable. (G) Bioturbated top
901 surface in mouth-bar off-axis deposits (FA3). Th = *Thalassinoides*, He = *Helminthopsis*, Pl = *Planolites*, S =
902 *Skolithos*, O = *Ophiomorpha*, Pa = *Palaeophycus*, C = *Conichnus*, R = *Rosselia*. 15-cm pencil and 33-cm
903 hammer for scale.

904

905 FIGURE 8 Mouth bar facies associations (FA2-FA5) in the low-accommodation Mesa Rica deltaic system.
906 Selected photographs show representative parts or complete logged sections of the different sub-
907 environments referred to as 'axis' (FA2), 'off-axis' (FA3), 'fringe' (FA4), and 'distal fringe' (FA5).
908 Bidirectional paleocurrent measurements support the interpretation of tide-influenced distal fringe
909 deposits (D).

910

911 FIGURE 9 Photographs of fluvial facies associations that occur in the S1 and S2 successions. (A) Fine-
912 grained abandoned channel fill incising S1 mouth bar deposits. Location: Rain Ridge (Fig.4). (B)
913 Multistory fluvial distributary channel (FA6) bound by composite erosional surface, within the S1.
914 Location: Anna's point (Fig. 4). (C) Interpretation and line drawing of b. The multistory fluvial body
915 incises into the underlying Juarrasic Morrison Formation. (D) Heterolithic deposits interpreted as tide-
916 influenced distributary channel fill (FA7), in S2. Location: Fowl Canyon (Fig. 4)

917

918 FIGURE 10. Correlation fence diagram illustrating 3D facies distribution offered by physical correlation
919 and interpolation of strike-oriented cross sections. Map shows the true orientation and distances,
920 whereas the diagram is simplified ed to maximize clarity. Today's topography is visualized, except for the
921 S1 succession because this is the main focus of the paper. The MRS2 is used as a datum for the fence
922 diagram. Sketch logs are not depicted and rose diagrams display paleocurrent data from S1 grouped
923 according to facies associations. MRS = Maximum Regressive Surface.

924

925 FIGURE 11 Schematic representation of a strike-oriented cross-section through an individual mouth bar
926 indicating the distinguished components. Displayed logs are taken from originally measured logs to
927 enhance differences between components. Mouth bar axis to distal fringe trends reveal changes in flow
928 regime, bed thickness, occurrence of interflood beds, bioturbation index, and tide-influence. Not all
929 fringe components show tide-influence. An increase in tide-influence (imaged by bidirectional cross-
930 stratification, right limb of the mouth bar) is accompanied with a decreasing bioturbation index. See text
931 for further discussion.

932

933 FIGURE 12 River flood and interflood beds in FA4 deposits (mouth-bar fringe). River flood beds have a
934 sharp base, coarser grain size and lower bioturbation index (BI 0–3) than interflood deposits. In places,
935 the interflood is represented only by a thoroughly bioturbated surface (a). Bioturbated horizons

936 commonly require several months to form (e.g. Gringras et al., 2002) and contrast with upper flow
937 regime beds interpreted as river flood event beds, which can be as short as a few hours (Gugliotta et al.,
938 2016a and references herein). Note that the upper part of the facies association is thoroughly
939 bioturbated in e, f which indicates early abandonment. Th = *Thalassinoides*, R = *Roselia*. 15-cm pencil
940 for scale.

941

942 FIGURE 13 (a) Field photograph showing along-strike internal mouth bar geometries. The white arrow
943 indicates average palaeocurrent direction. Inset box shows location of b. (b) Zoom in on subtle lensoid
944 geometries. (c) Subtle lensoid geometries show accompanying onlapping, downlapping, and truncation
945 relationships.

946

947 FIGURE 14 Field photograph (and interpretation) of a mouth bar section, showing low-angle
948 accretionary surfaces (clinoforms) top-truncated by distributary channels. Note the cross-stratification
949 that is locally in opposite direction than larger accretionary surfaces. Clinoforms could evidence oblique
950 compensational growth of mouth bars as these are complex geobodies that grow in a radial pattern. See
951 Figs 4, 10 for location. See text for further discussion.

952

953 FIGURE 15 (A) Strike-oriented photograph, see Figs 4, 10 for location. (B) Line drawing and
954 interpretation of A, showing onlapping relationships between bed sets. (C) Vertical exaggeration of B,
955 enhancing onlapping relationships (red arrow). The mouth bar laps onto older fringe strata, creating
956 inter-mouth bar bounding surfaces. This represents the bounding surface between two individual mouth
957 bars in which the younger mouth bar onlaps the off-axis and fringe sections of the previous. Note that
958 the older mouth bar shows lateral facies transitions from heterolithic fringe (D), to sand-prone off-axis
959 deposits (E), to mouth bar axis deposits with common soft sediment deformation and an absence of
960 trace fossils (F).

961

962 FIGURE 16 (A) Mouth bars range 1.4–1.8 km, based on the distribution of mouth bar components,
963 distributary channels and interpolation between them. Where no mouth bar abbreviation is indicated,
964 strata are eroded by trunk channels. These trunk channels are not visualized in the figure as these
965 reflect a later generation and feed a delta outside and down-dip of the study area. Paleocurrent
966 readings were collected from mouth bar deposits. (B) Schematic representation of the relationship

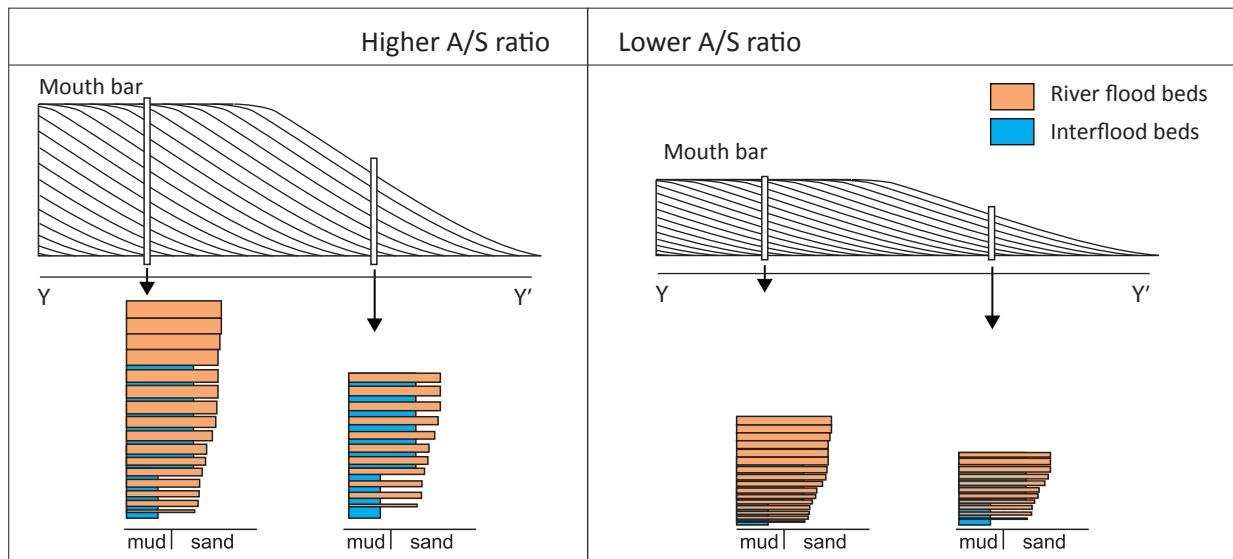
967 between two individual mouth bars. This is based on observed abrupt vertical changes, which we
968 interpreted as a spatial shift and stacking of individual mouth bars.

969

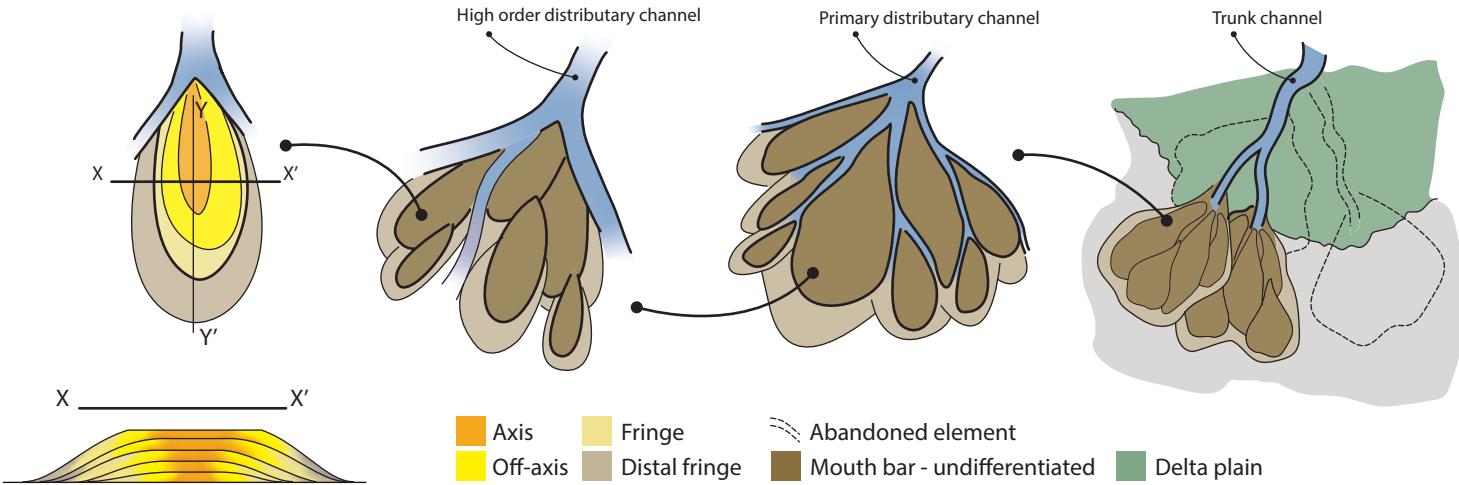
970

971 FIGURE 17: From individual mouth bar to mouth bar complex. (A) A single mouth bar shows decreasing
972 river jet strength and increase in recording of interflood beds from axis to distal fringe. (B) Multiple
973 mouth bars occupy all available accommodation. Every stage (t1-t4) shows the cumulative preservation
974 of river jet deposits and interflood beds. Successive deposition of mouth bars causes reworking of
975 fringes and subsequently erodes the previously deposited interflood beds, thererby the potential
976 recording of subordinate coastal processes. (C) Eventually, a primary distributary channel erodes
977 through the mouth bar complex and will intiate new mouth bar deposition beyond the stranded mouth
978 bar complex.

979



This study: Mouth bar Mouth bar complex Delta lobe Delta system



(Stream) mouth bar

Mouth bar complex /
Bar assemblages

Delta lobe

Enge et al., 2010

Mouth bar

Mouth bar complex

Delta lobe

Kurcinka et al., 2018
Jerrett et al., 2018

Jet deposit

Jet deposit complex /
Sub-lobe

Delta lobe

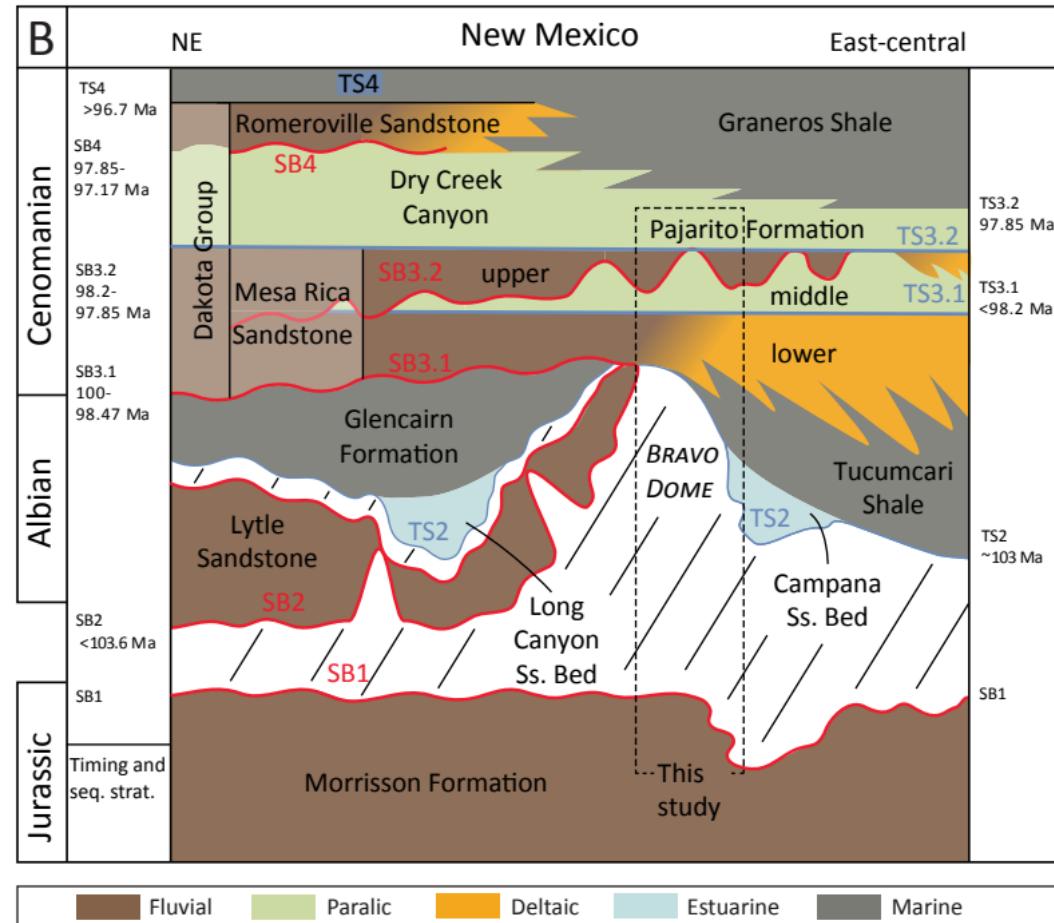
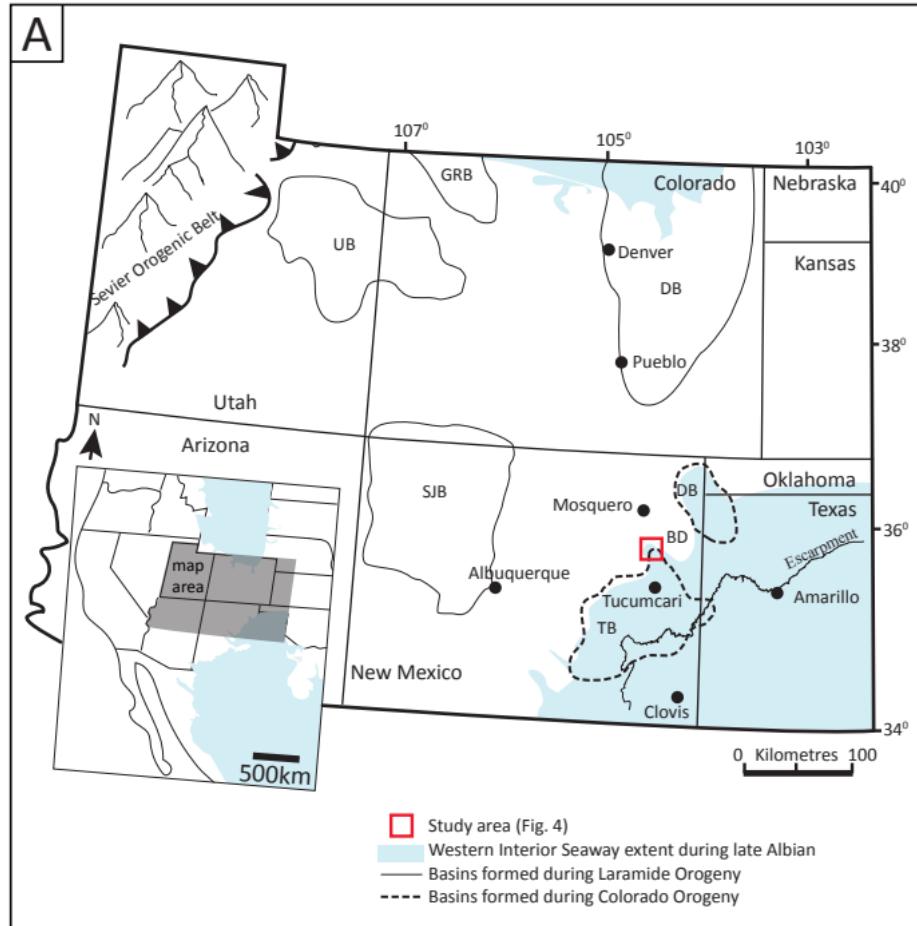
Wellner et al., 2005

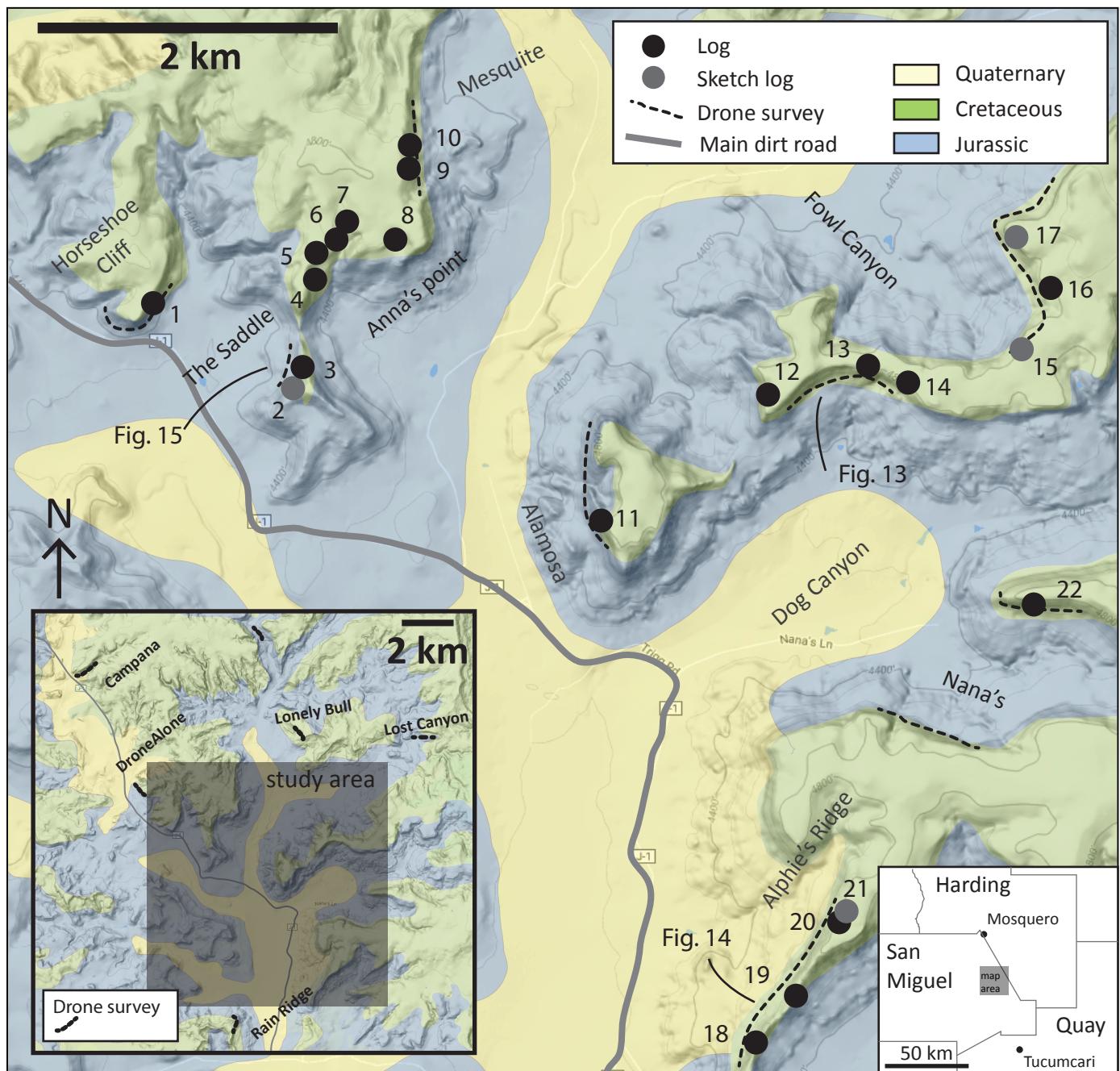
Mouth bar element set

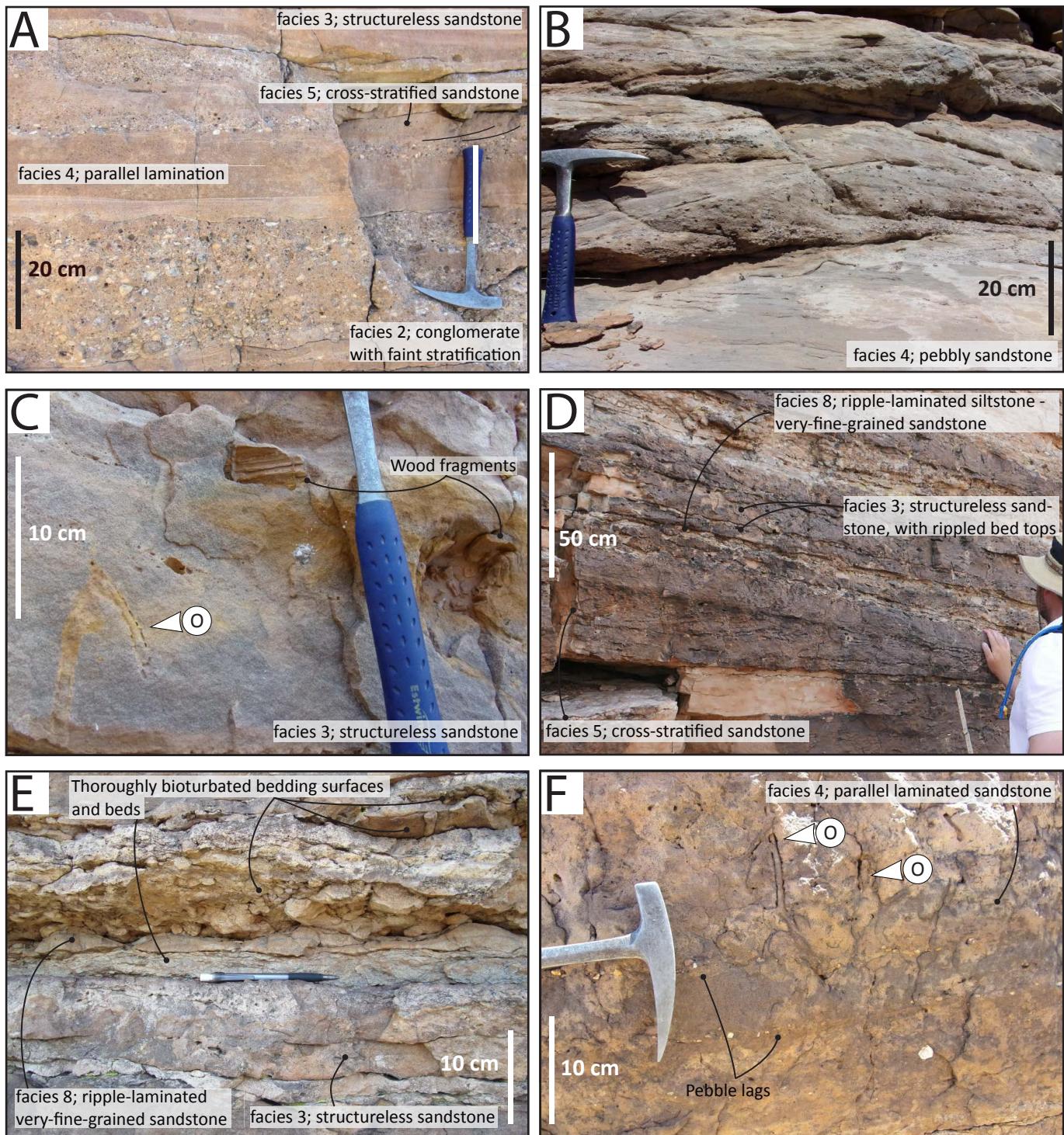
Mouth bar element complex

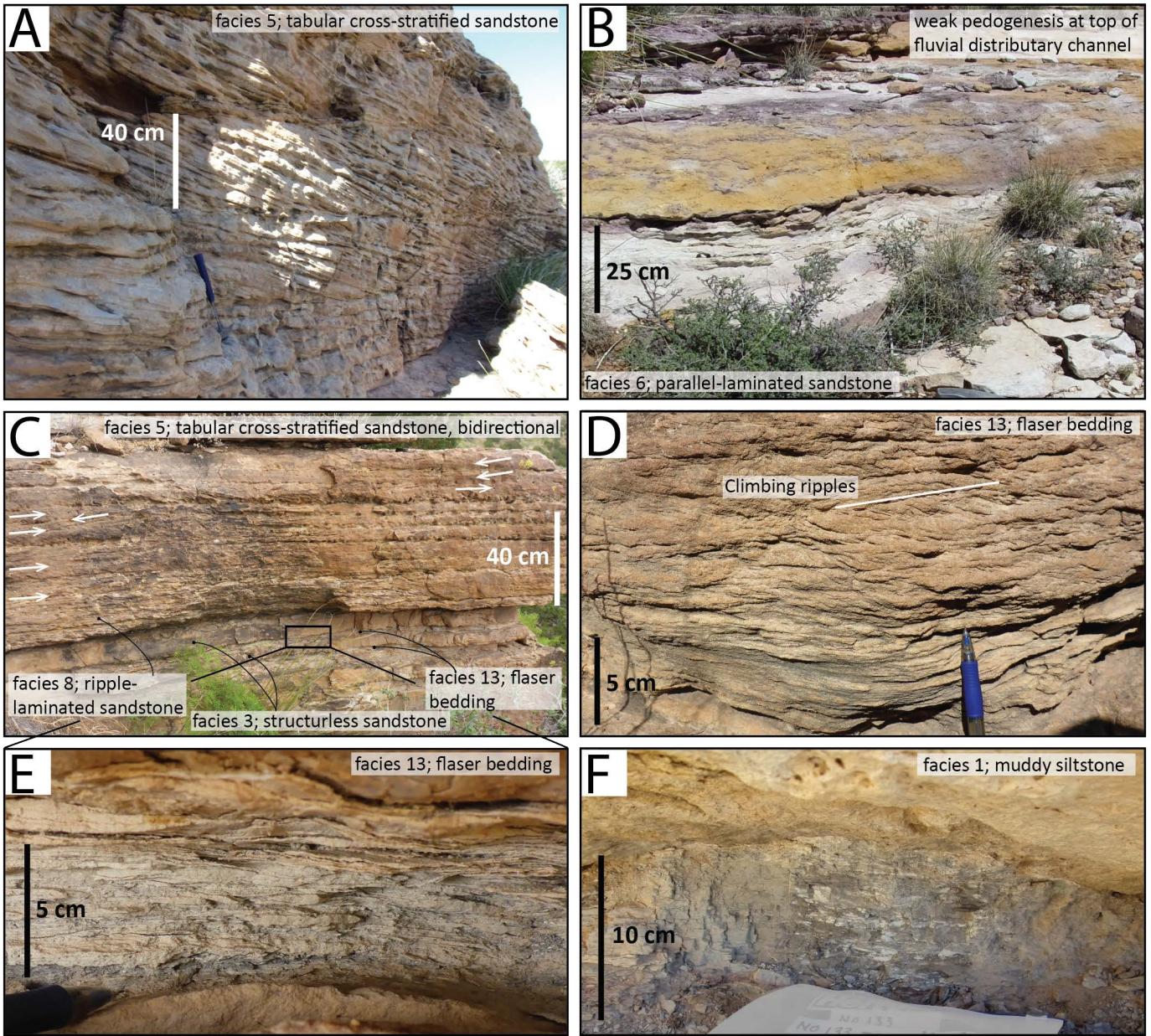
Element complex set

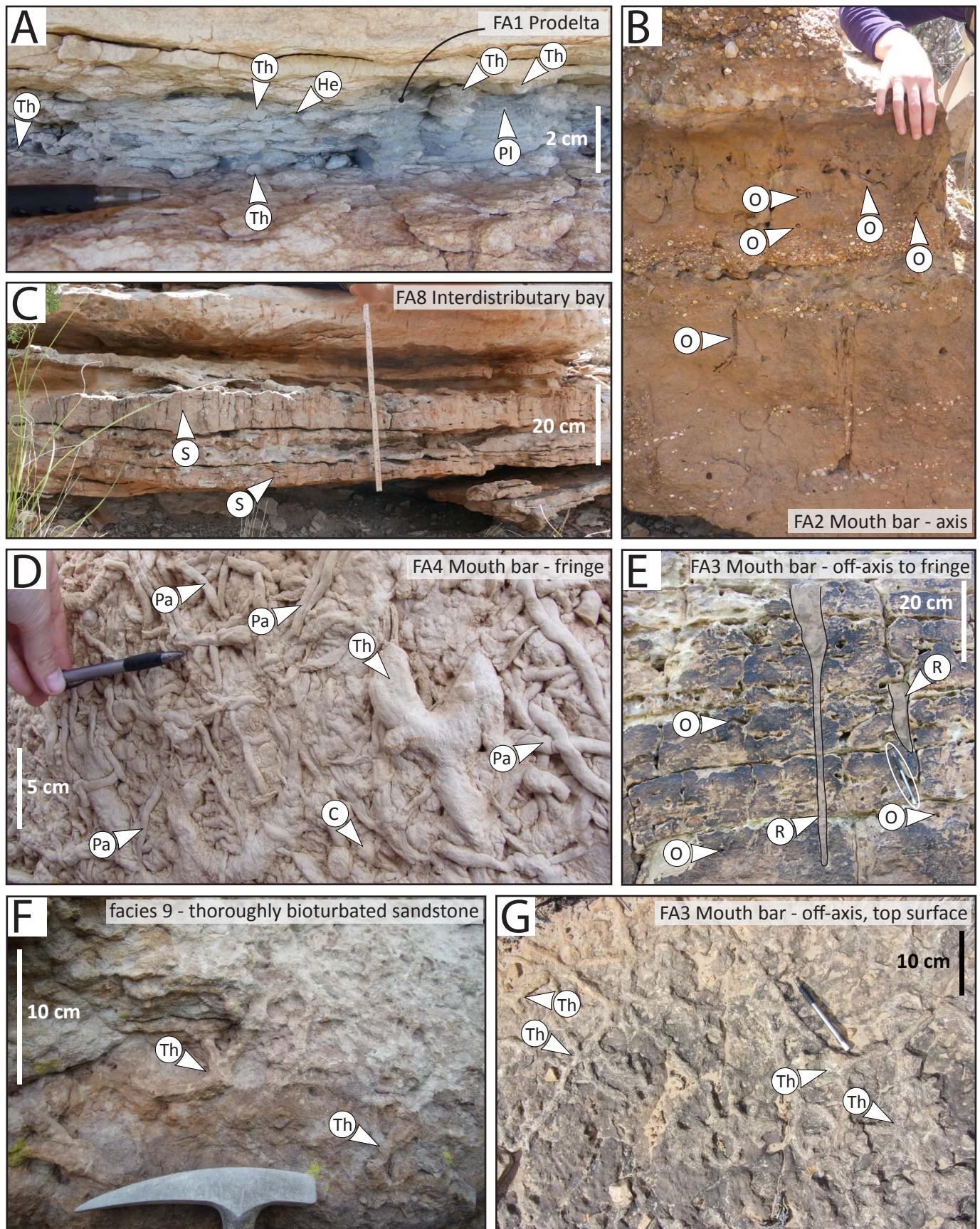
Ainsworth et al., 2016

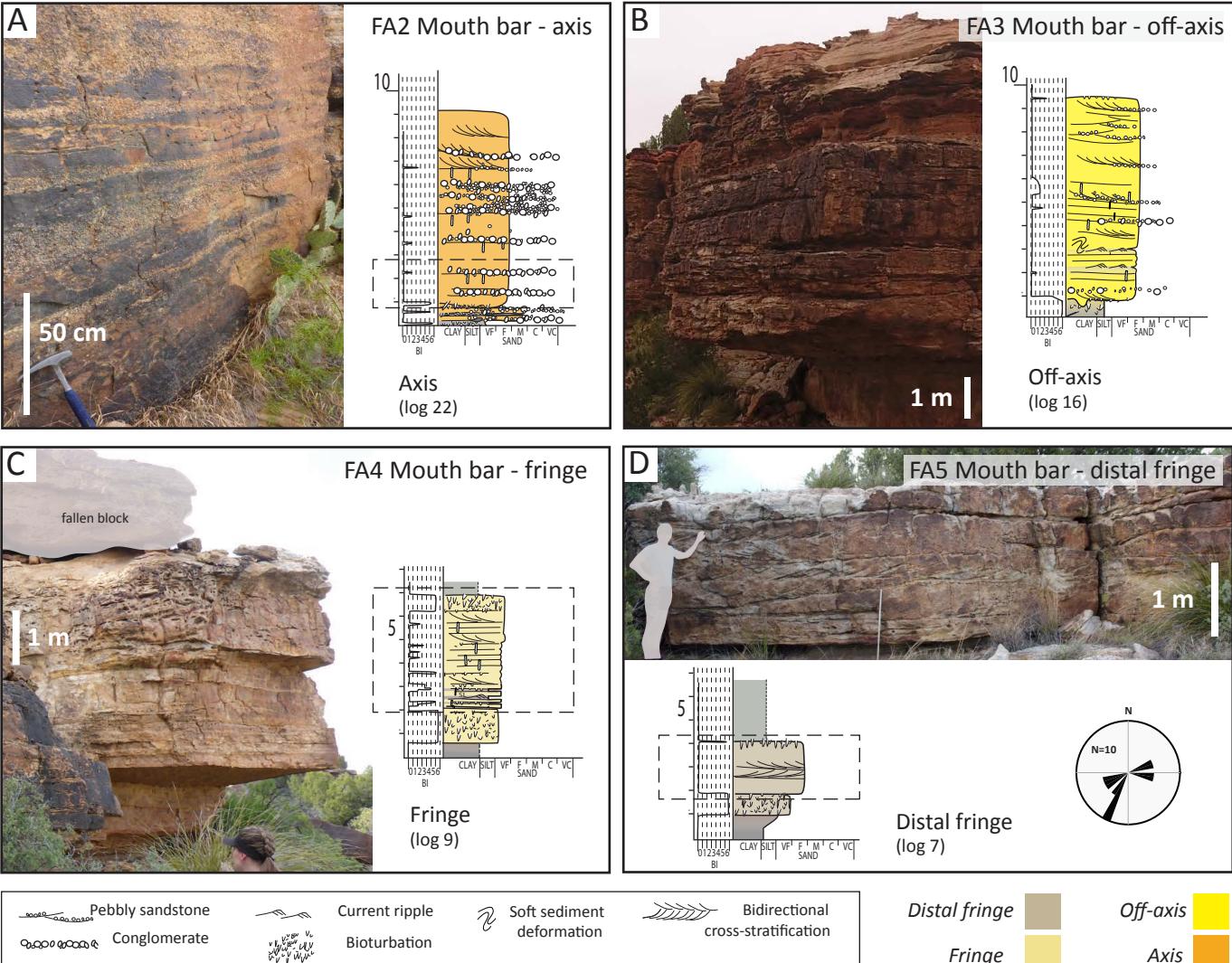












Pebby sandstone

Conglomerate

Current ripple

Bioturbation

Soft sediment deformation

Bidirectional cross-stratification

Distal fringe

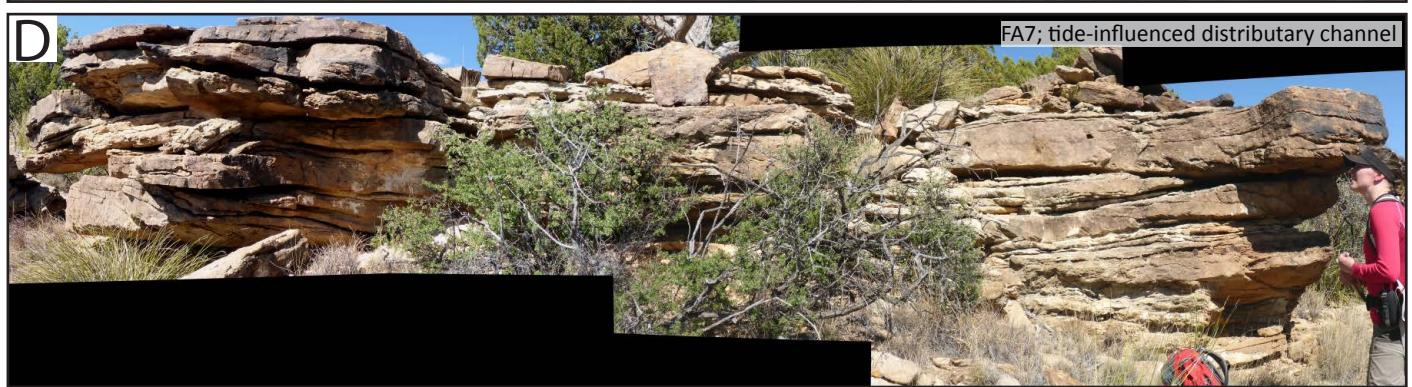
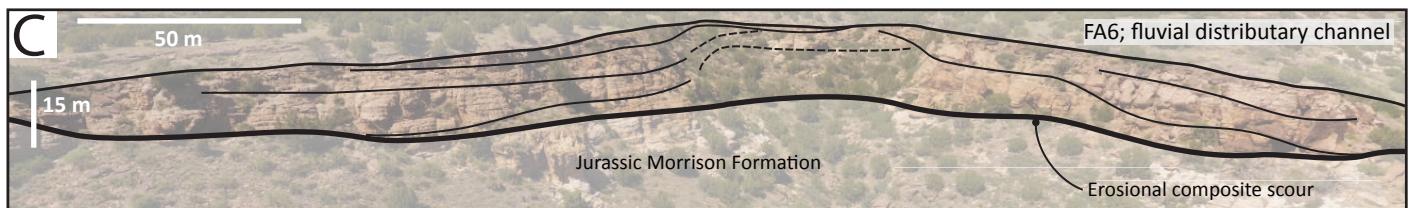
Off-axis

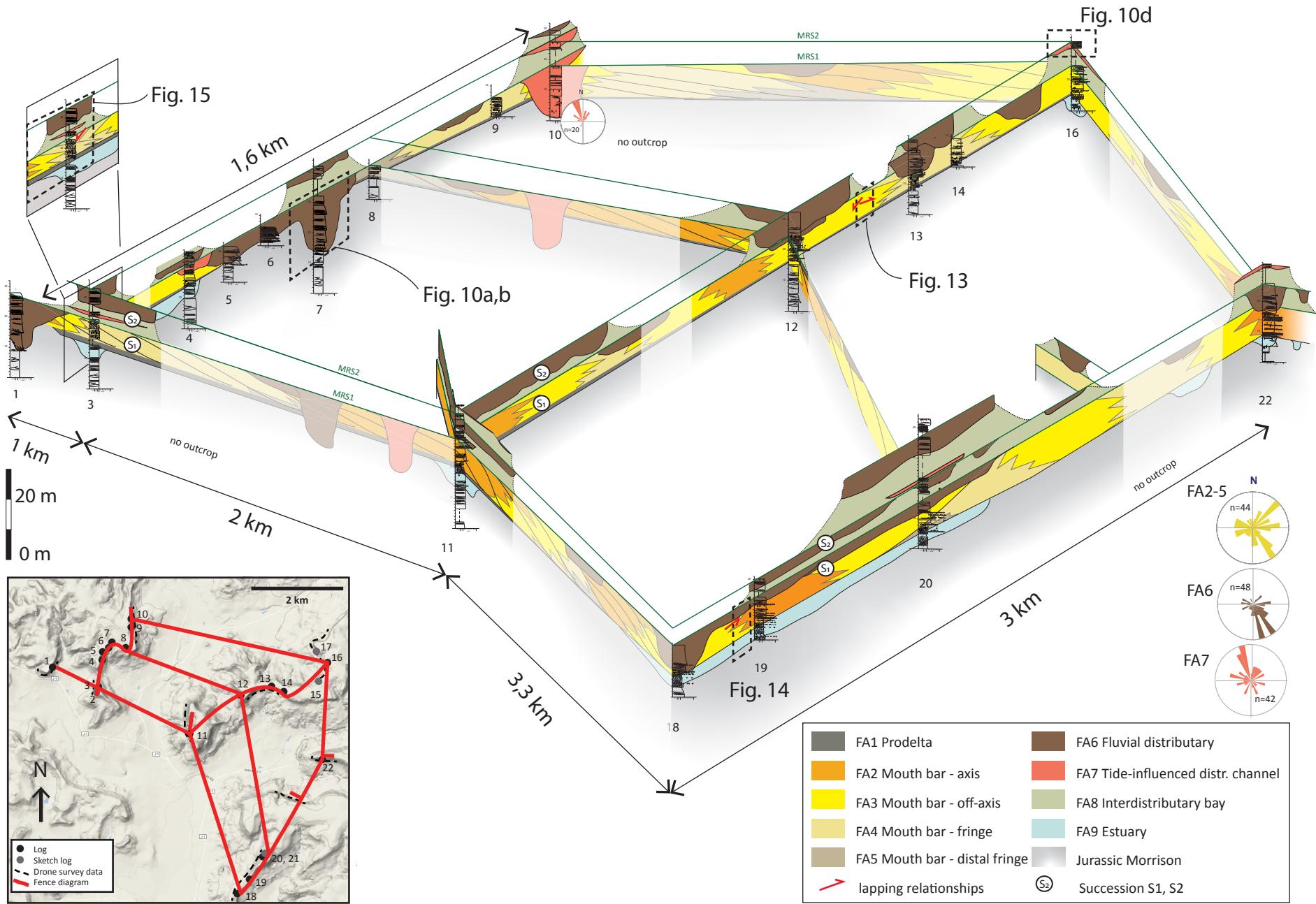
1 m

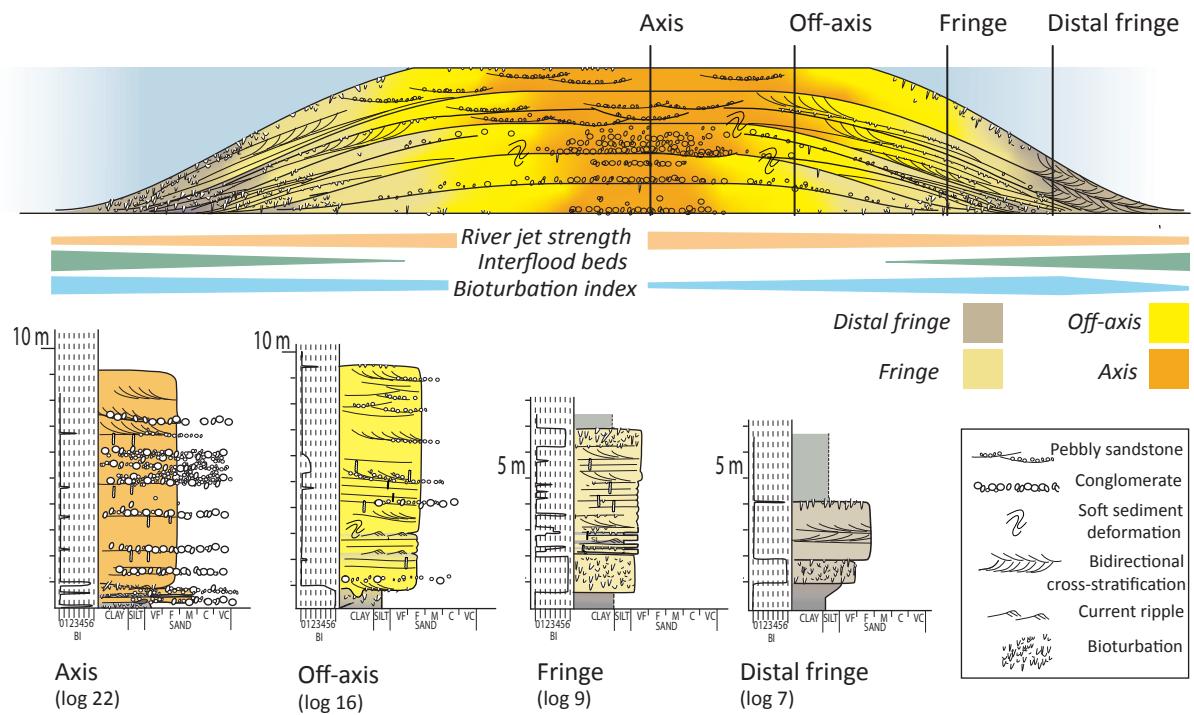
Fringe

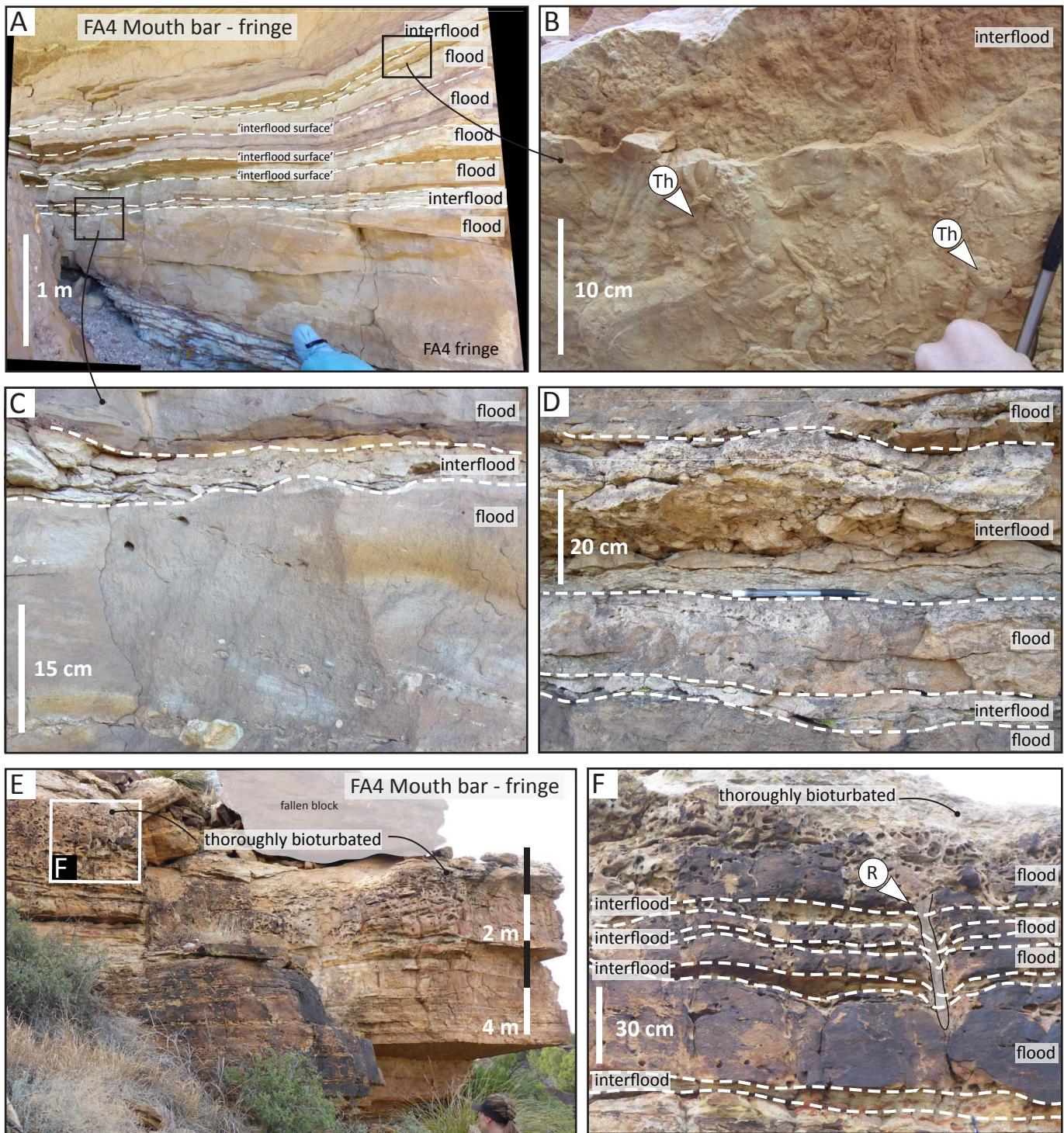
Axis

1 m

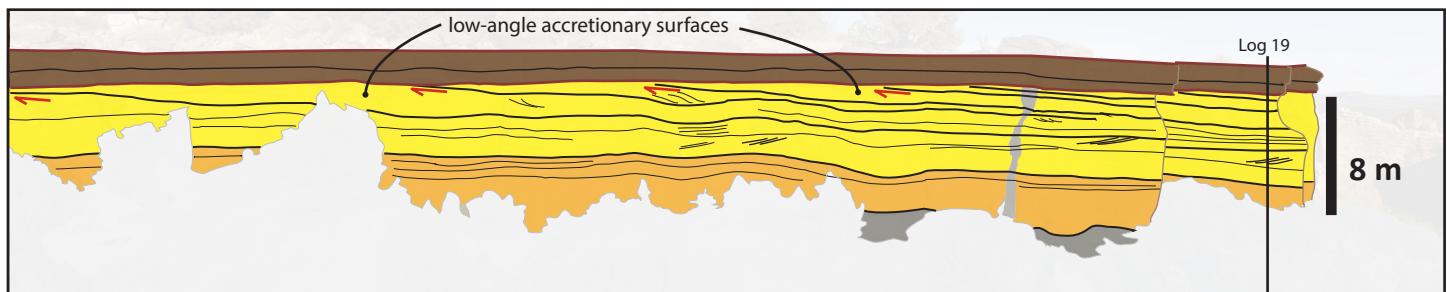












FA1 Prodelta FA2 Mouth bar - axis FA3 Mouth bar - off-axis FA6 Fluvial distributary channel

